



МІНІСТЕРСТВО ВНУТРІШНІХ СПРАВ УКРАЇНИ
НАЦІОНАЛЬНА АКАДЕМІЯ ВНУТРІШНІХ СПРАВ
Кафедра правничої лінгвістики



ЛІНГВІСТИКА ТА ПРАВО У БЕЗПЕКОВІЙ СФЕРІ: ЗАРУБІЖНИЙ ДОСВІД

Матеріали
II Міжвузівської курсантської наукової конференції
(Київ, 5 грудня 2022 року)



Київ
2022

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DARKNET INVESTIGATION PROBLEMS

The «dark web» is an internet shadow world where the good and the bad co-exist. On the good side, the dark web provides anonymous, highly secure communication channels to shield classified government activity and protect reform agents such as human rights activists and journalists opposed by oppressive foreign regimes. On the bad side, the dark web has emerged as an important hub of criminal commerce, a fully functional marketplace where hidden customers can buy from hidden sellers with relative confidence, often with customer ratings available, just as on the public-facing web [3].

Law enforcement and judicial agencies around the globe undertook a joint action against dark markets running as hidden services on Tor network 16 European countries, alongside counterparts from the United States, brought down several marketplaces as part of a unified international action from Europol's operational coordination centre in The Hague. The action aimed to stop the sale, distribution and promotion of illegal and harmful items, including weapons and drugs, which were being sold on online 'dark' marketplaces. Operation Onymous, coordinated by Europol's European Cybercrime Centre (EC3), the FBI, the U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement's (ICE), Homeland Security Investigations (HSI) and Eurojust, resulted in 17 arrests of vendors and administrators running these online marketplaces and more than 410 hidden services being taken down. In addition, bitcoins worth approximately USD 1 million, EUR 180 000 euro in cash, drugs, gold and silver were seized. The dark market Silk Road 2.0 was taken down by the FBI and the U.S. ICE HSI, and the operator was arrested [4].

The anonymity of illicit activity on the dark web cloaks an enterprise of mounting concern to authorities. One site alone generated an estimated \$219 million in annual revenue as of 2017, according to a new NIJ-supported report by the RAND Corporation (RAND). The report, "Identifying Law Enforcement Needs for Conducting Criminal Investigations Involving Evidence on the Dark Web," explores better ways to investigate dark web crimes. Although the dark web still accounts for just a fraction of all illicit sales online, it appears poised for rapid growth, according to the report. The criminal side of the dark web relies on anonymizing technology and cryptocurrency to hide its trade in an assortment of contraband such as opioids and other drugs, bomb parts, weapons large and small, child pornography, social security numbers, body parts – even criminal acts for hire. The dark web's anonymity not only

encourages illegal activities, it keeps many law enforcement agencies largely unaware of its existence, even while their jurisdictions are impacted by online transactional crimes. To raise the visibility of the dark web among law enforcement agencies and identify tools that can help them police it, an NIJ-supported gathering of experts identified law enforcement's key dark web challenges and opportunities, as well as high-priority needs for addressing them. The group included experts from federal, state, and local agencies; academic researchers; and civil rights advocates. Organized on behalf of NIJ by RAND and the Police Executive Research Forum, the experts' workshop yielded high-level recommendations focused on the following:

- Training – training officers and investigators to spot relevant dark web evidence.
- Information-Sharing – improving information sharing among agencies, both domestically and internationally.
- New Structures for Cooperation – examining the benefits of building cross-organization structures for cooperation.
- New Forensic Standards – developing new standards for forensic tools to collect dark web evidence on computers.
- New Laws for Package Inspection – researching ways to modernize laws facilitating inspection of packages shipped by mail or other services.
- Research on Crime Connections – researching the increasingly connected nature of crime to help law enforcement recognize and address both highly visible traditional crime and the less-visible crime on the dark web.

In all, the experts' workshop identified 40 problems or opportunities and 46 potential solutions or needs related to dark web investigations. Nineteen needs were deemed high-priority, across four general subject areas: training, organizational cooperation and information-sharing, tool development, and other problems and opportunities. «Taken together», said the RAND report on the workshop and its results, «the high-priority needs identified during the workshop represent a way to prepare law enforcement at all levels to better address the challenge posed by cybercrime, now and into the future». A key problem for law enforcement spotlighted by the workshop experts is a lack of knowledge of how the dark web operates and how criminals have begun to use it, the report said [5].

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INTERNATIONAL LAW AND THE WAR IN UKRAINE

Russia invaded Ukraine in the early hours of February 24, 2022. The attack came almost exactly eight years after Russia annexed Crimea. Attacking the country on multiple fronts and targeting numerous cities with missile and aerial strikes as well as ground forces. By the following day, its forces were closing in on Kyiv, the capital. Ukraine has since requested the help of the international community which has responded with military and humanitarian aid and harsh sanctions on Russia. The country has also sought relief at international forums such as before the International Court of Justice and the International Criminal Court.

Russia's assault is a clear violation of the United Nations Charter and that sanctions imposed by the United States and others are a legally permissible response. They also argued that, despite the failure of the U.N. Security Council to prevent the conflict in Ukraine, «this might be a moment for a renewed and more inclusive engagement around the legitimate interpretation of the international law that governs the use of force».

Serious violations of human rights (e.g. the ban of torture, right to life) in many respects overlap in substance with international crimes, and core human rights apply in war as in peace times. Under human rights law, states have an obligation to persecute and punish perpetrators of certain serious human rights abuses through their domestic legal systems. International human rights courts such as the European Court of Human Rights cannot persecute individual perpetrators, but can order remedies for victims of rights abuses.

The Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court provides the definitions of core international crimes [5]:

Genocide. According to art. 6 of the Rome Statute, 'genocide' means any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group, as such.

Crimes against humanity, according to art. 7 of the Rome Statute, when committed as part of a widespread or systematic attack directed against any civilian population.

War crimes, according to Article 8 of the Rome Statute, war crimes include:

- Wilful killing;

- Torture or inhuman treatment, including biological experiments;
- Wilfully causing great suffering, or serious injury to body or health, and many others.[5]

Crime of aggression, according to Article 8bis of the Rome Statute, the means ‘the planning, preparation, initiation or execution, by a person in a position effectively to exercise control over or to direct the political or military action of a State, of an act of aggression which, by its character, gravity and scale, constitutes a manifest violation of the Charter of the United Nations’.

Since the beginning of the war in Ukraine, the international community has raised alarm about the growing number of war crimes. The Law of Armed Conflict consists in international treaties (such as the 1949 Geneva Conventions [1] establishing the rules of International Humanitarian Law, or the 1948 Genocide Convention [2]) and customary international law. All together these treaties aim at, regulating the relations between parties to the conflict. Concretely, war crimes refer to the serious violations of international humanitarian law. They are now listed in Article 8 of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court [3], adopted in 1998. Some states are not subject to the Court’s jurisdiction because they have not ratified the Statute (including Russia and Ukraine).

In the midst of war, human rights and international law institutions have responded with unprecedented speed to the unfolding crisis, not least due to the strong engagement of the Ukraine government in multilateral fora. While these institutions can deliver little immediate relief for Ukraine citizens, the initiatives have important political functions: they show the political and legal alternatives to the logic of war chosen by the Russian government; they contribute to formalizing international consensus and providing independent legal assessments of the attack; and, most importantly, they prepare the ground to ensure accountability for crimes committed in the context of the war.

The law is everywhere, even if we cannot see it. All states around the world have sided with the law and are taking advantage of the possibilities that it offers. Russia’s exclusion from the United Nations Human Rights Council is a recent illustration of this. This is part of a turning point taking place in international relations. We are now aware of the strength of the multilateral system.

Most recently, German Chancellor Olaf Scholz described the Russian invasion as a «flagrant breach of international law». For him, the death of thousands of civilians are «war crimes for which the Russian President bears responsibility» [4].

It cannot be ruled out that the right of peoples to self-determination is a fundamental right under international law. That means that any Russian ethnic minority in Ukraine has a right to determine its political status and pursue its economic, social, and cultural development. Yet, there is no right to unilaterally secede from a state and form a separate state.

One conclusion then might be that international law has proven generally ineffectual when it comes to checking great powers' actions. Another might be that it is in the interest of every member of the international community – including great powers – to adhere to a system of rules, even when there are short-term incentives to defect. In fact, this might be a moment for a renewed and more inclusive engagement around the legitimate interpretation of the international law that governs the use of force.

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SPECIFICS OF POLICE WORK IN THE CONDITIONS OF MILITARY CONFLICTS

The National Police of Ukraine is a central executive body that serves the public by ensuring the protection of human rights and freedoms, combating crime, maintaining public safety and order [1].

In its activities, the National Police is guided by the Constitution, international treaties of Ukraine, the Law «On the National Police» and other laws of Ukraine, acts of the President of Ukraine and the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, as well as acts of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine issued in accordance with them, and other normative legal acts [2, Article 6].

According to Art. 1 of the Law of Ukraine (hereinafter – the Law) «On the Legal Regime of Martial Law», martial law is a special legal regime introduced in Ukraine or in some of its regions in the event of armed aggression or threat of attack, danger to the state independence of Ukraine, its territorial integrity and provides for the provision of the relevant state authorities, military command, military administrations and local self-government bodies with the powers necessary to avert the threat, repel

armed aggression and ensure national security and security, elimination of the threat to the state independence of Ukraine, its territorial integrity, as well as temporary restrictions of constitutional rights and freedoms of man and citizen and the rights and legitimate interests of legal entities, caused by the threat, with indication of the term of validity of these restrictions [3].

On February 24, 2022, at 5:30 am, martial law was introduced for the first 30 days. The decision was made in connection with the military aggression of the Russian Federation against Ukraine. 212 In accordance with the decision of the National Security and Defense Council of Ukraine, enacted in accordance with the established procedure by the Decree of the President of Ukraine, military formations formed in accordance with the laws of Ukraine are involved, together with law enforcement agencies, in solving problems related to the introduction and implementation of measures of the legal regime of martial law, in accordance with their purpose and specifics of activity, enshrined in Part 1 of Article 16 of the Law of Ukraine «On the Legal Regime of Martial Law» [3].

The work of the National Police of Ukraine (hereinafter – the NPU) has changed somewhat, namely, their powers have been expanded for the period of martial law. Thus, the NPU will be able to receive free of charge information from state bodies, local self-government bodies, legal entities, in particular regarding prisoners of war, in accordance with Part 36 of Article 23 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

The National Police receives the right to escort persons detained on suspicion of committing a criminal offense, taken into custody, accused or sentenced to imprisonment, as well as to guard them in the courtroom, according to Part 37 of Article 23 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

They are also authorized for operational mine clearance, in terms of detection, neutralization and destruction of explosives that are means, objects, instruments of committing administrative or criminal offenses; technical and forensic support of the scene inspection; organization of work on the provision, deprivation and confirmation of police officers' admission to special explosive works – Part 39, 40, 41 of Article 23 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

Law enforcement officers expand cooperation with the European Police Office (Europol) and act as the National Contact Point between the competent authorities of Ukraine and Europol; represent and ensure the fulfillment of Ukraine's obligations in the International Criminal Police Organization – Interpol and act as the National Central Bureau of Interpol; collect biometric data of persons in accordance with Part 42, 43, 45 of Article 23 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

Attestation of police officers shall not be conducted during martial law, as stipulated in Part 6 of Article 57 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

Police officers of conscription age are deferred from conscription for the entire period of their service – paragraph 2, part 6 of Article 59 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

Public control over the activities of the police, as defined by Articles 86, 88 and 90 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police», is not carried out during wartime – part 1 of Article 90-1 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

Police officers are guaranteed free medical care in healthcare institutions of any form of ownership during martial law, according to Part 10 of Article 95 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» [1].

It is worth noting that before the introduction of martial law, police officers were also guaranteed free medical care, but only in health care institutions of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine.

Yevhen Zhukov (call sign – Marshal), paratrooper of the 79th airborne brigade of the Chief of the Patrol Police and participant of the war in eastern Ukraine, also told about the peculiarities of the work of the police during martial law. He notes that law enforcement officers work in an enhanced mode – they ensure the operation of checkpoints, check documents and vehicles, evacuate the population, search and investigate saboteurs, as well as counteract looting. According to Yevhen: «When a full-scale war broke out in Ukraine, police officers do their job in all areas: those who burn tanks, those who fight, those who help civilians, those who feed them, those who evacuate people... So we showed our true face» [4].

Given the above, it can be stated that the National Police officers are doing everything possible and even more, which is not part of their duties during martial law. The police officers have shown that they can ensure internal order, from interaction with the military command to mopping up the cities after liberation from the Russian occupiers, while joining the established patrol police regiment on a voluntary basis. We can say with confidence that the police officers really show how qualified they are, performing their immediate professional duties and even more than the people of Ukraine could expect from them.

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EUROPEAN EXPERIENCE IN COMBATING ORGANIZED CRIME

In my opinion, foreign experience in combating crime is an important topic. Therefore, I am interested in researching this particular issue.

Ukraine has declared its desire to join the European Community of Developed Democracies, which is characterized by a high level of security, well-being and living standards, as well as the priority of human rights, the rule of law and the need to punish the guilty. Strengthening democratic institutions is impossible without reducing the negative results of corruption and organized crime, which currently remain one of the biggest threats to our country.

In Ukraine, there has long been an urgent need to develop an effective strategy to combat organized crime, taking into account positive foreign experience and the European policy of combating organized crime.

In order to clarify various aspects of specific activities aimed at influencing crime, including reducing its volume, several terms are used in Ukrainian criminological literature, as well as in various normative legal acts: «combating», «counteraction», «prevention», «control», «warning»"

According to the definition of the Council of the EU of May 28, 2001, prevention is an activity that includes all measures that help to reduce crime and reduce the sense of danger (quantitatively) among citizens, both quantitatively and qualitatively, directly by refusing crime or through the adoption of measures and measures to reduce crime. Activities, as well as influence on the causes of crime. This practice includes the work of government and other relevant authorities, the criminal justice system, local authorities, associations of private sector professionals, volunteers, researchers and the public with the support of the media.

As for individual components of the theory of prevention abroad, the main directions are social prevention, rehabilitation approach, situational prevention, strategies of law enforcement agencies aimed at early detection and punishment of criminals.

As for the preventive (precautionary) approach, now more and more different countries are beginning to develop and implement non-traditional measures to prevent organized crime. The main direction is preventive activities, which include various programs of influence on communities (for example, providing citizens with information about various damages and risks caused by organized crime, the introduction of hotlines; participation in various public organizations). A powerful anti-criminal factor is the intensification of citizens' participation in various preventive programs.

For example, in Palermo, 25,000 children annually attend an educational program aimed at changing such cultural norms that allow the mafia to spread. It should be emphasized that training has both a short-term

effect (affects the activity of reports of crimes that become known to citizens) and a long-term effect (reducing the desire to participate in or help criminal organizations). Active participation of citizens in public life at the local and national levels is supported through public associations.

A positive example of changes in people's consciousness, rather than economic factors, in positive developments in the fight against organized crime is Italy. In the 70–80s of XX century few politicians, administrators, journalists, and public figures fought against the mafia. Representatives of the church stood out among them. One of them, the Italian Jesuit B. Sorge, became a legend for this country more than 30 years ago (after working as the editor-in-chief of the magazine, he left journalism and was sent to Sicily with a missionary task – to clear the island from the mafia).

According to this religious figure, the mafia is, first of all, a cultural phenomenon, a phenomenon of mentality. In addition, you can change the culture and mentality through cultural institutions, such as schools. Of course, laws are important for this purpose, the police are needed, but the crucial element in the fight against the mafia is education. To defeat the mafia, you need a real cultural revolution, and you need to rely on public support.

An important component of the regulatory approach is efforts to detect organized crime related to money laundering. Another aspect is that the regulatory potential of local authorities, environmental agencies, etc. is used. It is aimed at destroying the «business» of organized crime by complicating the procedure for obtaining the necessary licenses, buying real estate, creating funds, etc. Involvement of the private sector in such activities is important.

These aspects of the prevention of organized crime, in particular transnational, were reflected in the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.

In 2004, the Council of Europe published a Review of Practices in the Fight against Organized Crime (BPS), prepared by the Group of Specialists in Criminal Law and Criminological Aspects of Organized Crime.

Eight of the most effective (from the point of view of experts) strategies to influence organized crime were selected and implemented in different countries. These are: witness protection, shifting the burden of proving the legality of the origin of confiscated property to the offender, wiretapping of communications and electronic surveillance, analysis of crime by studying its patterns and trends, international cooperation, criminalization of participation in an organized group in serious crimes, law, cooperation in the field of combating human trafficking, preventive legal measures (the so-called administrative approach).

So, what can we say in conclusion. Taking into account the European experience, the strategic directions of combating organized crime in Ukraine are actions aimed at activating all parts of civil society, decriminalizing cultural norms and the consciousness of a large part of citizens, influencing the motivation of potential criminals, reducing the

level of organized crime, directing the efforts of the state and society. That increases the risk of apprehension and punishment of the offender, makes it more difficult to commit crimes, reduces the proceeds of crime, as well as incentives for criminal activity.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Italy is a rich land of historical linguistic minorities in their variety and quantity. The Ministry of Interior estimates that about 5 % of the Italian population has not the Italian tongue as native language [1, p. 7]. The Italian Republic is one of the few European countries which explicitly protects linguistic minorities (Article 6 of the Constitution). It was applied before 1999, especially in some regions with special status (Valle d’Aosta, Trentino Alto Adige, Friuli, and Venetia Giulia) [1, p. 9].

The law 482/99 protects the language and culture of the Albanian, Catalan, Germanic, Greek, Slovenian and Croatian, and those speak French, Franco-Provençal, Friulian, Ladin, Occitan and Sardinian. Also notes the existence of other linguistic minorities [1, p. 13].

The linguistic minorities benefit specific measures in various fields such as education, communication, radio, press and TV public service. The sector’s competence is conferred to the Presidency of the Council of

Ministers, the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Economic Development and the Ministry of Education, University and Research. Regional and local governments are responsible for the implementation of laws, programs and *ad hoc* activities in the territories where the linguistic minority is recognized and formally/informally transmitted [1, p. 17].

«Law does not need language but it is language itself» (Cortelazzo 1997: 39). This famous quote from the renowned Italian scholar Michele Cortelazzo, constantly referred to in many papers dealing with legal language (it. *linguaggio giuridico* or *lingua del diritto*), stresses the pivotal role played by language as a vehicle for this central area of our lives; the language allows the transmission, interpretation and enforcement of the legal acts, it is the tool of the trade of legal experts and its importance in the legal field is paramount compared to other languages for special purposes (LSP) [2, p. 4]. While this statement has never been questioned so far, it is true that only recently citizens, state administrations and legal operators have demonstrated a renewed interest in language, with a particular attention to the understanding and communicative efficacy of legal texts [2, p. 8].

The branch of legal linguistics (it. *linguistica giuridica*), conceived as an interdisciplinary area in which law and language communicate and share research objects, has been increasingly gaining attention in Italy over the last sixty years, and today it can be considered a full-blown sub-field of Italian linguistics [2, p. 11].

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MOSSAD: THE SECRET SERVICE AND THE NATIONAL IDEA OF ISRAEL

The matter of national security has always remains the basis for any state at war. When a country has been at war for more than a decade, the problem of national security turns into a national idea. The history of the Mossad is a confirmation of this.

It must be emphasized that the Mossad was formed for the purpose of coordinating intelligence activities. It was established immediately after the establishment of the State of Israel. In 1948, it was a component of three power institutions of the country:

– a military information service (General Staff). It was responsible for security, counterintelligence and censorship Later, this service came to be called Israel Defense Intelligence;

– an internal information service, which was latter called the Shin Bet;

– an external state information service.

The issue of coordination of intelligence and security services caused the need to create a body that would improve the results of their activities. Mossad became this body. It was established on December 13, 1949 in Tel Aviv [1]. And yet it is important to note that this organization did not immediately work like lightning. Bureaucratic conflicts hindered the professional work of the body, but still, it took the Mossad a little more than a year to become a truly professional agency. Isser Harel, who previously held the position of head of the Shin Bet, in 1952 took the post of director of the Mossad and built a highly professional organization capable of conducting operations around the world [2].

The capture of Nazi Adolf Eichmann was one of the first high-profile special operations and then his trial in Israel. The operation was carried out under the control of chief Isser Harel with the backing of Israel's Prime Minister David Ben-Gurion in 1960. In Paraguay in 1965, following the capture of Eichmann, Mossad assassinated Herbert Cucors who had overseen the annihilation of the Jews of Latvia [3].

The given facts show how much the Mossad contributed to the restoration of justice, even when several decades have passed since the end of World War 2. Revenge on the perpetrators of the Holocaust vividly demonstrated to the international community that Israel would not surrender its national interests; therefore, in the struggle for its own national idea, it has a reliable tool - the Mossad service.

Since its establishment, the Mossad has been involved in intelligence collection based on the State interests, which are checked and drafted from time to time in what is known as the EEI – Essential Elements of Information. This is done through various means, such as HUMINT (human intelligence) and SIGINT (signals intelligence). For understandable reasons, the activity is not exposed publicly.

Certainly, as is accepted in the intelligence world, over the years and until the present, the Mossad has also sustained and developed intelligence relationships with intelligence service of other countries [1].

No doubt, that this organization is quite closed, but it should also be mentioned that the Mossad also helped Ukraine in exposing a group of saboteurs and Russian collaborators in the summer 2022, which is a vivid example of the cooperation of special services for the sake of peace and security [4].

As a conclusion, it can be noted that the Mossad special service is an extremely professional and classified structure that operates around the world to maintain peace and security within Israel, a country that is constantly at war. The military factor inside the country also dictates the need to act professionally, because the constant struggle for independence has long been the national idea of Israel, therefore the Mossad should be the embodiment of this struggle. This special service is the embodiment of all of Israel and the character of its people, which is why the motto of the Mossad is special: 'Where no wise direction is, the people fall, but in the multitude of counselors there is safety'.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE IN RUSSIA

The present time is generally the time of linguistics. Before the events of 2014, linguistic research was considered something secondary, although linguists in the security institutions emphasized that communications is a proactive tool in the field of national security. Today, this fact is beyond doubt. Aggressive actions of the Russian Federation are called in different ways: hybrid, undeclared, cognitive, semantic war. Without a doubt, this is a war of meanings and values, which are broadcast to different target audiences using linguistic tools. So, linguists are information fighters.

For example, in the Russian Federation linguistic schools work under a single state program, the purpose of which is to develop communicative technologies for hybrid warfare. Thus, specialists of the Siberian Federal University substantiated the need to introduce a new linguistic field – the linguistics of informational and psychological warfare (O. Skovorodnikov, G. Kopnina). In Yekaterinburg, the scientific school of the Institute of Philosophy and Law of the Ural branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences develops the issue of the Russian version of «soft power» (O. Rusakova, E. Hrybovod), the school of the Ural State Pedagogical University – psycholinguistic features of discourses of influence (L. Vesnina, O. Nakhimov). In the works of the Higher School of Journalism and Mass Communications of St. Petersburg State University, the psycholinguistic possibilities of media content as a tool of informational and psychological operations are investigated (D. Havra, M. Labush, O. Sydorov).

By the way, in Russia, the concept of «technological discourse» has been developed and is actively used – a mechanism that allows obtaining economic, socio-political, military and other advantages directly from the discourse. That is, without additional financial resources, subjects who do not use such a discourse can win. Technologization of discourse is carried out with

the help of various manipulative tools: NLP techniques, linguistic-cognitive mechanisms of inspiration, positioning, involvement in communication, framing of situations, creation of a «circle of one's own», amalgamation, drifting of concepts, etc. Technological discourse in the conditions of hybrid warfare becomes a very aggressive tool of influence [1, c. 1].

Putin's Yoshkar-Ola speech and the prosecutorial inspections that followed can be located within the broader dynamics of centralization of the education sphere and promotion of unity through uniformity. This article has focused on the advancement of linguistic uniformity, through policies that construct the Russian language as a unifying factor, or «the natural spiritual framework of our multinational country», as stated by Putin in the Yoshkar-Ola speech. The reduction of the scope of the republics' rights to promote their official languages, along with tendencies towards the standardization of language policies in schools (presented as 'equality'), suggest that assimilatory tendencies hide behind discourses on national unity. While not new, these dynamics seem to have gained momentum since Putin's speech, while recent legal changes have been made in disregard of principles arising from past judicial practice. In the balancing between federal and republican competences (and between centralization and devolution), the former have gained greater prominence. The effects have been an increased emphasis on Russian and the marginalization of regional languages, along with the shrinking of the regions' autonomy in the education and linguistic spheres. Moreover, the republics' participation in devising curricula and textbooks is confined to recommendations, which is not guaranteed to impact upon decision-making at the federal level. These practices escalate the application of uniform education and linguistic policies across the Federation.

While the jurisprudence on republican languages in the education system is relatively small, their incidence reveals center-periphery disputes, which have been, *inter alia*, considered by the Russian higher courts. Public debates and protests have also unfolded within the republics themselves, with private citizens also participating in these actions, including taking cases to court. Meanwhile, the jurisprudence has reflected a general shift towards centralization of the education sphere, with a new emphasis on 'unity', particularly through the 2015 *Sakha* judgment. Significantly, no courts have raised the question as to whether the FSES requirements themselves may violate the right of a republic to establish its own state language(s) (enshrined in the Constitution) taken in conjunction with the right to require their study (included in the Law on Education). Cautionary language has repeatedly been employed in judgments, for example by stressing that teaching of a republic's language(s) must occur «not to the detriment of the study of Russian». The arguments made by the applicants in these cases seem to expose a preoccupation that the teaching of regional languages may erode the knowledge of Russian, and its primacy as the country's state language. Some judgments have resulted in provisions on the compulsory study of republican languages being declared invalid.

The actions of the Prosecutor General's Office have similarly followed prevailing tendencies towards centralization of the education space. The position of the Prosecutor General's Office – crystallized following Putin's speech – is that, despite the fact that republican languages may be used in administrative bodies, their study may not be mandatory in schools, unlike for other subjects in the curriculum, such as Russian itself. Restrictions on the use of regional languages in the education system began prior to the prosecutorial inspections; at the same time, the inspections have displayed (what seem to be) punitive attitudes, and fueled tensions already present in the regions. And, following the inspections, some republics have amended their legislation, to exclude or dilute the obligation to study titular languages in the republics' schools.

While federal legislation in principle allows the republics to make the study of regional languages compulsory, this practice is effectively prevented by bylaws (FSES) *and* new amendments to the Law on Education. Uniform requirements on the content of education in practice obstruct the right of the Federation's subjects to realize their internal language policies. The reasons for this obstruction remain unknown; however, if we consider the length and the public character of the dispute, the incidence of protests in the regions, as well as the existence of legal means which could resolve the impasse (which have, however, been neglected), one may speculate that such reasons are primarily political. Rights are recognized and provided for in the law and judicial practice but subsequently eroded. Despite state narratives of Russia's linguistic diversity, assimilation in practice tends to advance, jeopardizing the future of the country's multilingualism [2, c. 1].

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HIGH-TECH CRIME AND TRADITIONAL FORMS OF CRIMINAL ACTIVITY

Traditional forms of crime violate state, national, and local laws. High-tech crime (or computer crime) encompasses a wide variety of criminal activities that also breach state, or federal laws, but is done so

through the computer, including hacking, software piracy, malware, electronic money laundering, harassment, and even identity theft.

The difference between high tech crime and traditional forms of crime include technology-allowing individuals to commit traditional types of crime without leaving their home. Another difference is individuals who are involved in computer crimes have the ability to commit criminal acts across state lines, or even across international boundaries, often time making it impossible to prosecute. An illegal act performed via the internet in one state, might not be illegal in another.

Four types of high tech crimes in relation to traditional crimes include the following:

1) **Identity theft** is a high tech crime that can be compared to its traditional counterpart of larceny. Identity theft involves stealing an individual's personal information, and then using it maliciously. Identity theft occurs on the internet, as well as in person. Criminals have been known to steal information through a variety of personal ways, including sifting through people's garbage, or using a mobile phone, and taping an individual typing in their ATM number. Compared to victims of traditional larceny, identity theft victims are most likely not to know who their 'attacker' was. Like larceny, identity theft is a fast growing crime, and occurs frequently. Larceny involves stealing a person's property. Similar to identity theft victims, most victims of larceny are not physically harmed in the process of the crime. «Larceny is the most frequently occurring property offense...» [4, p. 446].

2) High tech crimes that involve illegal **online gambling** can be compared with the traditional form of illegal gambling. In certain states, there are legalized forms of gambling, also internet gambling allows an individual in one state, that may prohibit such acts, gamble in another state or country, in which it is legal. Again, this makes it more difficult to prosecute individuals across state or country lines. Another comparison is that traditional based casinos are government regulated, while internet gambling is unregulated, and allows for anyone to participate, including minors. As well as illegal gambling casinos, internet gambling is also a source of benefit for members of organized crime.

3) **Cyber stalking** is comparable to stalking a person offline, and is another criminal act that proposes problems. Cyber stalking involves using technology to intimidate, threaten, or abuse an individual online. Unlike traditional stalkers, cyber stalkers believe that they hide behind the anonymity of the internet, and nobody will know who they are. Traditional stalking includes harassment, or abuse through letters, calls, physical contact, or intimidation by showing up at various places that the victim may visit or resides. Cyber stalking and stalking are meant to instill fear in the victims. Both traditional forms of stalking and cyber stalking are harmful, and dangerous. Some individuals do not believe that cyber stalking is just as threatening to victims as traditional stalking, since the harassment is done through the computer.

4) Another high tech crime involving **cyberterrorism** is comparable to its more traditional form of terrorism. Traditional terroristic activity encompass directing the activities at targeted individuals, or often time, buildings. «The FBI defines terrorism as the unlawful force or violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government or population in furtherance of political or social objectives» [1, p. 207].

Cyberterrorism involves using the internet as a means of assault through various activities, and includes wiring money to terrorist organizations, recruiting, sending virus, malware, Trojans, or logic bombs, or any other activity that destroys information, or promotes terrorism. Unlike traditional terrorism, cyberterrorism allows for the recruitment of others across nations, as well as communicating plans of attack with members from all over the world, and even training.

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INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN COMBATING TERRORISM

Foreign countries have significant progress both in terms of investigative and procedural actions and in terms of preventive measures, which should become a priority issue for law enforcement agencies of Ukraine. European countries have significant experience in the formation of the law enforcement system. This is due to historical features and the development of civilization in the specified countries of the world. It is worth noting that the law enforcement systems of the countries of the European Union were quite often subjected to transformations, but at the same time, some law enforcement agencies in individual countries have been in existence for over 100 years.

The growth of terrorist activity in recent years and its consequences acutely raise the question of increasing measures to combat this global threat, as well as the development of strategies and tactics for such a fight. The ever-increasing role of international terrorist groups leads to the

conclusion that effective countermeasures against terrorism and, ultimately, its neutralization are impossible without broad cooperation of states that are its victims, including potential ones.

In foreign countries the functions of organizing and conducting anti-terrorist operations are entrusted not only to law enforcement agencies but also to special services. It has been determined that law enforcement agencies of foreign countries cooperate with the private sector, public organizations and the community in counter-terrorism and counter-terrorist operations.

Comprehensive measures aimed at combating terrorism and conducting anti-terrorist operations are carried out by individual countries within their own capabilities. The leading role of civil society and non-governmental organizations in preventing conflicts and terrorism has been repeatedly emphasized in various international documents.

The most promising directions are identified and interaction with relevant anti-terrorist organizations and institutions is ensured: UN, EU, NATO, OSCE, Council of Europe, Organization of American States, African Union, Association of Southeast Asian Nations, Association of Regional Cooperation Asia and the Shanghai Cooperation Organization.

It is established that, in fulfilling its commitments, Ukraine is a party to all international conventions and protocols governing various aspects of counter-terrorism operations. In particular, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine ratified the European Convention for the Suppression of Terrorism, the International Convention for the Suppression of Bomb against Terrorism, the International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism, the Council of Europe Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism, and others.

An example of long-term cooperation on counter-terrorism is US engagement with European Union countries, namely France, Germany and the United Kingdom, which has been expanding since 2001, when the George W. Bush Administration signed a key agreement with the EU Police Service (Europol). The agreement provided an opportunity to exchange strategic and technical information on counter-terrorism, money laundering, illegal drug, nuclear, radiological and human trafficking. In addition, an interesting aspect is the decision by the US State Department to use the professional knowledge of counter-terrorism staff and to direct them to a special program aimed at law enforcement and ordinary citizens alike.

The necessity of expanding interstate cooperation and mutual assistance in the sphere of combating terrorism, conducting anti-terrorist operations, exchange of information on terrorist organizations, cooperation between judicial and law enforcement agencies in investigating terrorist offenses has been proved.

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FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT BODIES WHEN CONDUCTING ANTI-TERRORIST OPERATIONS

Ensuring the national security of each state is one of the main problems of our time. Today, foreign countries have significant progress both in terms of investigative and procedural actions and in terms of preventive measures, which should become a priority issue for law enforcement agencies of Ukraine. Many foreign countries of the world, in order to counter terrorist activities, are creating a normative and legal framework of anti-terrorist orientation. This way of combating terrorism is effective, therefore, in order to increase the level of effectiveness of the fight against terrorism in Ukraine, it is necessary to introduce complex, systematized anti-terrorist legislation that would fully correspond to the present and not contradict international legal norms.

Great Britain's experience in countering terrorism includes the United Kingdom Strategy, which has four countermeasures: prevention, prosecution, protection and preparation. In order to achieve a state of anti-terrorist security in Great Britain, a counter-terrorist strategy called "Contest" has been adopted. The strategy provides for coordination with other state bodies at the following levels: 1) close cooperation and coordination of actions of law enforcement agencies within the country; 2) supporting the dialogue with the private sector, public organizations and the public in general; 3) international cooperation with the closest allies and other states and their associations.

In addition to the legislative consolidation of anti-terrorist measures, Great Britain has special formations whose competence includes the fight against terrorism. These anti-terrorist units are part of the regular armed forces. Among them, the leading place is occupied by the British Special Air Service (Special Air Service, or SAS). The combat training of employees includes: training with the use of weapons, techniques of hand-to-hand combat during training cycles. All classes are held in conditions as close as possible to combat.

Spain is an example of when the system of national legislation does not contain a special law regulating the fight against terrorism. The procedure for the activities of the country's law enforcement agencies and the restriction of the rights of terrorism suspects is determined by the Criminal Code. However, this did not significantly affect the creation of effective anti-terrorist security. The main anti-terrorist unit of the Spanish special services is the special operations group (GEO, Grupo Especial para los Operaciones), which was formed by the Spanish government as a police anti-terrorist unit, which is staffed by highly qualified specialists of the Spanish special services. The GEO special unit is part of the Spanish National Police. A significant amount of GEO training time is spent practicing individual and group tactical actions in crisis situations (storming a building, aircraft, sea vessel, car), learning the art and application of hand-to-hand combat. The experience of conducting special operations shows that the operational situation sometimes forces the fighters of the assault group to forcibly detain terrorists using hand-to-hand combat techniques. One of the more important functions of the GEO is the protection of Spanish embassies during a state of emergency and, in some cases, guaranteeing the safety of senior officials.

Israel has considerable experience in the fight against terrorism. The state has been the target of terrorist attacks for 50 years. The Israeli intelligence service «Mossad», the general security service «Shabak», special units of the police and the armed forces are working against the terrorists. The main advantage of Israel's security forces is the wide trust of the population in them, the high level of professional training of their employees and an extensive network of informants. In addition, the majority of Israeli citizens are prepared for emergency situations, and if necessary, both law enforcement officers and private security guards have the right to use weapons against a terrorist at the time of a terrorist act (with generally quite strict legislation on the use of weapons). The combination of efforts of state authorities and society, as well as individual citizens in the fight against terrorism is a fairly effective element of the system of countering this dangerous phenomenon. The priority directions of the state in this area have become: intelligence, operational capabilities for counter-terrorism and protection.

As a result of the analysis of foreign experience in countering terrorist activities and conducting anti-terrorist operations, the priority directions are: improvement of the national system of combating terrorism; creation of a single, independent, specialized structural unit separate from law enforcement agencies; implementation of anti-terrorist training; development of active measures to counter the use of the Internet for terrorist activities; exchange of information on the fight against terrorism and organized crime between special anti-terrorist units of foreign countries.

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INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE OF COMPENSATION FOR AN INDIVIDUAL DAMAGE

Any criminal act as a legal fact encroaches on social relations and is the cause of negative changes in them. Due to the objectively existing cause-and-effect relationship, a criminal act generates harmful consequences determined for each of its types, which are specifically expressed in the damage caused to the objects of the crime, protected by both criminal and other branches of law. It is the consequences of the crime that are the main element of its social danger, and its nature is determined by the content of social relations that this crime causes harm.

At the same time, as emphasized in international documents and modern foreign studies, one of the main problems hindering the implementation of the preventive potential of the institution of crime compensation is the problem of determining guidelines for calculating reasonable and fair compensation for criminal damage. Based on the above, the study of the experience of Western European countries in assisting victims of crimes, including the system of state compensation and compensation for damages, is scientifically and practically significant and relevant [1].

The legislation of any democratic legal state in Europe is based not only on international acts of the UN but also on documents of the Council of Europe [2].

- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.
- Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power
- European Convention on Compensation for Victims of Violent Crimes

Germany. In Germany, the issue of state compensation is regulated by the Criminal Code and the Law on Compensation for Victims of Violent

Acts of 1985. State compensation is provided to victims of intentional acts of violence, including acts of sexual violence. The presence of physical or mental harm as a result of the attack is a necessary condition for receiving compensation. Payments are made regardless of the presence of the victim's statement to the law enforcement agency and regardless of the completion of the pre-trial investigation because the mere fact of opening the proceedings is sufficient. Expenses subject to compensation: for medical care; mental help; professional rehabilitation; a pension for the disabled – victims, if the working capacity has decreased as a result of the committed act; for the cost of physical therapy; for a funeral; to support families of victims who lost their breadwinner [3, p. 122].

Austria. In the Criminal Code of Austria, the institution of compensation for damage caused by a crime is established as an approbation condition in the case of conditional release from punishment, conditional early release from serving a sentence in the form of deprivation of liberty, conditional release from serving a coercive measure related to deprivation of liberty in the form of an instruction to the guilty person during the probationary period to compensate for the damage caused by the crime by one's efforts. Compensation is carried out by the Federal Social Service. The source of funding for its activities in this area is fines imposed and collected from convicted persons. In addition, the country operates «Weisser Ring!», an independent non-profit organization that provides assistance and compensation to victims of crimes, including foreign citizens. The sources of filling the fund are financial contributions of its members and sponsorship.

France. In France, the issue of submitting compensation for damage caused to victims is decided by social bodies – Commissions for compensation for victims of crimes, which are created at each local court. French law is based on the principle of full compensation. According to the provisions of the Criminal Code of France, the following are subject to compensation: a) damage caused as a result of the use of physical or sexual violence against a person; b) expenses for treatment and loss of income (loss of working capacity); c) loss of maintenance as a result of the death of the injured breadwinner [4, p. 36].

The responsibility of the state to a person in France is derived from the principle of equal rights of all citizens to state expenses, proclaimed by Art. 13 of the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen of 1789. According to French law, the state is responsible not only for the actions of authorities but also for the actions of officials of other state institutions: public schools, hospitals, post offices, transport, etc. [5].

Belgium. Measures to help crime victims in Belgium are defined in the Law «On Taxes and Other Measures» dated August 1, 1985. In Belgium, there is a special fund from which crime victims receive monetary compensation from the state. The fund is financed by the Ministry of Justice. The decision to assist is approved by the Commission for Assistance to Victims of Violent Crimes. The victim himself is subject to

compensation: moral damage that led to temporary or permanent incapacity; medical expenses, prostheses, drugs, etc.; temporary or permanent disability; loss or reduction of income due to temporary or permanent incapacity; ethical damage, etc. If the identity of the perpetrator is established, the victim must first try to obtain compensation from him through the filing of a civil lawsuit.

Finland was one of the first in Europe to adopt a special law on compensation for damage caused by crime. In Finland, there is no special compensation fund and assistance to victims of crimes are paid by the State Treasury. The law provides for the possibility of compensation for victims of all types of personal damage and damage caused to property as a result of the commission of any crimes. Victims are compensated for expenses related to incapacity for work, treatment and further medical care, disability, loss of clothing, certain items, etc. If the victim dies, the law defines the categories of persons entitled to compensation.

Czech Republic In the legal system of the Czech Republic, the protection of the rights of victims of crimes, including compensation for damage caused to them as a result of a criminal act, is regulated by the provisions of the Criminal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Law on Victims of Criminal Acts from 2013. The victim has the right to compensation for damages (compensation medical expenses, the cost of car damage, stolen items, expenses caused by incapacity); moral damage; the value of the unjust enrichment received by the criminal as a result of his committing a criminal act against an individual. The state provides compensation, which includes the amount of lost income and proven medical expenses, as well as burial expenses in the event of the victim's death. One of the mandatory conditions for receiving compensation from the state is the timely submission of a statement about the commission of a criminal act to the police, which was a consequence of the need to conduct investigative measures against the offender. When deciding on the possibility of providing financial assistance from the state, the victim's behaviour during the commission of a criminal act is taken into account [6, p. 155].

Until now, there have been attempts to legislate this issue in Ukraine. For example, in 1993, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine adopted Resolution No. 2931-XI «On the state of implementation of laws and resolutions of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine on law and order issues and measures to strengthen the fight against crime», in paragraph 6 of which it was stated to consider the issue of creating a Fund for compensation for damages to citizens, who suffered from crimes and abuses of power. However, in 1996, the specified clause of this Resolution became invalid. In 2004 and 2010, draft laws were also submitted to the parliament, which provided for the creation in Ukraine first of the Victim's Fund, and later – the Damage Compensation Fund. However, the relevant laws were not adopted. And today, the legal system of Ukraine is still characterized by a low level of protection of the victim's right to compensation for damage caused as a result of committing a violent crime. For example, «the characteristic features of

obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [7].

The experience of European states indicates the need to adopt a separate law that will regulate the procedures, grounds, conditions, mechanisms and sources of state payments of funds to victims of violent crimes.

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COLLABORATIONISM DURING THE RUSSIAN-UKRAINIAN WAR: ACTIONS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT BODIES

As of today, the identification of collaborators, traitors and accomplices of the enemy in the de-occupied territories is a priority area the National Police of Ukraine work.

With the beginning of the armed aggression of the Russian Federation on the territory of Ukraine, the issue of criminal responsibility for the cooperation of Ukrainians with the Russian Federation, its administrations and the so-called «DPR» and «LPR» in the temporarily occupied territories of Donetsk and Luhansk regions, as well as in the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, became acute. During the year, three draft laws were registered in the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, in which Members of Parliament proposed establishing criminal liability for the so-called collaborationism.

The last time the issue of collaborationism on the territory of Ukraine was seriously discussed and resolved in professional literature in the context of the events of the Second World War. As of today, the Ukrainian scientific community has gradually returned to the study of relevant issues, the relevance of which was increasing and gaining momentum every year [2].

The concept of collaborationism found its further scientific development, which allowed scientists-historians to classify it, distinguishing it depending on the nature and level of cooperation and usually taking into account a wide range of actions that contribute to the establishment of the occupying power, the following types: household, economic, military, political, administrative ones.

Therefore, collaborationism is the intentional and voluntary cooperation of a citizen of Ukraine with the aggressor state or its representatives in any form, in the interests of the aggressor state and to the detriment of the national security of Ukraine or its allies [1].

For several years, scientists have been arguing about the separation of responsibility for collaborationism, namely for cooperation with the enemy, which is done with the aim of causing harm to one's state and (or) its allies, in a special part of the Criminal Code of Ukraine.

Some lawyers are convinced that there are almost no problems with collaborationist practices that have arisen in Ukraine. Thus, according to M. Rubashchenko, criminal responsibility for collaborationism has already been provided for in such a crime as treason, and therefore the introduction of an independent form of such an act will lead to confusion and pose a danger of violation of human rights and freedoms. The scientist emphasizes

that collaborative activity can acquire any of the provisions of Art. 111 of the Criminal Code of Ukraine forms of treason and be carried out in the military, administrative (management), economic and even domestic spheres. However, criminal liability for the relevant activity will be imposed only for such actions that are intentional and that cause significant damage to the sovereignty, territorial integrity and inviolability, defense capability, state, economic or informational security of Ukraine or create a real threat of such damage [2].

On February 24, 2022, a new phase of the Russian-Ukrainian war began with the full-scale invasion of the Russian army. Due to the large number of people who collaborate with the enemy against their own country, help the occupiers and directly participate in the persecution of the country's patriots, a decision was made to amend the Criminal Code of Ukraine to establish criminal liability for collaborative activity.

The Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine adopted the Law of Ukraine «On Amendments to Certain Legislative Acts (Regarding the Establishment of Criminal Liability for Collaborative Activities)» No. 2108-IX dated 03.03.2022.

In order to achieve this goal, the Criminal Code of Ukraine was supplemented with a new article. 111-1 «Collaborative activity», which provided criminal liability for cooperation with the aggressor state, its occupation administration and/or its armed or paramilitary formations in the military, political, informational, administrative, economic and labor spheres [3].

Thus, the consequence of the adoption of this law will be the introduction of criminal liability for cooperation with the aggressor state, its occupation administration and/or its armed or paramilitary formations, which will provide for the restriction of access to positions, to positions related to the performance of state or local functions self-government for a period of 15 years and the imposing other appropriate punishments for persons who carried out such cooperation, as well as the possibility of liquidation of legal entities whose authorized persons carried out such cooperation [1].

Currently, representatives of the National Police of Ukraine, namely the investigation and inquiry bodies, have documented more than 830 open criminal proceedings under the article on treason. As of today, 1,355 people have already received suspicions for their collaboration. And 55 such criminal proceedings were referred to the court by pre-trial investigation bodies.

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THE CONCEPT OF NON-PROPERTY DAMAGE

Today, there are no problems with the definition of material damage. It represents the damage or loss that a person has already suffered or must suffer in order to restore his first condition, which occurred before the injury [3]. This is usually the loss or damage of material values, i.e. personal items such as a phone, clothes, bag, for example. But moral damage is not so obvious, because, as a rule, it is intangible, and therefore represents an evaluative concept. Today there is no clear definition of the concept of «moral damage» in the legislation. This is due to the impossibility of describing this evaluative concept, which is rightly recognized by many scientists. Therefore, in Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine, the legislator defined only the most permanent and correct ways of manifesting such damage [4]. An attempt to define this concept will remain unsuccessful, since it is impossible to single out in the evaluative concept universal, defining, generic features that would be characteristic of it as a whole and would explain its meaning completely in each specific case. Moral damage is:

- 1) in physical pain and infliction suffered by an individual in connection with mutilation or other health damage;
- 2) in the mental suffering tormented by an individual in connection with illegal behavior against himself, his family members or close relatives;
- 3) in mental suffering tormented by an individual in connection with the destruction or damage of his property;
- 4) in degrading the honor and dignity of an individual, as well as the business reputation of an individual or legal entity [1].

To put it in my own words, moral damage is a loss of a non-property nature as a result of moral or physical evaluations, or other negative phenomena caused to individuals or legal entities by illegal actions or inaction of other persons. Moral damage is compensated in money, other property or in another way. The amount of monetary compensation for moral damage is determined by the court depending on the nature of the offense, the depth of physical and mental suffering, deterioration of the victim's abilities or deprivation of his ability to realize them, and other circumstances that are of significant importance [2]. The most debatable issue is determining the amount of compensation for moral damage. The legislation does not establish a specific amount for the violation of this or that right, and neither the minimum nor the maximum amount is provided for. That is why every person whose right has been damaged, independently searches for what moral damage was caused, by what wrongful actions or inactions it was caused, what is the monetary amount of the mental costs caused to him, and notes this in the actional statement, adding evidence that

confirms it. The final decision on determining the amount of moral damage is made by the court.

It is clear that everyone must be responsible for their actions, even if they were done by children. This does not release them from responsibility. Therefore, punishments or the measure of compensation for damage caused by a minor are determined in various normative legal acts.

Let's start with the concept of a non-adult person. This is a child between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. Such a person is responsible for the damage caused by him independently in accordance with the Civil Code of Ukraine. The independent income of a minor can consist of wages, income from entrepreneurial activity, interest from stocks, etc. [4]. The personal property of such a person is the funds deposited in credit institutions in his name, donated, inherited or any other property that the minor legally owns. However, persons aged 14 to 18 do not always have property and income. In this case, this damage is compensated in the missing part or in full by his parents (adoptive parents) or guardian, if they do not prove that the damage was caused through no fault of theirs. Similarly, if a minor was in an institution that, by law, performs the functions of a guardian in relation to him, this institution must compensate for the damage in part or in full, unless he proves that the damage was caused through no fault of his. Such responsibility of parents has the nature of subsidiary responsibility. The victim first submits a claim for compensation for the damage caused to the main debtor – the minor who caused the damage, and in the event that he does not satisfy the requirements – to the parents (adoptive parents) or guardian of the minor. Subsidiary responsibility for a minor between the ages of 14 and 18 is assigned to both parents according to the principle of equal partial responsibility. If the damage is caused by the joint actions of several minors, there are two types of responsibility:

- share responsibility of the minors themselves;
- subsidiary – their parents, guardians [2].

If minors caused damage together, the amount of compensation is determined by their agreement or by the court. But if one of them is under the supervision of an institution that performs the functions of a guardian, then this institution pays this person's share. If the damage is caused to a minor both through the fault of his parents, guardians, and through the fault of educational or medical institutions, then the principle of partial responsibility of individuals and legal entities is applied depending on the degree of fault of each. Their obligation to compensate ends when the minor reaches 18 years of age or acquires property or money. Also, since they are responsible for the child, they do not have the right to demand the return of the paid funds, even if the child reaches 18 years of age [3].

So, we analyzed what material and non-material damage are, learned about a minor and about compensation for damage caused by him. Non-material damage is a rather complex concept that does not have a specific definition. In simple words, this is, for example, humiliation of a person, his

honor and dignity, damage to business reputation, violation of rights or the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons [4].

Regarding the responsibility of a minor, in my opinion, minors are only theoretically, or very rarely, independently responsible. Usually, children at this age do not have personal property or money to pay restitution. In most cases, parents, guardians, medical or educational institutions are responsible for children, also parents do not have the right to demand from the child the return of these funds that have been spent.

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LA TRAITE DES ÊTRES HUMAINS EN TANT QUE PHÉNOMÈNE TRANSNATIONAL

Chaque année, près de 2,5 millions de personnes sont recrutées et exploitées à travers le monde. 80 % des victimes de la traite sont des femmes et des enfants. Tous les États sont affectés par la traite d'êtres humains, soit en tant que pays d'origine, soit de transit ou de destination des victims [1].

Aux termes du code pénal, la traite des êtres humains c'est le fait de recruter, de déplacer des personnes et de les assujettir et les faire travailler contre leur volonté en utilisant la tromperie, la contrainte et/ou la violence.

Il est à noter que c'est une des formes de trafic les plus rentables dans le monde pour les criminels, après le trafic de drogue et la contrefaçon. Elle génère un profit de 32 milliards de dollars par an [2].

On distingue des différents types d'exploitation des êtres humains: le travail forcé, l'esclavage domestique, l'exploitation sexuelle, le trafic d'organes et la mendicité force.

Il faut rappeler que la communauté internationale s'est mobilisée en adoptant, un instrument juridique contraignant: la Convention des Nations unies contre la criminalité transnationale organisée (dite «Convention de Palerme») et son Protocole additionnel sur la lutte contre la traite des êtres humains. L'objectif premier de ce texte est de prévenir, réprimer et punir la traite des êtres humains, en particulier des femmes et des enfants. C'est dans le cadre de cette Convention que les États se sont engagés à adapter leur législation nationale pour lutter contre la traite des êtres humains. Ils sont soutenus par les agences de l'ONU, notamment par l'Office des Nations unies pour la lutte contre la drogue et le crime [2].

On sait que la France est particulièrement préoccupée par la traite des êtres humains en situation de conflits et par le fait que certains groupes terroristes ont intégré cette pratique à leur stratégie. Par exemple, Daech a utilisé la traite comme acte de terreur, mais également comme outil de recrutement et moyen de financement. La traite transfrontalière est également un fléau en Afrique, utilisée notamment par Boko Haram ou Al-Shabaab. La France a fermement condamné les traitements inhumains et les violences dont sont victimes les migrants en Libye. Ce trafic alimente la criminalité transnationale organisée et constitue une véritable économie souterraine qui déstabilise les États [2].

On observe que de nombreuses victimes de la traite d'êtres humains ont été confrontées à l'ignorance ou à l'incompréhension lorsqu'elles ont tenté d'obtenir de l'aide. Elles ont vécu des expériences traumatisantes après avoir été secourues lors des entretiens d'identification et des procédures judiciaires. Certaines ont été de nouveau victimisées et punies pour des crimes qu'elles ont été forcées de commettre par leurs trafiquants. D'autres ont été stigmatisées ou ont reçu un soutien insuffisant [1].

Prenons en compte que le proxénétisme représente plus de la moitié des procédures ouvertes. L'étude spéciale sur ce sujet relève que le phénomène de l'exploitation sexuelle de personnes mineures ou jeunes majeures de nationalité française augmente [3]. Selon les policiers, les plateformes en ligne permettent aux criminels de recruter des personnes avec de fausses promesses [4].

On note que les nouvelles technologies permettent de diffuser anonymement des contenus dégradants et dangereux qui alimentent la traite des êtres humains, y compris l'exploitation sexuelle des enfants.

Il faut bien reconnaître que les femmes et les filles, en particulier celles qui sont déplacées, sont touchées de manière disproportionnée par la traite des personnes à des fins d'exploitation sexuelle, de mariage forcé et d'enfant, de travail forcé et de servitude domestique [4].

Nous pouvons en conclure que la traite des êtres humains reste un problème majeur dans le monde contemporain. Elle constitue une des priorités de la communauté internationale dont la France en matière de protection et de promotion des droits de l'homme et de la lutte contre la criminalité organisée.

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INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF EUROPEAN TRENDS IN THE REGULATORY SYSTEM OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES IN UKRAINE

International cooperation is one of the main trends in the development of modern systems of judicial and law enforcement agencies.

One of the main trends that characterizes the development of modern states and, accordingly, their systems of judicial and law enforcement agencies, in particular France, Germany, England and the USA, is the focus on expanding international cooperation.

It is possible to consider the international cooperation of judicial and law enforcement bodies as one of the components of the interaction of states in the sphere of protection of human rights, freedoms and legitimate interests, fighting crime, which in itself is now an important part of international relations. Among the main directions of such cooperation can be distinguished:

- provision of legal assistance in criminal cases;
- conclusion and implementation of agreements on the fight against transnational offenses;
- execution of decisions of foreign law enforcement bodies on criminal matters affairs;
- regulation of criminal and legal issues and individual rights in the field of law enforcement, exchange of information representing mutual interest for law enforcement agencies;
- joint study of the problems of combating crimes;
- exchange of law enforcement experience;
- assistance in training personnel for foreign law enforcement agencies;
- provision of material and technical and advisory assistance [1].

The issue of expanding international cooperation of judicial and law enforcement agencies attracts the attention of many modern countries and international organizations. In particular, this is reflected in the Vienna Declaration on Crime and Justice: Responses to the Challenges of the 21st Century, adopted at the Tenth United Nations Prevention Congress on crime and treatment of offenders, April 10-17, 2000 [2]. The Declaration states that UN member states, expressing concern about the impact on society of committing crimes of a global nature, are convinced of the need for bilateral, regional and international cooperation in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice, recognize the need for closer coordination and cooperation between states in solving the global problem of crime, taking into account that the fight against it is a general and joint duty, in connection with which attention is drawn to the need to activate and promote activities in the field of technical cooperation, in order to provide assistance to states in their efforts to strengthen their domestic criminal justice systems and of its potential in the field of international cooperation.

Expanding the scope of international judicial cooperation and law enforcement agencies requires the corresponding coordination of the legal development of different states. Harmonization of legal development with other states involves:

- the convergence of legislation, which means the determination of common directions of development of national legislation, overcoming legal differences and the development of general legal solutions, which is carried out in those spheres of cooperation between Ukraine and other states, in which there is a need to jointly solve common tasks and concerted actions;
- harmonization of legislation, which involves the coordination of joint approaches, concepts of development of national legislation, development of general legal principles and separate legal decisions;
- adoption of model acts as legislative acts of a recommendatory nature, containing standard norms and providing normative guidance for legislation;
- the unification of legislation, which provides for the development and implementation of universally binding uniform legal norms [3].

Note that the process of development of the Ukrainian legal system at the current stage takes place in the light of Ukraine's external political orientations, in particular, the acquisition of Ukraine's membership in the Council of Europe, which determined the implementation norms and standards of the Council of Europe into national law, and the desire to join the European Union, which in turn requires the implementation of harmonization and adaptation of national legislation of Ukraine and EU legislation.

The mechanism of implementation of international legal norms includes a certain set of legal and institutional means used by subjects of international law at the international and national levels, in order to implement the prescriptions of the norms of international law. When implementing the norms of international law by state bodies, executive and

administrative activity prevails, but it is always preceded by organizational and legal activity.

The state uses its national law as one of the main means of organizing the activities of certain branches of the state apparatus for the implementation of international legal norms. In practice, the relationship between legal and organizational sides is manifested in the fact that measures of a legal nature, carried out with the aim of implementing international legal norms at the national level, are always accompanied by a set of measures of an organizational and executive nature, carried out by national bodies in accordance with legal prescriptions, which are, in particular, in issuing laws to implement relevant international legal norms and regulations, making changes to current national legislation, issuing administrative acts, canceling laws or administrative acts that contradict the provisions and norms of international law, taking all necessary measures of domestic order, etc.

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HOW TO BECOME A POLICE OFFICER IN THE USA

To my mind, police are for those who wants to be inside the news today, and not to read them tomorrow. Police are for young, energetic people who like adventures, and maybe you became a police officer because you do not want to work at a boring office, to have a tedious job, and want to be in the middle of the action. Some people are friends with the police and they would recommend you this work. Of course, there can be many reasons, why and how to join to the police staff. All Police Departments, Sheriff's offices, and Federal agencies accept recruits with the same requirements.

Requirements:

1. Age: from 21 to 35 years old at the time of admission.
2. To have US citizenship at the time of admission to the Academy.
3. Do not have a criminal record and problems with the law.
4. To have a high school diploma. Some states require education in a college or university – at least one to four years. Many take the army instead of college.

5. To pass a test entrance exam for basic school subjects, common knowledge on civil and criminal law.

6. To Pass a health and psychological test.

The exception is Hawaii. The state of Hawaii does not require compulsory citizenship. This is the only state where people who have a residence permit-green card can try to enter the police.

In order to join the police, you must fill in a questionnaire, send your full data, biography, and resume. At the time of admission to the police, it is necessary to indicate all the former works, why you left or were fired. This information is always checked. Major attention is paid to credit history. Often, there may be an unexpected home visit by the examiner. After reviewing the resume, sent to the medical examination. Check everything is fine. Somewhere in more detail, somewhere less. Sight, hearing, blood, etc. Then an analysis of drug use. After the medical board is invited to a written psychological test, in which there is from 500 to 1,500 questions or statements that answer «Yes» – «No», or «Agree» – «Neutral» – «Disagree». The next step is an interview with a psychologist. Next step is a physical test, in which 2.5 km run, push-ups, pull-ups, and many other exercises, depending on the Office. Physical training requirements vary greatly. Since each state has its own requirements for new ones. Some offices offer to pass a polygraph. Rejecting it is an automatic «Goodbye!». The final stage is an interview. Going to the interview should be in the business style of clothing (suit and tie).

After successful completion of all commissions and interviews, you get a job, take an oath. The Academy lasts an average of about 6 months, but there are a little more. The day of the admission to the Academy is considered the first day of the beginning of work in the NYPD.

On the first day, the Mayor and the Commissioner of Police arrive and formally assure your service to the police, at the same time divided into groups. In the squad 30 people, the main detachment, the same recruit, like everyone else, but responsible for them, was chosen by them – this is usually a former service member. All this «good» is scooped up by you into a heap and carried to the «locker» (each recruit is assigned a separate «locker» – this is a small iron box where you can put things and hang clothes). This is not a police uniform; a police uniform is issued near the end of the academy.

Ranks are not awarded for the years spent in the Office. They are given only after taking a very difficult test of knowledge of the rules of governance. Successful passing of the test does not guarantee an increase in rank. That is, the sergeant took the test for the Lieutenant, successfully passed it, but could wait several years before the increase until the vacant seat. After the Captain, the ranks are given for merit. However, the Sergeant can only become after five years of work. That is, the one who took the test after three years will wait at least another two years. The one, who took the test after five years of work, will receive the rank, as soon as the Sergeants will have a free place Sergeant. No one automatically rises in rank. If there

are no vacancies? Waiting for you! After that, each Sergeant receives one and a half years of probation. If something happens, the Sergeant will be degraded to Officers. None of them can return to the same station or department from which the Officers left. They will always be sent to another area. After Lieutenant (having worked in this rank for at least three years), you can take the test for Captain. This is the last rank for which you need to take a test, and when everything depends on the person.

The main task of the police is to help people. If you get lost, or do not know how to drive, contact the police - they will definitely help. If you left the keys in the cars or closed the door, call the police number. They will open the door quickly and absolutely free. Helping people is the police motto!

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PECULIARITIES OF COMPENSATION FOR NON-PECUNIARY DAMAGE IN THE COUNTRIES OF WESTERN EUROPE

The protection of human rights and freedoms is one of the most important tasks of today. For its implementation, a number of international legal acts have been adopted, which recognize the person as the highest social value, and the protection of his (her) rights and freedoms as the main duty of a democratic rule of law. According to Article 9, Part 5 and Article 14, Part 6 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and Article 5, Part 5 of the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, everyone who has been the victim of arrest or detention in contravention of the provisions of this article shall have an enforceable right to compensation. Everyone whose rights and freedoms as set forth in this Convention are violated shall have an effective remedy before a national authority notwithstanding that the violation has been committed by persons acting in an official capacity.

Indeed, a person must be entitled to compensation for non-pecuniary damage caused as a result of the offense, as the attack on such an intangible good as the dignity of the individual necessarily entails violation of the rights and freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution. This means that any offense, including that which did not result in physical harm, is necessarily accompanied by moral suffering of the person, who was the victim of an offense.

Differing principles of liability and standards of compensation in the European countries Who is responsible for damage that has occurred through human error and how, in particular, reparation can be provided for the consequences of bodily injury or the death of a person are questions that are answered differently in every country, even within Europe. There is widespread agreement on the principle that whoever is culpable of causing damage to another party is obliged to compensate. The stage of development of the society, economics and technology, as well as the traditions and aspirations of national law, are the decisive factors here. Increased efforts have nevertheless been made recently by international organizations, and in particular by the European Community (EC), to bring about legal approximations, in the tort law sectors also, of the European countries. The most important example of this is the EC Directive on Products Liability of 12.7.1985, which has in the meantime been implemented into the national law of most of the West-European countries.

Principles of tort liability The foundations of compensation in the case of bodily injury or death are given in the German Civil Code (Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch or BGB) on the one hand, and by a range of particular laws relating to liability on the other. The rules governing claims for damages in the various liability laws are similar, but there are also deviations from the BGB; the strict liability adopted in the liability laws is also limited in various ways. The injured party as a rule cannot claim for pain and suffering in the case of liability without fault, and the annuity or lump sum compensation to be paid by the liable party is partially limited in terms of amount.

Damage and compensation in the case of bodily injury Although any impairment of a protected interest, including bodily injury, impairment to health, damage of "spiritual" (non-pecuniary) property, such as honour, freedom or credit, counts as "damage", an important legal distinction is made between pecuniary and non-pecuniary damage. Pecuniary damage is 223 purpose EU damage to property; it represents the difference between two property situations: that which would now exist without the event that is the reason for the liability and that which actually exists. It deals, therefore, with economic property, while "non-pecuniary damage" is which cannot be measured by money. For this, monetary compensation can only be claimed in certain cases defined by law.

Pain and suffering by Schmerzensgeld In the case of bodily injury or impairment to health (as also in the case of offence against freedom), the injured party – but not relatives of the injured party or of the deceased – is entitled to claim «fair monetary compensation» for the non-economic damage. All types of non-pecuniary damage are indemnified through this pain and suffering compensation. According to a fundamental decision of the Federal Court on 6th July, 1955, the claim to pain and suffering has a double role: primarily a compensation function, but then in addition also a satisfaction function, in the framework of which the negligence of the tortfeasor is to be taken into account. A peculiarity of German law is that

compensation for pain and suffering can be awarded in the form of a lump sum or an annuity. The level of compensation for pain and suffering awarded by German courts exceeds by far that usually granted in Austria, Switzerland, the Scandinavian countries and Holland.

Principles of liability Under the French civil law code of 1803/1804 (the Code Civil, also referred to as the Code Napoléon), tort liability in France is based on negligence. According to articles 1382 and 1383 C.C., any person who is responsible for causing damage to another deliberately or due to negligence is obliged to compensate the injured party.

Compensation for non-pecuniary damage According to French legal conceptions, disadvantages of a non-pecuniary, «moral» nature provide the injured party, and in some cases also near relatives of a severely injured or deceased party, with a right to claim appropriate compensation under various headings. Although the borderlines between the individual loss elements are blurred, the following non-pecuniary damage categories allowing compensation have developed in practice:

- Pain and suffering serves to compensate for physical pain, especially that endured by the injured party up until the “consolidation” of his state of health. The medical expert has to evaluate the severity of the pain according to a 7-step, taking into account the type and severity of the injuries, the number and length of hospital stays, the number and painfulness of surgical operations, plaster casts, length of medical rehabilitation and the like.

- Disfigurement gives the right to appropriate compensation, which is usually determined separately, with particular consideration of the sex, age, marital status and profession of the injured party. The sums awarded are about equal to those in the case of pain and suffering, but can exceed these if there is very severe disfigurement.

- Individual awards specify still further non-pecuniary loss types, which take the disadvantages into account separately or together with others in the measurement of the compensation, such as for example the effects of a physical disability which hit a young person particularly hard, and the impossibility of joining in games and sports with friends or reduced prospects of marriage, family union destroyed.

- The non-pecuniary loss suffered by the close relatives (parents or spouse) of an injured party with a view to his condition and pain justifies, in exceptionally severe cases, the granting of compensation.

- Finally, in the case of death, the next of kin of the deceased have, in principle, an own right to claim compensation for the «moral damages», the «loss of affection» which they suffer because of the loss of a person who was dear to them. According to this now established practice, the spouse, parents and children of the victim, and exceptionally also brothers and sisters and grandparents, are entitled to make this claim. The practice is not uniform as regards whether the claim to compensation in the case of «moral» damages can be inherited. The pain and suffering that the deceased could claim due to the pain suffered before his death is generally seen to be inheritable, even if it was not claimed by the person entitled to do so. What

is disputed, on the other hand, is whether the heirs can claim compensation awarded to the injured party for other non-pecuniary disadvantages if the deceased lost consciousness in the accident and did not regain it before his death, where «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [4].

– Form of compensation The damages for bodily injury are calculated as on the day on which the court responsible for the question of fact pronounces its judgement. Interest on arrears is owed from the pronouncement of the judgement at the statutory rate of interest. If a delay in the settlement of legitimate claims for compensation is attributable to the tortfeasor, then the court can also fine him compensatory interest, which is calculated from a point determined by the court between the day of the accident and the day of the judgement.

Economic, social and political circumstances, diverging social security and national health provision systems and especially considerable differences in standard of living lead to substantial divergence in compensation practice in the countries of Western Europe, despite similarities in the most important basic principles. In our opinion would be false to call for a general standardisation or unification of compensation assessment in the case of personal injury in the various countries. What would be desirable is an approximation of principles and methods of damage assessment in Western Europe. In the interests of fair compensation practice, pecuniary loss due to bodily injury or death would be separated consistently from non-pecuniary damage. For non-pecuniary disadvantages, i.e. pain, disfigurement, loss of amenities and the like, adequate compensation should be paid.

Since it is not possible to express the individual value of such disadvantages in monetary terms, an objective, abstract calculation formula could be applied here and this could be standardised, at least in the West European countries. The type and severity of the injury, the degree of permanent disability and the loss of amenities of the plaintiff should be the focus here. Despite certain flaws, it seems to me that the European compensation system works well on the whole.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN A SAFE FORM: FOREIGN COUNTRIES

The present time is generally the time of linguistics. Before the events of 2014, linguistic research was considered something secondary, although linguists in the security institutions emphasized that communications is a proactive tool in the field of national security. Today, this fact is beyond doubt. Aggressive actions of the Russian Federation are called in different ways: hybrid, undeclared, cognitive, semantic war. Without a doubt, this is a war of meanings and values, which are broadcast to different target audiences using linguistic tools [1].

In the Russian world, linguistic examination allows us to reveal technologies of influence. The word «suggestion» is often heard today. Please comment, what kind of technology is this and how is it used in TOT to promote the idea of a «Russian world»?

Suggestion is a form of interpersonal and intergroup communication, in which the transfer of information takes place with the help of a partially unconscious, directed signal at the verbal or non-verbal levels. A suggestion differs from a persuasion by a reduced level of criticality and the need to verify information from the recipient. As a communicative technology, suggestion has a neutral character, its positivity or destructiveness is determined by the purpose, goals and result of communicative actions.

We see the completed narrative – call, action, result. Now imagine: a person drives in a car, that is, moves in a certain rhythm, and sees these billboards all the time. One, two, three. And on a subconscious level, the idea is already forming: «Ukraine is a Nazi state. We need defenders. The defenders are the "Ministry of Defense of the DPR». A person does not even analyze what he sees, but perceives the proposed story as a fact [1].

How can Russian propaganda be countered

– First, it is possible, and, secondly, there are certain mechanisms for doing it. In 2014, the system of strategic communications, or strategic committee, came to Ukraine. By the way, Ukraine was the first to introduce the concept of strategic communications into the Information Security Doctrine. In NATO countries, stratkom is prescribed only in military doctrines.

What is strategic communications? This is the systematic coordination of communications in the areas of public diplomacy, public relations, information operations, psychological operations, military-civilian relations. In all these areas, the same narratives and messages should be systematically broadcast, conveying Ukraine's position to different target audiences. This is the coordination of communications. In addition, it is necessary to adhere to the principle of «said and done».

It is he who ensures the trust and respect of target audiences. Counteraction to Russian informational aggression must be systematic and proactive. This means working in advance, and not just reacting reactively to certain Russian provocations. And also – to build trust [2].

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LEGISLATIVE DEFINITION OF THE CONCEPT OF «NON-PROPERTY DAMAGE IN UKRAINE»

The moral damage is not so obvious, since, as a rule, it is intangible, and therefore it is an evaluative concept. It is the evaluability of this concept, which in each specific case is interpreted in its own way, taking into account not only legal knowledge, but also acquired life experience, that causes the difficulty of determining the amount of moral damage caused and proving it.

The party that claims compensation for moral damage caused to it is not released from the obligation to prove the existence of such damage, its amount, by providing proper, admissible and reliable evidence of this fact, in accordance with the procedure established by procedural legal acts.

In addition, today there is no clear definition of the concept of «moral damage» in the legislation. This is due to the impossibility of an exhaustive description of this evaluative concept, which is rightly recognized by many scientists. Therefore, in Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine, the legislator defined only the most frequent and probable ways of manifesting such damage. An attempt to provide an exhaustive definition of this concept will inevitably remain unsuccessful, since it is impossible to single out in the evaluative concept universal, defining, generic features that would be characteristic of it as a whole and would exhaust its meaning completely in each specific case.

According to Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine, a person has the right to compensation for moral damage caused by the violation of his rights.

Moral damage is:

1) in physical pain and suffering, which a person has experienced in connection with mutilation or other health damage;

2) in mental suffering, which the person suffered in connection with illegal behavior towards himself, his family members or close relatives;

3) in mental suffering suffered by an individual in connection with the destruction or damage of his property;

4) in degrading the honor and dignity of an individual, as well as the business reputation of an individual or legal entity.

Unless otherwise established by law, moral damage is compensated in money, other property or in another way. The amount of monetary compensation for moral damage is determined by the court depending on the nature of the offense, the depth of physical and mental suffering, the deterioration of the victim's abilities or the deprivation of his ability to realize them, the degree of guilt of the person who caused moral damage, if guilt is the basis for compensation, as well as taking into account other circumstances, which are of significant importance. When determining the amount of compensation, the requirements of reasonableness and fairness are taken into account.

Non-pecuniary damage is compensated regardless of the property damage that is subject to compensation, and is not related to the amount of this compensation, for example «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [1].

A more detailed understanding of the essence of this legal norm is made possible by judicial practice, which is reflected in the decisions of the Plenum of the Supreme Court of Ukraine dated March 31, 1995 No. 4 «On judicial practice in cases of compensation for moral (non-property) damage», dated February 27, 2009 No. 1 «On judicial practice in cases of protection of the dignity and honor of an individual, as well as the business reputation of an individual and legal entity» and dated March 27, 1992 No. 6 «On the practice of consideration by courts of civil cases on claims for compensation of damage». Clause 3 of the first of these resolutions clarifies that moral damage can consist, in particular: in the humiliation of honor, dignity, prestige or business reputation, moral suffering in connection with damage to health, in violation of property rights (including intellectual), rights granted to consumers, other civil rights, in connection with illegal stay under investigation and court, with violation of normal life relations in connection with the impossibility to continue an active social life, violation of relations

with others, in the case of others. negative consequences. Non-pecuniary damage caused to a legal entity should be understood as losses of a non-pecuniary nature that occurred in connection with the humiliation of its business reputation, encroachment on a company name, trademark, production mark, disclosure of a commercial secret, as well as actions aimed at reducing prestige or undermining trust in its activities [2].

About the procedure for compensation and the persons who are obliged to do so. Articles 1167 and 1168 of the Civil Code of Ukraine are devoted to this issue. Thus, moral damage caused to a natural or legal person by illegal decisions, actions or inaction is compensated by the person who caused it, in the presence of his fault, except for the cases established by the second part of Article 1167 of the Civil Code of Ukraine.

Non-pecuniary damage is compensated regardless of the fault of the state authority, the authority of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, the local self-government body, the natural or legal person who caused it:

1) if damage is caused by mutilation, other health damage or death of a natural person as a result of the action of a source of increased danger;

2) if damage has been caused to a natural person as a result of his illegal conviction, illegal prosecution, illegal application of a preventive measure, illegal detention, illegal imposition of an administrative penalty in the form of arrest or correctional works;

3) in other cases established by law.

Non-pecuniary damage caused by mutilation or other health damage can be compensated in one lump sum or by making monthly payments.

Moral damage caused by the death of a natural person shall be compensated to her husband (wife), parents (adoptive parents), children (adopted), as well as persons who lived with her in the same family.

Analyzing the given norms of law, it is possible to come to the conclusion that moral damage is compensated in a property way. However, we should not forget about the already mentioned Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine, which allows for the compensation of such damage even by committing actions of a non-property nature, such as refutation of inaccurate information, public apology, etc. The choice of the method of compensation for damages belongs to the plaintiff, because it is he who, in the statement of claim submitted by him, asks the court to apply one or another method of protecting his violated right [3].

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PECULIARITIES OF COMPENSATION FOR NON-PROPERTY DAMAGE CAUSED TO THE HEALTH OF AN INDIVIDUAL IN EASTERN EUROPE

In civil cases, damages are the remedy that a party requests the court award in order to try to make the injured party whole.

Damages are imposed if the court finds that a party breached a duty under contract or violated some right.

In common jurisdictions these harms to the health of an individual are mainly divided into material damages and immaterial (i.e. moral, non-property).

Purpose of this article is showing main specifics of immaterial health damages compensation in Eastern Europe. According to the United Nations definition, countries within Eastern Europe are Belarus, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Ukraine and the western part of the Russian Federation.

The relevance of the article's theme nowadays comes, first of all, from modern interactions through social media, and all the outcomes of the Internet-bullying, shaming, cancellations etc.

Discovery of multiple jurisdictions allows us in evaluating the effectiveness of regulations within present globalization processes, seeing pros and cons of each.

The last, but not the least, is the highest divorces rate ever, which mostly is caused by the harm to the mental health to the one or both spouses simultaneously by the acts of one-another. Eventually, all of the counted above often leads to the subject of the article.

Ukrainian legislation divides damage to an individual into losses (property and equals) and moral damage.

Moral damage can be in the following forms: 1) physical pain and suffering suffered by a natural person in connection with mutilation or other health damage, where «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [5]; 2) mental suffering suffered by a natural person in connection with illegal behavior towards himself, his family members or close relatives; 3) mental suffering suffered by an individual in connection with the destruction or damage of his

property; 4) degrading the honor and dignity of an individual, as well as the business reputation of an individual or legal entity.

Cases are held by courts. Even though moral damage is not about property, its compensation is mainly calculated into monetary equivalent of the harm. Payments can be either one-time sum or monthly compensations. Among other specific regulations: compensation of the harm, caused by illegal imprisoning.

The Czech Republic according to the Civil Code mentions pecuniary and non-property harm. But it says that the damages are always about the material compensation.

Anyone who has violated a legal obligation, or who can and should know that they will violate it, shall notify the person who may be harmed as a result of this without undue delay and warn them of the possible consequences. If he fulfills the notification obligation, the injured party does not have the right to compensation for the damage that he could have prevented after notification.

In the event of bodily harm, the perpetrator shall compensate the injured party with monetary compensation, fully balancing the pain suffered and other non-pecuniary damages; if damage to health has created an obstacle to a better future for the victim, the harm will also compensate him for the difficulty of social application. If the amount of compensation cannot be determined in this way, it is determined according to the principles of decency.

In the event of death or particularly serious bodily injury, the perpetrator shall compensate the spouse, parent, child or other close person for the mental suffering with monetary compensation that fully compensates for their suffering. If the amount of compensation cannot be determined in this way, it is determined according to the principles of decency.

The victim shall compensate the person who incurred them for the reasonable costs associated with the funeral to the extent that they were not covered by a public benefit according to another legal regulation. In doing so, he will consider the customs and circumstances of the individual case.

If this is justified by special circumstances in which the harm caused by an illegal act, in particular if he violated an important legal obligation due to gross negligence, or if he intentionally caused harm out of a desire to destroy, harm or from another particularly reprehensible motive, the harm will also compensate non-pecuniary damage to everyone, who reasonably feels the damage caused as a personal misfortune that cannot be remedied in any other way.

Some special regulations. The perpetrator is obliged to compensate the damage, regardless of his fault, in cases specified separately by law. If the person who is at risk of harm does not take steps to avert it in a way that is appropriate to the circumstances, he bears responsibility for what he could have prevented.

In the Czech Republic the burden of evaluation is mainly on the court. That is why, the government accepted thresholds on maximum

amount of compensations for some particular case. Such rulings help courts reach more fair calculations and decisions. Whereas, in Ukraine, evaluating the harm is subject to big proof burden and court difficulties occurring.

Generally said, Czech legislation has lots of, additional to the material law, methodology involved and lots of legal circumstances, which may be considered to evaluate cases correctly.

Belarus has the main interest occurs in state's authoritarian regime, regardless of legally stated democracy. If a citizen has been inflicted moral harm (physical or moral suffering) by actions that violate his personal non-property rights or encroach on other non-material benefits belonging to the citizen, as well as in other cases provided for by law, the citizen has the right to demand from the violator monetary compensation for the specified harm.

The current Belarus legislation provides only monetary compensation for non-pecuniary damage.

When determining the amount of compensation for non-pecuniary damage, the court considers the degree of guilt of the offender and other noteworthy circumstances. The court must also consider the degree of physical and mental suffering associated with the individual characteristics of the person harmed.

In the field of violation of the property rights of citizens, compensation for moral damage may be allowed only in cases provided for by special legislative acts.

For the emergence of the right to receive compensation for non-pecuniary damage, the following conditions must simultaneously be present: 1) the presence of harm, i.e. moral damage as a consequence of violation of personal non-property rights or encroachment on other intangible benefits; 2) unlawful action (inaction) of the tortfeasor; 3) a causal relationship between illegal actions and infliction of moral harm; 4) the fault of the tortfeasor (except cases, where liability arises without fault).

Compensation for non-pecuniary damage is carried out regardless of the fault of the tortfeasor in cases where:

1. Harm was caused to the life or health of a citizen by a source of increased danger.

2. Harm was caused to a citizen as a result of unlawful conviction, the use of coercive measures of security and treatment, involvement as an accused, detention, house arrest, application of a written undertaking not to leave and proper behavior, suspension from office, placement in a psychiatric (psycho-neurological) institution, illegal imposition of an administrative penalty in the form of administrative arrest, correctional labor.

3. The damage was caused by the dissemination of information that does not correspond to reality and discredits the honor, dignity or business reputation of a citizen.

4. In other cases, provided for by legislative acts.

When it subjects to the amounts – the methodology is poor and ineffective.

From the first sight, it may seem very close to Ukrainian regulations, which is really common for post-soviet countries. From the general standpoint, it looks progressive, but when it comes to implementation – here is where the differences show-up.

Thus, we discovered the following Eastern-European countries: Ukraine, the Czech Republic and Belarus. They all differ more or less from each other.

Eventually, the main difference between these three states' regulations, in regard to non-monetary damages, are in the law-enforcement procedures and attention to the details in the form of compensation-evaluating methodology. The higher is the democracy – the higher are the standards.

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THE PECULIARITIES OF POLICE OFFICERS TRAINING IN THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

The Chinese People's Armed Police Force (abbreviation: PAP) is a Chinese paramilitary organization primarily responsible for internal security, riot control, counter-terrorism, disaster response, law enforcement and maritime rights protection as well as providing support to the People's Liberation Army Ground Force (PLAGF) during wartime.

Police education and training system in China consists of a number of training institutions, such as:

People's Armed Police Academy (Corps Leader Grade, led by a Major General)

The People's Armed Police Academy tasked with officer education and training for duties related to the missions entrusted to the People's Armed Police, including, since 2001, UN peacekeeping.

People's Armed Police Engineering University (Corps Leader Grade, led by a Major General)

This university is for training internal security command, political work, logistics management, and professional and technical police officers.

People's Armed Police Command Academy (Corps Leader Grade, led by a Major General)

The academy's key subjects focus on law, engineering, military studies and management studies, but most attention is devoted to paramilitary training and political work.

People's Armed Police Logistics Academy (Corps Leader Grade, led by a Major General)

The People's Armed Police Logistics Academy is a training body aimed to train People's Armed Police personnel in handling logistics. The university include subjects as applied economics, military and paramilitary logistics, as well as engineering.

Students are selected from PAP soldiers and squad leaders with excellent performance. This is followed by a three-year study in one of the two major fields: Armed Reconnaissance and Special Warfare.

According to the Article 26 of the People's police law of the People's Republic of China to be a people's policeman in China, one must meet the following requirements:

1. to be a citizen who has reached the age of 18;
2. to endorse the Constitution of the People's Republic of China;
3. to have fine political and professional quality and good conduct;
4. to be in good health;
5. to have an educational background of senior middle school or above;
6. to become a people's policeman out of his or her own volition.

A person who is found in either of the following circumstances may not serve as a people's policeman:

1. having been subjected to criminal punishment for commission of a crime or;
2. having been discharged from public employment.

It is important to note that the law establishes requirements for the moral qualities of a police officer. These are: selfless devotion to one's duty, honesty, high discipline, obedience to orders, rigorous enforcement of laws. This approach reflects the great responsibility of the State for the candidates who entered the service, for their moral character and the image of the Chinese police in general.

Also, it should be said that police equipment, insignia, uniforms and certificates can be used exclusively by the people's police, no single person or organization can own or use them. Legislative regulation of this issue reduces the likelihood of using fake means identifying a police officer, thereby increasing the level of public confidence in the police in China.

In conclusion, police training in the People's Republic of China has its own characteristics, as in every country. There are many academies and

colleges that train highly qualified personnel for further work in the police. The main law regulating the powers of the police is People's police law of the People's Republic of China, which defines the rights and duties of Chinese police officers, establishes the main tasks of the police, the responsibility of police officers, and discipline. There are corresponding requirements for the moral qualities of a police officer in the the People's Republic of China, who is elected for service, and there is also a guarantee of maintenance the status of a police officer in society

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PROSPECTS FOR EUROPEAN INTEGRATION OF UKRAINIAN LEGISLATION IN CIVIL LAW

In connection with the latest events in our country, on June 17, 2022, the European Commission recommended that the European Council grant Ukraine the status of a candidate for membership in the European Union.

Simultaneously with the recommendation to approve the candidate status, Brussels put forward demands for reforms to Kyiv, providing a list of seven points:

1. reform of the Constitutional Court;
2. continuation of judicial reform;
3. anti-corruption, including the appointment of the head of the Special Anti-Corruption Prosecutor's office;
4. combating money laundering;
5. implementation of the anti-oligarchic law;
6. coordination of audiovisual legislation with the European Union;

7. changes in the legislation on national minorities.

These requirements must be met in order for Ukraine to retain the status of a candidate. Because the granting of candidate status in June 2022 is not final, and the EU can be cancelled.

On June 23, 2022, the European Parliament adopted a resolution calling for Ukraine to immediately grant the status of a candidate for membership in the European Union. The European Council granted Ukraine the status of a candidate for membership in the European Union [2].

Although under unpleasant circumstances, our country has achieved no breakthrough in our national goal - to join the euro-European Union. So, today we have the status to which our indestructible country boldly went and a list of seven points that must be fulfilled by reforming legislation and state bodies. Due to the requirements, the system must be reformed and these reforms will allow us to take another big step towards the goal.

Since the reforms to be implemented are diverse in their origin and scope of influence, there is no doubt that they will affect not only the reformed systems, but also other areas and legislation, including civil legislation.

I would like to start with the definition of European integration. So, European integration is a process of political, legal, and economic integration of European states, including those partially located in Europe. At the moment, European integration is achieved mainly through the expansion of the European Union and the Council of Europe [1].

The domestic legal system and legal science, including the science of civil law, in the context of modernization transformations associated with changes in the ideals and priorities of state and legal development in connection with the processes of European integration and the trend of development and approximation of European legal systems, the intensive development of civil turnover and market relations and the complication of their legal regulation, are experiencing a period of renewal and self-determination. In these circumstances, questions about further ways of developing statehood, ways of effective management of society, and the future of the legal system become particularly relevant for jurisprudence.

Considering the Civil policy of Ukraine as a sectoral legal policy, we can note that it should correspond to national development strategies, and it is in this ratio that we can talk about its effectiveness. Therefore, the current priority act that defines strategic directions for the development of legal policy, including civil policy, includes: the national strategy in the field of human rights [4]. The seventh paragraph of the requirements clearly states the requirement «changing the legislation on national minorities», in the national development strategy one of the first points is «ensuring the rights of indigenous peoples and national minorities» [3]. It is with this point that legislation in the field of implementation of the National Human Rights strategy should hurry up, which will certainly affect civil legislation and the judicial process.

Judicial practice is the sphere of law enforcement activity that reflects the effectiveness of a certain legal norm, the presence of gaps in the

legal regulation of public relations and, of course, is the basis for the formation of directions of legal regulation of Civil Relations.

So, the domestic legal system and legal science, including the science of civil law, in the context of modernization transformations associated with changes in the ideals and priorities of state and legal development in connection with the processes of European integration and the trend of development and approximation of European legal systems. In these circumstances, questions about further ways of developing statehood, ways of effective management of society, and the future of the legal system become particularly relevant for jurisprudence [4].

V. V. Komarov notes that «the application of Civil Procedure legislation and modern practice of civil proceedings should be focused on a new level of law enforcement: not only compliance with the current legislation, judicial procedures, but also the application of the Constitution of Ukraine as an act of direct action, as well as the European Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms, ensuring the accessibility of civil proceedings from the point of view of the implementation of the convention right to a fair trial. At the same time, the application of the Constitution of Ukraine and the mechanisms for implementing the European Convention for the protection of human rights is a key issue from the point of view of implementing the idea of fair justice and the right to a fair trial. Unfortunately, this general civilizational aspect, despite its unquestionability, is more defended in the academic environment, since the real practice of justice and judicial proceedings faces systemic problems of inefficiency of justice and the need for drastic changes in the field of judicial power in general» [4].

As a confirmation of the need to integrate the European Convention for the protection of human rights and implement it within the framework of Civil Procedure legislation, I will cite the thesis of N. A. Zhelezniak «in principle, any reasonable policy should be legal, that is, it is designed to comply with laws, legal norms, be in the legal field, meet international standards, human rights. Otherwise, politics sooner or later turns into arbitrariness, violence, and inhumane actions» [4].

In support of the thesis, we can define the following goals of civil policy, which determine its essence: with the help of civil policy, property and personal non-property Civil Law relations are optimized; promoting the development and regulatory consolidation of legal bases for regulating and ensuring public and private interests; effective civil policy is one of the defining conditions for democratic reforms in Ukraine in the context of European integration; civil policy serves to ensure important human and civil rights and freedoms; civil policy serves to regulate Civil Law relations [4].

One of the key components of law is the regulation of civil legal relations, especially since the process of forming the EU law system is still ongoing. It is also important that in the context of a globalized world economy, the European Union inevitably affects the legal and economic space of our country. As a result, the unique experience of harmonization and unification of

EU civil law and trends in its development are extremely important for Ukraine. First, the EU is our strategic partner. Secondly, many domestic companies operate in the EU market and are required to comply with its civil legislation. Thus, EU legislation and existing European academic projects on civil law constitute the international experience that Ukraine needs to study and take into account in order to improve its legislation [4].

So, we identify the following main trends of European integration into the civil legislation of Ukraine: providing civil policy with aspects of scientific and soundness, consistency and expediency; developing a new civil policy based on the recognition of human and civil rights (developing principles of civil policy); strengthening the rule of law in the field of civil legal relations; developing positive decisions of civil judicial practice, taking into account the provisions of judicial and legal reform; improving civil legislation; searching for new forms and methods of improving civil legislation; creating favorable conditions for the development of civilized regulation of Civil Law relations.

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THE USE OF EXPERIENCE OF INVESTIGATIVE BODIES OF THE USA, FRANCE AND GERMANY BY UKRAINE

Today, one of the priority directions of state policy in any sphere of legal relations is international cooperation and the exchange of experience on certain issues. Therefore, there is a certain need not only for a theoretical study of foreign experience, but also for finding certain opportunities for its use and implementation in Ukraine. This aspect is relevant and timely in the field of administrative and legal support for the organization and functioning of investigative bodies in Ukraine, because even today the process of their reform continues.

O. V. Baulin and A. O. Lyash consider it expedient, based on the experience of foreign countries, to establish pre-trial investigation as a separate function of the judiciary in Ukraine. The Institute of Investigating Judges, in

turn, should be not only in local courts, and will be used not only for judicial control and interrogation of individuals at the request of the parties, but also to conduct pre-trial investigations in cases of crimes committed by organized criminal groups and criminal organizations [1, c. 90].

In my opinion, this position will not contribute to increasing the efficiency, objectivity and independence of the investigation in Ukraine, but will only complicate and overload the work of the judicial branch of government. It is also worth noting that a similar practice has been successfully implemented in France, where a number of other measures have also been implemented. In France, the procedural position of the judicial investigator creates real guarantees of his independence from the accuser.

In general, the idea of creating a single institute of pre-trial investigation bodies has been implemented in many countries, but in this case, this institute does not belong to any branch of government, and therefore is independent in its procedural actions.

B. V. Romanyuk noted that the positive result of the creation of a single investigative body is precisely that in most countries of the post-Soviet space, pre-trial investigation bodies, as well as in Ukraine, belong to different departments, and therefore, due to their departmental disunity, the efficiency is significantly reduced the interaction of investigation bodies with other structural subdivisions and law enforcement agencies, which negatively affects the quality of the investigation in general [2, p. 167].

O. Y. Tatarov pay attention in his works to the experience of Germany in the organization and functioning of investigative bodies. The author emphasizes that the effectiveness of the investigation of crimes in the Federal Republic of Germany depends on a clear organizational structure of the criminal justice bodies, and the well-established interaction of prosecutors with investigative judges is also important, the court and auxiliary employees of the prosecutor's office, which, in fact, are police officers. Thus, inquiries are carried out by the so-called «auxiliary employees of the prosecutor's office» (for example, police inspectors). That is why constant control over the even distribution of the number of investigated crimes per employee and, accordingly, the quality of crime investigation is ensured [3, p. 606–607].

In my opinion, it is the provision of a justified optimal number of cases per investigator and effective control over their equal distribution that is a necessity in the investigative bodies of Ukraine. Also, in Germany, there is a certain division of the police into the general police, which investigates minor crimes, and the criminal police, which is authorized to investigate serious crimes, reporting to the federal authorities or the Minister of the Interior of the respective territory.

Also interesting for Ukraine may be the experience of organizing the work of investigative review groups of the USA (Crime Scene Units). Their feature is that, unlike domestic investigators, who have to personally inspect the scene, search for, record and remove evidence, the detective who

investigates crime in the United States, may involve investigative review teams conducting the review independently. Review groups are part of the Crime Scene Investigations Bureau, which, in addition to them, also includes expert groups that do not go to the scene, but are engaged in the study of material evidence in laboratory conditions [4, p. 305].

Finally, it is worth noting that sufficient work is being done in Ukraine in the direction of cooperation with foreign law enforcement agencies. An example of this can be the signing of a memorandum of understanding to deepen cooperation between the National Anti-Corruption Bureau of Ukraine and the US Federal Bureau of Investigation. This document states that law enforcement agencies will simultaneously conduct investigations related to international money laundering, international means of asset recovery, bribery and corruption of high-ranking officials of Ukraine. According to this, Ukrainian investigative bodies can count

for the support of the FBI in three areas: the possibility of obtaining operational information on the spread of dollar flows, the exchange of experience in the organization of operational and technical work and the work of undercover agents, logistical and technical support of NABU units [13]. Similar examples of international cooperation of investigative bodies of Ukraine with foreign institutions are non-unique. It is international partnership that can significantly facilitate the work of investigative bodies.

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CRIMINAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR CRIMES COMMITTED DURING MARTIAL LAW IN UKRAINE

The issue of crimes committed during martial law is more relevant today than ever, as Ukrainians have faced the problem of preserving their property during hostilities. Now our state is suffering from Russian armed aggression, the civilian population is suffering, not only from the military, but also from their compatriots. These individuals are stealing the property of city dwellers who have fled their homes to escape shelling and bombing. It is appalling that the thieves «work» in the homes of citizens right during the shelling, being at the epicenter of hostilities, at a time when property owners are in bomb shelters.

According to Art. 1 of Law in Ukraine «On the legal regime of martial law», martial law is a special legal regime imposed in Ukraine or in certain localities in case of armed aggression or threat of attack, danger of state independence of Ukraine, its territorial integrity and provides for the relevant state authorities, military command, military administrations and local self-government bodies, powers necessary to deter the threat, repel armed aggression and ensure national security, eliminate the threat to Ukraine's state independence, territorial integrity, and temporary, threatened, restricted constitutional rights and freedoms citizen and the rights and legitimate interests of legal entities, indicating the term of these restrictions [1].

The Criminal Code of Ukraine does not disclose the definition of a «war crime». Instead, it is generally accepted in the legal community to delineate these terms as follows:

– war crime – violation of IHL, in particular the laws and customs of war;

– war crime – a crime against the established order of military service, committed by a serviceman.

That is, war crimes are local crimes committed against the order of service or military service, committed by servicemen, conscripts and reservists. War crimes are violations of international law, generally accepted laws and customs of war, which are provided by IHL. Under these conditions, the commission of crimes against a person (murder, rape, torture) committed by combatants (in international law, persons who are members of the armed forces of a belligerent country directly involved in hostilities) in armed conflict cannot be classified as common crimes [2].

Taking into account all mentioned above, it should be noted that Law № 2117-IX increases the penalties not only for misappropriation of property of the wounded and killed on the battlefield (looting), but also for using tragic circumstances, fighting for their own gain, because changes to the Criminal Code affected the composition crimes under Articles 185 (theft),

186 (robbery), 187 (banditry), 189 (extortion), 191 (unlawful appropriation through service position). These crimes were supplemented by a qualifying feature – the commission of martial law.

Therefore, from now on, the responsibility for committing crimes under martial law or state of emergency has become more severe, namely:

– for theft – the offender faces imprisonment for a term of 5 to 8 years;

– for robbery – a term of 7 to 10 years;

– for banditry – the offender faces not only imprisonment for a term of 8 to 15 years, but also confiscation of property;

– for extortion – the penalty will be: imprisonment for a term of 7 to 12 years with confiscation of property;

– for appropriation, embezzlement of property with the help of service position, – not only imprisonment for a term of 5 to 8 years, but also deprivation of the right to hold certain positions or engage in certain activities for up to 3 years [3].

Basing on the given analysis, it should be concluded that today there is a need for detailed legal regulation of criminal law, in particular, criminal prosecution, martial law or in combat situations, as this will guarantee reliable protection of the sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF CIVIL LAW MODELS

There are quite a large number of various legal models in the world, including civil law ones. They are classified according to different criteria and divided into different types.

The concept of a civil-law model should be understood as the unification of several states based on the unity of the basic laws of the civil-law regulation of social relations carried out in them [1; 75]. The following civil law models are distinguished: 1. Romano-Germanic; 2. Anglo-

American; 3. Muslim; 4. Patriarchal; 5. Far Eastern; 6. Central European; 7. Eastern European.

1. The Romano-German civil law system is widespread in the countries of the European continent, as well as in countries located in other parts of the world, namely: Africa, Latin and South America, Asia, which as a result of the colonization of European countries adopted the legal features and traditions of the Old World [2; 65].

The main source of law in the Romano-Germanic system is a legal act. However, important value in the system of sources of law of the Romano-Germanic legal family also belongs to subordinate legal acts, which include resolutions, decrees, instructions, decisions, regulations, circulars.

2. The Anglo-American legal system is a group of legal systems originating from the common law of England and characterized by the dominance of judicial precedent as the main source of law [3; 4]. This system is most widespread in England, as well as in the following countries: Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, etc.

The main features of the Anglo-American system include: 1) originated in England; 2) law is divided into common law and equity law; 3) there is no division of rights into public and private; 4) priority of procedural law over substantive law; 5) the main source of law is judicial precedent [3; 5].

3. The Muslim civil legal system is a system that is characteristic of the countries of the Muslim world, namely the states of the Arab East (Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Turkey, Kuwait, etc.), as well as in the Muslim communities of Africa (Somali, Tanzania, Kenya, etc.), Malaysia, Indonesia and a number of other countries.

The main sources of the Muslim system are: 1) the Koran – a collection of the sayings of the Prophet Muhammad; 2) the Sunnah – the embodiment of the divinely inspired practice of the prophet; 3) Ijma – the opinion of the Islamic community and jurists on a certain issue of Islamic teaching; 4) Qiyas – the principle of judging by analogy [5; 21].

4. Patriarchal civil law system – a system that is most widespread in African countries, as well as in Oceania, Indonesia, India, and Malaysia [4; 20]. It is characterized by the following features: 1) the main source of law is custom; 2) the system combines statutory, colonial and customary, local law; 3) all regulations are adapted to local customs.

5. The Far Eastern civil-legal system is a group of legal systems that were formed on the basis of the moral and philosophical teachings of the Far East and for them is characterized by the dominance of traditional moral and ethical norms over legal ones in the system of social regulation. This system includes the legal systems of China, Japan and some other countries that developed under their influence – Mongolia, Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, Laos, Vietnam, Thailand, Singapore, etc. [4; 20]. The main features of the Far Eastern system include: 1) the main source of law is custom; 2) weak development of the legal infrastructure is characteristic.

6. Central European civil law system – the system is typical for the following countries: Hungary, Slovakia, Slovenia, Poland, Czech Republic. The main features of this system include: 1) lack of division of rights into private and public; 2) the main source of civil law is acts of the civil legislator; 3) legislative acts obtain over case law [4; 36].

7. The Eastern European system is a system characterized by the following features: 1) there are certain restrictions on the right to private property; 2) includes a large number of subordinate legal acts that regulate civil legal relations. It is typical for the following countries: Bulgaria, Romania, Serbia, Belarus, the Russian Federation, Ukraine [4; 20].

So, civil law models are of great importance when studying the basics of civil law in general, because they allow us to learn about the development of civil law in different countries of the world and to make a general picture of the improvement of civil law at various stages of its development.

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CAUSING OF MONETARY COMPENSATION IN UKRAINE

Monetary compensation for damage caused to a person or his property replaced personal revenge, which existed before the establishment of this institution. Monetary compensation for damages remain important in all civil law systems. Commitment to compensation for damages is one of the first in civil law. They are connected with the idea of responsibility for the actions. The civil code of Ukraine defines that legal consequences of contractual and tort obligations are their termination due to unilateral refusal, if it's provided by the contract or law, or termination of the contract; change in the terms of the obligation; payment of penalty;

compensation for damages and moral damages; applying to the court with a claim for damages.

In accordance with Article 1166 of the Civil Code of Ukraine, property damage caused by unlawful decisions, actions or omissions to personal non-property rights of an individual or legal entity, as well as damage to the property of an individual or legal entity, shall be compensated in full by the person who caused it. The person who caused the damage shall be exempt from compensation if he/she proves that the damage was caused through no fault of his/her own. Damage caused by injury, other damage to health or death of an individual as a result of force majeure shall be compensated in cases established by law.

The Civil Code of Ukraine make out property and moral damage. Property damage is always manifested in the form of losses. The first type of damages is called real damages, and the second - lost of profits (unpaid income, copyright payment, etc.). Since the law fixed the principle of full compensation for damages, it is necessary to proceed from the fact that the damages are subject to compensation taking into account the indexation of monetary incomes of citizens. Nowadays, an important legal institution that protects the honor and dignity of a person is compensation for (non-material) damage caused to him/her by illegal actions of another person. Article 297 of the Civil Code of Ukraine clearly states the right to respect for dignity and honor of a person.

Art. 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine defines the list of moral damages: physical pain and suffering by an individual due to injury or other damage to health, "mental suffering by an individual in connection with unlawful conduct towards him/her, members of his/her family or close relatives; mental suffering suffered by an individual in connection with the destruction or damage to his/her property; humiliation of honor and dignity of an individual, as well as his/her business reputation"

In our country, as a result of low general and legal culture of some citizens, the rights of police officers to respect for their honor and dignity are violated. This is often done through insults (foul language), mockery, intimidation, aggressive domination, destruction of reputation or damage to property, threats (blackmail), beatings. Humiliation of honor and dignity of a person causes negative emotions in his mind that he feels.

Depending on the character and his emotional and other individual traits, these emotions can manifest themselves with different power, depth, time, external manifestations and results, but they leave a deep black trace in the psyche.

In practice, there are many problems regarding compensation for moral damage to the injured person and while Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine defines compensation for moral damage, there are questions about the amount in monetary terms. According to most experts, compensation for moral damage cannot be adequate to the actual suffering experienced by the offended person.

In the XXI century, millions of people suffered in Ukraine due to the invasion of Russian army and their aggressive war. Some lost loved people, some lost their jobs, homes or other property. The most citizens and other persons who legally lived on the territory of Ukraine and for who Ukraine has become their home, have suffered significant moral suffering because of the war, the depth and level of which is difficult to assess, and sometimes almost impossible. But one thing is clear: the aggressor state is obligated to compensate for material and moral losses. The most effective and reliable form of protection of violated rights today is the judicial form of protection.

As you know, the Verkhovna Rada is currently considering a draft law «On compensation for damage caused to victims as a result of the armed aggression of the Russian Federation», which provides for the establishment of a special body – the Fund for compensation for damage caused to victims as a result of the armed aggression of the Russian Federation and develops a mechanism for compensation for damage caused to the health of the victim or in connection with his death, damage caused to the property of the victims and moral damage.

It is possible to define such a participant of civil procedural legal relations as a defendant in different ways, but based on the doctrine of civil procedural law, the statement that the defendant is a person who, according to the plaintiff, violated his right remains evident and undeniably true. In accordance with Part 1 of Art. 1166 of the Civil Code of Ukraine, property damage caused by unlawful decisions, actions or omissions to personal non-property rights of an individual or legal entity, as well as damage to property of an individual or legal entity, shall be compensated in full by the person who caused it.

In the studied category of cases, it was not Ukraine, its state bodies or officials who inflicted rockets, bombs and artillery strikes and caused irreparable damage to Ukraine and its citizens, but the aggressor country as a whole, which acted through specific performers. Part 2 of Article 48 of the Code of Civil Procedure states that the state may be a party to civil proceedings. That is why we consider it expedient to indicate the Russian Federation as a proper defendant in this category of cases as the main inflictor of harm

It may be noted that in the civil law of most countries (including the civil law of the Russian Federation) there is a principle according to which the state is liable for damage caused by its officials; that is, the state should be liable in full for all damage caused by any armed formations under its control or jurisdiction. Further enforcement of judgments should be carried out not by the terrorist state itself as a defendant (mortgagor), but under the procedure of enforcement proceedings in accordance with the legislation of Ukraine at the expense of a special Fund, which will be formed on the basis of arrested and confiscated property of the Russian Federation.

Thus, the judicial form of protection of the rights of individuals and legal entities violated as a result of the armed aggression of the Russian Federation, especially with regard to determining the amount of moral

damage or lost profits, is currently the most effective and appropriate. The enforcement of judgments in these cases should be carried out at the expense of the assets of the Fund for Compensation for Damage Inflicted to Victims of the Armed Aggression of the Russian Federation, since some disputes can be resolved only with the involvement of a judicial institution and are not in the competence of the Fund.

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THE THREAT OF 3D PRINTED FIREARMS: COUNTERING PROLIFERATION

The introduction of 3D printing can affect the world by simplifying construction, shortening supply and distribution chains, creating jobs, and customizing products to persons' needs. This technology has many applications, as well as the potential for abuse – people have employed it to illegally manufacture dangerous weapons.

In recent years, an increasing amount of 3D printed weapons has been seized in Europe, which is raising concerns for the European Police Office (Europol). The threat posed by 3D printed weapons is very much on the radar of Europol, because of increasing number of such firearms seized in investigations across Europe.

3D printed firearms are a type of home-crafted weapon. The term refers mainly to firearms or components of firearms that are (almost) completely made from plastic-polymers, produced with a 3D printer in just

a few days. However, the assemblance of a 3D printed firearm requires craftsmanship and technical skills, and the very first models – such as the so-called Liberator produced in 2013 – were largely deemed unreliable. More recent models have proven to be more reliable, as showcased in a number of gun shows in the United States. With this increased reliability and effectiveness, 3D printed firearms are becoming more interesting for criminals. They also value that 3D printed firearms are hard to trace, as they do not contain a serial number or other type of identification mark [2].

So a growing number of seizures of guns made at home from 3D-printed parts are raising alarm bells for European police over an emerging threat. Only in September, 2022, Icelandic police said they had arrested four people suspected of planning a «terrorist attack», confiscating several 3D-printed semi-automatic weapons.

Last year, Spanish police also, for the first time, dismantled an illegal workshop, that was dedicated to the manufacturing of 3D printed weapons in Tenerife, an island in the Atlantic archipelago of the Canary Islands.

One of the highest-profile uses of weapons with 3D-printed parts came in Germany in 2019, when two people were shot dead by an assailant who used a homemade gun, which was based on a blueprint to partly manufacture a weapon with a 3D printer, which he downloaded from the internet.

As practice shows, most reports related to 3D printed firearms in Europe are related to seizures of such firearms, rather than their use in violence incidents. Whether 3D printed firearms will be used more often in the future in violent incidents is yet to be seen.

“Rapidly evolving advanced technology may cause this to emerge as a more significant threat in the near future,” said Ina Mihaylova, a spokeswoman for European police agency of Europol. While traditional weapons are easily traceable thanks to their serial numbers and proof marks, these “home-printed” models are less easy for the authorities to track [1].

Lawmakers face challenges in regulating 3D-printed weapons, but they have made strides. For instance, in November 2013, Philadelphia became the first city to enact legislation related to such use of 3D-technology. The law forbids making or owning these weapons.

In December 2013, following the production of the Liberator and related media coverage, lawmakers extended the Federal Undetectable Firearms Act – which forbids manufacture or possession – for 10 years. As a result of the settlement with the Texas company, the U.S. Congress also has begun considering legislation to ban the online posting of 3D-printable weapon blueprints, as well as the 3D printing of some weapons.

California enacted a law that went into force on January 1, 2018. It requires 3D-printed guns to have a serial number and permanent metal component. Owners must register the weapons, and they cannot sell or transfer them. Violation constitutes a misdemeanor [3].

Unfortunately, such laws prove difficult to enforce unless authorities catch someone with an untraceable, undetectable, or unregistered

3D-printed gun. So legal systems should be getting ahead to ensure gun control regulations are not circumvented.

In this year Europol announced that an international network of 3D printed firearms experts will be created to keep law enforcement abreast of developments in 3D printed firearms. Having faced a similar threat in the United States, the US Department of Justice (DOJ) already proposed a regulation to update firearm definitions last year, closing a loophole with guns made by 3D printing technologies.

Public safety threats related to 3D printed guns are a sensitive topic in countries with stricter or non-existent public ownership of firearms. Growth in 3D printing technology provides a new and accessible tool that can be used by those with ill intentions to bypass gun laws and manufacture illegal weapons that would otherwise be difficult to acquire.

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GLOBAL TRENDS IN COMBATING CYBERCRIME

Cybercrime is crime committed via the Internet and computer systems. One category of those affecting the confidentiality, integrity and availability of data and computer systems; they include: unauthorised access to computer systems, illegal interception of data transmissions, data interference (damaging, deletion, deterioration, alteration of suppression of data), system interference, identity theft.

There are types of cybercrimes are online child sexual abuse material, material advocating a terrorist-related act, extremist material (material encouraging hate, violence or acts of terrorism), cyber-bullying (engaging in offensive, menacing or harassing behaviour through the use of technology).

Cybercrime is part of a broader cybersecurity approach, and is aimed at ensuring Internet safety and security [1].

Nothing remains static within the world of technology, and cybersecurity is no different. All around the world, developers and engineers at tech companies – or in IT and information security departments

of other businesses – continually work on methods to safeguard valuable personal, financial and professional data. Methods such as encryption, multi-step verification and others have been implemented to protect vulnerable systems [2].

But that doesn't stop the attackers, they actors on the web closely monitor cybersecurity trends and react to them by reshaping viruses, exploits and other attack methods to subvert safety nets. Thus, there always arise instances in which attackers seize the advantage and their opponents appear to have brought a knife to a gunfight, figuratively speaking [2].

Cybercrime has a complex nature, because it takes place in the boundless cyberspace, is compounded by the increasing involvement of organized crime groups. Perpetrators of cybercrime, and their victims, are often located in different regions, and its effects ripple through societies around the world. This highlights the need to mount an urgent, dynamic and international response [3].

The Global Programme on Cybercrime is mandated to assist Member States in their struggle against cyber-related crimes through capacity building and technical assistance.

Prior to the commencement of the Global Programme, UNODC's open-ended intergovernmental expert group was established to conduct a comprehensive study of the problem of cybercrime and responses to it by Member States, the international community and the private sector. This work includes the exchange of information on national legislation, best practice, technical assistance and international cooperation.

The Global Programme is designed to respond flexibly to identified needs in developing countries by supporting Member States to prevent and combat cybercrime in a holistic manner.

The Global Programme on Cybercrime funded entirely through the kind support of the Governments of Australia, Canada, Japan, Norway, UK and USA [3].

Goals of global trends in the fight against cybercrime:

- increased efficiency and effectiveness in the investigation, prosecution and adjudication of cybercrime, especially online child sexual exploitation and abuse, within a strong human-rights framework;
- efficient and effective long-term whole-of-government response to cybercrime, including national coordination, data collection and effective legal frameworks, leading to a sustainable response and greater deterrence;
- strengthened national and international communication between government, law enforcement and the private sector with increased public knowledge of cybercrime risks.

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FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF CRIME PREVENTION

Internationalization and the trend of transnational crime lead to the growing importance of such a component of crime prevention as the study and use of foreign experience. In the last two decades, the theory and practice of crime prevention has been actively developing in the USA, Canada, and Japan. Criminologists do not talk about the prevention of crime as a social phenomenon, but only about its limitations or the restraining effect on specific criminogenic factors and circumstances. Still, in the practical aspect, a lot is done by crime prevention, in particular, it is seen that prevention cannot be effective if it is not organized on a systematic and coordinated basis and does not include measures to improve the life of the population, improve criminal justice and the penitentiary system.

In the member states of the European Union, two levels of crime prevention are distinguished: social and situational. Social prevention is aimed at changing unfavorable conditions for the formation of a person's personality, especially the microenvironment and microsocio situation. Situational comes from the fact that certain categories of criminal acts occur under certain circumstances, at certain times and in certain places. The situation itself stimulates and provokes certain types of crimes (street fights in cinemas and entertainment venues, rape in parks, squares, etc.). Such prevention, according to the domestic theory, serves to prevent and stop crimes.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, primary, secondary and tertiary prevention are distinguished. The primary one is aimed at overcoming the deficit of sociality and positive legal awareness as the main cause of crimes. Secondary is carried out by police bodies and is connected with legal means of refraining from crimes. Tertiary prevention is those preventive measures and means used in the process of punishment and resocialization of criminals [1].

In many countries, appropriate bodies (for example, National Councils) have been established to coordinate preventive activities. Their main functions are: collection of information, planning, implementation and evaluation of crime prevention programs, coordination of the activities of the police and other bodies working in this area, ensuring public participation, cooperation with mass media, scientific research work, cooperation with legislative bodies, training.

In the practical activity of the police, the thesis is widely promoted that crimes occur most often when a potential criminal encounters a vulnerable, unprotected victim or object. Therefore, preventive measures should be aimed either at the criminal, or at the security system, or at the potential victim (individual, general and victimological prevention). In this

triad, special attention is paid to security prevention and purposeful work with the population aimed at its self-defense.

In the United States of America, three models of preventive action are used: the model of community institutions, the model of individual safety, and the model of exposure through the environment. Crime prevention programs are implemented at the federal and local levels. In some states, citizen participation in law enforcement has led to a 30% drop in robberies. A reward is given for information of operational and preventive importance [2].

Citizen participation in patrolling is widely practiced in Canada. Acting together with the police, civilian patrols have a positive impact: they reduce fear of criminals and maintain a sense of personal safety. If necessary, so-called checkpoints are created around identified areas of increased criminal activity, especially at night.

In Great Britain, minimum standards of criminal security have been developed, the population is widely involved in cooperation with the police (patrols, duty in the most crime-prone areas). Members of the public are given free «police» uniforms (without insignia and official paraphernalia), as well as radio communication equipment, batons, handcuffs and even weapons for «combat» patrolling in police cars. All this activity receives the moral and material support of society and the state. Much attention is paid to eliminating the causes and conditions of crimes, stopping acts of vandalism, preventive measures regarding conflict situations in the family, building trusting relations between the police and citizens.

A significant role in increasing the effectiveness of crime prevention is played by the use of scientific achievements. Particularly promising are the use of laser and other optical technology to control traffic, drugs, weapons, etc.; improvement of the methods of drawing up a socio-psychological portrait of the criminal based on the characteristic features of the crime and the situation at the place of its commission; increasing the level of information support for the prevention of crimes and their termination. The National Crime Information Center has been established in the USA. Unified system of accounting and registration of crimes and Automated fingerprint identification system.

House arrest with electronic monitoring is becoming a fairly common measure of punishment, which is an effective measure to prevent recidivism. Among the non-traditional methods of crime prevention practiced in the USA, it is worth noting attempts to use hypnosis and meditation (group sessions of hypnosis and anti-criminogenic meditation).

Studying the models, forms and methods of crime prevention used in foreign countries gives reason to conclude: there is a constant movement towards the implementation of the principles of systematicity, adequate provision, humanism and participation of all members of society in this activity [3].

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COMMUNICATION OF PUBLIC WITH LAW ENFORCEMENT BODIES IN CRIMINAL PREVENTION

The urgency of this topic is to study the interaction of the public with law enforcement agencies to reduce the number of crimes. One of the most acute problems of the present is the rapid deterioration of the crime situation in Ukraine, the rampant and impunity of criminality; as a result - the vulnerability of citizens from criminal encroachments.

According to the Constitution of Ukraine, people, their lives and health, honor and dignity, inviolability and security are recognized in our country as the highest social value, and the establishment and maintenance of human rights and freedoms is the main responsibility of the state. Constitutional rights and freedoms are guaranteed by the state and can not be abolished [1].

According to Article 7 of the Criminal Code of Ukraine, the most dangerous offense in all branches of law is a crime. It is defined as a socially dangerous offense (act or omission) committed by the subject of a crime [2].

In Ukraine, from January to June 2017, 317,633 crimes were committed. As a result of criminal acts 3,300 people died, among which 22.6 % were deliberately killed, 29.9 % were killed as a result of road accidents, related to crimes, 8.2 % – as a result of intentional grave bodily harm.

Law enforcement agencies are state bodies that, according to the law of the state, carry out law enforcement activities.

The activities of law enforcement bodies are aimed at ensuring the rule of law and law and order, protecting the rights and interests of citizens, social groups, society and the state, preventing, stopping offenses, applying state coercion or measures of public influence on persons who have violated the law and the rule of law.

The public is one or more natural or legal persons, their associations, organizations or groups acting in accordance with current legislation of Ukraine or practice.

The law enforcement bodies are entrusted with the functions of directly ensuring the protection of public order and public safety; they have a leading role in the organization of interaction with the public involved in the protection of law and order. The main contemporary provisions of the interaction of bodies of internal affairs with the population are enshrined in the legal documents regulating the activities of the bodies of internal affairs. For example, in the provision «On the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine» it is stated that «the Ministry of Internal Affairs, in the course of fulfilling its tasks, interacts, in the established manner, with ... local self-government bodies, citizens' unions, public unions, trade unions and employer organizations ...» [3].

Similar directions of the bodies of internal affairs activity are also reflected in item 8 of the law «On National Police».

From the above, one can conclude that the interaction of law enforcement agencies with public formations is based on the general principles of public administration. These principles and forms of interaction of the bodies of internal affairs with public formations on the protection of law and order are enshrined in the regulations governing the activities of the bodies of internal affairs and public formations, as well as other acts. Forms of interaction between law enforcement agencies and public groups participating in the protection of law and order were identified in our study.

1. There is the exchange of information about the state of public order and public safety. This information is needed to identify topical objectives for preventing and stopping offenses, planning work, improving its effectiveness, and evaluating end-points.

2. Planning and implementation of measures to ensure the protection of public order and public safety and the prevention and suppression of offenses is very important for the society.

3. Provision by the law enforcement agencies of assistance and support to public entities in the fulfillment of their tasks regarding law and order helps in their mutual work.

It should be noted that the strengthening of interaction between law enforcement bodies and the public is of great importance. For these purposes, preventive measures are organized and implemented with the involvement of citizens. The population is informed about the state of public order, about clearing up the crimes. The heads of internal affairs bodies, district inspectors and other police officers report the public and the population living on the territory served about the activities of the internal affairs bodies.

Police often appeal to the public to assist them in: tracing criminals, missing persons; finding witnesses, children, etc. These appeals may include: requests for assistance to police officers in the enforcement of law

and order in the territory of the microdistrict, district, city, etc.; proposals for formations from residents of one or another house for the protection of order in the entrances, yards, as well as for the prevention of apartment thefts, the theft of motor vehicles and other crimes; the notification of telephone numbers, according to which citizens can circulate the necessary information about illegal encroachments on their rights, freedoms, property and other legitimate interests.

Support for communication with the media is a prerequisite for fulfilling the tasks and functions entrusted to the bodies of internal affairs. Contacts with journalists and other media representatives can help: assist them in obtaining and verifying information (conducting interviews, reviewing materials, engaging press representatives to participate in beats, patrols and other events).

The most common forms of communication with representatives and leaders of these associations, as practice show, are:

- support of leaders of national communities, religious associations of permanent relations, coordination of efforts to prevent inter-ethnic conflicts among the population, in particular through participation in the mass media;

- participation of representatives of internal affairs bodies in congresses, conferences, demonstrations, exchange of information with deputies, leaders of social movements and religious denominations;

- interviews of leaders of parties, movements, communities on issues of ensuring public order and public security in a populated area serviced by one or another body of internal affairs, as well as with the purpose of elucidating public opinion about the work of the internal affairs bodies (police).

According to the Minister of Internal Affairs Arsen Avakov the number of crimes committed at the end of 2017 decreased by 19 %. It is the result of the actions of mutual work of law enforcement bodies and the public in preventing and investigating crimes [4].

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LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES ACTIVITIES IN FRANCE

In French, the term *police* not only refers to the forces, but also to the general concept of «maintenance of law and order» (policing). There are two types of police in this general sense: administrative police (police administrative), upholding public order, safety checks and traffic controls, assistance to people in imminent danger, protection duties, etc. judicial police (police judiciaire), handling penal law enforcement and investigation of crimes and felonies under the authority of a Magistrate (Procureur de la République) in every case.

The police administrative comprises a variety of actions undertaken under the direction and supervision of the executive branch, police and gendarmerie forces conduct a variety of actions ensuring public order. They include: directing road traffic, channelling street demonstrations, positioning riot control forces (CRS or mobile gendarmerie).

There are three main police forces in France: the police nationale, the gendarmerie nationale and the Compagnie Républicaine de la Sécurité (CRS). French policemen are addressed formally as monsieur/madame l'agent and colloquially called flics (cops), although there are many less polite names.

The police are under the control of the Ministry of the Interior and are called agents de police. They deal with all crime within the jurisdiction of their police station. The role of the National Police is generally to ensure that the laws are observed and enforced. Efforts are also directed at the prevention of delinquency. In that context, the National Police: conducts security operations (e.g. patrols, traffic control, identity checks); and under the supervision of the judiciary, conducts criminal enquiries, serves search warrants, etc., as well as maintaining specific “judiciary police” services for criminal enquiries.

The gendarmerie nationale/gardes-mobiles is part of the army and under the control of the Ministry of Defense, although it's at the service of the Ministry of the Interior. They deal with serious crime on a national scale and general law and order in rural areas and are responsible for highway patrols, air safety, mountain rescue, and air and coastal patrols. Gendarmes include police motorcyclists (motards), who patrol in pairs. The 3,600 brigades of gendarmes are to be linked into groups of three or four to improve law enforcement in rural areas.

The CRS is often referred to as the riot police, as it is responsible for crowd control and public disturbances, although it also has other duties, including life-saving on beaches in summer. Over the years the CRS has acquired a notorious reputation for its violent response to demonstrations

(manifestations) and public disturbances, although often under extreme provocation.

In addition to the three kinds of police mentioned above, most cities and medium-sized towns have a municipal police (police municipale/corps urbain), which deals mainly with petty crime, traffic offenses and road accidents, and there's a general movement in favor of 'neighborhood policing' (îlotage) throughout France. While officers of the gendarmerie nationale, the police nationale and the CRS are armed, police municipale aren't, unless the local préfet and maire decide that they should be. There are also various special police forces, including the Groupement d'Intervention de la Gendarmerie Nationale (GIGN), a sort of SAS unit; the Police de l'Air et des Frontières (PAF), border guards; the Direction Centrale des Renseignements Généraux (DCRG or RG), the 'intelligence' squad; the Police Judiciary (PJ), the criminal investigation department; Surveillance du Territoire (SDT), a counter-espionage division; an anti-terrorist unit called Recherche, Assistance, Intervention et Discussion (RAID); and the CSP, anti-terrorist police who guard embassies and government buildings in Paris, who wear blue windcheaters, carry machine guns and aren't the best people to ask directions to the Eiffel Tower.

The French legal system abides by the principle of unity of the civil and criminal justice systems. The French Code of Criminal Procedure (CCP) outlines police public order powers, as well as the powers of investigation. Criminal courts of first instance handle violations of the law listed in the Penal Code and are divided into three categories, depending on the nature and severity of the crime: first instance tribunals (petty offences and civil disputes), criminal tribunals (offences with possible punishment of up to 5 years of imprisonment and heavy civil disputes) and Assize courts.

The Public Prosecutor's Office initiates criminal proceedings and then transfers cases to an examining magistrate. However, they supervise and control all police and gendarmerie investigations before such transfers. Once a case has been transferred and a judicial investigation begun, the police and gendarmerie officers act under the direct authority and supervision of the examining magistrate.

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UKRAINE'S STRATEGIC COOPERATION WITH EUROPEAN POLICE OFFICE – LEGAL ASPECT

The current stage of Ukraine's development shows that it identifies itself as a European state that pursues an open foreign policy and strives to strengthen equal cooperation with interested partners, namely European states and international organizations with the aim of guaranteeing security, sovereignty and protection of territorial integrity. This is primarily due to the open full-scale invasion of the Russian Federation on February 24, 2022 and the unprecedented destruction of the Ukrainian civilian population, the Ukrainian destruction of Ukrainian cities and infrastructure, cultural and spiritual national values.

A significant impetus was the adoption of the Resolution on the immediate grant of candidate status to the European Union (hereinafter – EU) to Ukraine by the European Parliament on June 23, 2022. This historic decision became the embodiment of the principles of Ukraine's foreign policy, namely ensuring the national interests and security of Ukraine by maintaining peaceful and mutually beneficial cooperation with members of the international community according to the generally recognized principles and norms of international law in accordance with the Part 2 of Article 11 of the Law «The Principles of Foreign and Domestic Policy» [1] and Article 18 of the Constitution of Ukraine «Ukraine's foreign policy activities are aimed at ensuring its national interests and security by maintaining peaceful and mutually beneficial cooperation with members of the international community according to generally recognized principles and norms of international law» [2].

It is worth noting that cooperation between Ukraine and the EU is currently relevant in the law enforcement sector, which involves the need to combine the capabilities of states, increase the effectiveness of the use of international police cooperation tools and improve coordinated measures of legal regulation at the international and national levels. The Article 1 of the Maastricht Treaty (The Treaty on European Union) regulates the decision to create a specialized police service within the EU – the European Police Office (Europol). In 1995 The Europol Convention was adopted. Subsequently, the EU member states ratified the Convention, which entered into force on October 1, 1998.

The purpose of Europol is to strengthen the mutual cooperation of the competent authorities of the EU member states in the fight against organized crime, terrorism and other forms of serious crimes affecting two or more EU member states. On December 14, 2016, the Agreement on operational and strategic cooperation was signed between Ukraine and Europol and automatically terminated the previous Agreement between

Ukraine and Europol on strategic cooperation of 2009. According to the content of the Agreement 2017, the cooperation of the authorities extends to all areas of crime that are within the Europol's competence [3]. The main task of cooperation is the exchange of information. However, cooperation may include the exchange of specialized knowledge, general summaries, results of strategic analysis, information on criminal investigation procedures, information on crime prevention methods, participation in training activities, as well as providing advice and support in individual criminal investigations.

It is important to understand that Europol is not a law enforcement agency in the classical sense. The functions of Europol are its activity as a center for informational and analytical cooperation of law enforcement agencies of the EU member states as a center for criminal intelligence. Among other things, the Europol Agency also functions as a development center of specialized law enforcement expertise and assists the EU member states in organizing law enforcement training.

As a general rule, Ukraine's interaction with Europol is carried out through the direct data exchange between Europol and other competent bodies of Ukraine such as: the National Police of Ukraine, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine, the State Border Guard Service of Ukraine, the Central Office of the Security of Ukraine, the State Fiscal Service of Ukraine, the National Anti-Corruption bureau of Ukraine, the Prosecutor General's Office of Ukraine.

It is worth mentioning about the close contact of Europol with Ukraine in connection with Ukraine's war against the Russian Federation. The Ukrainian side continues to comply with the instructions and cooperates in matters of interest to the internal security of the EU as much as possible. In addition, the ways of interaction between units of the National Police of Ukraine with Europol and law enforcement agencies of the EU member states in matters of investigation of war crimes are constantly being developed.

The examples of the joint activity of Ukraine and Europol are: operation "Oscar", which aims to search and seize the assets of individuals and legal entities who are under the sanctions in connection with the war in Ukraine; struggle with trafficking of Ukrainian refugees and sexual exploitation of women against the background of the War; combating the illegal circulation of firearms, ammunition, explosives and explosive preparations, and others.

As a conclusion, the modern phase of the development of Ukraine's cooperation with Europol is characterized by a rapid strengthening of the fight against various types of crime. In relation to the full-scale Russian Federation's invasion of the territory of Ukraine and the general criminogenic situation in Ukraine especially contribute to the deepening of cooperation in this area not only with Europol, but also with the European Union in total. In addition, the consequence of the Agreement on Strategic and Operational Cooperation 2016 has become a completely logical stage in

the positive progress of relations between the parties. Ukraine's practice with international organizations is important in the context of successfully solving practical tasks in the law enforcement sector and the necessary purpose of the requirements achievement for compliance with the criteria for the EU future accession.

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PROTECTION OF EDUCATION DURING ARMED CONFLICT IN UKRAINE

The war in Ukraine has resulted in more than 6 million Ukrainians fleeing to neighboring countries. This includes nearly 665,000 students (16 % of total number of enrolled students) and over 25,000 educators (6 % of total educators in the country). Another 8 million Ukrainians are displaced internally. Refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) include primarily children, women, and older people. Over 74 % of IDPs have children within their households. Displacement has had a significant impact on education service delivery, along with damage and destruction of educational facilities. As of May 6, 2022, according to the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (MoES), 1,635 schools and universities (5 % of total) have been damaged from the war and 126 have been destroyed [1]

As the war tears at the social institutions of the country, education has been one of the major casualties. Parents, teachers and school administrators are scrambling to provide classes for the 5.5 million school-age children who remain in the country, as well as for thousands of others who have fled to other countries.

In many places, students are connecting with their normal classrooms online, if their hometown schools are still operating and they have access to the internet. But with such vast displacement of teachers and students, the paths to learning are circuitous: In some cases, teachers who relocated within Ukraine are instructing students who have already fled the country, through a school system that they both left behind.

Millions of children and teachers have been forced to flee their homes since the Russian invasion began in February. Some end up elsewhere in Europe as refugees and join classrooms in unfamiliar countries and in unfamiliar languages. Some have taken advantage of initiatives by Ukraine's ministry of education that allow them to continue their studies online while sheltering abroad – even if it is not through their own school district.

More than 13,000 schools have instituted remote learning, and a few dozen have a blend of in-person and online learning. There are nearly 1,100 schools in areas where the educational process has been suspended entirely because the security situation is so tense, officials said.

Many classrooms across Ukraine are simply unusable, after being damaged or destroyed, or used in some areas for military purposes [2].

Teaching children how to act during an attack or an air raid siren. At a community center in Kharkiv, senior police officer Dmytro Klymenko is standing in front of a whiteboard, instructing 9- and 10-year-olds how to stay safe during the war. He's introducing the topic of the two-wall rule. He draws a diagram on the board, with a circle to represent an explosion on one side, two lines for the two walls in the middle and a stick figure on the other side. «The first wall will take the explosion», he tells the kids. «The second wall will get the debris from the first wall». Most students have heard this information before. They know the answer when Klymenko asks what they'll do if a stranger approaches them (tell their mom, tell their teacher) and they know what belongings they should have in their bags when they go to the bomb shelter (their documents, a flashlight, a snack and a power bank to charge a phone). Across the country, conversations like these are happening in schools and youth organizations. A new initiative from the Ministry of Internal Affairs in Ukraine is sending nearly two dozen security specialists to help students understand how to shelter properly and deal with explosive objects. In the classroom in Kharkiv, 9-year-old Sasha Zhuravliov is listening to Klymenko intently. He says hates when things are out of order, and lately, with the war, a lot of things have been out of order. «This makes me really uncomfortable», Sasha says. What does he do when he feels this way? «I take three deep breaths and then three normal breaths», he says, just like his dad taught him when the war started. He says the breathing technique has been helping. Experts say nearly all of Ukraine's more than 5 million children have experienced trauma. Sasha isn't alone. Experts say that nearly all of Ukraine's children have experienced trauma. Since Russia's invasion in February, children have been displaced from their homes, lost loved ones, witnessed violence and in some cases, experienced it firsthand.

The biggest challenge for Ukrainian educators in the coming months won't be academic – it will be in recognizing the effects of trauma and helping children work through it. Doing that virtually – makes it even harder [3].

And yet, while the war rages, schools open wherever they can, for face-to-face or online learning. One of the many ‘unprecedented’ of the COVID pandemic is a situation where a country like Ukraine now has a developed infrastructure for remote learning, while its children have experience of turning to technology for their education. The Ukrainian Ministry of Education and Science (MON) reports that as of 21 April, nearly 90 % of schools are operating in some form. Over 12,000 secondary schools have introduced remote learning, with over 3.7 million students taking part in some kind of schooling (out of a total of 14,000 schools with 4.2 million students, excluding Crimea, Luhansk and Donetsk). In 14 of 25 regions, all educational institutions are operating, via remote learning; three regions are running remote, blended or face-to-face learning; and at least some schools are running remotely in remaining regions. Kindergartens operate in 15 regions, while most vocational, professional and higher education institutions are running where the local situation permits [4].

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LA LUTTE CONTRE LA CYBERCRIMINALITÉ DANS L’UNION EUROPEENNE

Avec la numérisation rapide de la vie quotidienne, encore accélérée par la pandémie de Covid-19, la protection contre les cybermenaces est devenue essentielle au bon fonctionnement de la société [1].

En droit pénal le cybercrime est défini comme une activité criminelle qui cible ou utilise un ordinateur, un réseau informatique ou un appareil mis en réseau. Selon l’ONU, il s’agit de «tout comportement illégal faisant intervenir des opérations électroniques qui visent la sécurité des systèmes d’information et des données qu’ils traitent» [2]. La plupart des cybercrimes

sont commis par des cybercriminels ou des pirates informatiques qui cherchent à gagner de l'argent. Cependant, il arrive que la cybercriminalité vise à endommager des ordinateurs ou des réseaux pour des raisons autres que le gain. Elles peuvent être d'ordre politique ou personnel [4].

On distingue trois types de cybercrimes: les activités criminelles traditionnelles commises au moyen d'outils informatiques, la publication de contenus illicites et les infractions spécifiques aux systèmes d'information [6].

Les statistiques montrent que les bandes organisées internationales sont derrière la plupart des escroqueries sur Internet, et le coût estimé de la cybercriminalité est plus élevé que les trafics de cocaïne, d'héroïne et de marijuana confondus. En Europe, le coût de la cybercriminalité a apparemment atteint 750 milliards d'euros par an [3].

Au niveau de l'Union européenne, Europol constitue, l'agence compétente pour prévenir et réprimer la cybercriminalité. L'unité anti-cybercriminalité d'Europol constitue la cheville ouvrière d'Europol en matière de lutte contre la cybercriminalité. Les missions qui lui sont dévolues en matière de collecte et de partage de l'information concernent également les faits délictueux ayant lieu sur internet [6].

On notera que Europol centralise l'expertise et l'information, et apporte un soutien opérationnel dans le cadre d'enquêtes communes réalisées à l'échelle de l'Union européenne. Il prépare des rapports évaluant les risques de cybermenaces et publie des «alertes» précoces. L'unité anti-cybercriminalité d'Europol met à la disposition des unités répressives des États membres de l'Union européenne un service d'assistance en cas de cyberattaques.

Actuellement l'Union européenne est confrontée à divers enjeux en matière de lutte contre la cybercriminalité. Le Parlement européen fait un constat accablant: impunité des cybercriminels, complexité des procédures, localisation des preuves numériques et de l'origine de ces cyberattaques etc [6].

On sait déjà qu'en novembre 2022, le Parlement européen a mis à jour la législation de l'Union européenne afin de renforcer les investissements dans une cybersécurité améliorée pour les services essentiels et les infrastructures critiques et pour accroître les règles à l'échelle de l'Union européenne [1].

Pour conclure, il faut reconnaître que l'Union européenne met tout en œuvre pour lutter contre la cybercriminalité, promouvoir la cyber-résilience et renforcer la cyberdéfense.

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FIGHTING CRIME AND INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

The fight against crime in different countries of the world is quite interesting and varied. In the resemblance to Ukraine there is a respect for the law of justice and honesty. Our present day is that the criminal world is becoming more and more violent every day. Unfortunately, criminals are also not far behind the latest technologies, looking for new ways of committing crimes to achieve their goal. Some countries are significantly addicted to drugs, some are legalized. Crime is one of the major threats to the national security of states.

According to statistics provided by the Prosecutor General's Office of Ukraine by law enforcement officers, as of today, more than 13,000 unsolved cases of murder are being investigated. At first glance, the detection and investigation of crimes in this category should not cause difficulties. The killings, unfortunately, have been committed and continue to be committed throughout human history. However, with the development of modern technology, new ways of committing and disguising killings are emerging. But, in the investigation of such crimes, it is difficult because of the poor training of investigators, criminal police officers and insufficient knowledge of their techniques, tactics and organization of detection and prevention of murders committed by criminals. In accordance with the National Security Strategy of States, the criminal and criminal procedural legislation is envisaged in line with the standards and recommendations of the Council of Europe and the European Union. That is why the study and generalization of international experience and its introduction into the day-to-day activities of the law enforcement agencies of our country is so important. In addition, in accordance with the purpose of this article, it is necessary to summarize the international experience of promptly investigative counteraction to the killings that are committed and to submit proposals for its implementation in the practice of law enforcement agencies.

In the context of this, let us turn to I.M. Okhrimenko, who divided the process of borrowing foreign experience into several stages: 1) gathering information about the experience of an individual state or group of states; 2) analysis to identify the positive and negative sides of a particular model, distributed in different countries 3) establishing the degree of acceptability of such a model for Ukraine; 4) development of scientific bases, methodological recommendations on the introduction of such experience in Ukraine; 5) implementation of the model in practice with constant scientific support, observation of the state of «engraftment» of innovations in the domestic field; 6) support of the educational process, from the conclusion of classes to the organization of interaction with teachers, the work of methodologists, heads of courses. We support the opinion of the scientist that first we need to create a serious basis for scientific research and the introduction of foreign experience in the day-to-day work of law enforcement agencies. As a law enforcement officer, I can say that Ukraine is most likely to commit such offenses as theft, murder, forgery, corruption of rape, robbery, fraud, kidnapping, but not only in our situation, but also in most countries of the world and the European Union.

Professor Tymchuk OL divided all countries of the world into five groups of premeditated killings: 1) states with a very low level of premeditated killings are mostly developed states of Europe, in particular, Austria, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Netherlands, Czech Republic, Switzerland, Ireland, France; some developed countries in Asia (Japan, Republic of Korea, Singapore); Some other Asian countries (Brunei, China, Vietnam). The same group includes: in Africa – Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria, Egypt; in Oceania – Australia, New Zealand, Micronesia, Palau; separate Arab states (Bahrain, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia); in North America – Canada; 2) states with low levels of premeditated killings: in Europe – Belarus, Bulgaria, Romania, Finland, Latvia, Albania, Montenegro; in Asia – Azerbaijan, Georgia, Israel, Iran, Nepal, India, Thai; in Africa – Libya, Mauritius, Niger; in Latin America – Chile and Bolivia; in North America – US. 3) states with an average level of premeditated killings. This group includes: in Europe Moldova, Estonia, Ukraine, Asia-Indonesia, Philippines, Mongolia; in Latin America – Uruguay, Haiti, Bolivia, Cuba, Argentina; in Afriz – Madagascar, Mali, Senegal, Mozambique; 4) States with high levels of premeditated killings. These are mainly the states of Africa (Rouen, Namibia, Botswana, Sudan) and Latin America (Nicaragua, Paraguay, Mexico, Brazil, Ecuador); high level of intentional 5) states with an extremely high level of premeditated killings. These are mainly the states of Central (Belize, Guatemala, El Salvador, Ho-Nduras) and South America (Colombia, Venez-El), as well as some African countries – South Africa, Lerato, Swaziland, Zambia. Extremely high level OL Tymchuk rightly noted that it is premeditated killings that have minimal latency in any country in the world, so this type of crime most accurately characterizes the degree and extent of the spread of social pathology in a particular state and the level of aggression of society. Therefore, given that the last eight years

Ukraine has been in the conditions of war, it is necessary to pay attention to the experience of the state, and conflicts from neighboring countries. It should be emphasized that in Israel, the formation of a high level of public confidence in police officers has a developed institute of cooperation with volunteers. These persons perform the tasks of the unit to which they are assigned, namely: patrol the streets, check the documents of the suspected persons, draw up protocols during the violation of the rules of the road. Thus, in the process of joint activity with civilians, transparency of the functioning of the police bodies is ensured, which limits the cases of corruption. In addition, the reasons for success in securing public order and opposing unlawful manifestations are mainly hidden in the national culture and traditional way of life of society.

We agree with Professor V.V. Sereda which at this stage of law enforcement development and reform, new methods and forms of public involvement in cooperation with the police, including national minorities, should be applied.

Professor G.V. Didkovskaya cites, as an example, the experience of Switzerland, where they successfully combine different social institutions, their anti-criminogenic and preventive functions. "Switzerland has become a kind of security island in the stormy sea of rapidly growing European teenage crime," the researcher said. Studies by western criminologists have shown that the causes that impede the rise of juvenile delinquency in this country are: the slow process of urbanization; low mobility of the population, dominance of indigenous people from (those who have several generations lived in one place) with stable traditions of behavior and social control; There is a high level of justice in this country; The police are decentralized and focused on the interests of citizens; Courts choose teenagers predominantly alternative to imprisonment; Married women are the least in Europe to engage in professional activities that allow children to pay attention; School education eliminates permissiveness, contains many prohibitions; The country has a very low youth unemployment rate; Family education has a distinct patriarchal character of interesting and useful use in Ukraine, in our view, the experience of crime prevention in Japan.

The uniqueness of the crime prevention system in this country, as noted by M.O. Svirin and M.M. David's, is that all police activity is based on a scientific basis. The Japanese police are conducting research on crime prevention, study of psychological aspects of a criminal personality, analysis of a criminogenic situation, etc.

In Japan, there are four systems of crime prevention: – in the broad sense (covers almost all spheres of social life); – in a narrow sense (a set of specific purposeful state events); – control at the state and municipal levels and informal control; – Early prevention and prevention of recurrent crime. To prevent primary crime in Japan, in particular, difficult adolescents at school are identified and exposed to individual educational influence; There is widespread advocacy for law-abiding, police, school, public organizations; Measures are being taken to eliminate the conditions of the

crime. The main factor in the effectiveness of crime control in Japan is intensive educational work. The state and society, based on national traditions, educate law-abiding citizens inclined to put their work and well-being in rigid interdependence.

The opinion of A.S. Yunina, who proposed a two-component classification of countries that differently assess the impact of the implementation of police (law enforcement) function within the development of police units: countries with advanced police function and countries with limited law enforcement function. Countries with advanced police function should be understood as countries that underpin a stable public order established by democratic norms, legal order, and an effective system of law enforcement agencies. Countries with a limited law enforcement function are a function of the state to protect the rights and legitimate interests of citizens, to ensure public order and public security, but only in the interests of the state, which in itself limits the observance of the law and objectivity and activity of law enforcement agencies while ensuring this function. In countries with advanced police function, it is assumed that the establishment of control over crime, although it belongs to the main activities of police bodies, is at the same time the task of the whole society. Because of this, the evaluation of the effectiveness of police units is not based on crime data, but on the basis of the specific responsibilities assigned to them.

Also interesting are the works of OV Manjay, who analyzed the methodology of criminal intelligence in foreign countries. Thus, the scientist notes that the use of the methodology of criminal (police) intelligence by western law enforcement agencies can help to improve the operational situation in our country, including in the direction of preventive activity. The meaning of criminal intelligence is to accumulate intelligence, which is appropriately analyzed. As a result, conclusions are formed that contain proposals for further criminal investigation. In general, intelligence is divided into two types: - strategic (which relates to long-term goals of law enforcement agencies. It usually reflects current and prospective trends in the criminal environment, threats to public safety and order, etc.); - operative (provides a group involved in the investigation, versions and conclusions regarding any unlawful acts. It includes assumptions and conclusions regarding organized criminal groups, groups or individuals involved in criminal activities, their methods, opportunities, vulnerabilities, etc., which may be used by law enforcement agencies)

Crime in European countries devoted its work to O.Yu. Shostko It paid particular attention to the consideration of the most effective measures to combat organized crime in different European countries, recommendations on the implementation of positive foreign experience in the legislation of Ukraine and in the practical activity of Ukrainian subjects of combating crime. The researcher notes that Ukraine has taken some steps towards adapting its legislation to international legal acts, although this process, in her opinion, is slow enough and not applies to all norms. In addition, European

countries use a multi-sectoral approach based on three interrelated principles in their activities in combating crime: the implementation of European standards, the assessment of European legislation to comply with these standards, and the implementation of technical cooperation programs with individual countries or groups of countries.

Conclusion: Evaluating the foreign experience of crime prevention, it is important to note that this activity in the countries of the European Union and the USA is carried out on the basis of the measures of methodologies, the latest technologies and improvement of the training of law enforcement agencies. Foreign experience proves that in order to effectively combat organized crime, it is advisable to emphasize the mechanism of strengthening the state system of destructive influence on crime and to create social mechanisms that will ensure the elimination of system-forming factors that determine the advantages of organized crime, as well as overcoming the priorities of the evolution of the mafia over the evolution of state anti-criminal, anti-corruption structures.

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FIGHTING ORGANIZED CRIME: INTERNATIONAL EFFORTS

Organized crime is a bit of a confusing concept. However, organized crime is also embedded locally and has a local impact. Local preventionists and police officers, too, have important roles to play in the prevention of, and fight against, organized crime [1, p. 1].

Combating international organized crime is one of the major challenges for the international community. International organized crime forms part of a complex set of new security challenges. This calls for a multi-faceted approach to the problems we are facing. Although law enforcement is primarily the responsibility of sovereign nations, crime is becoming increasingly global. Thus, organized crime requires a coordinated international response and a close regional cooperation.

Within this framework, there is need for:

- creating coordinated comprehensive national strategies;
- quick exchange of information and experience among the law enforcement officers and other criminal justice officers;
- cooperating in the area of border security;
- creating public awareness on transnational crime as a national security threat in order to enlist citizens participation in combating organized crime.

Furthermore, considering the fact that transnational criminal syndicates always penetrate the weakest defenses of government institutions, counter-measures should be taken to strengthen these institutions including reforms targeting the elimination of corruption. Cooperating to put an end to various forms of organized crimes by acceding to international instruments is also an important step. «The United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime» and its three Protocols are among such international instruments [2].

Electronic surveillance is a highly effective law enforcement tool against organized crime groups. Such surveillance may occur live and real-time or occur after-the-fact. In proving a crime, nothing is more effective than the use of the defendant's own words, as those words generally provide

reliable, objective evidence of crime. Electronic surveillance also enables law enforcement agencies to learn about crimes before they occur by surveillance criminal activities, such as conspirators making plans to meet or deliver contraband, or disrupting activities, where appropriate. Such surveillance is also helpful against transnational groups because it enables law enforcement agencies to intercept conspirators in the United States discussing future crimes with associates outside the country, which is evidence that would otherwise be difficult to obtain. Electronic surveillance has moved beyond the more traditional telephone surveillance, oral eavesdropping devices, and video surveillance. Now, electronic surveillance also includes a variety of content and other data, including live and stored electronic communications, social media activity, computer keystrokes, and cell-site locations [3, p. 14].

An undercover operation is another significant technique against organized crime groups, and often complements electronic surveillance efforts. Undercover operations allow law enforcement agents to infiltrate the highest levels of organized crime groups by posing as criminals while real criminals meet to discuss their plans and seek assistance in committing crimes. The scope of undercover operations varies greatly. Such operations can be short, lasting only a few hours, or quite lengthy, lasting years. They may investigate a single criminal incident, or a complex criminal enterprise that commits various crimes. The types of crimes investigated by undercover operations also vary. For instance, undercover operations may involve the purchase of contraband such as drugs, stolen property or illegal firearms, or they may involve the operation of an undercover business where criminals meet and discuss their activities with undercover officers or informers [3, p. 16].

Another critical law enforcement technique is the use of confidential informants. In the U.S. law enforcement community, a confidential informant is someone who provides information or assistance to the authorities in return for a promise that the authorities will try to keep his or her identity confidential. Some confidential informants are willing to testify, while others are not. In the event that a confidential informant is not willing to testify, law enforcement authorities cannot absolutely guarantee the informant's confidentiality, because in relatively rare circumstances courts may decide that due process, or concerns of fundamental fairness, require that a confidential informant's identity be disclosed to a defendant charged with a crime where the informant can provide evidence that could exculpate the defendant. However, those situations are rare. In most cases, law enforcement authorities are able to keep an informant's identity confidential [3, p. 17].

Organized crime groups operate all over the world, whether they take the shape of the Mafia, gangs, cybercrime groups, or a variety of other forms. Likewise, they pose a variety of dangers, including murders, child exploitation, human trafficking, robbery, frauds, narcotics, identity theft, and extortion. In recent years, these dangers have been amplified by advances in technology and globalization. Capitalizing on these advances,

organized crime groups communicate faster, hide their money in more locations, travel more cheaply, and may conceal their activities through encryption. The tools discussed in this article are essential to the U.S. government's efforts against such organized crime groups. Electronic surveillance, undercover operations, informants, RICO, compelled and cooperating witness testimony, witness protection, and financial tools such as forfeiture all help the U.S. government pierce the secretive and violent world of organized crime groups and bring those groups to justice [3, p. 23].

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THE RUSSIAN MILITARY AGGRESSION AGAINST UKRAINE: WAR CRIME INVESTIGATIONS (22 MARCH – 5 APRIL 2022)

Human, the most superior and the highest value of the world. It is a creature who has already known its value and also its a creature which is trying to increase that value. So, what are the social necessity to help us to define it and necessity to make human be a human? That is of course RIGHTS. Rights are legal, social, or ethical principles of freedom or entitlement; that is, rights are the fundamental normative rules about what is allowed of people or owed to people according to some legal system, social convention, or ethical theory. So, what are the human rights and freedoms in conditions of military aggression?

In recent decades, armed conflict has blighted the lives of millions of civilians. Serious violations of international humanitarian and human rights law are common in many armed conflicts. In certain circumstances, some of these violations may even constitute genocide, war crimes or crimes against humanity. It is often during armed conflicts that human rights are infringed upon the most. Therefore, over the years, experts have focused much attention on the formulation of instruments aimed at alleviating human suffering during war and conflict. Today, three areas of modern international law attempt to provide protection to victims of war: human rights law, refugee law and humanitarian law. While these fields are closely linked, they need to be distinguished systematically.

International criminal law (ICL) and IHL prohibit torture and inhuman treatment of any person, regardless of status, whether civilian or military [1]. ICL and IHL also prohibit attacking or killing civilians [2]. Violations of the prohibition on killing civilians, as well as inhuman treatment, constitute serious violations of IHL [3]. Torture and killing constitute war crimes and/or crimes against humanity [4].

The Armed Forces of Ukraine regained control over the territory of Kyiv and Sumy Oblasts which had been occupied by the Armed Forces of the Russian Federation for several weeks. After the end of the occupation by the Russian Federation, about 400 executed and tortured civilians were found in Kyiv Oblast in Bucha, Hostomel, and Motyzhyn; another 200 people went missing in Borodyanka. It is also known that there have been persecutions and executions of civilians in Sumy and Chernihiv Oblasts.

The Russian troops in Ukraine had sexually assaulted women and men, including children and elderly people. Victims rarely publicly report sexual violence.

ICL and IHL establish rules for the general protection of civilian objects and entire cities, towns, dwellings, and buildings which are undefended and which are not military objectives.[5] Attacks and other forms of violence against such objects are prohibited in international armed conflict and are considered war crimes and violations of IHL.

International law prohibits both intentional and indiscriminate attacks on civilians and civilian objects. The prohibition includes attacks which are not directed at a specific military objective; attacks which employ a method or means of combat which cannot be directed at a specific military objective or of which the effects cannot be limited and consequently are of a nature to affect military objectives and civilians or civilian objects without distinction; an attack by bombardment by any methods or means which treats as a single military objective a number of clearly separated and distinct military objectives located in a city, town, village, or other area with a concentration of civilians or civilian objects; an attack which may be expected to cause incidental loss of civilian life, injury to civilians, damage to civilian objects, or a combination thereof, which would be excessive in relation to the concrete and direct military advantage anticipated.[6]

The Russian Federation shelled with artillery and bombed the eastern and southern regions of Ukraine, including Kharkiv, Donetsk, Luhansk, and Mykolaiv Oblasts.

According to IHL and ICL standards, civilian objects receive special protection due to their humanitarian significance. Such facilities include hospitals, food warehouses, and installations containing dangerous forces, namely dams [7]. The Armed Forces of the Russian Federation attacked at least eight specially protected objects – hospitals, food warehouses, and a dam.

IHL and ICL have special rules for providing civilians with necessary humanitarian aid during hostilities, including food, water, and medicine. The parties to an international armed conflict have an obligation to allow and facilitate the rapid and unimpeded passage of humanitarian aid. Humanitarian

aid personnel and transport are protected under IHL. Actions that create obstacles to the provision of humanitarian aid constitute violations of IHL and can be considered part of the war crime of starvation of civilians [8].

In addition, IHL obliges the parties to the conflict to remove civilian populations, individual civilians and civilian objects under the control of one of the parties to the conflict from the vicinity of military objectives. The parties to the conflict are obliged to ensure the removal from encircled or besieged areas of wounded, sick, infirm, and aged persons, children, and maternity cases, as well as the passage of ministers of all religions, medical personnel, and medical equipment on their way to such areas [9].

During the reporting period, there were at least three cases in which the Armed Forces of the Russian Federation deliberately impeded access to humanitarian aid to the needy in Mariupol and Kharkiv; two cases of attacks on humanitarian personnel; and four cases of sabotage of evacuation corridors. ICL and IHL prohibit the forcible transfer or deportation of civilian populations from occupied territories. Violations of these norms represents a war crime and/or a crime against humanity and a serious violation of IHL norms [10].

During the reporting period, the Armed Forces of the Russian Federation forcibly transferred thousands of civilians from Mariupol, Kherson, Donetsk, and Luhansk Oblasts.

ICL and IHL protect civilian property from pillage by the parties to an armed conflict. They also prohibit the destruction and seizure of any property (including personal, collective, and state property) that is not justified by military necessity [11].

Russian troops loot the homes of locals, shops, and government offices in occupied territories. According to Ukrainian intelligence, in the Belarusian city of Naroulia, Russian soldiers organised a market where they sell looted Ukraine items – washing machines, dishwashers, refrigerators, jewelry, cars, bicycles, motorcycles, dishes, rugs, art, toys, and cosmetics. Russian military trucks are piling up in Mozyr, from which soldiers unload packages with pillaged items. The loot is sent to Russia by the Russian delivery service SDEK.

The protection of the natural environment is inextricably linked to the protection of the civilian population, as the latter will suffer from the consequences of serious damage to the natural environment. IHL and ICL prohibit attacks that can cause widespread, long-term, and severe damage to the natural environment [12].

Since the beginning Russian Federation's current campaign of armed aggression against Ukraine, the Armed Forces of the Russian Federation have bombed oil refineries, causing catastrophic fires and air pollution.

The number of war crimes committed by Russian forces during the reporting period is not limited to the ones analysed in this report. The total number is much higher. The cases that were included in this report were analysed as exemplary cases of war crimes and grave breaches of international humanitarian law committed by Russia.

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COMBATING CORRUPTION IN GERMANY

Corruption is not a significant obstacle for businesses in Germany, and companies are unlikely to encounter bribery or other corrupt practices. Fraud and corruption risks are most prevalent in the construction and public procurement sectors. Germany has strong institutional and legal anti-

corruption frameworks. The German Criminal Code applies to individuals – not companies – and makes it illegal to offer, pay or accept a bribe. Companies can be held civilly liable for corruption offenses committed by their representatives under the Act on Regulatory Offenses, with fines up to EUR 10 million and confiscation of all economic advantages obtained through bribery. Facilitation payments are prohibited, and small-value gifts and hospitality may be considered illegal depending on the intent, benefit, and value. Enforcement of foreign bribery has increased significantly in recent years, and a large number of prominent German companies and individuals from businesses have been successfully prosecuted [1].

There is a low risk of corruption when dealing with Germany's judiciary. The judiciary is characterized by a high degree of professionalism and independence from political interference (ICS 2017). Over two-thirds of companies judge the independence of the judiciary to be fairly good or very good (JS 2017). Companies indicate that bribes and irregular payments in return for favorable judgments are rare (GCR 2015–2016). Few citizens consider bribery and abuse of power to be widespread in the German courts (Eurobarometer 2017). Companies report sufficient trust in the efficiency of the legal framework to settle disputes and challenge regulations (GCR 2017–2018). Only a fraction of judges indicate having faced inappropriate pressure to decide a case (ENCJ 2017). Nearly half of judges believe some judges in Germany are promoted on basis other than merit and experience (ENCJ 2017) [1].

There is a low risk of corruption when dealing with Germany's police. German police services reliably protect companies from crime (GCR 2017–2018), and the necessary mechanisms to investigate and punish abuse and corruption in the police and security forces are in place (HRR 2016). Only about one in eight Germans perceive corruption, bribery and abuse of power within the police as a problem (Eurobarometer 2017) [1].

The major provisions on combating bribery and corruption are laid down in Germany's Criminal Code (Strafgesetzbuch – StGB). This notwithstanding, provisions prohibiting illegitimate contributions in specific business relations are also scattered throughout other laws. Anti-bribery rules under German law are addressed to different functions of the recipient, public officials, employees or agents of private business, healthcare professionals, members of legislative assemblies or members of workers' councils. In general, German law applies also to foreign bribery. Although in the following we will describe bribery offenses with respect to the giving party, there is a mirror-like criminal liability of the receiving party as well. Bribery-related conduct can also be prosecuted for other offenses. The creation of slush funds and payments of bribes can also be prosecuted for embezzlement. The deduction of bribes and expenses related thereto for tax purposes constitutes tax fraud pursuant to Sec. 370 Fiscal Code (Abgabenordnung). Fraud (Betrug) and money laundering are often associated crimes. Unlike other countries, Germany does not have a centralized anti-corruption agency. Investigations are conducted by regular

state prosecutors and police forces, with respect to tax fraud by the tax investigation service. However, state prosecutors and police have created specialized units or centralized investigations. State prosecutors and tax investigators are obliged to share information on suspicion of bribery. State prosecutors are obliged to ex officio investigate suspicion of bribery, although they have certain discretion to discontinue investigations for minor guilt. Confiscation of profits, and corporate fines, are usual consequences of corruption in business [1].

Germany is a federal state. However, the Criminal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure (Strafprozessordnung, StPO) apply at both federal and state level. In general, police and prosecution of the respective state (Land) investigate the crimes committed there. As a general principle, all crimes, including business crimes, are prosecuted by the public prosecutor's office and the competent police, who are supervised by the prosecutor, but, who in practice, effectively lead the investigations. Some prosecution offices and police departments have specialized units with a focus on white collar crime. Each federal state has its own judicial circuit with its own public prosecutor office.

Very little protection is offered in Germany for whistle-blowers. There are only a few criminal law obligations that deal with whistle-blowing, for example:

- Section 138 of the Criminal Code, which criminalizes the failure to bring the planning of serious offenses to the attention of the authorities. This obligation applies to everybody.

- Section 11 of the Money Laundering Act [GwG], the reporting duty for suspicious transactions. This obligation applies to financial institutions, insurance companies, as well as to certain practitioners such as tax advisors, auditors, attorneys and notaries (for details, cf. s. 2 of the German Money Laundering Act [GwG]).

Under German labor law, employees have a duty to inform their superior (only) of any imminent risk for security or health. As a consequence, the employee should not face any disadvantages if his or her superior initially disregards his or her complaint and he or she decides to subsequently inform the competent authority (section 16(1) and 17(2), Labour Protection Act [ArbSchG]). Even the decision of the European Court of Human Rights of 21 July 2011 provides only little protection. In this case, the court's basic ruling was that employees should normally first inform their superiors or other authorized persons of possible deplorable conditions or activities at work before informing the authorities or the general public (sections 16(1) and 17(2), Labour Protection Law). The option of informing the general public could only be justified in the event that first informing the «authorized persons» proved evidently impractical. Therefore, in whistle-blowing cases the relevant question is whether the employee has some other effective option to put an end to the unlawful situation [2].

Anti-Corruption compliance and investigations keep playing a prominent role both in the public debate and on the corporate agenda. After

the revision of criminal bribery provisions came into force last November 2015, the German Parliament will have to decide on a new draft legislation specifically aimed to combat corruption in the healthcare sector. The draft provides a newly defined criminal offense aiming to sanction active and passive bribery of a wide range of healthcare professionals. Moreover, the Government is currently preparing another draft bill on forfeiture and confiscation aiming to make it easier for authorities to confiscate and recover the profits from illegal behavior.

Summarizing, we note that the general features of the fight against corruption and the methods of eliminating this disgraceful fact in Germany include: the control of state officials, public institutions and parliament; openness and transparency of decision-making at all levels of state power and local self-government; freedom of speech, freedom of the media and their real independence; the possibility of public control over the adoption of the most important economic and political decisions; independence of the judiciary. The main components of the formation and implementation of an effective anti-corruption system in Germany is the clear interaction, first of all law enforcement agencies, at the regional and international levels, and participation in measures to combat this negative fact.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Can law be made by the use of language?

Discussions of the pragmatics of legal language are expressly or implicitly premised on a view of the relation between a law-making use of language, and the law that is made. It is the view that if an agency or a person is authorised to make law, it makes the law that it communicates by its use of language. That ‘communication model’ must be qualified in at least four ways, because the law itself regulates the making of law:

– the law that is made will be limited by any legal limit on the power of the law maker (as to the substance of the law that it can make, or as to the process by which it can lawfully make law), and

– rules of law may qualify the law that is made in a variety of ways that are not susceptible of any general characterization, and

– courts may need to resolve indeterminacies in the effect of an act of law making, and where they do so, their decisions may have conclusive

legal effect (for the parties, and also for the future if the decision is treated as a precedent), and

– if a court departs from the law that the law maker communicated (for good reasons or bad), the decision of the court may still have conclusive legal effect (for the parties, and also for the future if the decision is treated as a precedent).

Even with those qualifications, some theorists reject the communication model. They argue that the identification of legal rights and duties cannot be based merely on facts such as the fact that an authority has communicated this or that. This section will address how to secure the language and one's rights in the field of language security [1, p. 20–40].

Analysis of recent studies and publications.

Domestic scientists working in various fields have repeatedly drawn attention to such an important aspect of ensuring national security as raising the status of the Ukrainian language as the state language. However, sometimes not quite reasonable arguments are used for this purpose: one can often read the expression «Whose language, that is the power», which is attributed to the ancient Roman sages.

Although in fact this dictum is a modern loose interpretation of the principle («Whose power, that is the faith»), declared during the conclusion of the Peace of Augsburg (1555). Or during the analysis of the language factor of national security of Ukraine, the opinion is expressed that "the Ukrainian language specifically opposes the Russian language". Inaccuracy and vagueness of wording always make us doubt the correctness of the chosen direction of research, especially if we are talking about humanitarian knowledge.

The topic of national security is traditionally the subject of lively discussion among domestic researchers, both lawyers and political scientists.

However, scientists, emphasizing the multifaceted nature of security and its connection with other sciences, do not mention linguistics (linguistics). And although recently, methodological approaches to defining key concepts and categories of the foundations of national security in accordance with the dynamic realities of multidimensional socio-political context are changing, they do not seem to notice that the approach to a comprehensive security analysis should be based not only on natural, social and technical knowledge, but also on linguistic sciences and communication theory. Thus, the concept of «political and communicative security» is formulated, which is defined as an attributive element in the national security system, which ensures stability and efficiency of political communications, prevents negative or destructive influence on the socio-political system in the process of internal and external political communications, including European integration. Communicative security is also considered as a state in which there is productive internal and external communication on the basis of security and compliance with ethical standards. Nowadays, experts quite consciously talk about linguistic

wars, closed to the information space in its integrity, and a new type of national security protection – linguistic security. However, the phrase «linguistic security» is not has not become widely used in Ukraine today and has not received a systematic analysis. At the same time, in foreign scientific publications an integrated approach is substantiated, in which the subject of research, in addition to the safe and unhindered development of the national language, are security language, security of participants in language interaction and the communicative aspect of security. More and more often speak and write about the protection of linguistic identity, linguistic (and more broadly – cultural) heritage and, above all, national identity, but the very aspect of linguistic security in the broader the broader context of national security is not yet integrated and motivated, and the Ukrainian legislator, in addition to terms related to cultural heritage and national identity, prefers to use the concept of prefers to use the concept of «protection of the state language» [2, p. 37].

Linguistic security as a factor of sustainable development of a region (on the example of Scandinavian Peninsula)

Currently, linguistic security is viewed from two main perspectives: as an object for threats to national security and as a means to achieve/maintain national security. It is necessary to continuously study the experience of other countries and search for new practices and solutions to develop the right language policy. The purpose of this research is to study the experience of the Scandinavian countries in relation to language policy, and, above all, in relation to the preservation of indigenous and minority languages. For the countries of the Scandinavian peninsula which are actively working towards the preservation of state languages, the problem of maintaining the languages of national minorities and the languages of indigenous peoples, especially the Sami language, comes to the fore, which is reflected in a number of research papers published in Norway, Finland and Sweden (Skuttnabb-Kangas 1994 [9], Sammalahiti 1998, Pikkarainen and Brodin 2008, etc.). Moreover, online debates over the past five years about the Sami languages in a national context were critically analyzed. A sociocultural theoretical framework is used to analyze the data. Overall, the paper offers a critical review of the core elements of Sami language policy to implement the positive experience in the maintaining of indigenous languages as a part of linguistic security which in its turn leads to sustainable development of the country [2, p. 20].

Conclusions.

Linguistic security is a relatively new concept that has not yet received a proper systematic description in science, which is fully explained by its scientific novelty and multidimensionality. Most often the concept of linguistic security is defined in the context of national security, information security, linguistic sovereignty and language policy. Linguistic security is seen as a component of part of the national security of the state, but at present it is not normatively fixed.

By linguistic security we understand the state of legal protection of the state language, in which problems of formation of a legal democratic state its safe and secure existence, preservation of the integrity, normative existence, preservation of integrity, normativity, functionality, national and cultural identity, ability to self-development and self-improvement, as well as a system of measures to ensure such development of the language. This is a language policy that excludes harm to the language system under the influence of internal and external influences, as well as the direction of scientific research that addresses the problems of ensuring linguistic security. In a special way can be interpreted linguistic security text for communication participants: it is a set of principles of such formation of a linguistic text, at which the risks of its conflict perception and reproduction are minimized.

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HUMAN TRAFFICKING: HOW TO FIGHT IT AND WIN

Nowadays, the issue of human trafficking is very critical because of Russian aggression against Ukraine. Millions of people have been forced to leave their homes and seek refuge abroad, mainly women and children who are vulnerable. This has created new problems and risks for these people including the threat of falling into the hands of traffickers who sell them into slavery taking advantage of the helpless state of people.

Nevertheless, what is human trafficking? According to the UN definition, human trafficking is the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of people through force, fraud or deception, with the aim of exploiting them for profit. Men, women and children of all ages and from all backgrounds can become victims of this crime, which occurs in every region of the world. The traffickers often use violence or fraudulent employment agencies and fake promises of education and job opportunities to trick and coerce their victims [1].

European countries have long understood the danger of human trafficking, so a new strategy for combating human trafficking was presented (2021–2025). On 11 May 2022, the EU Solidarity Platform presented its Common Anti-Trafficking Plan. As a result, the Solidarity Platform aims to address the risks of trafficking in human beings and support potential victims. The Plan has been developed by Diane Schmitt (EU Anti-Trafficking Coordinator) together with EU and national authorities. The Plan builds on the EU Strategy on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, presented by the European Commission on 14 April

2021, and follows the EU Anti-trafficking Directive (Directive 2011/36/EU). It fulfills one of the points of the 10-Point Plan for stronger European coordination on welcoming people fleeing the war from Ukraine, presented at the Justice and Home Affairs Council on 28 March 2022. The implementation of the plan will be coordinated by the EU Anti-Trafficking Coordinator, who will work closely with other bodies and entities, such as the National Rapporteurs and Equivalent Mechanisms, representatives of Ukraine and Moldova, the EU Civil Society Platform against trafficking in human beings, the EU's justice and home affairs agencies, and the European Labour Authority. The Plan set out five main objectives, which will be pursued through concrete actions at EU level and through recommendations to EU Member States:

- Strengthening awareness raising on the risks of trafficking in human beings and setting up helplines: this will include provision of relevant information through emergency helplines and material, e.g. leaflets and posters, and the setting up of dedicated websites, apps and awareness raising campaigns;

- Reinforcing prevention against trafficking in human beings: examples here are security checks of the entities and individuals offering accommodation and checks of the suitability of the offered accommodation, if allowed under national law;

- Enhancing the law enforcement and judicial response to trafficking in human beings: in this context, the European Multidisciplinary Platform Against Criminal Threats (EMPACT) will strengthen actions in order to address trafficking in human beings in relation to people fleeing Ukraine. Member States should, *inter alia*, make full use of existing instruments for operational cooperation, report all suspicious cases and launched investigations to Europol via SIENA, and systematically exchange data on investigations on human trafficking related to the war in Ukraine;

- Improving the early identification, support and protection of victims of trafficking in human beings: actions in this regard will include unconditional assistance, support and protection measures set forth in the EU Anti-trafficking Directive as soon as the authorities have reasonable grounds for believing that the person may have been exploited as well as programmes addressing the long-term needs of victims in view of their recovery and reintegration;

- Addressing the risks of trafficking in human beings in non-EU countries, especially Ukraine and Moldova [2].

The Solidarity Platform is the main EU coordination and operational mechanism set up immediately after the war in Ukraine started. It brings together representatives of EU countries, Schengen Associated Member States, EU Agencies, Ukrainian authorities, and partners such as the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and UNHCR.

European law enforcement agencies have faced this problem and conduct special raids to prevent human trafficking. So recently, Europe's agency for law enforcement, Europol, reported the arrests of around 130

suspects during a massive operation targeting human trafficking. Police from 22 countries were involved in the joint operation which also identified 60 new suspects, Europol said in a statement [3]. The agency said that more than 22,480 law enforcement officers were involved in what it called «action days», during which checks were carried out at sea, land and air borders, including focus on widely used routes into Europe. During the days of the operation, around 13,500 locations and nearly a million people were checked.

Later Europol said that investigators have identified dozens of possible victims of human trafficking for sexual exploitation, including 25 Ukrainian nationals, by analyzing online platforms. In a joint action coordinated by the Netherlands, 85 experts from 20 different law enforcement authorities completed a hackathon to build intelligence on criminal networks luring victims over the internet.

According to the EU's anti-trafficking plan more than 5.4 million people arrived in the European Union between the beginning of the Russian invasion of Ukraine on February, 24, and May, 6. Gillian Triggs, the UN Refugee Agency's assistant high commissioner for protection, said in April, that it was «impossible to gauge how many Ukrainian refugee women and children might have been preyed upon by traffickers».

As a result of the hackathon, investigators gathered criminal intelligence from 114 online platforms to determine indicators of people trafficking in online environments, particularly in cases where traffickers attempted to lure Ukrainian refugees. The platforms they investigated included «social media, dating platforms, advertising and aid platforms, forums and messaging applications», said Europol, alongside dark web platforms related to adult and child sexual exploitation. As part of the work – which will now be continued by individual law enforcement agencies, coordinating their investigations with others through Europol – investigators identified 11 suspected human traffickers. Five of those traffickers were linked to vulnerable Ukrainians, said Europol, and twenty individual platforms were identified for further investigation and monitoring [4].

«The internet and human trafficking are interlinked. Many social media platforms, dating apps and private groups online are being 'hijacked' by individuals involved in human trafficking for sexual or labour exploitation», stated Europol. Traffickers purposefully attempt to mislead law enforcement agencies Europol added, so joint efforts to monitor platforms «which may offer sexual services, recruitment, and the harbouring or transportation of victims» allows for a more complete intelligence picture.

As a conclusion, it is worth noting that the fact remains that the problem of human trafficking is very important and needs more and more attention, because many categories of people suffer because of the challenges faced by Ukraine and the world. Human traffickers take advantage of crises and the helpless state of victims for their own profit, which in turn leads to a complete violation of human rights. Therefore, in order to counteract this phenomenon, it is necessary to create special programs capable of comprehensively processing such violations of human rights.

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NATIONAL POLICE OF UKRAINE IN THE CONDITION OF MODERN WAR

Each country has its own laws and established order of operation. But there are cases when these things can be changed quite a lot, including even the order of functioning of state bodies. Therefore, war is one of the factors that most change the situation in the country by its presence.

Ukraine as a state first encountered modern manifestations of military aggression starting in 2014, when the aggressor country occupied several regions of our state. But, even taking into account such serious threats, state bodies, such as the National Police of Ukraine, etc., performed their duties as usual, without changes. Everything has changes since February 24, 2022, with the beginning of a full-scale war of the aggressor country against Ukraine. Legislation needed changes, and state bodies, together with the president of Ukraine, immediately began to make changes in all spheres of the country's life.

Employees of the National Police of Ukraine were among those who experienced the greatest number of changes. With the beginning of a full-scale war, its employees are engaged in many cases – from maintaining public order, to the evacuation of civilians from the combat zone, the detection of saboteurs and the investigation of Russian war crimes. The real challenge was the identification of the bodies of the civilian population, mostly in the de-occupied territories. At least three investigators respond to each such call, a forensic expert who must document, compile evidence, and package it. It is a forensic medical expert or a doctor, it is a morgue worker, and explosives technicians, who must first examine the place of a possible burial. Investigators are often faced with investigating crimes with skills

they did not have in peacetime. In the shortest possible time, it is necessary to acquire new skills, to focus attention on the composition and actions of investigative and operational teams for documenting war crimes: during the inspection of the scene of the incident and recording of damage to objects of civil infrastructure, other objects of vital activity, movable and immovable damaged or destroyed property, on the preparation and appointment of forensic examinations during the investigation of war crimes, etc. This is a violation of the laws and customs of war, an encroachment on territorial integrity, and collaboration. Since the beginning of the war, thousands of criminal proceedings have been opened based on the fact of such violations. It is also necessary to mention that the police extremely often perform their functions at checkpoints, where, together with representatives of other units, they are engaged in ensuring security and compliance with the law.

Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that the police in the conditions of military conflicts acquire much more responsibility in their activities, and the functions performed by each police officer are significantly expanded for the sake of the normal functioning of the state. The state makes changes to the legislation, thereby expanding the list of rights and responsibilities of the police officer, which are necessary for the high-quality activity of the National police of Ukraine during the armed conflict.

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INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATION

The United Nations is an international organization founded in 1945. It is currently composed of 193 Member States. The mission and work of the United Nations are guided by the purposes and principles contained in its founding Charter.

There are six official languages of the UN. These are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish.

The main organs of the UN are:

- the General Assembly,
- the Security Council,
- the Economic and Social Council,

- the Trusteeship Council,
- the International Court of Justice, and
- the UN Secretariat.

The General Assembly is the main deliberative, policymaking and representative organ of the UN. All 193 Member States of the UN are represented in the General Assembly, making it the only UN body with universal representation.

Each year, in September, the full UN membership meets in the General Assembly Hall in New York for the annual General Assembly session, and general debate, which many heads of state attend and address.

Decisions on important questions, such as those on peace and security, admission of new members and budgetary matters, require a two-thirds majority of the General Assembly. Decisions on other questions are by simple majority.

The main committees of the UN General Assembly are:

- First Committee (Disarmament & International Security)
- Second Committee (Economic & Financial)
- Third Committee (Social, Humanitarian & Cultural)
- Fourth Committee (Special Political & Decolonization)
- Fifth Committee (Administrative & Budgetary)
- Sixth Committee (Legal)

The Security Council has primary responsibility, under the UN Charter, for the maintenance of international peace and security.

It has 15 Members (5 permanent and 10 non-permanent members). Each Member has one vote. Under the Charter, all Member States are obligated to comply with Council decisions.

The Security Council takes the lead in determining the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression.

It calls upon the parties to a dispute to settle it by peaceful means and recommends methods of adjustment or terms of settlement.

In some cases, the Security Council can resort to imposing sanctions or even authorize the use of force to maintain or restore international peace and security.

The Security Council also recommends to the General Assembly the appointment of the Secretary-General and the admission of new Members to the United Nations.

And, together with the General Assembly, it elects the judges of the International Court of Justice.

The Economic and Social Council is the principal body for coordination, policy review, policy dialogue and recommendations on economic, social and environmental issues, as well as implementation of internationally agreed development goals.

It serves as the central mechanism for activities of the UN system and its specialized agencies in the economic, social and environmental fields, supervising subsidiary and expert bodies.

It has 54 Members, elected by the General Assembly for overlapping three-year terms. It is the United Nations' central platform for reflection, debate, and innovative thinking on sustainable development.

The ECOSOC Functional Commissions are:

- Statistical Commission
- Commission on Population and Development
- Commission for Social Development
- Commission on the Status of Women
- Commission on Narcotic Drugs
- Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice
- Commission on Science and Technology for Development
- United Nations Forum on Forests

The Trusteeship Council was established in 1945 by the UN Charter, under Chapter XIII, to provide international supervision for 11 Trust Territories that had been placed under the administration of seven Member States, and ensure that adequate steps were taken to prepare the Territories for self-government and independence.

By 1994, all Trust Territories had attained self-government or independence. The Trusteeship Council suspended operation on 1 November 1994.

By a resolution adopted on 25 May 1994, the Council amended its rules of procedure to drop the obligation to meet annually and agreed to meet as occasion required – by its decision or the decision of its President, or at the request of a majority of its members or the General Assembly or the Security Council.

The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations.

Its seat is at the Peace Palace in The Hague (Netherlands). It is the only one of the six principal organs of the United Nations not located in New York (United States of America).

The Court's role is to settle, in accordance with international law, legal disputes submitted to it by States and to give advisory opinions on legal questions referred to it by authorized United Nations organs and specialized agencies.

The Secretariat comprises the Secretary-General and tens of thousands of international UN staff members who carry out the day-to-day work of the UN as mandated by the General Assembly and the Organization's other principal organs.

The Secretary-General is chief administrative officer of the Organization, appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council for a five-year, renewable term.

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FEATURES OF COMPENSATION FOR NON-MATERIAL DAMAGE IN UKRAINE

Non-material damage – losses of a non-property nature as a result of moral or physical suffering, or other negative phenomena caused to a natural or legal person by illegal actions or inaction of other persons. In Ukraine, non-material damage is governed by Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine. According to this Article, a person has the right to compensation for moral damage caused as a result of violation of his rights. Compensation for non-material damage has a number of features, which, first of all, consist of clearly defined illegal actions, to which the legislator includes:

- causing mutilation and other damage to health, which resulted in physical pain and reduction of the physical person;
- illegal behavior towards a natural person, members of his family or close parents, which led to mental characteristics of a natural person;
- destruction or damage to the property of a natural person, which led to his mental consequences;
- degrading the honor, dignity of an individual and the business reputation of an individual and a legal entity.

There is also Chapter 82, which governs general provisions on damages. The peculiarity of non-material damage is that it has a non-pecuniary nature and may consist of physical pain and/or suffering of an individual, as well as other negative consequences of a non-pecuniary nature, which were caused as a result of the humiliation of the honor, dignity of an individual and the business reputation of an individual and legal entity, as well as other illegal acts. The procedure for compensation for non-material damage also has certain features.

As a general rule, moral damage is compensated by the perpetrator in favor of the person who has the right to demand such compensation. The cause of non-material damage can be a state authority, an ARC authority, a local self-government body, an individual or a legal entity.

However, in cases expressly provided by law, the cause of non-material damage and the person responsible for it may not coincide, for example, for damage caused by state bodies or their officials, the state of Ukraine bears responsibility. In turn, the person who has the right to claim compensation for moral damage caused to him is, as a rule, the person to whom such damage was caused.

In Ukraine, there are also legal relations regarding compensation for non-material damage as:

- compensation for non-material damage upon establishing the fact that such damage was caused by illegal decisions, actions or inaction of a state authority, local self-government or their officials or officials in the exercise of their powers. Such damage, if there are necessary grounds, can be compensated on the general basis of compensation for damage caused as a result of tortious obligations.

- compensation for non-material damage caused by the spread of false information

- compensation of non-material damage in insurance obligations

- compensation for non-pecuniary damage in the event of a violation of the employee's rights in the field of labor relations.

- non-material damage caused by mutilation or other health damage can be compensated in one lump sum or by making monthly payments, «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [5].

- compensation for non-material damage caused by non-performance contractual obligations.

- non-material damage caused by the death of a natural person shall be compensated to her husband (wife), parents (adoptive parents), children (adopted), as well as persons who lived with her in the same family.

Therefore, compensation for non-material damage is a new and at the same time the most effective way to protect civil rights. When trying to define it legislatively, a large number of evaluative concepts were used, such as «reasonableness», «justice», «depth of mental suffering», «other circumstances that are important in the case». Non-material damage in Ukraine is governed by various laws, articles of the Civil Code of Ukraine, the Constitution of Ukraine, Law of Ukraine «On Protection of Consumer Rights», etc.

In Ukraine, not only are there no clear methods for calculating the amount of non-material damages, but there are also no lower or upper limits as guidelines, which forces the court to take into account the requirements of reasonableness and justice when determining the amount of compensation for moral damages.

Non-material damage is compensated regardless of the property damage that is subject to compensation and is not related to the amount of this compensation. If possible, in the case of the need to protect one's own rights and interests, it is appropriate to seek the advice of specialists for more detailed information.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Between 1990 and 2013, the United States has seen an 80 % growth in the limited-English proficient (LEP) population—reaching 25.1 million in 2013. Linguistic diversity in the U.S. makes language services in law enforcement a critical component in overcoming language barriers that can have a negative impact on public service. Improving communication for limited-English proficient and deaf and hard-of-hearing individuals leads to improved outcomes in public safety and helps local, state and federal law enforcement agencies build stronger relationships and trust with the communities they serve.

Having access to comprehensive language support, including written translation and language interpretation for law enforcement agencies, enhances communication, ensures compliance and increases staff efficiency while helping law enforcement build trust and cultivate a positive public image.

Understanding how language barriers affect law enforcement is key. First, we'll take a look at how ineffective communication with limited-English speakers negatively impacts law enforcement agencies, and then we'll look at the impact of having access to quality language services.

How Ineffective Communication Negatively Impacts Law Enforcement

- 1) Miscommunication errors strain time and limited resources.
- 2) Can result in public scrutiny and loss of public trust.

3) Delays in services and miscommunication errors lead to unnecessary visits and calls that impact the productivity and efficiency of law enforcement and staff.

4) Negatively impacts the reputation of the law enforcement agency within the community and leads to decreased involvement of LEP populations requiring law enforcement services.

5) Can impede the process of providing public safety and emergency response

Providing equal access to language services in law enforcement positively impacts public safety, public health, and helps protect legal rights.

How Comprehensive Language Support Positively Impacts Law Enforcement Agencies:

1) Maximizing resources and cuts down on time and resources spent dealing with miscommunication errors.

2) Achieve and enhance government compliance and regulatory compliance with relevant legislation.

3) Increases the efficiency and productivity of law enforcement agencies.

4) Aids in positive response to disaster preparedness and public safety.

5) Promotes community integration in immigrant, refugee, and LEP communities.

6) Increases staff adoption and reduces staff frustration.

7) Enables law enforcement agencies to build a higher level of trust in the community [1].

The United States Office of Justice Programs formally defines law enforcement professionals as:

«any officer, agent, or employee of a State, unit of local government, or an Indian tribe authorized by law or by a government agency to engage in or supervise the prevention, detection, or investigation of any violation of criminal law, or authorized by law to supervise sentenced criminal offenders».

About 18,000 federal, state, county, and local agencies in the United States each employ between one and 30,000 law enforcement professionals. Most of these employees are sworn officers who are authorized to make arrests and carry a badge and firearm; a smaller number of non-sworn civilian personnel support their efforts. In 2012, the Uniform Crime Reporting Program reported over one million state and local law enforcement employees nationwide, more than 750,000 of whom were sworn officers.

Absolutely all law enforcement roles at the local, state, and federal level are improved when officers have advanced language skills. More specifically, some responsibilities performed daily throughout the sector that require officers to communicate in a language other than English include:

Addressing participants present at an incident in a timely and reassuring fashion to diffuse fear or tension and to restore community morale,

Speaking with witnesses or victims' relatives and taking accurate testimony,

Investigating criminal activity and collaborating with colleagues across departments, and

Educating the public while developing trusting relationships through speaking roles at schools or community special interest groups [2].

Therefore, improving language skills is a very important part of the work of a law enforcement officer, the correct use of which facilitates the process of communication with citizens and increases the level of public trust in law enforcement agencies and other public services.

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THE ONLINE SAFETY BILL ILLEGAL AND HARMFUL CONTENT

The idea of creating a law to tackle some of the worst aspects of internet content is a noble one and long overdue (e.g. terrorist content, bullying, racism and hate speech, child abuse, self-harm, suicide imagery and conspiracy theories that incite violence etc.). At present, far too much of this slips through the cracks of the weak self-regulatory approach, as aptly demonstrated so many times via Facebook, Twitter, YouTube etc. (they were slow to stop ISIS, dangerous conspiracy theories and political leaders inciting violence) [1].

The UK Online Safety Bill was introduced into UK parliament on 17 March 2022. The OSB is a proposed UK law to establish a new regulatory regime to address illegal and harmful content online. Amongst other requirements, the OSB will impose a duty of care in relation to illegal content as well as content that is harmful to both adults and children on providers of internet services which allow users to upload and share user-generated content [3].

The Online Safety Bill imposes obligations on in-scope services regarding three types of content: illegal content, content that is harmful to children, and content that is harmful to adults. It then applies further sub-categorisations within these content types. The «safety duties» that services must comply with vary depending on the content in question [1].

All services in scope of the OSB have obligations concerning illegal content. This comprises content which, or the or the possession, viewing, accessing, publication or dissemination of which, amounts to:

- an offence relating to terrorism or child sexual exploitation and abuse (CSEA); these offences are specified in Schedules to the Bill

- any other «priority offence» specified in Schedules to the Bill. The list includes offences in relation to assisting suicide, threats to kill, fear or provocation of violence, harassment, stirring up hatred on grounds of race, religion or sexual orientation, stalking, putting people in fear of violence, racially or religiously aggravated public order offences, drugs offences, firearms and weapons offences, assisting unlawful immigration, sexual exploitation offences, sexual images offences, proceeds of crime offences, fraud and financial services offences, and related inchoate offences

- any other offence of which the victim is an individual or individuals except offences relating to the infringement of IP rights, breach of consumer protection laws, the safety or quality of goods, or the performance of a service by a person not qualified to perform it [2].

Whereas, in the previous draft of the Bill, content was considered illegal if the service provider had reasonable grounds to believe there was a relevant offence, this mental element has now been removed and only content actually amounting to an offence is considered illegal.

Services likely to be accessed by children have obligations regarding content that is harmful to children. This comprises:

- Content that amounts to «primary priority content» or «priority content» – content falling within both categories will be designated in regulations to be made by the Secretary of State. The Online Harms Consultation Response indicates that these might include violent and/or pornographic content.

- Content of a kind which presents a material risk of significant harm to an appreciable number of children in the UK except where the impact flows from the content’s potential financial impact, the safety or quality of goods featured in the content, or the way in which a service featured in the content may be performed. «Harm» for these purposes includes physical or psychological harm, including harm caused by individuals to themselves and by individuals to other individuals [2].

Services falling within Category 1 under the Online Safety Bill have obligations concerning content that is harmful to adults (more information regarding Ofcom’s role in categorising regulated services is available here). This comprises:

- Content that amounts to «priority content» – content falling within this category will be designated in regulations to be made by the Secretary of State. The Consultation Response indicates that this might include abuse that doesn’t amount to an offence, and content about eating disorders, self-harm and suicide.

- Content of a kind which presents a material risk of significant harm to an appreciable number of adults in the UK except where the impact

flows from the content's potential financial impact, the safety or quality of goods featured in the content, or the way in which a service featured in the content may be performed. Again, «harm» for these purposes includes physical or psychological harm, including harm caused by individuals to themselves and by individuals to other individuals [2].

The OSB forms part of the UK's wider mission to develop rules and norms for the internet. The OSB will apply to providers of 'user-to-user' services (i.e., providers of internet services which allow users to encounter content generated, uploaded or shared by others) and 'search services' (i.e., providers of search engines which enable users to search multiple websites and databases) [3]. Expressly excluded from scope are SMS and MMS, one-to-one live aural communication, internal business services, limited functionality services which only allow comments and reviews, paid-for advertisements and news publisher content.

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FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF CRIME PREVENTION

Crime prevention is one of the directions of state policy, which includes a system of measures aimed at specific individuals and groups who commit illegal acts, in order to eradicate criminal behavior and its causes in society, as well as to reduce the number of offenses.

Among foreign countries, crime prevention involves a set of non-repressive measures, that is, all activities carried out by state, public and private actors aimed at preventing the commission of crime and reducing anxiety about it.

Studies have shown that there are a number of factors that increase the likelihood of youths committing crime: poverty and inadequate housing; insufficient parental guidance; limited social and cognitive abilities; exclusion from school; family violence; few employment opportunities; economic exclusion and a culture of violence. Crime reduction has been a result of demographic trends, focused policing and mobilisation of a broad

sector of agencies. In many cases, community demonstration projects are more cost-effective than the existing law enforcement and incarceration measures. Specific findings are that:

- Delinquency in young children can be reduced through pre-school and after school programmes, visiting at-risk families at home to improve parenting skills and increasing support and assistance for parents.

- Delinquency in school-aged children can be reduced by home visits, educational and financial assistance, neighbourhood and after-school programmes, on-the-job training and working directly with families.

- Successful approaches for reducing common crime include: ‘cocoon’ neighbourhood watch, home security improvements, treatment of substance-abusing offenders and intervention for repeat victims.

- In Britain, a new community safety crime reduction programme was implemented. It focused on youth offending prevention programmes, high-volume crime, effective sentencing and redesigning consumer products.

- In France, local crime prevention contracts have been signed between different agencies. These contracts foster crime prevention through social integration, employment and support for parents.

- The Netherlands uses learning-based strategies: successful projects are publicised and communities are encouraged to try them. In New Zealand, a crime prevention unit was created in the Prime Minister’s Office [1].

In the Czech Republic, crime prevention is organized on three levels:

1. At the inter-ministerial level – the focus of interdepartmental cooperation lies in the creation of a preventive policy of the government in relation to traditional (general) crime and the coordination of preventive activities of individual ministries represented in the Republic Committee for Crime Prevention and Incitement to New Activities. Situational crime prevention is dedicated to the Advisory Council for Situational Crime Prevention.

2. At the departmental level – crime prevention programmes are based on the material competence of individual ministries, enrich their current activities with new elements and approaches and influence the creation of relevant legislation.

3. At the local level – involving public authorities, police, NGOs and other institutions operating in municipalities. The essence of the crime prevention system at the local level is the optimal distribution of activities in the areas of social and situational prevention with regard to the local situation, needs and possibilities.

In terms of effectiveness, crime prevention programmes at local level are the most effective. They represent a system of methodological, conceptual and financial support from central state administration and self-government bodies and support for the establishment of crime prevention programs in regions, towns and municipalities burdened with high crime rates and other criminally risky phenomena.

The essence of these programs is the cooperation of state administration bodies, self-government, police and non-governmental non-

profit organizations. The scope of the programme is conditioned by the local situation in the development of socially pathological phenomena, the needs, interest and abilities of people and financial means [2].

Therefore, the successful organization of crime prevention depends not only on clear legal regulation of all types and forms of prevention, but also on the effective interaction of its units, including state and local authorities.

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COUNTERING CORRUPTION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION: CURRENT WAYS

Corruption is a global phenomenon that remains a challenge for society as a whole. It is a real threat to democracy and causes wide-reaching social, political and economic consequences. It debilitates the judicial and political systems that work for the welfare of society. Corruption has also a negative impact on prosperity and economic growth by creating business uncertainty, lowering investment levels, hampering fair competition and reducing public finances. Wherever corruption is present, it involves public officials, business managers and private citizens, who may be engaged in such illegal acts as embezzlement of public funds, trade in influence and bribery. Many people pay bribes in cash or gifts to get an education and proper health care, to speed up administrative procedures, or to avoid paying a fine. In turn, corruption facilitates human trafficking, organized crime and terrorism [4].

The European Union as a supranational intergovernmental organization is one of the least corrupt regions in the world. However, none of the EU countries is fully free from corruption. By this reason for the EU combating corruption is a priority that has a central place in its internal and external policies. Preventive actions, freezing, confiscation and recovery of assets, international cooperation: these are the key elements of any strategy to roll back corruption. The EU and its Member states have taken actions in these areas.

The legal basis for combating corruption in the EU is Article 325 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU), which tasks the EU and the EU Member States with protecting the EU's budget. It

conducts independent administrative investigations into fraud, corruption and any other illegal activity involving EU funds or revenue, in order to ensure that EU taxpayer money reaches projects that can help create jobs and promote growth in Europe; investigates serious misconduct by staff and members of the EU institutions, thus helping to strengthen public trust in those institutions [3].

The important step in combating corruption is the EU's implementation of United Nations Convention against Corruption - Communication from the Commission to the European institutions. Due to the Communication Commission sets out a framework to facilitate the review to allow swift progress in fulfilling all necessary legal obligations, in full respect of the principle of sincere cooperation and administrative autonomy of the institutions; invites the EU institutions to participate and cooperate at all stages of the process. The EU's first anti-corruption report, released in February 2014, shows that there are disparities between EU countries in the nature and level of corruption. Since its publication, the report has served as the basis for dialogue with national authorities while also informing broader debates across Europe.

The European Anti-Fraud Office (OLAF) is an EU body mandated to investigate fraud against the EU budget, corruption and serious misconduct within the European institutions, and to develop anti-fraud policy for the European Commission. In 2017 was established The European Public Prosecutor's Office – the first EU body entitled to conduct criminal investigations and to prosecute corruption affecting the EU's financial interests. The European Public Prosecutor's Office has a decentralized but hierarchical structure composed of European prosecutors at EU level and European delegated prosecutors in each EU country. As an autonomous body, the EPPO could overcome potential unwillingness on the part of national authorities to investigate certain sensitive corruption cases [1]. The EU also applies strict rules on the prevention of corruption and transparency across its institutions. For this purpose, several rules and policies are in place, such as Rules for EU civil servants, Rules of Procedure of the Commission, Guidelines on gifts and hospitality for Commission staff, Ethics and Integrity for Commissioners, Code of Conduct for the Members of the European Commission, etc.

Moreover, the European Commission conducts anti-corruption experience-sharing workshops across the EU to support Member States and to ensure that anti-corruption legislation covers all relevant corruption-related issues. In the 2022 State of the Union Speech, Commission President Ursula von der Leyen announced that, in the coming year, the Commission will present measures to update legislative framework for fighting corruption.

To sum up, some of the most common EU's approaches to fight corruption are: mainstreaming anti-corruption provisions in EU law, monitoring efforts of EU countries in preventing and fighting corruption, and building dialogue with national anti-corruption contact points,

supporting the implementation of anti-corruption measures at national level through funding, technical assistance and experience-sharing, improving the quantitative evidence-base for anti-corruption policy, promoting the fight against corruption globally, through the participation in relevant international anti-corruption meetings [1].

Finally, the experience of combating corruption in the EU makes great influence on such processes in Ukraine. On 23 June 2022, the European Council granted candidate status to Ukraine that make us one step closer to EU Membership. The EU's main objective is to support Ukraine in its reform agenda. The fight against corruption is stated as a key element of the EU-Ukraine relationship [5]. The EU ensures a common high standard of legislation, either specifically on corruption, or incorporating anti-corruption provisions in other sectoral legislation. We are working mutually to implement the commitments of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation, which contribute to the implementation of the UNCAC, and the OECD Anti-Bribery Convention.

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CRIME PREVENTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Conclusions on the UK's crime prevention policy can be drawn from an analysis of the current state of crime in the country, including a strategy for public participation in crime prevention.

«Over the last 10 years in England and Wales (about 88 % of all Britons who commit almost 90 % of all crimes) there has been a gradual decline in crime» [1, p. 317].

Surveys of crime in England and Wales, assessment of victimization in the UK can and should be taken into account by the Ministry of Internal

Affairs of Ukraine, scientists, the public and all stakeholders to improve the domestic model of criminal law statistics.

The group of violent crimes according to the methodology of British statistics covers such types of crimes as murder, bodily harm, threat of murder, possession of weapons. A vast majority of mercenary crimes are also declining. It concerns robberies, their level has decreased. Similar trends can be traced in the commission of another property crime – burglary.

The UK's criminological policy changed significantly from repressive to public in 1994 when the government launched the "Partners Against Crime" initiative aimed to deepen further police and public cooperation in crime prevention. Within the framework of this initiative a number of programs were implemented: «Neighborhood Watch», «Street Patrol», «The Neighborhood Constable».

The country implemented «The Safer Cities Program» in order not only to combat crime but also eliminate people's fear of crime through joint action by local authorities, the police, private businesses and the population of the state [1, p. 266, 267].

British police can be called the main agency of crime prevention. It performs not only a repressive function related to the detention of criminals, detection of crimes but also implements information and social services aimed at increasing public confidence in law enforcement agencies and expanding participation in crime prevention activities. It requires continuous improvement of police job and it was achieved due to the reforms.

The aim of the current UK police reform is consistent and comprehensive change both at local and national levels, crime reduction, improvement of police officers' professionalism, reduction of bureaucratic barriers for British citizens' access to policing. The achievements of the police forces in England and Wales in performing their duties helped them to establish close contact with the local population and to gain funding.

One of the aims of modern police reform in the UK was to improve and update training at Police College. It led to improvements of police job performance that could correspond to the level of crime in this country. There are global transformations in the UK police nowadays. The main means of achieving this goal is the decentralization of management in police system. It may reduce bureaucratic police reports and subordinate their work to local communities, expand police officers' social and support functions.

In general in British society there is a lively discussion among government officials, law enforcement, academics about the role of the police in ensuring the rule of law and protecting the citizens' rights.

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DIE POLIZEIBEFUGNISSE WÄHREND DER MILITÄRAGGRESSION

Die Polizeitätigkeit während der Militärangriff unterscheidet sich wesentlich von solcher Arbeit in Friedenszeiten. Heutzutage ist es während des Eskalationskonflikts mit der Russischen Föderation besonders bedeutsam.

Bei militärischen Konflikten können die entsprechenden Maßnahmen des Kriegsrechts eingeführt werden. Während des Kriegsrechts wird der gewöhnliche Lebensrhythmus gestört, das Leben und die Gesundheit von Menschen bedroht. Infolgedessen verschärfen sich die sozialen Streitigkeiten, die Kriminalität nimmt zu.

Um negative Folgen zu verhindern und zu beseitigen, werden erhebliche Kräfte der Exekutivbehörden beteiligt, unter denen die Nationalpolizei der Ukraine einen besonderen Platz einnimmt.

In diesem Zusammenhang lohnt es sich, die Befugnisse der Polizei während der Militärangriff zu berücksichtigen. Diese Befugnisse beschränken die Rechte der Bürger erheblich.

Am 15. März 2022 traten Änderungen des Gesetzes der Ukraine «Über die Nationalpolizei» in Kraft, die eine Ausweitung der Polizeibefugnisse während des Kriegsrechts in der Ukraine und noch während drei Monate nach dessen Beendigung oder Aufhebung vorsehen. [2]

Dazu gehören folgende Polizeibefugnisse:

1. Auf schriftliche Anfrage kann die Polizei notwendige Information bezüglich der Polizeiaufgaben und -befugnisse (auch in Bezug auf Kriegsgefangene) von den Staatsorganen, Selbstverwaltungsorganen und staatlichen juristischen Personen kostenlos erhalten. Die Anfrage muss innerhalb von drei Tagen erfüllt werden.

2. Erfüllung dienstlicher Polizeiaufgaben in Zivilkleidung. Die Anforderung, dass die Polizeibeamten eine Uniform, Identifikationsnummer oder ein spezielles Abzeichen im Dienst tragen mussten, wurde annulliert.

3. Die Polizei hat erweiterte Rechte zur Anwendung von Zwangsmaßnahmen. Die Polizei darf Zwangsmaßnahmen gegen die an der Militärangriff gegen Ukraine beteiligten Personen anwenden, ohne Berücksichtigung bestimmter Einschränkungen und Verbote, die gesetzlich festgelegt werden. Die Anwendung folgender Maßnahmen ist erlaubt: Durchführung der Zwangsmaßnahmen ohne Vorwarnung, Schlagen mit Einsatzmitteln ohne Beschränkungen für ihren Anwendungsort und der Schusswaffengebrauch.

4. Während der Militär aggression dürfen Polizisten folgende technische Hilfsmittel verwenden:

- 1) Foto- und Videogeräte für Aufzeichnung von Straftaten;
- 2) technische Geräte und Mittel für Erkennung von Strahlung und Feststellung der chemischen, biologischen und nuklearen Bedrohungen;
- 3) Unbemannte Luftfahrzeuge und spezielle technische Mittel, um ihrem Einsatz entgegenzuwirken.

Die Polizei erhält das Recht, Information zu verwenden, die mit der Hilfe von Foto- und Videogeräten, die sich in fremdem Besitz befinden, erlangt wurde.

5. Die Polizei kann kriminaltechnische Unterstützung bei der Untersuchung des Unfallortes und spezielle Sprengarbeiten leisten.

6. Die Polizei vertritt und erfüllt die Verpflichtungen der Ukraine gegenüber Interpol und Europol und gewährleistet die Zusammenarbeit und den Informationsaustausch mit diesen Organisationen.

Zu den Hauptaufgaben der Polizei während der Militär aggression gehört die Untersuchung der Kriegsverbrechen, die von der Konfliktpartei begangen wurden. Die Russische Föderation verstößt gegen internationale Vereinbarungen und Verträge, einschließlich der Genfer Konvention ständig.

Es gibt systematische Verstöße gegen viele Artikel der Genfer Konvention über die Achtung der Rechte der Kriegsgefangenen, über den Zivilbevölkerungsschutz laut dem humanitären Völkerrecht.

Seit Beginn der Militär aggression der Russischen Föderation in der Ukraine haben Ermittler der Nationalen Polizei der Ukraine 40935 Strafverfahren eingeleitet. Davon sind folgende:

- 29991 – nach Art. 438 des Strafgesetzbuches der Ukraine (Verletzung der Gesetze und Gebräuche des Krieges)
- 8930 – nach Art. 110 des Strafgesetzbuches der Ukraine (Eingriff in die territoriale Integrität und Unverletzlichkeit der Ukraine)
- 1841 – nach Art. 111-1 des Strafgesetzbuches der Ukraine (Kooperationsaktivität)
- 87 – nach Art. 111 des Strafgesetzbuches der Ukraine (Hochverrat)
- 37 – nach Art. 113 des Strafgesetzbuches der Ukraine (Sabotage) und andere.

Während der Militär aggression wird die Polizei verstärkt weiterarbeiten. Die Polizisten leisten Hilfe an den Kontrollpunkten, führen die Evakuierung der Bevölkerung durch, führen Such- und Ermittlungsarbeiten durch und bekämpfen Raubüberfälle. Der Leiter der Schutzpolizei der Ukraine Yevhen Zhukov sagte, dass die Polizisten ihre Tätigkeitbereiche seit dem Beginn eines umfassenden Kriegs in der Ukraine verbreiten. Die Polizisten feuern Panzer ab, bekämpfen die Kriminalität, helfen der Bevölkerung, evakuieren Menschen [4].

Wie der Pressedienst der Nationalen Polizei der Ukraine feststellt, wurden 22 Polizisten seit Beginn der umfassenden Militär aggression bei der Ausübung ihrer Dienstpflichten getötet, 88 wurden schwer verletzt und 7 sind vermisst [2].

Die Polizeitatigkeit wahrend der Militaraggression ist sehr gefahrlisch und riskant. Die Polizisten wirken mit den Militars bei dem Bevolkerungsschutz, deshalb werden ihnen die entsprechenden Befugnisse ubertragen. Die Polizei hat eine ganze Reihe von Aufgaben, um Beweise fur Kriegsverbrechen zu sammeln. Solche Tatigkeit ist wichtig und notwendig.

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**CONCEPT PREVENTION OF AGAINST DRUGS:
FOREIGN EXPERIENCE**

The drugs problem continues to worsen inexorably from year to year. International drugs cartels are becoming more aggressive and more expansionist in attacking new markets with new drugs with ever changing distribution patterns and with increasing skill in concealment and in handling the money from their sales. Even more worrying, they are using their increasing resources to interfere in the democratic and economic processes of countries by political influence and by taking over key sectors of business and financial services.

The annual street sales value of illicit drugs is now estimated to have reached over 500,000 million US dollars a year. This is a sum larger than the national budgets of many countries.

Increasingly we see drug cartels collaborating with terrorist groups, using drugs to purchase their weapons. The political, social and economic stability of nation states is, therefore, being affected by the drugs trade. The main victim of drugs is and will continue to be those young people who are ensnared into taking drugs and becoming addicted to them. However, whilst crime at street level may continue to be more immediately apparent as a threat to our daily safety, it is the steady enlargement of the power of big time criminal organisations which feed for growth on drugs trafficking that is the main threat of our time.

The international drug trade is highly organised. Traffickers are able to employ the finest brains, whether these be legal, financial, logistical or

those of chemists. They employ the most modern equipment and technology to produce, transport and distribute their drugs and to assist in laundering the monies from them. The biggest drug traffickers are now able to run and finance their entire operation without coming into contact with the drugs themselves and in many cases living, thanks to satellite communication, on yachts or in lands where the law effectively cannot touch them. They remain unharmed because they can rarely be linked to specific drugs smuggling operations or where they are, no proof can be established as to their guilt. Due to their limitless wealth the drug barons can buy protection from criminal prosecution or, in the event that such protection is not forthcoming, use violence to eliminate incriminating witnesses.

The flood of heroin from Asia, cocaine from South America, cannabis from North Africa and synthetic drugs from European bases is unstoppable. Bigger and more frequent seizures by customs may indicate greater success in tracing drug shipments. More often than not these seizures are an indication of an increased flow of drugs. The real success or otherwise of a country's drugs seizures can only be truly measured when the elements of street price and purity are added to the equation. If prices are low and purity high, greater seizures will only confirm a greater availability of drugs.

On the side of law and order we observe that police forces and customs are co-operating in the war against drugs far more effectively than was the case ten or even five years ago. But they are still inadequately equipped and lack sufficient manpower. At a time when we are congratulating ourselves on being able to dispense with customs officers as our borders come down, we are throwing away a trained resource which will increasingly be seen to be necessary in the pursuit of big time drugs criminals. Unless too we can match the traffickers, in provision of the best available technical, electronic and chemical analysis equipment, we will be fighting with one arm tied behind our backs [1].

Drug Demand Reduction: A Focus on Prevention, Treatment and Recovery in the world.

The devastating consequences of drug use know no geographic, economic, social, or ethnic boundaries. Each year hundreds of thousands of people around the globe – rich, poor, educated, illiterate, male, female, and even young children – die from substance use disorders, and many are victims of drug-fueled violence. Beyond the toll drugs take on personal health, substance use disorders undermine economic development, diminish social and political stability, and reduce security around the world. INL's drug demand reduction program plays a part in addressing the underlying problems that generate violence, fuel other criminal behavior, and heighten instability, thereby bolstering the safety and security of U.S. citizens.

INL responds to this global challenge by developing and funding innovative, evidence-based programs. Our work sets the standard in many countries worldwide. Efforts include programs to build the capacity of drug prevention efforts; to strengthen clinical skills and raise the standards of treatment and care; and to train local community members to address

festering drug and crime issues. As our long-term evaluations have repeatedly demonstrated, INL-sponsored programs are effective and a sound investment, resulting in reductions in drug use and drug related crime.

INL collaborates with international organizations, such as the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), the Colombo Plan, Organization of American States, Inter-American Drug Abuse Control Commission (CICAD), Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), and the African Union, to advance regional cooperation, exchange best practices, and to support capacity developing in over 80 countries.

In addition, INL supports international non-governmental organizations to support drug demand efforts and promote networking within the global drug demand reduction community. Key organizations include the Coalition of Drug Free Communities of America, the International Society of Substance Use Professionals and its national chapters, and the International Consortium of Universities for Drug Demand Reduction (ICUDDR).

INL supported development of the Universal Treatment Curriculum, Universal Prevention Curriculum, and the Universal Recovery Curriculum – which together are the most comprehensive body of training materials in the addiction field, many of which are available online. The goal of these courses is to support the training, professionalization, and expansion of the global treatment and prevention workforce. The courses also offer the opportunity to receive an internationally recognized certification managed by the Global Centre for Credentialing and Certification (GCCC).

INL mainstreams gender and underserved populations throughout its global programming to ensure that underrepresented populations are able to benefit. INL-designed courses include those focused on treating Women, Children under the age of 12, and the LGBTQI+ community.

In addition, INL's Alternatives to Incarceration programming emphasizes expanding access to drug and mental health treatment at each stage of the justice system, from pre-arrest to diversion, prosecution, court to community supervision, and reentry into the community. These programs ensure that people with substance use disorders have appropriate help and resources and help courts and other elements of the criminal justice system function more efficiently [2].

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COUNTERING CYBERCRIME IN CANADA

Strong cyber security is an essential element of Canadian innovation and prosperity. Individuals, governments, and businesses all want to have confidence in the cyber systems that underpin their daily lives. The Government of Canada envisions a future in which all Canadians play an active role in shaping and sustaining their nation's cyber resilience.

Cybercrime is a new type of transnational crime. The complexity of the crime, as it occurs in the borderless realm of cyberspace, is exacerbated by the increasing involvement of organized crime groups. Cybercriminals and their victims can be found in various regions, and the consequences of cybercrime can reverberate throughout societies worldwide, emphasizing the need for an immediate, dynamic, and integrated response.

There is no international definition of cybercrime nor of cyberattacks. Offenses typically fall into one of four categories:

- offenses against the confidentiality, integrity and availability of computer data and systems;
- computer-related offences;
- content-related offences;
- offenses related to encroachments of copyright and related rights.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime draws upon its specialized expertise on criminal justice systems response to provide technical assistance in capacity building, prevention and awareness raising, international cooperation, and data collection, research and analysis on cybercrime.

Significant investments in cyber security reflect the main objectives of the Strategy.

Among the new measures introduced:

- to support leadership and collaboration between different levels of government and international partners, the new Canadian Cyber Security Center is being funded, while providing a reliable resource for citizens living in Canada and Canadian companies.
- a National Cybercrime Coordination Unit is being created to expand the RCMP's cybercrime investigation capabilities, creating a focal point for domestic and international partners.
- funding to promote the economic growth and development of Canadian citizens who are cyber-talented.

Let's pay attention to the regulatory framework of criminal laws, the main thing is that most of them are codified in the Criminal Code of Canada.

The Criminal Code of Canada prohibits unauthorized use of a computer, the possession of a device to obtain unauthorised use of computer

system or to commit mischief, and mischief in relation to computer data. The Security Information Act and the Criminal Code also prohibit fraudulently obtaining or communicating a trade secret. CASL protects consumers and businesses from the misuse of digital technology, including spam and other electronic threats, by prohibiting in the course - of commercial activity.

It should be noted that there are IT security measures in Canada that organizations in their jurisdiction are entitled to use (in particular, to detect and prevent incidents in their IT systems):

- Beacons (i.e., imperceptible, remotely hosted graphics embedded in content to initiate contact with a remote server, revealing the IP address of the computer viewing such content).

Canadian privacy laws require users to provide consent to and/or be given adequate notice of the collection, use, and disclosure of their personal information, and a chance to withdraw such consent.

Because devices are typically associated with individuals, the metadata collected from devices via tracking mechanisms (i.e., beacons) can be used to identify an individual without their knowledge, according to the OPC's Guidelines for Identification and Authentication. The metadata collected from such devices could include PI, the use of which may be considered surveillance or profiling.

- Honeypots (digital traps designed to trick cyber threat actors into taking action against a synthetic network, thereby allowing an organisation to detect and counteract attempts to attack its network without causing any damage to the organisation's real network or data).

The use of honeypots is not expressly prohibited under applicable Canadian laws and, to our knowledge, there is currently no case law that provides further guidance. That said, the general application of Canadian privacy laws relating to the collection, use or disclosure of PI applies notwithstanding that they may be used defensively. The exceptions above relating to the use of beacons may also apply; however, such exceptions should also be evaluated on a case-by-case basis.

- Sinkholes (i.e. digital traps designed to trick cyber threat actors into acting against a simulated network, allowing an organization to detect and counteract attempts to attack its network while causing no damage to the organization's real network or data).

The use of honeypots is not expressly prohibited under applicable Canadian laws, and that provides additional guidance. However, regardless of whether they are used defensively, the general application of Canadian privacy laws relating to the collection, use, or disclosure of PI applies. The exceptions mentioned the use of beacons exceptions may also apply; however, such exceptions should be evaluated on a case-by-case basis.

In general, Canada's cyber security is based on a strategy to create a safer cyber environment for all Canadians, and includes measures to identify, detect and prevent cybercriminal attacks without any signs of their illegal activities and hiding behind complex networks of infected

computers. Canada's cyberspace security is one of the nation's greatest assets and manifests itself in protecting Canada's cyber system from abuse and other disruptive actions.

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ORGANIZED CRIME IN JAPAN

Yakuza. The Japanese yakuza, officially bōryokudan, are the organized crime groups of Japan. The Japanese National Police Agency (NPA) defined bōryokudan in a 1992 law as «any organization likely to facilitate its members to collectively or habitually commit illegal acts of violence» (NPA, 2018, para. 1).[1] Beyond this legal definition, yakuza represents an influential subculture as a social organization rather than simply a form of an illegal enterprise. Yakuza adopt samurai-like rituals and often bear elaborate body tattoos. They engage in extortion, blackmail, smuggling, prostitution, drug trafficking, gambling, loan sharking, daylabour contracting, and other rackets and control many restaurants, bars, trucking companies, talent agencies, taxi fleets, factories, and other businesses in major Japanese cities. Over time the yakuza have shifted toward white-collar crime, relying more and more on bribery in lieu of violence, and indeed in the early 21st century they were one of the least murderous criminal groups in the world.[4] These activities make the relationship between yakuza and police in Japan a complicated one; yakuza membership itself is not illegal, and yakuza-owned businesses and gang headquarters are often clearly marked. Although law enforcement efforts and new legislation has clearly hindered yakuza activity, they have also adapted and restructured alongside these changes [1].

Leadership and governance. The Japanese government lacks leadership on counter-trafficking and organized crime and often displays a reluctance to introduce legislation that would place tougher limits on criminal flows such as environmental crimes and human trafficking. The level of corruption in Japan is perceived to be fairly low, and levels of transparency are high. Nevertheless, while access to information legislation allows individuals to request information from government agencies, in practice the law has not always been implemented effectively. Furthermore, the Yakuza, who specialize in financial crime and fraud, frequently extort

money from corporations and bribe politicians. While the level of social and political embeddedness of the Yakuza is being weakened, there is still progress to be made. Japan is an active partner in the international architecture for countering organized crime and takes leadership in a number of areas of international cooperation [2].

People. Japan is a destination, source and transit country for human trafficking, as well as a small-scale destination country for human smuggling. In addition to transnational trafficking, domestic trafficking has emerged as an issue in Japan, [2].

Trade. Japan has among the lowest rates of gun crime in the world, largely due to strict restrictions on gun possession. Although Japan has an incredibly small domestic market for illicit arms, seizures of weapons from organized crime groups ('Boryokudan') are not uncommon, who smuggle arms into the country hidden among shipments of legal goods [1].

Environment. Many of Japan's timber imports come from regions with a known prevalence of illegal logging. Import regulations are lax, allowing illegally logged wood to make up a substantial amount of the country's timber imports. Japan is also exposed to flows from criminal fauna markets. It has one of the world's largest markets for the ivory trade, which operates legally and in the open. There is also a significant demand for exotic pets on the Japanese market, and trade in threatened species – including slow lorises, otters, owls and pythons – is known to occur. Non-renewable resource crimes are the least pervasive form of environmental crime in Japan, but there have been isolated cases of gold being smuggled into the country, primarily from Hong Kong and Taiwan, among other Asian countries, by criminal networks seeking to bypass taxes on the precious metal [2].

Drugs. For the most part, few drugs transit or are produced on Japanese territory. Domestic consumption is highest in cannabis and synthetic drugs, whereas heroin and cocaine consumption rates are low. Currently, the fastest growing and most lucrative drug market in Japan is the criminal market for methamphetamine. The price of methamphetamine in Japan is several times higher than it is in neighbouring countries, largely due to the high demand. Cannabis is also consumed on a relatively large scale in Japan, particularly by younger generations, and usage has increased substantially in recent years [2]. The police cooperate with domestic and foreign authorities to fight against firearms and drug crimes in implementation of legal system, joint investigation, information exchange, and awareness raising campaigns [3].

Criminal actors. The three largest, which account for approximately 70 % of all syndicate members in Japan, are the Yamaguchi-gumi, the Sumiyoshi-kai and the Inagawa-kai. The different Yakuza are involved in various criminal markets to different extents. Some – the Yamaguchi-gumi, for instance – formally forbid their members from engaging in drug trafficking (although many do still operate in the drug markets), whereas other Boryokudan are heavily involved in the criminal

market for drugs. Ties between organized criminals and Japanese politicians have been common for decades but have been reduced in recent years as public opinion on the Yakuza and organized crime in general has become increasingly intolerant. Nevertheless, in recent years, there have been a number of cases of high-ranking officials in the Liberal Democratic Party having ties to organized crime, and there are still accusations that cabinet members have associations with criminal actors [2].

Criminal justice and security. Japan's judiciary is independent, efficient and reliable. Due process generally prevails in trials and the rule of law is strong. Japan's national police agency has a number of specialized bureaus and units working on organized crime [2].

Economic and financial environment. Japan's organized crime groups still control a significant part of the country's private sector, particularly construction, but in general there are few constraints to private sector development and doing business. Japan is increasingly vulnerable to money laundering and terrorist financing. It has adopted strong measures against these two issues, requiring all financial institutions to adopt risk-based approaches [2]. In April 2007, the Japan

Financial Intelligence Center (JAFIC) was established as Japan's Financial Intelligence Unit (FIU) in the NPSC/NPA. JAFIC is responsible for collecting and analyzing suspicious transaction reports (STRs).[3]

Civil society. Japanese authorities and NGOs provide some social protection services for victims of crimes such as human trafficking (including shelters, hotlines and counselling), as well as reintegration and repatriation services [2].

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ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL POLICE OF UKRAINE IN THE CONDITIONS OF MARTIAL LAW

With the introduction of martial law in Ukraine, the question of its defense capability and the implementation of public security not only by the Armed Forces of Ukraine, but also by the National Police of Ukraine becomes urgent. Today, martial law is a special legal regime for the state authorities of Ukraine, because the need to repel aggression against Ukraine

and prevent the immediate threat of aggression plays a key role in the state's activities as a whole.

All features of police actions under martial law are defined by current legislation, primarily the Law of Ukraine «On the Legal Regime of Martial Law» dated 05.21.12.2015 [1].

It is important to clarify the competence of the National Police to impose martial law, as this explanation is a guarantee of the legitimacy of its officials during martial law, which contributes to the proper efficiency of services and units. Peculiarities of the activity of the National Police under martial law are determined by the current legislation, first of all by the Law of Ukraine «On the Legal Regime of Martial Law». According to this law, the National Police facilitates the activities of the military administration, courts, prosecutor's office, and judicial bodies during martial law; reports to the military administration on the legal situation in the relevant territory, fights crime, protects public order and results of activities [2].

The activity of employees of the National Police of Ukraine in martial law is characterized by specific conditions for the exercise of their professional powers. In order for the National Police to be able to effectively ensure public order and security during martial law, these measures must be properly organized. To this end, taking into account social, political and economic conditions, measures should be taken to provide them with the necessary material and technical resources to develop algorithms for police action in case of possible emergencies, such as seizure of government buildings, hostages, etc. Standard planning in martial law, for example, the organization of operational and investigative operations in the case of armed criminal groups, requires some experience of the leader, knowledge of the area, analysis of the combat situation [2]. Therefore, the main function of law enforcement agencies to ensure martial law is to respond to threats, which is achieved by addressing issues such as the fight against crime, terrorism in all its forms, public safety.

It should be noted that the Verkhovna Rada has expanded the powers of the National Police during martial law – law enforcement officers will have the right to escort detainees and demining. In particular, in order to carry out their police duties, they are allowed to stop vehicles if there is information that the driver or passenger of the vehicle is a person who left the place of detention of prisoners of war. In addition, during martial law, a police officer has the right to use weapons and special means against persons who take part in armed aggression against Ukraine without taking into account the requirements and prohibitions of the law.

Employees of police bodies who perform duties related to the protection of public order in conditions of martial law must know the organization and tactics of the activities of police bodies in such conditions, tasks, functions, forms and methods of police activity, decisions of local authorities on matters of protection of public order, current legislation, in

particular, that which regulates the activities of the police and other law enforcement agencies in conditions of martial law.

In March of this year, the Verkhovna Rada adopted amendments to the laws of Ukraine «On the National Police» and «On the Disciplinary Statute of the National Police of Ukraine» with the aim of optimizing police activities, in particular during the martial law regime.

As noted, Article 23 of the Law of Ukraine «On the National Police» has been supplemented with new items necessary for the performance of tasks, including in the conditions of martial law. In particular, the additions relate to issues of interaction of the National Police bodies and units with state bodies, local self-government bodies, including in relation to prisoners of war, ensuring the escort and detention of detainees, demining and allowing police officers to carry out special explosive work, as well as representation in the International Criminal Police Organization – Interpol [3].

Psychological training, special physical training and professional training of the personnel of the National Police of Ukraine are gaining importance. As officers are usually prepared for the martial law conditions, consequently even sudden, unpredictable situations do not lead to problems in the performance of their activities by the police.

Analyzing the peculiarities of the activities of the National Police during the introduction of martial law, namely, the normative provisions that regulate the processes of ensuring public safety and order by the National Police, which are already familiar for everyday peacetime in our country, we can come to the logical conclusion that the previously established legislative definitions are unambiguous need to be supplemented, because the war in our country every second dictates to us completely different realities, to which, first of all, the police, as the central body of the executive power, whose tasks are based on the already mentioned provision of public safety and order, must be subordinated.

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ENSURING INFORMATION SECURITY FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

The current stage of the development of information technologies is characterized by the possibility of massive informational influence on individual and public consciousness up to large-scale information wars, as a result of which the principle of information security becomes an inevitable counterbalance to the principle of freedom of information. This principle is due to the global information revolution, rapid development, and widespread implementation of the latest information technologies and global means of telecommunications. Penetrating all spheres of life activity of states, the information revolution expands the possibilities of development of international cooperation and forms a planetary information space in which information acquires the properties of the most valuable element of national property, its strategic resource [1].

One of the most urgent problems in the world today is the problem of legal regulation on the Internet. The global information and telecommunications network Internet, along with the objective benefits it provides to humanity, has absorbed many societal problems that have manifested themselves in the emergence of new forms (types) of illegal activity and the emergence of new threats incompatible with the tasks of maintaining global stability and security. The tasks of countering terrorism and extremism are reflected in the state policy of many foreign states, and the analysis of legal regulation in this area allows us to conclude the tendency to strengthen responsibility for cyberterrorism and the spread of illegal information [1].

Cybersecurity is the desired state of information technology security, in which risks to cyberspace are reduced to an acceptable minimum (German Cybersecurity Strategy) [2].

Among the main threats to national cyberspace, the strategies of most countries define as:

- Cyber espionage and military actions carried out with the support or knowledge of the state. All technologically advanced states and corporations become the target of cyber espionage, which aims to acquire state or industrial secrets, personal data, or other valuable information. Thus, one of the most high-profile cyberattacks in recent times was the actions of the DPRK against Sony Pictures Entertainment, as a result of which the attackers took possession of confidential data, including information about the company's commercial operations.

- Using the Internet for terrorist purposes. Terrorist groups use the Internet for propaganda, fundraising, and recruiting.

- Cybercrime: theft of personal data and laundering of illegally obtained funds. Criminals sell information about bank card numbers, and passwords from computer servers, and malware.

Accordingly, the national legislation of countries, as a rule, regulates the following issues:

- Protection of personal data (Canada, the Netherlands, Estonia, Sweden, Finland, Spain);
- Protection of e-commerce and security of electronic transactions and payment instruments (USA, Canada, Poland, Estonia, Italy);
- Protection of children (USA);
- Protection of important infrastructure facilities and information systems (France).

For this study, data from the «Cyberwellness profiles» of the International Telecommunication Union were used [2].

Among the numerous international legal acts, the thesis that information and network security is understood as the ability of a network or system to resist with a certain level of reliability accidents or malicious actions that can violate the availability, integrity, and confidentiality of information that is stored or transmitted, as well as services, provided by a network or information system. Compliance with security is defined as the availability, identification, integrity, and confidentiality of information. Special attention is paid to the legislative framework covering the issue of interception and decryption of information [2].

Yes, in the US Information Security Management Act of 2002 year, information security is defined as the protection of information and information systems from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, distribution, modification, or destruction; ensuring the integrity of information from unauthorized alteration or destruction, including guarantees of its authenticity; ensuring confidentiality, which means maintaining the established restrictions on access and dissemination of information, including the closure of data about private life and property; availability, which means fast and reliable access to information [1].

Today, the U.S. government promotes the active use of information technology and digital communications to maintain a strong foundation for cooperation, the exchange of ideas and information, the review of the electoral process, the fight against corruption, and the promotion of civil democracy. Within the framework of this policy, the US government is guided by the goals of providing a favorable environment for the development of constitutional law and real opportunities for the use of information technologies by non-governmental organizations, human rights defenders, and journalists. Cooperation with the public sector, in general, and individual organizations to increase the level of society's resistance to modern information risks [3].

An example of the effectiveness of ISC security is the practical implementation of a non-governmental, non-profit project – the Centre for Cybersecurity and Education. The center promotes careers in this field by

providing scholarships to women, and students of higher educational institutions. Countering information threats to the national security of the state is one of the main goals of the project, which is implemented in two main areas:

- research of topical issues of cybersecurity and formation of appropriate recommendations for government agencies;
- promoting the professional development of information security professionals, who later became state personnel sources [4].

A similar field of activity is implemented by the Information Systems Security Association (ISSA), which is a non-profit international organization that unites specialists in the field of information security. The main tools of the organization are holding scientific conferences, educational forums, and publication of relevant materials, as well as creating conditions for interaction between specialists and experts in this field [5].

Thus, the US experience in involving civil society in information security and interaction with the state is based not only on the formation of mechanisms for effective cooperation between government and nongovernmental actors but also on ensuring broad membership of nongovernmental actors in security structures. If there is a developed system of non-governmental organizations, public authorities have the necessary sources of resources to implement security policy in the information sphere.

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LAW OF ITALY

The **law of Italy** is the system of law across the Italian Republic. The Italian legal system has a plurality of sources of production. These are arranged in a hierarchical scale, under which the rule of a lower source cannot conflict with the rule of an upper source (hierarchy of sources) [1].

The Constitution of 1948 is the main source. The Italian civil code is based on codified Roman law with elements of the Napoleonic civil code and later statutes. The civil code of 1942 replaced the original one of 1865. The penal code («The Rocco Code») was also written under fascism (1930) [1].

Both the civil code and the penal code have been modified in order to be in conformity with the current democratic constitution and with social changes.[1]

Private law is that part of a civil law legal system which is part of the *jus commune* that involves relationships between individuals, such as the law of contracts and torts (as it is called in the common law), and the law of obligations (as it is called in civil legal systems). In Italian law, the main regulatory body for private law is the Italian civil code, which governs both civil and commercial law. The Italian civil code was approved with Royal decree no. 262 of 16 March 1942 and entered into force on 21 April of the same year. It was born from the merger between the Italian Civil Code of 1865 and the Italian Commercial Code of 1882. It is divided into six books, composed in turn into titles, chapters, sections, as well as 2,969 articles. The six books deal respectively of people and family, heritage, property, bonds, working and protection of rights [1].

Public law is the part of law that governs relations between legal persons and a government, between different institutions within a state, between different branches of governments, as well as relationships between persons that are of direct concern to society. Public law comprises constitutional law, administrative law and criminal law [1].

Constitutional law is a body of law which defines the role, powers, and structure of different entities within a state, namely, the executive, the parliament or legislature, and the judiciary. The Constitution of the Italian Republic is composed of 139 articles (five of which were later abrogated) and arranged into three main parts: *Principi Fondamentali*, the Fundamental Principles (articles 1–12); Part I concerning the *Diritti e Doveri dei Cittadini*, or Rights and Duties of Citizens (articles 13–54); and Part II the *Ordinamento della Repubblica*, or Organisation of the Republic (articles 55–139); followed by 18 *Disposizioni transitorie e finali*, the Transitory and Final Provisions [1].

It is important to note that the Constitution primarily contains general principles; it is not possible to apply them directly. As with many written constitutions, only few articles are considered to be self-executing. The majority require enabling legislation, referred to as *accomplishment of constitution*. This process has taken decades and some contend that, due to various political considerations, it is still not complete [1].

Administrative law is the division of law that governs the activities of executive branch agencies of government. In Italian law, the main regulatory body for private law is the Italian administrative process code, which was approved with legislative decree no. 104 of 2 July 2010. It was issued in implementation of article 44 of the delegated law no. 69, which

authorized the government to reorganize the administrative process, and entered into force on 16 September 2010. It includes 137 articles [1].

Criminal law is the body of law that relates to crime. It prescribes conduct perceived as threatening, harmful, or otherwise endangering to the property, health, safety, and moral welfare of people inclusive of one's self. Criminal law includes the punishment and rehabilitation of people who violate the penal laws. In Italian law, the main regulatory body for criminal law is the Italian penal code, which is one of the sources of Italian criminal law together with the Constitution and special laws. The Italian penal code was approved with Royal decree no. 1,398 of 19 October 1930 and entered into force on 1 July 1931. The Italian penal code is organized into three books, which are in turn divided into titles, chapters, sections, paragraphs and articles, as well as 734 articles. The three books deal respectively of the crimes in general, of the crimes in particular and of the misdemeanors in particular [1].

Local laws and customs. By law you must be able to show some form of identification at all times. In most cases a photocopy of the data page of your passport should suffice, but in this case you're advised to also carry a second form of photo ID. The police will normally ask for your full passport if you are stopped while driving.

Tickets on public transport must be endorsed in a ticket machine before you start a journey. The machines are usually positioned at the entrance to platforms in railway stations, in the entrance hall to metro stations and on board some buses and trams. Officials patrol public transport and will issue an on the spot fine of 100 to 500 euros (reduced to 50 euros if paid immediately) if you don't hold an endorsed ticket. Tickets can be purchased from shops displaying the 'T' sign, and are usually bars or tobacconists.

Many major cities in Italy now impose a small tax on tourists. The tax is levied by hotels and is usually not included in any pre-paid arrangements or package deal. The rate of tax varies from city to city, and can depend on the star rating of the hotel. Hotels often ask for payment of this tax in cash. Make sure you get a receipt. For more information check with the local tourist information office [2].

From 16 January 2023, visitors to Venice who have not booked accommodation in the city or surrounding islands will face a separate entry fee of between 3 and 10 euros. Non-compliance may result in a fine of up to 300 euros. Visitors and cruise ship passengers should check with their travel operator whether the fee is included [2].

Under Italian law, young people and children aged 17 and under cannot check into hotels or holiday accommodation without an accompanying adult.

In the Rome area, restaurants must:

- display a menu outside the restaurant
- only charge for bread if you specifically request it
- inform you of the prices you will pay before you order
- not make any cover charge (coperto)
- give a proper receipt [2].

In some Italian towns and cities you may be fined for dropping litter and in some towns or cities it's an offence to sit on monument steps or to eat and drink in the immediate vicinity of main churches, historic monuments and public buildings. It's also an offence to enter or bathe in public fountains. A fine of up to €10,000 can be imposed for urinating in a public place [2].

The Municipality of Capri forbids the use of any disposable plastic objects such as bags, cutlery, plates, cups, food packaging, trays, straws on the island of Capri. Violations can incur a fine of up to 500 euros [2].

Illegal traders operate on the streets of all major Italian cities, particularly tourist cities like Florence, Venice and Rome. You should not buy from illegal street traders. If you do, you could be stopped by the local police and fined [2].

It's illegal to remove sand, shells or pebbles from coastal areas in Italy. Doing so may result in heavy fines. It's also forbidden to collect various species of flowers, plants and herbs from mountain and wooded areas [2].

The law of each state is individual. Italy is a country of interesting customs and an important legal system.

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ENSURING RESPECT FOR INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW

The changing nature of warfare in the 21st century poses a multitude of challenges to the perceived applicability of International Humanitarian Law (IHL) for both State and non-State actors in contemporary conflicts. These issues, including but not limited to: ambiguity in the distinction of violent conflict, the changing type of actors involved, issues of asymmetric warfare, challenges of negative reciprocity, and an inhibited ability to engage with all parties to conflict, are detrimental to the overriding purpose of IHL. Still, the oftentimes inefficient nature of the international system, as well as lack of consensus regarding new legislation means that formal changes in IHL to more flexibly reflect the reality of situations will not be developed anytime in the near future. Therefore, it is in the best interest of all parties to non-international conflicts to aspire to better respect the existing norms of IHL, which can only be attained if States recognize the dire need for inclusive engagement with all types of non-State actors. In addition, practices of positive reciprocity must be carried out by all parties,

in order to better serve the ultimate goal of International Humanitarian Law: the reduction of human suffering, and the preservation of human dignity in times of violent armed conflict.

It is perhaps readily apparent that one of the most prominent challenges to the effectiveness of International Humanitarian Law is the issue of non-compliance by the multitude of non-state actors formerly mentioned. But analogous to this problem is the fact that non-State actors are not autonomously or voluntarily Party to the treaties and conventions under which they are legally bound. Instead, IHL as ratified by States around the world includes the definitions of, and stipulations for NSAs in times of armed conflict imply because they are de facto parties to the conflict. The theory referred to as the 'principle of legislative jurisdiction' is a majority view of the international community, holding that non-state actors are bound under IHL by reason of their being active on the territory of a Contracting Party (a State Party to the Geneva Conventions and/or its Additional Protocols) [1]. But without their participation in the creation of these laws, and even oftentimes without their knowledge of them, it is difficult to expect comprehensive compliance, and ironically, «there are no groups that feel less represented by the State than armed opposition groups» [2]. Aside from a contradiction regarding the treatment of NSAs in domestic law versus IHL, the mere fact that non-State actors are not privy to the international laws governing them does little to ensure that they will abide by their standards. Thus, arguably at the heart of this issue is the denial of consent and participation in rule making. In addition, the argument of IHL's inherent «legitimacy» has little substance from the perspective of non-State actors, and willingness to comply on the part of an actor is crucially dependent on the perception of its having consented to, or at least having participated in the formation of the law one is bound by. As such, in a period when violent non-State actors increasingly exert influence in modern warfare, the reality that only States are party to the treaties of IHL is a negative factor hindering effective compliance.

In reality however, war has never been a clear-cut matter, and throughout history there have always been instances of combat that fall outside the scope of man-to-man battle in the field. While new technologies and unique developing patterns do have an effect on the way in which war is generally fought, obstacles to Just War have always been present. Thus, the relevance of IHL in the 21st century is entirely dependent upon its perceived relevance by actors involved, and subsequently their willingness to comply with its stipulations. Though these changes in the nature of conflict remain problematic to the determination and application of appropriate bodies of international law, they are not the sole reason for violations of IHL by both State and non-State actors party to conflict. An inherent issue of IHL is the fact that it seeks to operate in «an international society of states not willing to uphold the rule of international law», which inhibits the very mechanisms already in place for successful implementation [3]. As such, the lack of political will illustrated by national

governments to abide by existing law is considerably the most detrimental factor inhibiting the goal of gaining compliance by non-State actors.

While International Humanitarian Law does not perfectly reflect the realities of warfare in contemporary conflict, it is important to realize that long-standing humanitarian norms are not so archaic that they cannot be applied in practice. The duty of lawyers in any field is to interpret existing laws and employ them as best as possible to a present situation, and the same truism applies to non-international conflicts and IHL in the world today [4]. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the ways in which IHL can and should be implemented given the current circumstances and available mechanisms for securing enhanced compliance.

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JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEMS IN EUROPE

In the last 20 years, youth justice systems in Europe have undergone considerable changes, particularly in the former socialist countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Recalling the need to guarantee the effective implementation of existing binding norms concerning children's rights, without preventing member states from introducing or applying higher standards or more favourable measures;

Definitions For the purposes of these guidelines on child-friendly justice (hereafter «the guidelines»):

– a «child» means any person under the age of 18 years;

– «parent» refers to the person(s) with parental responsibility, according to national law. In case the parent(s) is/are absent or no longer holding parental responsibility, this can be a guardian or an appointed legal representative;

– «child-friendly justice» refers to justice systems which guarantee the respect and the effective implementation of all children's rights at the highest attainable level, bearing in mind the principles listed below and giving due consideration to the child's level of maturity and understanding and the circumstances of the case.

It is, in particular, justice that is accessible, age appropriate, speedy, diligent, adapted to and focused on the needs and rights of the child, respecting the rights of the child including the rights to due process, to participate in and to understand the proceedings, to respect for private and family life and to integrity and dignity [2].

Examples of juvenile criminal cases being treated separately from adult cases can be found in early Germanic law. Although concerns over juvenile justice strengthened in the 1870s, it was not until 1923 that Germany established a separate system of juvenile courts [1].

The contemporary juvenile system in Germany reflects the practices that developed in the Federal Republic (West Germany) after World War II. The primary goal of the German system is not to punish but to instruct delinquent youth and to change undesirable behaviour patterns, often by working within the family. Status offenses do not exist in the German legal system, but German youths who exhibit delinquent behaviour are often handled by the welfare system and by a guardianship court (family court). German law also recognizes three juvenile categories: children (those under 14 years of age, who are presumed to be not responsible for their actions because of their youth), juveniles (those between the ages of 14 and 18), and adolescents (those between the ages of 19 and 21). Generally, adolescents are considered more accountable for their actions than juveniles. Prosecutions of juvenile cases also differ depending on the seriousness of the offense: relatively minor cases (involving less than one year of incarceration) are handled by a juvenile court judge; more serious cases are heard by a tribunal composed of one juvenile judge and two lay judges; and the most serious cases are reserved for another mixed tribunal consisting of three trained judges and two lay judges [4].

In sum, youth justice policy as reflected in legislation and practice in the majority of European countries has successfully resisted a punitive turn. While there is more work to be done in the areas where policy is not yet clear, it's and that the ideal of social inclusion and reintegration will be the Leitmotiv for juvenile justice reforms of the 21st century [3].

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CONFLICT-RELATED SEXUAL VIOLENCE IN UKRAINE: LEGISLATIVE REGULATION

In early February 2022, satellite imagery showed the largest deployment of Russian troops to its border with Belarus since the end of the Cold War. Negotiations between the United States, Russia, and European powers – including France and Germany – failed to bring about a resolution. In late February 2022, the United States warned that Russia intended to invade Ukraine, citing Russia's growing military presence at the Russia-Ukraine border. President Putin then ordered troops to Luhansk and Donetsk, claiming the troops served a «peacekeeping» function. The United States responded by imposing sanctions on the regions and the Nord Stream 2 gas pipeline a few days later. Nevertheless, just prior to the invasion, U.S. and Ukrainian leaders remained at odds regarding the nature and likelihood of an armed Russian threat, with Ukrainian officials playing down the possibility of an incursion and delaying the mobilization of their troops and reserve forces.

On February 24, 2022, during a last-ditch UN Security Council effort to dissuade Russia from attacking Ukraine, Putin announced the beginning of a full-scale land, sea, and air invasion of Ukraine targeting Ukrainian military assets and cities across the country. U.S. President Joe Biden declared the attack «unprovoked and unjustified» and issued severe sanctions against top Kremlin officials, including Putin and Russian Foreign Minister Sergey Lavrov; four of Russia's largest banks; and the Russian oil and gas industry in coordination with European allies. On March 2, 141 of 193 UN member states voted to condemn Russia's invasion in an emergency UN General Assembly session, demanding that Russia immediately withdraw from Ukraine [1].

The conflict has taken a massive toll on every single person, but in particular women and girls as reports of sexual and physical violence, exploitation and abuse continue to increase.

Damage and destruction to medical facilities as well as a shortage of service providers and critical supplies have also severely compromised the delivery of essential health services including access to maternal care for the estimated 265,000 women who were pregnant when conflict erupted, and specialized services for gender-based violence survivors [2].

Women and girls constituted most of the alleged victims, while some reporting instances of sexual violence were also men and boys. A national hotline on domestic violence, human trafficking and gender-based discrimination has been set up, and has received multiple shocking reports ranging from gang rape, to coercion, where loved ones are forced to watch an act of sexual violence committed against a partner or a child [3].

Recently, on September 23rd, the Commission of Inquiry on Ukraine reported to the UN Human Rights Commission on their findings from Kyiv, Chernihiv, Kharkiv, and Sumy, that they had uncovered evidence of war crimes including of sexual and gender-based violence and that the victims ranged in age from four to 82 years old. Horrifying personal testimonies in print and electronic media attest to the appalling tragedies survivors endure at the hands of Russian soldiers. Civil society organizations and service providers in Ukraine and working with Ukrainian refugees also report an increased need in their services to help survivors [4].

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POLICING IN TIME OF WAR: PROBLEMS AND WAYS OF DEVELOPMENT

On 24 February 2022, the Russian Federation launched a large-scale armed aggression against Ukraine, killing Ukrainian citizens and destroying towns and villages as a result of offensive hostilities, including missile, artillery and air strikes. In order to repel the aggressor and protect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the state, martial law was imposed in Ukraine by the Decree of the President of Ukraine No. 64/2022 as of 24 February 2022. So, the conduct of contemporary military operations takes place in a highly complex and contested terrain of legal and social norms. Whether a military force is engaged in conventional armed conflict, counter-insurgency, anti-terrorism, peacekeeping/enforcement, stability operations, or law enforcement, there is a convergence of a dense mixture of law, doctrine and policy that guides military decision-making.

The synchronization of law and policy on the one hand, and of formalism and social effect on the other, needs to be constantly reconciled. Involvement of police officers has become a key feature of operational planning

and execution. Law enforcement relates to the ‘broad range of activities to protect the civilian populace, provide interim policing and crowd control, and secure critical infrastructure. It is to be contrasted with conventional war-fighting and often takes place in a context of overlapping legal frameworks. The application of force in law-enforcement-type activities is sometimes determined by peacetime criminal law regimes, sometimes by elements of the law of armed conflict, and sometimes by both. The consequences of non-compliance with the relevant rule, norm, or standard within this highly calibrated and synergetic legal framework can be devastating. The impacts can be measured in terms of personal liability and mission accomplishment goals, as well as broader socio-political registers of legitimacy.

Conflict effects on policing are easily understood. There are two primary reasons that policing may become difficult during these times:

1. The first is the absence or weakness of state authority. Police operate under the auspices of the state, and anytime that authority is seriously challenged, the police’s job is necessarily more difficult, and may be made impossible. Additionally, during this challenge, individuals may seek other options for justice, rather than policing, few of which resemble the forms of policing performed by a state.

2. A second major reason policing can be difficult during conflict is the level of violence that can sometimes be attained. This second problem is the most widely cited reason for the loss of policing during conflict. Police forces are not meant to handle high levels of conflict. They are especially ill equipped to do so when the conflict is widespread and police involved in conflict frequently require the military to take over if the level of violence becomes too high. Moreover, in many conflicts the police themselves are targets of this violence making regular operations difficult.

Based on international experience, the United Kingdom LOAC Manual (2004) states: to avoid confusion, the law requires that «whenever a Party to a conflict incorporates a paramilitary or armed law enforcement agency into its armed forces it shall so notify the other Parties to the conflict».

Examination of conflict has now been a part of the criminal justice literature for decades, so conflict can affect justice systems. Moreover, there has been substantial study of post-conflict justice issues. The decisions made on intervention with police during conflicts are, by definition, uninformed. Further, frequently interventions take place in the context of ongoing conflict, meaning those involved have expectations that may not be realistic for police behavior during these times.

Conflict policing is a proposed research agenda examining policing behavior during conflict on multiple levels and in multiple formats to better assist decision makers with their decisions to intervene in a given conflict. Additionally, it hopes to fill a gap in understanding about how police function, or fail to function, during times of crisis. Though this is one suggestion for a way forward, it is by no means the only viable way to examine the process. Much critique of this view is expected and needed

before scholars can sufficiently understand what happens to law enforcement during a conflict, and how to make the best decisions regarding interventions or support.

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CHINA'S CYBERSECURITY LAW AND ITS IMPACTS

China's Cybersecurity Law went into effect, marking an important milestone in China's efforts to create strict guidelines on cyber governance. Long before the Cybersecurity Law took effect, China had already made some efforts to strengthen information security. For example, a white paper titled *The Internet in China*, published in 2010, served as an early guide to China's policy on internet usage [1]. But the Cybersecurity Law marks a significant milestone in China's efforts to combat cybercrime.

Despite the Cybersecurity Law's passage and enactment, uncertainties still plague its introduction. Because of ambiguous requirements and broadly defined terminology, some enterprises are concerned about the law's potential impact on their operations in China, while others worry that it will create trade barriers to foreign companies in the Chinese market.

Consisting of 79 articles in seven chapters, the Cybersecurity Law is exceptionally wide in scope, containing an overarching framework targeting the regulation of internet security, protection of private and sensitive information, and safeguards for national cyberspace sovereignty and security. Similar to some of the most commonly used cybersecurity standards, such as the Cybersecurity Framework of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) and ISO 27000-27001, the Cybersecurity Law emphasizes requirements for network products, services, operations and information security, as well as monitoring, early detection, emergency response and reporting. On the topic of protection of data privacy, the Cybersecurity Law is similar to data-privacy laws and regulations in other

jurisdictions. However, the requirements related to national cyberspace sovereignty and security are more distinct [4].

The Cybersecurity Law expressly applies to network operators and critical information infrastructure (CII) operators, as the terms for these entities are repeatedly mentioned in the law. «Network operator», as defined in the appendix to the Cybersecurity Law, could be applicable to almost all businesses in China that own or administer their networks. Due to the loosely defined terms, however, the Cybersecurity Law may be interpreted to encompass a wide set of industries apart from traditional information technology, internet service providers and telecommunications companies.

Therefore, it is safe to assume that any company (regardless of size and domestic or multinational extent) operating its network – including websites and internal and external networks – to conduct business, provide a service or collect data in China could very likely be in scope [3].

Although the CAC has yet to issue further guidance on CIIs, it has incorporated a wide range of industries, including but not limited to communications, information services, energy, transportation, utility, financial services, public services and government services. In general, the requirements for network operators and CIIs are similar in terms of their objectives, but the requirements for CIIs are more stringent.

Four out of the seven chapters in the Cybersecurity Law outline its major requirements:

1. Network: policies and procedures, network products and services, security assessment and information storage
2. Information Security: protection of private information and collection, usage and distribution of information
3. Monitor and response: live monitoring, comprehensive incident response, incident drill and risk assessment
4. Regulatory penalties: removal from office and maximum fine RMB 1 million, plus suspension of business and revocation of licenses.

Shortly after the Cybersecurity Law went into effect, regulators leveraged the new law in their investigations across various industries and enterprises. Among those under current investigation according to the Cybersecurity Law are some of China's biggest social media platforms: Tencent, Baidu and Sina Weibo. The three internet giants are under investigation for potential violations of the Cybersecurity Law – specifically, their potential failure to control users who have posted inappropriate content. Such investigations appear to be related to national cyberspace sovereignty and security. Other reported cases for different causes (e.g., articles 21, 24 and 47) have resulted in monetary penalties or warnings to remediate those violations within a given period.

Among the actions that companies should consider taking as they determine how to comply with the Cybersecurity Law include the following:

- Take stock of how information is collected, processed and stored, including private sensitive information.

- Assess cybersecurity and privacy risks and threats in order to focus cybersecurity efforts on the most critical risks and threats.
- Strengthen overall security governance, especially security policies and procedures.
- Evaluate business processes to ensure that proper controls are in place for the collection, use and storage of private information.
- Develop clear roles and responsibilities for cybersecurity and privacy management.
- Set up a security and privacy incident monitoring system and appropriate reporting mechanisms.
- Execute periodic cybersecurity assessments.
- Ensure proper safeguards of private and important information transmitted outside of China's borders (including security assessment).
- Design a proper security incident response plan and perform periodic drills [4].

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Linguistics and law are related to conservation issues national security, and when this happens, the inclusion of security brings certain ideologies into politics. One argument often found in security-focused linguistic politics is the idea that security requires society as a whole to have an understanding and knowledge of those nations or other groups that constitute possible security threats and language education is seen as a way to develop such understanding and knowledge.

There are general issues related to language education policy related to national security, as well as specific policy initiatives at certain historical

moments. Example: Turkey, where the Kurdish language is equated with terrorism.

Linguistics and law is an attempt by nations or other actors to address perceived problems related to language and so national security is one possible domain for language planning and policy work.

When linguistics is associated with a threat then it becomes a part of the process of securitisation and at the policy level is removed from its ordinary domain into the realm of security. For language this would mean that language is moved from a context in which thinking about language is framed in terms of its use for communication, as its ordinary domain, and becomes associated with either the enactment of a threat or ways of responding to or reducing threat. In terms of the relationship with language, political security may involve threats related to sub-state groupings that challenge state control, such as internal minorities [2, p. 77].

Linguistics policy and law as an element of securitisation can take a range of forms but in the language education contexts, two main strategies can be identified which can be seen as representing polar opposites in language and security. Linguistics can be seen as indexical of the threat that security policy wishes to resolve, as in the case of Turkey, in which Kurdish language and identity have come to be constructed as constituent elements of the threat to national territorial integrity. Where this is the case, language policy seeks to remove the language from the linguistic ecology of the state in order to resolve the threat.

In the Turkish context language has been securitised in order to address an internal conflict between the Turkish state and an ethnolinguistic minority, the Kurds. The language policies of the Turkish republic have not recognised Kurdish as a minority language. Initially, the lack of recognition of Kurdish was framed within a discourse of national identity and state building. Within this discourse, internal ethnic divisions were denied as creating divisions within Turkish identity and Kurds were considered as linguistically and culturally primitive Turks. Turkish language planning did not specifically ban the use of Kurdish (Rumpf, 1985), which in any case would have required acknowledgement of the existence of the language, but instead followed a policy favouring Turkish as the only language of Turkey [1, p. 180]. However, the Turkish government from the 1980s began to ban the use of Kurdish in a number of public contexts, which ranged from the banning of Kurdish language printed media and the singing of folksongs in Kurdish to the replacement of place names of Kurdish origin with Turkish forms.

Linguistics and law as an element of securitisation can take a range of forms but in the language education contexts two main strategies can be identified which can be seen as representing polar opposites in language and security. Language itself can be seen as indexical of the threat that security policy wishes to resolve, as in the case of Turkey, in which Kurdish language and identity have come to be constructed as constituent elements of the threat to national territorial integrity. Where this is the case, language

policy seeks to remove the language from the linguistic ecology of the state in order to resolve the threat [2, p. 40].

In such securitising discourses, language is seen as benefiting an enemy and the security response is to remove the benefit. Language policy in this case is repressive, seeking to exclude the ‘enemy’ language from valued public contexts, especially education, where the language would benefit from the symbolic value attached to such contexts and to its recognised public use (Bourdieu, 1982). Such activities can be seen as responses to language that seek to destroy the symbolic capital that such languages may possess and that may provide support for a perceived enemy at least at the symbolic level

The relationship between linguistics and security found in policy focused on security is the idea that ensuring security requires that a society as a whole has an understanding and knowledge of those nations or other groups which pose possible security threats and language education is seen as a way to develop such understanding and knowledge. The language planning response in such contexts is to increase the learning of languages at various levels of education to offset a lack of capacity [3, p. 210].

The language planning responses consider language as a barrier for effective national security but construct the problem and the solution in different ways. They reveal that language becomes a problem only when it is discursively constructed as a problem and that language becomes associated with security also as the result of discursive processes.

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FIGHT AGAINST CRIME IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

Crime is a historically volatile social and criminal phenomenon, representing a system of crimes committed in a particular territory at a given time. The paradox is that this phenomenon has always accompanied human activity. If we can't stop it, we must decrease its level as strong as it is possible, this is the main purpose of each civilized and humane state.

The analysis of international experience in the fight against crime shows that under present conditions criminal acts pose a real threat to democratic development and national security in most countries of the

world. Criminal elements, having close interregional and international ties, are increasingly common in their efforts to control the most profitable spheres of economic relations [1].

The absence of a single national concept of crime prevention, inconsistency of national, regional and sectoral national targeted programs of social prevention in the relevant areas does not contribute to the prevention of crime in the country. Such a situation does not correspond to the declared constitutional provision on social, democratic and legal state, because the situation does not take into account the realities of modern times, because the fight against crime has long turned into a global problem, which has acquired not only national, but also international, transnational character [2].

Due to the importance of combating crime in developed countries of the world, there is a need to introduce their positive experience in Ukraine as well. For example, the USA is characterized by positive achievements in the fight against crime at the national planning level, and for Japan – at the local level. In particular, in 1970, the US Congress passed the organized Crime Control Act, which provides for a number of legislative and preventive measures to prevent crimes under federal jurisdiction. In the United States, the involvement of citizens in preventive work, where there is an institute of voluntary police assistants, is also expanding.

The low criminalization of the Japanese society is a result of active support of the police in preventing crime that leads to the high discipline society. The prevention system in Japan is based on local crime prevention programs, includes both criminal investigation measures and specific measures to prevent crime. The functions of early prevention are carried out by special bodies of rehabilitation assistance, in which volunteers and staff work. Municipal programs, in which the population of the districts is involved, are actively used. In Japan, there is also an association of crime prevention – a public-state organization that functions at different levels at each police department, and its lower links are the prevention of crimes that work in contact with quarterly self-government committees. The Association and its structural units in all prefectures are responsible for preventing juvenile crime.

In France, in 1983, the National Council on Crime Prevention was established, which included members of parliament, city mayors, ministers, experts, and representatives of business structures. The head of the National Council for the Prevention of Crime is the Prime Minister of the country. The Council solves the following tasks: Finances crime prevention programs; informs the public about the state of affairs with crime; develops national policy in the area of combating crime, stimulates state anti-criminal initiatives, coordinates cooperation between local authorities, public organizations and the private sector.

The Permanent Conference on Crime Prevention has been working in the UK since 1966, which includes representatives of the Confederation of British Industriallists, Chambers of Commerce, Trade Unions and the

Association of Senior Police officers. The organization includes working groups that specialize in preventing robbery and attacking [1].

Significant achievement of the system of crime prevention in developed foreign countries should be recognized as its substantial legal support. Government programs include the identification of areas of sociological research, the development of their methods, training of personnel, financing, organization and implementation of preventive measures with an emphasis on early prevention.

Similar bodies have been established in many countries, which systematically analyze the state of crime prevention and give appropriate recommendations to government authorities for making appropriate decisions. For example, Austria has a crime prevention advisory service with 143 regional bureaus; Belgium has a higher Prevention Council; Denmark has a higher Prevention Council with 46 organizations; and the United States has established preventive services with more than 100 public organizations [1]. It is necessary to agree with the proposal to establish a special state body in Ukraine, the main tasks of which should be: to define the main directions of state policy in the sphere of crime prevention; to conduct national studies on the level of latent crime; to analyze the manifestations of international and transnational crime; coordination of activities of state structures and law-enforcement bodies on implementation of measures to prevent crime; generalization of practice of crime prevention; organization of international cooperation on prevention of crime; etc.

In view of past miscalculations, this body should be given the appropriate organizational and governmental status and the right to issue binding decisions, dispose of material, technical and financial resources in order to ensure the unity of the Criminological policy on the state scale [2].

However, in the absence of similar state structures, prevention crime in Ukraine to a certain extent should be facilitated by studying the preventive activities of law enforcement structures of other countries of the world and borrowing their positive experience. It is safe to say that this is an urgent need for Ukraine, which aspires to become a full member of the European Union.

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NATIONAL SECURITY SYSTEMS OF CANADA, FRANCE AND JAPAN

Provision of national security is a complex of political, military, security, legal, health, economic and social measures aimed at ensuring the peaceful life of the nation, prevention of possible threats. The system of ensuring national security of all countries plays an important role in the creation and building of the state itself, which is why scientific study and research of this topic is important.

Canada's national security policy is divided into two areas: ensuring internal stability and consolidating borders; maintaining and establishing peace and security in the world. Canada's security is also supported by two levels of agencies: the Canadian Security and Intelligence Service, the Canadian Secret Service, and work in international and regional peace and security organizations.

Canada places a strong emphasis on the principle of «safety first» as it relates to nuclear policy, promoting and ensuring the highest standards in nuclear safety, and the safe management and disposal of radioactive waste.

However, nuclear security of the country is not the only one. Canada has a strong hold on economic indicators on the international stage. After all, the stable development of the economy, and then the social sphere, is the same way to ensure the internal stability of the state, as, for example, the military factor.

Canada's national security is supported by a multi-purpose, combat-ready military that provides a wide range of tasks: surveillance missions, peacekeeping missions; combat operations.

Along with the task of countering terrorist threats at home and abroad, the Canadian Armed Forces assist civilian agencies of federal departments, agencies and various government organizations in monitoring the environmental situation, combating terrorism, illegal immigration and drug trafficking [3].

A distinctive feature of the management of the French national security system is the special role of the President of the Republic, defined by the 1958 Constitution, according to which the President is the guarantor of national independence, territorial integrity, compliance with Community agreements and treaties, as well as the head of the Armed Forces. In connection with the special status of the president in the sphere of national security, his function as the main ideologist of its provision has gained great importance. When developing policy documents in the field of national security, the president relies on advisers from the office of the president at the Elysee Palace.

The role of political parties and representative authorities in determining the country's national security policy is limited by the constitution. In addition, the dominance of the executive power over the legislative power in France effectively nullifies the factor of inter-party struggle in determining the nature of the concept of national security. However, most French parties develop their foreign and defense policy programs and publish documents on various aspects of security.

Among the main priorities of France's national security policy at the beginning of the new millennium, it should be noted: confirmation of its own independent status through the possession of nuclear potential and significant military potential; further strengthening of the European Union through the monetary union (euro) and Franco-German cooperation, as well as the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe; reliance on an adapted NATO and the formation of a «four-way leadership» model in Europe [1].

As for Japan, the state security and defense system of modern Japan is special in view of the fact that the state does not officially have national armed forces. However, the Ministry of Defense functions in the state apparatus, which administers the activities of the Self-Defense Forces of the state (actually, the Self-Defense Forces perform the functions of the Armed Forces, although they are not officially called the army). It is indicative that the employees of the Self-Defense Forces do not have the status of military personnel and are formally considered civil servants. In terms of management, the operational management bodies of the defense forces are the district commanders, of which there are 5 in Japan.

District commanders are subordinate to the prime minister of the state, who is responsible for solving issues in the field of national security and defense [2]. The Self-Defense Forces are formed from the unity of the main elements – land, sea and air forces [4].

According to the calculations of specialists, Japan's defense administration system is aimed at promptly averting sea, land and air threats of invasion and violation of the state border. Considering the fact that Japan is an island nation, the available defense potential is sufficient to fulfill the relevant tasks [2]. Given the close integrative links between the defense system and national security, the Japanese security services system is more complex and extensive than the defense system. This is due to the fact that Japan is one of the world leaders in the innovative technology market and has a significant volume of foreign economic ties. Because of this, the social, industrial and security infrastructure of Japan is the object of attention of foreign special services [3].

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COMBATING HUMAN TRAFFICKING IS THE MOST IMPORTANT PROBLEM IN THE WORLD

In countries of Eastern Europe and the South Caucasus, most cases of trafficking are related to sexual exploitation. Forced labor trade is also booming in Central Asia. The countries of the region are mostly suppliers of «live goods», however, in recent years, Russia and Kazakhstan have become destination countries. Hundreds of thousands of people around the world are becoming victims of smugglers. They are sold for the purpose of sexual or labor exploitation, for recruitment into the armed forces, for participation in criminal activities, or for the purpose of extracting vital organs for sale [1].

According to the UN, trafficking in human beings brings \$ 600 million in profits annually worldwide. This was reported by Prensa Latina, citing the United Nations Regional Office for Drugs and Crime. The United Nations Development Program recognizes this form of human trafficking along with another 23 illicit products most common in Central America and the Caribbean.

In the past few years, the number of identified victims of human trafficking has increased significantly, especially in the countries of America and Asia, but this, according to experts, indicates not only an increase in crime, but also that countries are able to solve more and more such crimes and find victims. Criminals exploit the most defenseless: 30 percent of the identified victims are children, almost 70 percent are women and minor girls.

Globally, sexual exploitation remains the primary target of trafficking, with 59 percent of all cases identified. 34 percent of the victims were sold for labor exploitation. In addition, for example, in some states of South Asia they trade brides. In Central and South America, cases of trafficking in children for illegal adoption have become more frequent. In southern and central Europe, people are being trafficked for coercion and begging. In North Africa, Central, Southeastern Europe and Eastern Europe, cases of trafficking in “live goods” for the removal of organs have been reported.

Most of the victims of human trafficking in Eastern Europe and Central Asia are adults. Compared to other regions, there is a relatively low number of minors among them. Among the victims, as elsewhere in the world, there are more women than men, with the exception of Armenia and Moldova. According to information from Belarus, Ukraine and Moldova, in these countries 97% of all identified victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation are women. As for victims of forced labor in the region, 76 percent of the victims are men. The countries of Eastern Europe and Central Asia belong mainly to the category of countries of origin of victims of human trafficking. Most of them were identified in the same region, but many Central Asians are illegally transported to countries in the Middle East and East Asia. And citizens of Ukraine are often found in countries of Western and Central Europe. In the region itself, the main countries of destination are Kazakhstan and Russia. UN experts noted that in recent years, the international community has made significant progress in implementing the provisions of the Protocol on preventing and combating trafficking in persons, especially women and children. However, so far it has not been possible to completely end impunity for these crimes [2].

The spread of human trafficking is due to the limited access of the population to effective employment, education, social protection and other resources, as well as to the spread of poverty, segregation in the labor market. Among the main reasons pushing women in the situation of human trafficking, experts name poverty and gender discrimination - factors that impede education, employment and confidence in the future. Interesting fact that among the factors that impede the fight against trafficking in human beings is that the majority of convicted traffickers manage to avoid imprisonment due to lenient sentences and possible corruption [3].

Summarizing the above, Trafficking in persons means recruiting, transporting, transferring, harboring or getting people through the use of force or other forms of coercion or deception. Annually thousands of men, women and children fall into the hands of traders in their own countries and for abroad. All countries of the world are affected by human trafficking, whether as countries of origin, transit or destination of victims [4].

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THE COURSE «HUMAN RIGHTS» IN THE PROCESS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF DANISH POLICE

The Danish Police School and Staff College is the joint educational establishment for all members of the Police Service in Denmark. The College provides training for officers at all levels – covering basic training, general in service and further training courses, specialist courses, leadership, and management training for all senior ranks.

The basic training for Danish police officers covers a period of 3 years. It comprises two periods of equal length at the Police school, where instruction is given in professional policing as well as in general subjects. These periods include a one-year period of practical training.

During the two theoretical training periods at the Police School, human rights education forms part of the lessons in such subjects as civics, police theory, investigation and the law of procedure.

In the civics lessons, students learn about the United Nations and European conventions and their connection with the provisions on civil rights laid down in the Danish Constitution. This is done, not least, in order to demonstrate to students that certain clauses in the Constitution are of a universal nature.

In the other subjects, studies will include the particular provisions for policing activities stipulated by Danish law, and they will be correlated back to the fundamental rules for the exercise of power within a democratic community ruled by law. In leadership training programs, human rights constitute a specific subject.

As it will appear, international human rights constitute an integral part of a number of subjects in basic training as well as in other police training courses. In the light of the increasing internationalization and of the increasing predominance of the provisions of international human rights treaties within a democratic state governed by the rule of law, such as Denmark, it has been decided to make the subject more prominent by making it an independent subject in basic training as from the autumn of 1995. The number of lessons devoted to it has not yet been decided, but it will probably be between 15 and 20 lessons.

On the planning and implementation of training in human rights matters the Police School and Staff College co-operates with a series of human rights organizations: the Danish Centre for Human Rights, the Rehabilitation Centre for Victims of Torture, the Ethnic Equality Board and the Documentation and Consultation Centre on Racial Discrimination.

Finally, it can be mentioned that, over the years, the Police School and Staff College - and the Danish Police Service, for that matter – have been involved in a number of international schemes, at which the

implementation of human rights in policing has been on the agenda. These will include co-operation schemes on training with the South African Police and the Palestinian Police Force.

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COMBATING CYBERCRIMES IN UKRAINE IN CONDITIONS OF WAR

War, as one of the greatest upheavals of humanity, exerts a particularly powerful influence on the state of crime in general and on its individual types. Cybercrime is not an exception, but rather the opposite – it is a vivid example of how socially dangerous acts can simultaneously act as a mass destructive phenomenon of society and a powerful tool of the enemy’s so-called «hybrid war».

Since the beginning of the Russian Federation’s invasion of Ukraine, the number of cybercrimes has increased significantly, both for self-serving motives and for ideological and propaganda ones. According to the legislation of Ukraine, Cybercrime (computer crime) is a socially dangerous criminal act in cyberspace and/or with its use, responsibility for which is provided by the law of Ukraine on criminal responsibility and/or which is recognized as a crime by international treaties of Ukraine.

Among the cybercrimes committed for the purpose of illegal enrichment, carding, phishing, skimming, etc., which were already quite common, should be noted. However, new ones were added to them – fake charity for the needs of the army and wounded soldiers, offers to evacuate or rent housing for refugees and internally displaced persons, fraud related to the trade in non-existent ammunition, weapons, as well as from the preparation of documents that allegedly give enable men to avoid mobilization and even cross the border.

In the conditions of an armed conflict, a cybercriminal is not only a thief or a fraudster, but also a potential saboteur, collaborator and recruiter, that is, a full-fledged combat unit of enemy forces that uses Ukrainian cyberspace to weaken the state’s defense capabilities and demoralize Ukrainians. Since the beginning of the full-scale invasion, several cases of large-scale hostile cyberattacks have already become known. They consist of various actions such as disrupting, denying or destroying computers and computers networks [1, p. 75].

The Armageddon group's cyber attack on the state bodies of Ukraine, which is a mailing of HTML files, the opening of which leads to the creation of an archive on the computer with a file called «Regarding the facts of persecution and killing of Prosecutor's Office employees by the Russian military in the temporarily occupied territories.lnk». Opening it establishes control over the computer and allows hackers to steal all personal data.

On March 23, 2022, the enemy tried to attack the state institutions of Ukraine using the Cobalt Strike Beacon program, which infects a computer if it is opened, and on April 4, it was reported that e-mails with the name «Military criminals of the Russian Federation.htm» were distributed, the opening of which leads to that attackers establish remote control over the device.

Thus, the issues of cyber security are extremely important for the Ukrainian state at the present stage, which is primarily due to the need to resist illegal encroachment on the information space of Ukraine, preservation of information resources, protection of the population from negative information influence and more [2, p. 129].

The responsibility for combating cybercrimes are on the Department of Cyberpolice of the National Police of Ukraine. According to the information on the official website of the mentioned body, its tasks include: implementation of the state policy in the field of cybercrime counteraction; timely informing the public of the emergence of new cybercriminals; implementation of software tools for the systematization of cyber incidents; responding to requests from foreign partners [3, p. 3].

Since the invasion of Russia on the territory of Ukraine, the load on cyber police units has increased significantly. Currently, they conduct active preventive work with the population, the purpose of which is to warn about possible criminal schemes of criminals and inform the population about ways to protect personal data.

As a conclusion, we can say that cybercrime as a set of culpable socially dangerous acts in the field of information and computer technologies began to grow actively from the moment of the invasion of the Russian Federation into Ukraine and for the second time – from the moment of the start of full-scale military operations. This is directly related to the emergence of new levers of influence of criminals on citizens – the desire to help the army and compatriots, problems with logistics and housing, the desire to evade military service, etc. And also the Russian use the cyberspace as a secondary battlefield. However, Ukraine is making significant efforts to respond in a timely and appropriate manner to the growing level of cybercrime both at the level of work of law enforcement units and at the legislative level.

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THE WORK OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES IN THE WORLD

In the difficult conditions of radical reform of the system of internal affairs of Ukraine, the experience of the police of the Federal Republic of Germany can be quite useful. The German Federal Police is a federal law enforcement agency in Germany, which is subordinated to the German Ministry of the Interior. Regular police forces, the state police, exist in each federal state and are subordinated to the state governments.

Tasks:

– Security of the order, which includes passport checks (only at airports, as all neighbouring countries are part of the Schengen area) and maritime border protection. As Germany is a member of the Schengen Agreement, the German Federal Police is part of the European Border and Coast Guard Agency.

– Protection of federal buildings, such as the Bellevue Palace, the residence of the Federal President of Germany, the buildings of the Federal Constitutional Court and the Federal Supreme Court.

– Responding to significant domestic events.

– Security of international airports and railways.

– Countering terrorism (GSG 9).

– Activities of air marshals (law enforcement officers in airplanes, whose task is to prevent the hijacking of aircraft by terrorists).

– Supporting international police missions of the UN and the European Union, for example in Kosovo and Afghanistan.

– Protection of some German embassies.

– Provision of rescue operations by helicopters.

Special units:

– Aviation unit, which is directly subordinated to the Main Directorate in Potsdam. It has 5 aviation squadrons in the cities of Fülendorf (north), Bloomberg (east), Fuldata (center), Oberschleissheim (south) and Sankt Augustin (west), which have 132 helicopters at their disposal. Its duties include: border surveillance, surveillance of railway facilities, assistance during serious incidents and disasters in Germany and abroad, aerial search operations, search for missing persons, search for criminals,

assistance to state police and other federal or local authorities, transportation of persons in danger, transportation of guests of the federal government.

- Special Forces Unit GSG 9.
- Central office of communications and information.
- Water police.

The Federal Police can also assist the Länder police in carrying out their duties at the request of the Länder government. This is usually done by the Rapid Response Police (Bereitschaftspolizei), which helps in cases of demonstrations, riots and emergencies. There are also investigators who conduct investigations within the competence of the Federal Police.

The German police is recognized by experts as a kind of standard of organization and practical implementation of law enforcement. It is a body of state executive power that has successfully combined the best traditions of police service with the latest achievements related to the construction of a legal, democratic, socially oriented state. Germany is a federal state, which determines the appropriate construction of law enforcement agencies of the country. The Federal Government of Germany shares responsibility for the state of law and order with the governments of the Länder, which, according to the Constitution of 1949, have their own police forces.

The police of Germany works within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which has a much wider competence than the Ministry of Internal Affairs of other countries. In fact, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Germany controls all major spheres of internal life of the country. The structure of the Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs of Germany includes Department Z (Central Department, which performs organizational and staff functions and functions of interaction); Department G (main issues of internal policy); Department V (control over the observance of the constitution); Department O (management structure, public utilities, statistics, state reporting and accounting); Department UTC (deals with refugees, exiles, victims of war and cultural affairs); IS department (internal security of the state); SM department (media issues, sports organizations); KN department (civil defense, disaster protection, accident prevention); D department (develops and implements norms that regulate the legal status of civil servants and other features of the law in the performance of civil service); P department (police work).

The German police is divided into: public security and public order police; preparedness police; criminal police.

Public order police is the most numerous type of police force in Germany. It has about 160–165 thousand people. The preparedness police was established in 1957. Preparedness Police is a type of mobile forces of the German police. It is organized and staffed according to a single principle of units that are organizationally independent and deployed in barracks. Each federal state, depending on its size, has from one to seven detachments, which in turn are divided into hundreds, platoons and groups. The preparedness police are used exclusively by civilian units to provide

the word «slavery» is covered by a number of human rights violations. Thus, the concept of «slavery» covers trafficking in children, child prostitution, child pornography, exploitation of child labor, infliction of sexual abuse on girls, use of children in armed conflicts, trafficking in human beings and human organs, exploitation of prostitution, etc. [2]. According to experts, annually 1–2 million people in the world become a «living commodity». At the end of the twentieth century, Ukraine also faced its manifestations. The difficult economic situation in Ukraine, high unemployment, imperfect legislation and legal ignorance of citizens are the basic conditions contributing to this phenomenon.

At the present stage, the combating this crime is happening at all levels, from central (state) to global at the level of international organizations. There are such organizations that combating slavery in foreign countries: the United Nations, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, the International Organization for Migration. A number of non-governmental organizations, such as La Strada, Association for Community Development (Bangladesh), Bonded Liberation Front (India), Anti-Slavery International (USA), the Fund, are also involved in the fight against modern-day slavery. The Foundation against Trafficking, the Women for Women Center in Ukraine, the World Alliance Against Trafficking in Women (Thailand) and others [5]. Nowadays, slavery is officially banned in all countries of the world and declared a transnational crime. One of the types of slavery is human trafficking and the use of slave labor. It should be noted that a document such as the Protocol on the Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, and its Punishment, which complements the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (Adopted by General Assembly resolution 55/25 2000) our time is the single most significant and influential international legal treaty on combating trafficking in human beings [6].

It should be noted that the results of the studies are disappointing. Thus, according to the United Nations Committee on Drugs and Related Crime, the trafficking in human beings is currently taking place in 127 countries in the world with a view to their further exploitation in 137 countries. It is horrifying, but about a third of all victims who fall into the hands of traffickers are children [1]. Our country is a country from which women are exported to the global intimate business markets - Turkey, Italy, Poland, Spain, Germany, the countries of the former Yugoslavia, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Greece, the United Arab Emirates and more.

According to the Australian human rights organization «Walk Free Foundation», it surveyed slavery in various countries around the world and rated it a slavery situation in 2013. This list included 162 countries. The worst situation was found in countries such as Mauritania, Haiti, Pakistan, India. The best situation in Iceland, Ireland and the United Kingdom. Ukraine ranks 89th in this list and, according to the survey, more than 100,000 people in our country are in slavery [1]. According to the International Organization for Migration, more than 230,000 Ukrainians

have been trafficked since 1991, making Ukraine one of the main countries of origin of victims of modern-day slavery in Europe [4].

Thus, analyzing the current state of combating slavery in foreign countries, we see that there are a number of problematic issues, but there are also some positive developments. One of the ways of counteracting this crime in international criminal law is the prevention of its commission. It is necessary to promote moral values, to illuminate the negative consequences of the possible involvement in slavery.

Thus, on October 21, 2013, at the 68th session of the UN General Assembly, delegates discussed measures to commemorate the 200th anniversary of the abolition of the transatlantic slave trade. They adopted a resolution calling for awareness of slavery in the modern world. Therefore, in order to prevent and stop trafficking in human beings, the interaction and social partnership of law enforcement agencies with public organizations, self-government bodies should be strengthened. Successful outcome requires close cooperation between all states [1].

It should also be noted that this problem is quite complex, but some positive developments have been made in our country in connection with the implementation of international legal provisions on the prohibition of slavery. Thus, on March 1, 2011, the Council of Europe Convention on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, ratified by Ukraine, entered into force, and the Law on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings was adopted.

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PREVENTION AND NEUTRALIZATION OF CRIMES THAT THREATEN NATIONAL INTERESTS IN THE FIELD OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES OF ICELAND

The police are designed to protect the life, health, rights and freedoms of Ukrainian citizens, foreign citizens and stateless persons; counteract crime, protect public order, property and ensure public safety.

In Iceland, the police mean «legal order», which is responsible for law enforcement throughout the country, except in Icelandic territorial waters under the jurisdiction of the Icelandic Coast Guard. Police matters in Iceland are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice and are administered by the Office of the National Commissioner of Police on behalf of the Ministry. The organization is divided into nine districts, the largest of which is the Reykjavik Metropolitan Police, which is responsible for the Capital Region [1].

In the performance of their duties, police officers only wear extendable batons and pepper spray, are trained in the use of firearms and are given firearms in certain situations. Most patrol cars are equipped with firearms to reduce the response time required for tasks requiring armed police. Firearms are stored in a special weapons locker [1]. At the same time, Icelandic police do not carry fire arms – it is the prerogative of the Viking special squad. And it is not so often caused.

Many people ask how Iceland can remain the most carefree country in the world if any weapon of fire is freely available? Obviously, it is because this country has managed to do so thanks to several key factors that influence the situation in Iceland. The first key factor is that there is no difference between upper, middle and lower classes in Iceland. Because of this, there are no conflicts, which I think is a very rare phenomenon. According to many politicians and the population of Iceland, equality is the main reason for a low crime activity in the country.

Crimes in Iceland are committed not often, but mostly without the use of firearms, although there are many in the country. According to calculations «GunPolicy. organization», in Iceland for 300 000 residents of about 90 000 people. The country ranks 15 in the world by the number of light weapons per capita. However, it is not so easy to buy it: In particular, it is necessary to undergo a medical examination and perform a written test [2].

It's also worth to be noted that Iceland had a number of people with drug addiction. In 1973, it was during this period that the drug addict was flourishing, the parliament created a division of the police department against the fight against drugs and the court in which the crimes were considered.

No less important factor in the fight against crime is a well-developed phenomenon of the crime itself, when law enforcement officers try to solve at the initial stage of potentially dangerous situations. This method helps police to predict the actions of the offender, taking into account his behavior and certain circumstances when committing a crime.

As for Ukraine, during the war the level of crime has increased considerably, mainly: treason, collaborationism, assistance to the country – aggressor and etc. In the occupied territories, the Ukrainian people is trying to save the life and life of their loved ones. Because of fear and distrust, the society is negatively, and sometimes even unimportant, the entire value of indifferent attitude and understanding of both the police to the public and citizens to the police. Ukraine should take an example in the police of Iceland, make more efforts to fight crime and distrust of citizens. I think that when there will be friendly relations between the two sides, the help from both sides will be better and more productive.

Thus, in order to increase the level of resistance to crime law enforcement agencies of Ukraine need to learn to cooperate with the public, to raise public confidence in themselves, because when people with trust and respect relate to the work of law enforcement officers, the criminals themselves will be opened more quickly.

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LINGUISTICS AND THE RIGHT TO THE SECURITY: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Language barriers – often in tandem with ethnic disproportions in the workforce – regularly prevent the law enforcement system from functioning as well as it could. Noting that about ten percent of Sacramento’s police force is of Latino descent, while the state is home to approximately 15 million Latinos, Carlos Quiroz of California’s Latino Leadership Council explains:

«If the police do not properly reflect the community they serve, it is difficult for the community to see it as a force that represents them rather than one that polices them. This leads to crimes not being reported, witnesses not coming forward and a community preyed upon by criminals who know their victims won’t have any recourse» [1].

How Ineffective Communication Negatively Impacts Law Enforcement

- 1) Miscommunication errors strain time and limited resources.
- 2) Can result in public scrutiny and loss of public trust.

3) Delays in services and miscommunication errors lead to unnecessary visits and calls that impact the productivity and efficiency of law enforcement and staff.

4) Negatively impacts the reputation of the law enforcement agency within the community and leads to decreased involvement of LEP populations requiring law enforcement services.

5) Can impede the process of providing public safety and emergency response. The Importance of Certified Interpreters in Law Enforcement

The work our police and law enforcement agencies do is extremely important, and it's imperative when utilizing language services in law enforcement that only qualified and fully vetted interpreters undertake police assignments, regardless of whether it's face-to-face, telephonic, or via video remote. Professional interpreters working with law enforcement have experience in interpreting in this environment and are trained in specific terminology necessary to communicate in law enforcement settings. If a qualified interpreter is not used, and the interpreting is not conducted to a satisfactory standard, it could result in a communication breakdown, violation of rights, and even the breakdown of cases in a court of law.

An experienced law enforcement interpreter will know how to manage situations so that the police or law enforcement agency can obtain information accurately while protecting the rights of non-English speakers [2].

Professional interpreters greatly aid in allowing all parties involved the ability to understand one another and express themselves on all accounts. When a professional and qualified interpreter is not used there can be misunderstandings regarding important details, a violation of rights and the possibility of a case having insufficient and questionable information in a court of law. Oftentimes justice is not served or potentially served to an innocent individual because a professional interpreter was not used to bridge a language gap. Partnering with a professional language service company (LSC) such as Niki's Int'l Ltd. can ensure officers are provided with the means they require to combat language barriers faced on duty. Providing solutions required to communicate should not be a question; you are able to obtain accurate information and protect the rights of LEP citizens through the provision of professional interpretation services. Contact Niki's Int'l Ltd. today in order to equip officers with the tools and solutions they need to protect and serve our communities [3].

The Department of Justice and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission suggest some reasons why this imbalance remains so prevalent in their report, *Advancing Diversity in Law Enforcement*. Due to underrepresentation, young people – including heritage speakers of critical languages – often ignore the possibility of law enforcement careers because they don't identify with strong role models in the field who share their background. Hiring criteria for many agencies that require U.S. citizenship also poses a challenge, preventing a language-rich pool of candidates from applying to positions. The report also notes that the cost and complexity of

application procedures, including multiple exams, further alienates otherwise qualified prospective applicants [1].

To curb recruitment obstacles, some agencies have begun offering bonuses and other incentives to prospective and current officers who test proficient in a language other than English or who regularly speak another language as part of their main work responsibilities [1].

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CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES IN THE USA

In today's policing environment, it is smart to focus on crime prevention as a foundational strategy. FBI's 2016 *Crime in the United States* report revealed that violent crime is on the increase – 2016 had the highest single-year spike in violent crime in 25 years – yet burglary and property crime figures are continuing to trend down [1]. Active and successful crime prevention programs not only reduce crime and save lives, but they also reduce workload for patrol officers and detectives and provide opportunities for positive interactions with the public. In almost all crime prevention programs, there usually is some type of community outreach or educational element that seeks to establish positive interactions between the police and the many community groups that make up the neighborhood with the hope of reducing crime. Successful crime prevention programs demonstrate strong partnerships and show communities that their police executives are contemporary leaders who are in touch with the needs of the community members.

Crime prevention strategies do not need to break the budget or fit into a single mold; however, most crime prevention programs will fall into one or more of four broad approaches.

- community involvement and community-police partnerships
- hot spot enforcement to reduce fear and garner trust
- environmental design
- situational awareness and education

Likewise, crime prevention today is often being led by community leaders, nonprofit organizations, localities, states, provinces, and businesses, as demonstrated by these examples. In Colorado, as in many parts of the United States, crime prevention is primarily addressed by local law

enforcement agencies with a focus on the specific types of crime that are most significant in their localities. Innovative crime prevention programs are born from necessity and shaped by available resources and local partnerships. Many municipalities focus on neighborhood watch programs, citizen police academies, and similar community-based programs:

- senior citizen police academies
- youth police academies
- Coffee with a Cop
- National Night Out
- prescription drug drop-off locations
- home and business security surveys
- vacation property checks
- safe driving programs for youth and chronic offenders

Small and large localities in Colorado working to address specific crime prevention needs often join crime prevention associations, such as the Colorado Crime Prevention Association, which lists 26 agency members in addition to individual members on their website. Many states and local regions have similar organizations that provide free resources and networking to prevention practitioners. Additionally, free and low-cost resources from nonprofit organizations such as the National Crime Prevention Council and the IACP supplement programs with current training and information [2].

Crime Prevention Specialists

Another method is the management of crime prevention by state government. A significant value of a state-managed program is the continuity of services and standardized training across the state. Virginia's approach makes prevention training available in all regions of the state and rewards proactive efforts. Additionally, in 1994, Virginia codified the certification of crime prevention specialists [3]. Virginia's approach specifies the eligibility and minimum training requirements for certification, as well as requirements for recertification every three years. Uniformity of skills is ensured through training and eligibility requirements [4]. Virginia has maintained more than 500 certified specialists since 1996 and allows sworn, non-sworn, and volunteers at law enforcement agencies to apply for certification.

Using trained volunteers is an excellent way of connecting with the community, improving trust, and increasing available resources. In 2009, as a result of crime prevention specialist outreach and training, the city of Virginia Beach had 250 volunteers who donated 16,368 hours in one year, saving the city an estimated \$336,000 [5].

Crime prevention specialists and their regional counterparts have been proactive in creating shared tools and are called upon as resources to address crime trends and to educate others. The following points are examples of their community impact:

- In 2001, after the 9/11 terrorist attacks, crime prevention specialists created a tool to assist in the anticipated increase in requests for security assessments. Later it was revealed that law enforcement executives reported

a 36 percent increase in requests for business assessments and a 61 percent increase relative to school and church security assessments [6].

- In 2013, specialists served as a resource to the Governor's School Violence Task Force. The task force recommended a change in legislation to require a checklist be conducted on all public schools utilizing Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) principles. This checklist was designed by a crime prevention specialist. Additionally, several crime prevention specialists, architects, and other professionals developed a recommendation document for newly built schools [7].

- In 2014, recognizing the upward trend of metal theft, specialists collaborated with the Institute of Scrap Recycling Industries (ISRI) to develop a model metal theft prevention course, which later led to the creation by ISRI of a Law Enforcement Advisory Council including the then-president of the IACP, then-executive director of the National Sheriff's Association, a state attorney general, a prosecutor, and crime prevention specialists, among others [8].

- In 2015, recognizing the need to address faith organizations from a prevention viewpoint, specialists developed a one-day training session that is taught on average six times a year, reaching more than 1,000 law enforcement and faith leaders.

One of the first of its kind in the United States, the Certified Crime Prevention Community program encourages localities to develop and implement collaborative community safety plans within a flexible framework. It provides an ongoing process through which communities can reassess and update their plans to address emerging community safety issues [9].

After recognizing the proactive programming that many of Virginia's colleges and universities are engaged in and in following up on the request from the Virginia Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators for a similar recognition program for campuses, the Certified Crime Prevention Campus program was introduced in June 2013 [10]. Small towns, large cities, counties, large universities, and a community college are included among those certified across the two programs. Both are voluntary programs that offer tangible and intangible benefits.

Thus, the study of models, forms and methods of crime prevention used in foreign countries shows the constant movement of state and non-state institutions in their implementation with the aim of protecting the rights and freedoms of people and citizens from criminal encroachments, prevention of relapse, prevention of committing new crimes.

Summing Up

Evaluating the foreign experience of crime prevention, it is important to note that this activity in the countries of the European Union and the USA is carried out on the basis of scientifically based, comprehensive, resource-provided programs developed by specialists of scientific research institutes and centers, and therefore its positive aspects can also be implemented in the penitentiary system of the Ministry of Justice of Ukraine in the field of execution of punishments and probation.

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PUNISHMENT AND COMBATING ORGANIZED CRIME IN DIFFERENT FOREIGN COUNTRIES

Organized crime is being a big problem for every country for many years. There was time when organized crime level was lower or higher but unfortunately, we can not absolutely wipe it out today even though we don't stop trying to do that. Actually it is not so easy because even high punishment can't guarantee full liquidation organized crime groups. Different countries are trying to unite dealing with it because this is really global international problem.

With the signing of the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime in Palermo, Italy, in December 2000, the international community demonstrated the political will to answer a global challenge with a global response. If crime crosses borders, so must law enforcement. If the rule of law is undermined not only in one country, but in many, then those who defend it cannot limit themselves to purely national means. If the enemies of progress and human rights seek to exploit the openness and opportunities of globalization for their purposes, then we must exploit those very same factors to defend human rights and defeat the forces of crime, corruption and trafficking in human beings [1, p. 3].

There are some countries with the highest level of organized crime. And the type of organized crime can be different: trafficking in persons, drugs trafficking, money-laundering, asset misappropriation, counterfeiting

etc. The most successful areas for organized crime are Latin and Central America countries.

1. On the top of this list stays El Salvador. The level of homicide per 100 thousand people in El Salvador is the highest in the world. Two factors led to this situation: a civil war and a high level of poverty.

2. After it goes Honduras which is located in Central America, which makes the country one of the transport hubs for drug trafficking. The most violent conflicts between criminal groups occur on the border between Honduras and Guatemala.

3. The next one is Venezuela, that is a country in which a high level of poverty resulted in growth of organized crime. Caracas is one of the most dangerous cities in the world; there are 130.35 murders per 100 thousand inhabitants.

4. Mexico is the country through which drug trafficking in the United States is going. The drug trade spawned a bloody war of criminal groups, which resulted in the deaths of civilians as well. Joaquin Guzman, the head of one of the most influential groups, was extradited to the United States in January of this year.

5. Guatemala ranks 10th in the world according to the level of murders. This problem is largely related to activities of criminal groups. The two largest groupings divided the country into zones of influence. Both make money for extortion and drug trafficking.

The punishment for organized crime depends on the type and the country. For example, in Guatemala The government slightly increased law enforcement efforts. The anti-trafficking law of 2009 criminalized sex trafficking and labor trafficking and prescribed penalties from eight to 18 years' imprisonment. These penalties were sufficiently stringent and, with respect to sex trafficking, commensurate with penalties prescribed for other serious crimes, such as rape. Inconsistent with the definition of trafficking under international law, the law did not consider the use of force, fraud, or coercion as an essential element of an adult trafficking offense. The law defined trafficking broadly to include labor exploitation and illegal adoption without the purpose of exploitation [2]. At the same time penalties for drug trafficking in Guatemala are severe and range from 10 to 20 years in the country's overcrowded, violent prisons; penalties for simple drug use range from 8 to 15 years [3]. And at the same time in some other countries have the death penalty for drug trafficking:

1. In Vietnam, drug crimes are punished with extreme penalties. In fact, if you get arrested carrying more than 1.3 pounds of heroin, you will automatically be liable for execution by lethal injection. In Vietnam, drug crimes are punished with extreme penalties. In fact, if you get arrested carrying more than 1.3 pounds of heroin, you will automatically be liable for execution by lethal injection.

2. Singapore drug laws are extremely strict by any standards; they include long term imprisonment, caning, and even the death penalty. The

law cites that just carrying more than a set amount of controlled substance will be considered trafficking; 30 grams of cannabis, for example.

3. Saudi Arabia ranks third in the world for the most amount executions enforced. In 2015, 43 percent of those given capital punishments had been convicted for drug smuggling, ranging from marijuana to hard drugs like heroin.

4. Death by capital punishment is an option in India only when it is a second conviction by the same offender for drug trafficking. The quantities of various drugs that will result in the death penalty are specified by the law in detail.

5. The legal penalty of execution is valid under the Narcotics Hazard Prevention Act in Taiwan; though it has not really been enforced in recent years. The last execution for a drug trafficking offense took place in October 2002 [4].

So, researching this problem we could notice experience of different countries on fighting against organized crime. Countries have different attitude to punishment for this crime. In some countries it is higher or lower but of course none of them don't let it by its own. In my opinion, in 21st century there is no place for such crimes as human trafficking, mafia, money-laundering and any other crimes which lead to really awful outcomes. That all is meant to be leaved in our dark past because it can not just exist at the same world with European democracy.

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HUMAN RIGHTS DURING MARTIAL LAW

It is often during armed conflicts that human rights are infringed upon the most. Therefore, over the years, experts have focused much attention on the formulation of instruments aimed at alleviating human suffering during war and conflict. Today, three areas of modern international law attempt to provide protection to victims of war: human rights law, refugee law and humanitarian law. While these fields are closely

linked, they need to be distinguished systematically. Refugee law has been discussed in Part IV. This chapter focuses on international humanitarian law, which differs from human rights law in that it concentrates on specified conflict-related acts and does not give rise to individual claims.

Humanitarian law applies in armed conflict, restricting the actions of warring parties, providing for protection and humane treatment of persons who are not taking part or can no longer take part in the hostilities. Like international human rights law, humanitarian law protects the lives and dignity of individuals, prohibiting torture or cruel treatment, prescribing rights for persons subject to a criminal justice procedure, prohibiting discrimination and setting out provisions for the protection of women and children. In addition, humanitarian law deals with the conduct of hostilities, combatant and prisoner of war status and the protection of the Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Crystal emblems.

A distinction is generally made between the law designed to protect military and civilian victims of armed conflicts on the one hand, and the laws governing the way war is waged, on the other.

The international law of armed conflicts, of which international humanitarian law is a part, was formulated much earlier than international human rights law. Important phases in the development of the humanitarian law of armed conflicts were the (diplomatic) Conferences of Paris (1856), Geneva (1864), St. Petersburg (1868), Brussels (1874), The Hague (1899, 1907) and Geneva (1949 and 1977) [1].

The international law instruments adopted at these conferences form the basis of modern hu471 Human Rights and Armed Conflict manitarian law, the most relevant being the four Geneva Conventions (1949) and their two Additional Protocols (1977). The principal purpose of the four Geneva Conventions was to set out humanitarian rules to be followed in international armed conflict. The Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (the Fourth Geneva Convention) lists a number of actions which the parties must refrain from in all circumstances. These include actions that are recognised as violating the most basic human rights, such as violence endangering life, torture and physical or moral coercion, as well as non-compliance with many due process rights. The Convention forbids in the strongest terms the utilisation of human shields. It also provides that civilians may not be compelled to work for an occupying power unless certain strict conditions are met (Article 51). The Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions, which were adopted by the Diplomatic Conference on the Reaffirmation and Development of International Humanitarian Law applicable in Armed Conflicts (1977), are major developments in this context.

The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) monitors compliance with the Geneva Conventions and the Protocols by, inter alia, visiting places of detention, receiving complaints of breaches of humanitarian law and addressing concerns to governments.

In recent years humanitarian intervention, the maintenance of peace and the protection of collective security, as well as the protection of cultural property, have received increased attention in relation to humanitarian and human rights law. The last mentioned issue has a place in Additional Protocol I to the Geneva Conventions in Chapter III dealing with civilian objects.

Other recent international efforts to lessen human suffering resulting from conflict is the fight against the widespread use of anti-personnel mines and small arms and the efforts to curb easy funding such as the trade in 'conflict diamonds' and the use of drug revenues to finance conflicts.

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GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE IN THE MILITARY CONFLICT UNDER INTERNATIONAL LAW

The lack of delivery of essential services to the population experienced during conflict and situations of strife and instability can have a disproportionate impact on specific groups of the population, including women and girls, often building on pre-existing situations of discrimination. Access to essential services such as health care, including sexual and reproductive health services can be disrupted, with women and girls being at a greater risk of unplanned pregnancy, maternal mortality and morbidity, severe sexual and reproductive injuries and contracting sexually transmitted infections, including as a result of conflict-related sexual violence [1].

Several resolutions, 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009) and 1960 (2010), have focused on preventing and responding to conflict-related sexual violence, and have established the United Nations architecture to this end, including:

- the appointment of the Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Conflict to provide leadership
- strengthen existing UN coordination mechanisms and advocate on ending sexual violence against women with governments;
- the establishment of a Team of Experts on the Rule of Law and Sexual Violence in Conflict, who works with the UN on the ground and assist national authorities to strengthen the rule of law;
- the identification and deployment of women's protection advisers (WPAs); and
- the establishment of monitoring, analysis and reporting arrangements (MARA).

In more recent resolutions, the Security Council has indicated that acts of sexual and gender-based violence can be used as a tactic of terrorism

(res. 2242, adopted in 2015), and has also established the nexus between trafficking, sexual violence, terrorism and transnational organized crime (res. 2331, adopted in 2016) [2].

Girls can face additional obstacles in accessing education. These barriers are due to fear of targeted attacks and threats against them, and to the additional caregiving and household responsibilities that girls are often obliged to assume. Women are also forced to look for alternative sources of livelihood, as family survival comes to depend heavily on them [1].

Moreover, whether the increasing employment of women by the armed forces is something imposed on them or that they actively seek, the roles assigned to women are becoming increasingly diversified. Greater participation in peacekeeping operations is bringing the armed forces more into contact with civilian populations, a situation in which the presence of women military personnel could significantly improve relations between the civilian population and the army. In the United Nations, it has been observed, for example, that «women peacekeepers broaden the range of skills and capacities among all categories of personnel, enhance the operational effectiveness of all tasks, and improve the mission's image, accessibility and credibility vis-à-vis the local population» [3]. Women who join the armed forces are faced with an environment designed by and for men. Women are still very much in the minority and face many forms of discrimination. Mind-sets rooted in a purely male approach to the armed forces, rigid career paths and lack of access to certain posts are all hindrances to military women's professional equality. At the same time, gender-based harassment and assaults against women are frequent within the armed forces, and the existing internal culture creates a favourable environment for such abuse [3].

Women and girls should not only be seen as victims of conflict and instability. They have historically had and continue to have a role as combatants, as part of organized civil society, as human rights defenders, as members of resistance movements and as active agents in both formal and informal peacebuilding and recovery processes.

Post-conflict situations and reforms can be viewed as an opportunity for transformation of the societal structures and norms in place before the conflict in order to ensure greater enjoyment of women's human rights. Yet, women's exclusion from conflict prevention efforts, post-conflict transition and reconstruction processes have been matters of concern for the international community [1].

It is vital to step up efforts to prevent and combat harassment and violence against women in the armed forces. They should adopt and strictly apply a policy of zero tolerance vis-à-vis gender-based violence and establish independent mechanisms for dealing with such complaints. It is also essential to take measures to promote the recruitment of women to the armed forces, open all positions to them, develop flexible career paths and systematically take the gender dimension into account in all operations carried out by the armed forces.

The Parliamentary Assembly deplores the fact that sexual harassment and assaults against women are still frequent within the armed forces. Conforming to the existing internal culture is often regarded as a factor of cohesion, instead of recognising that diversity strengthens operational capacities. It is vital to change mentalities, step up efforts to prevent such violence and establish mechanisms for dealing effectively with complaints [3].

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ORGANIZED CRIME IN CANADA

Canada is a Cesspool Filled with Organized Crime. According to various sources, more than 2600 organized criminal groups can operate in Canada, compared to Ukraine, it is much more, in Ukraine there are no more than 500 organized criminal groups.

Organized crime is defined in the Criminal Code as a group of three or more people whose purpose is the commission of one or more serious offences that would «likely result in the direct or indirect receipt of a material benefit, including a financial benefit, by the group». Organized crime centres on illegal means of making money, such as gambling; prostitution; pornography; drug trafficking; insurance and construction fraud; illegal bankruptcy; motor vehicle theft; computer crime; and counterfeiting, among many others [2].

Canadian organized criminal groups, whose main interest was fraud with real estate, mortgage lending, entered the top 3 activities. The other two rounding out the top are illicit drugs and crimes against persons, such as extortion. And it all went on like that because – real estate is a top tool for money launderers [3].

State services that fight organized criminal organizations: Criminal Intelligence Service Canada (CISC); Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP); INTERPOL in Canada; Organized Crime Branch. Services are

struggling with the street and motorcycle gangs, and internationally connected crime groups, such as the Mafia.

Mafia manage drug importation networks that fuel violent conflicts between OCGs operating at the distribution level. Street gangs are more likely to be involved in overt violent activities that present a higher risk to public safety, such as shootings and homicides, than other subsets of OCGs. Outlaw motorcycle gangs often take part in legitimate charitable events and other public relations efforts to portray themselves positively [5].

If we talk about revenues, the reports show the following organized crime in Canada took in about \$20 billion annually. Today, this amount is much higher.

Canada also has the famous Toronto Mafia. In Toronto until the mid-1980s, at least four major Mafia-style criminal organizations existed. They were run by Canadians of Sicilian or Calabrian origin. Two of them were named as members of the Mafia during the Valachi hearings: the organizations run by Paul Volpe and Johnny «Pops» Papalia. After the murder of Volpe in November 1983, his old organization mostly disappeared. The same is true for that of Papalia, after he was murdered at the behest of a rival local Calabrian Mafia family in 1997.

It is unknown whether it is valid today, but in 2010 there were traces of their groups. Another interesting event is also related to this: TORONTO (2021) – A new book has been released detailing the links between Mexican drug cartels and the tech-savvy, diverse and widespread organized crime group in Canada known as the Wolf Pack.

In «The Wolfpack», authors Luis Horacio Najera and Peter Edwards use their decades of experience writing about organized crime, both in Canada and Mexico, to detail how organized crime operates in Canada after a group of millennial hotshot gangsters sought to fill the void left by the death of Montreal godfather Vito Rizzuto.

Economic crimes committed by organized crime groups cost Canadians billions of dollars every year. The impacts of organized crime also go far beyond monetary effects. Violence, intimidation, and corruption are mainstays of many organized criminal groups. They affect public confidence in our most fundamental sources of solace and security our homes, neighborhoods and communities.

In summary: Organized crime is not just the traditional Hollywood portrayed criminal and crime. Gangs must meet certain financial thresholds each day to remain in the gang.

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ABROAD EXPERIENCE OF POLICE WORK IN ENSURING THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN

Actuality of theme. Analysis of such a complex issue in scope, importance and content as ensuring the rights and freedoms of the least protected and vulnerable stratum of society - children, definitely requires consideration of foreign developments, because the study of foreign experience contributes to the expansion of our ideas about the legal phenomena under investigation, helps to look at one or another the problem from a different point of view, to compare one's own achievements with the achievements of foreign colleagues, not to waste time on solving problems that have already been solved on the pages of foreign publications.

The study of the foreign experience of the organization and activities of the police in the field of ensuring the rights and freedoms of the child is complicated by the fact that a significant part of the powers exercised by the National Police in Ukraine are assigned to the competence of civil bodies and services in some of the mentioned countries, and in some countries they are exercised by the police in conjunction with non-police bodies and institutions.

The purpose of the work is to study the activities of the police of foreign countries in the field of ensuring the rights and freedoms of the child in order to evaluate its effectiveness and introduce the most valuable developments on the national soil.

The system of bodies and institutions endowed with special competence in the field of children's rights in the USA operates on the basis of the principles of: an individual approach to each child; application of special procedures for criminal prosecution of a child who is in conflict with the law; existence of the institute of state guardians; the priority of the function of helping, rather than punishing, the delinquent child; implementation of selected influence measures with the participation of the public; broad involvement of social services and volunteers in preventive work in the child's environment [1, p. 207].

In general, work with children or minors to ensure their rights and freedoms is carried out by the US police within the framework of: 1) general social legislation, the norms of which are aimed at supporting childhood and carrying out protective work with minors; 2) legislation regulating the juvenile justice system. Thus, according to the first option,

the US police actually appears as a system of social protection bodies of the country's population, in particular, the children's population. In the USA, much attention is paid to protective work with children who have left home and the homeless: shelters and hostels operate, individual and group counseling, conversations with parents are held with the aim of returning the child to the family; assistance is provided to families reunified with children, etc. The legal status of a child is taken quite seriously in the USA. Yes, in the state, a pregnant woman and her unborn child are legally two separate subjects, and if the expectant mother leads a lifestyle harmful to her future child, then law enforcement agencies can forcibly isolate her in order to prevent the use of drugs, alcohol or smoking [2, p. 63–64].

Ensuring the rights and freedoms of the child is also extremely important in the process of the police performing its direct functions, which is evident in the US juvenile justice system. Its origin is connected with the creation in 1899 in the city of Chicago of the world's first «children's court», which tried cases involving minors. The development of juvenile justice in the USA «in a modern way» took place in the 60s of the XX century. It was then that the juvenile rehabilitation model began to be fully implemented.

The activities of the British police in the field of protection of the rights and freedoms of children are carried out on the basis of the Statute of the British Police (1996); Statute on Protection of Public Order (1986); Statute on the Protection of Children (1986); the Law on Children and Adolescents (1969); Police and Criminal Evidence Act (1984); Law on Child Support (1991), etc.

The British police have wide discretionary powers in the area of administrative jurisdiction over offenses committed by children and offenses against children's rights, as well as powers to prosecute child offenders. In particular, the Law on Police and Criminal Evidence (1984) provides for the right of a constable to detain a minor in cases: 1) when the minor's last name is unknown, and the policeman himself cannot establish it; 2) when there are good reasons to doubt that the surname indicated by the minor is his own surname; 3) when the police officer is not satisfied with the minor's information about his address; 4) when there are good reasons to believe that the arrest is necessary to prevent further illegal actions of the minor; 5) when there are reasons to believe that the arrest of a minor will protect children or other «vulnerable persons» [3, p. 73].

The main principle of administrative and legal regulation of the activities of the UK police in the field of combating domestic violence is the principle of "zero tolerance" to the latter. Police officers who arrive on a domestic violence call are required to detain a person who has committed violence against a child, even if there are no witnesses. The law provides for criminal liability for domestic violence against a child. It is legally determined that court decisions in cases of domestic violence against children are made in the shortest possible time.

The Law of the Republic of Poland on combating crimes in the family guarantees every child and family member assistance in the event of violence against them and provides for prompt response to such facts. The police and social services are entrusted with the implementation of operational actions, the content of which is: 1) removal of the perpetrator, who committed violence against the child, from the common premises; 2) making a decision to issue a protective order (protective order), which prohibits the aggressor from taking certain actions or, on the contrary, requires him to take certain actions; 3) submission of the decision on punishment to the public in general order; 4) in certain cases, removal of a child who is being abused from the family and transfer to a «temporary» family until the court makes a decision on further actions [4].

Conclusions. Emphasizing the importance and usefulness of further study of the issue of ensuring the rights and freedoms of children by the police of foreign countries as a whole, with the aim of improving the administrative and legal status of the NP of Ukraine in the specified area, we consider it relevant to use relevant foreign experience in the following areas: 1) formation of a mechanism for the interaction of the police with non-police bodies and institutions in children's affairs; 2) the involvement of public law enforcement formations in the performance of police tasks to ensure the rights and freedoms of the child.

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RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS IN TIMES OF MILITARY CONFLICT

Human rights are a universal human value, and the equality of rights and freedoms of all people is the highest social value. These are the principles enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the UN General Assembly on December 10, 1948. It became the first international standard in this field and created the legal basis for the further evolution of the concept of human rights. Today, it is very important that every person knows his rights, which are recognized by the state and society. Human rights are not given by the state, but belong to everyone from birth.

Unfortunately, it is often during armed conflicts that human rights are infringed upon the most. Therefore, over the years, experts have focused much attention on the formulation of instruments aimed at alleviating human suffering during war and conflict. Today, three areas of modern international law attempt to provide protection to victims of war: human rights law, refugee law and humanitarian law. While these fields are closely linked, they need to be distinguished systematically. Humanitarian law applies in armed conflict, restricting the actions of warring parties, providing for protection and humane treatment of persons who are not taking part or can no longer take part in the hostilities. Like international human rights law, humanitarian law protects the lives and dignity of individuals, prohibiting torture or cruel treatment, prescribing rights for persons subject to a criminal justice procedure, prohibiting discrimination and setting out provisions for the protection of women and children. In addition, humanitarian law deals with the conduct of hostilities, combatant [1].

Regarding the war in Ukraine the top UN official informed the reporters that UN staff are working on «both sides of the contact line», providing lifesaving humanitarian relief to people in need, «regardless of who or where they are». «The protection of civilians must be priority number one», he stressed. The UN chief restated that international humanitarian and human rights law must be upheld, noting that the decisions of the coming days «will shape our world and directly affect the lives of millions upon millions of people». Also «The protection of the civilian population must be a priority. The use of explosive weapons in populated areas should – at all costs – be avoided», underscored the High Commissioner. She called for the full respect of international humanitarian law, in particular the four Geneva Conventions of 1949 and their first additional protocol of 1977, as well as international human rights law. And prior to the media briefing, UN High Commissioner for Human Rights Michelle Bachelet issued a statement on the military attack. «Civilians in various parts of Ukraine were awoken by sounds of heavy bombardment

and are terrified of further escalation, with many fleeing their homes», she said. «This military action clearly violates international law and puts at risk countless civilian lives. It must be immediately halted» [2].

Hostilities between Russian armed forces and Ukrainian armed forces constitute an international armed conflict governed by international humanitarian treaty law (primarily the four Geneva Conventions of 1949 and its first additional protocol of 1977 (Protocol I), and the Hague Conventions of 1907 regulating the means and methods of warfare), as well as the rules of customary international humanitarian law. Both Ukraine and Russia are parties to the 1949 Geneva Conventions and Protocol I [3].

The international law of armed conflicts, of which international humanitarian law is a part, was formulated much earlier than international human rights law. Important phases in the development of the humanitarian law of armed conflicts were the (diplomatic) Conferences of Paris (1856), Geneva (1864), St. Petersburg (1868), Brussels (1874), The Hague (1899, 1907) and Geneva (1949 and 1977). The international law instruments adopted at these conferences form the basis of modern hu471 Human Rights and Armed Conflict humanitarian law, the most relevant being the four Geneva Conventions (1949) and their two Additional Protocols (1977). The principal purpose of the four Geneva Conventions was to set out humanitarian rules to be followed in international armed conflict. The Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (the Fourth Geneva Convention) lists a number of actions which the parties must refrain from in all circumstances. These include actions that are recognised as violating the most basic human rights, such as violence endangering life, torture and physical or moral coercion, as well as non-compliance with many due process rights. The Convention forbids in the strongest terms the utilisation of human shields. It also provides that civilians may not be compelled to work for an occupying power unless certain strict conditions are met (Article 51). The Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions, which were adopted by the Diplomatic Conference on the Reaffirmation and Development of International Humanitarian Law applicable in Armed Conflicts (1977), are major developments in this context.

Unfortunately, due to the war between Ukraine and Russia, other states are also suffering. One of them is Somalia. Even before the war in Ukraine, Somalia was suffering. It is one of the poorest countries in the world – and the second most fragile according to the Fragile States Index. Not only is it plagued by economic and political instability, Somalia is hit with frequent and intense natural disasters, such as drought and famine. According to WFP, 7.1 million Somalis are facing ‘crisis’ or worse food security outcomes, while over 213,000 people face catastrophic hunger and starvation. When 100 per cent of its wheat imports come from Russia and Ukraine, what is Somalia to do? Poor rural farmers and pastoralists already dealing with the compounding effects of conflicts, drought, climate change, locust invasions, and COVID-19, now have to grapple with price hikes in

food and fuel combined with a drop in purchasing power. With extremely limited local food production, the food security situation in Somalia is looking bleak. IFAD's (International Fund for Agricultural Development) Crisis Response Initiative will provide some much-needed support to 36,000 small-scale producers, farmers and pastoralists in the most fertile but extremely poor parts of Somalia. By improving their access to markets and productive incomes, these farmers can earn an income, while strategically targeting investments to fertile areas optimizes local production and helps improve Somalia's resilience [4].

Many laws and human rights are violated in the armed conflict between Russia and Ukraine, precisely by the aggressor country, and not only the military, but also civilians and even other countries suffer from this. Also, the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights Michelle Bachelet claimed that all these military actions clearly violate international law and endanger the lives of countless civilians. Therefore, our citizens must know about the rights and freedoms of a person and a citizen in the conditions of military aggression. After all, a person is the highest value and there is nothing more precious than life.

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CRIME PREVENTION BY LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

Crime prevention is a system of measures taken by state bodies, public organizations, government officials and other persons aimed at counteracting the processes of crime determination, aimed at re-socialization of potential criminals, prevention of new crimes.

The importance of crime prevention was clear to thinkers of antiquity and modern times. Cesare Beccaria wrote: *It is better to prevent crimes than to punish them. This is the goal of any good law, which is essentially the art of leading people to the highest happiness or to the least possible misery, judging by the relationship between good and evil in our lives* [1]. According to most criminologists, crime prevention is more effective than other methods of combating crime. The damage caused by crime to society is enormous. On the «black account» of crime which is not only material losses, but also lives taken by murderers, crippled fates. The higher the crime rate, the higher the indirect costs associated with ensuring the activities of law enforcement agencies, the exclusion of a significant part of the population from the process of social reproduction. The purpose of crime prevention is to prevent this damage. Precautions taken in the early stages of the formation of a criminal personality, allow «small blood» to re-socialize a potential offender, to return him to normal life in society.

Depending on the scope of prevention measures, criminologists distinguish between general, special and individual crime prevention.

General crime prevention. The roots of crime always lie in negative social phenomena, social, political, economic and spiritual problems inherent in a particular society. Therefore, the most effective in terms of reducing the number of crimes committed in the long run are measures aimed at strengthening the economy, providing jobs, social programs to improve living standards, creating a positive moral climate in society, suppression of crime-related phenomena such as alcoholism and drug addiction, vagrancy, poverty, illegal migration, interethnic and other conflicts.

Special crime prevention. Special warning is given by influencing social groups, individuals and organizations or areas of activity for which there are grounds to believe that they are criminogenic or victimized.

For example, the increased criminogenicity of an individual may be determined by the preliminary facts of the crime (in this case, the criminological warning is aimed at preventing recidivism), administrative and official offenses, immoral acts, behavior that clearly does not correspond to the social role, targets impossible to achieve for this person using legal means. The criminogenic characteristics of social groups are similar: this may include anti-social, protest orientation of the group, political or social radicalism, which are in conflict with the inherent moral attitudes and value systems of society as a whole.

Individual crime prevention. The addressee of individual prevention, which can be considered as one of the special prevention types, is a specific person, whose personal characteristics objectively indicate the possibility of committing a criminal act in future. The object of individual prevention can be both the person himself, his negative social qualities, and the social microenvironment, his surroundings (family, life, workforce).

The need to apply individual preventive action to a person is determined by establishing a set of related criminogenic factors:

- committing past offenses and immoral acts;

- deformed value orientations, incomplete socialization of the individual, low level of legal awareness;
- the presence of pathological mental disorders that are criminogenic in nature (some mental anomalies, sexual deviations, etc.);
- formation of personality in a social environment that is unfavorable: in a single-parent family, in conditions of immoral and illegal behavior of parents and close relatives, and so on;
- adverse living conditions: poor material and living conditions, negative social and domestic climate, etc: Analyzing all methods mentioned above we can state that «The best defense is an attack», which means that the preventive activities of the police are even more important than the pre-trial investigation because they do not allow criminals to realize their intentions.

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EUROPEAN CRIME PREVENTION NETWORK

The Council of the European Union founded the European Crime Prevention Network (EUCPN) in May 2001 [1].

The activities of the Network began in autumn of the same year. The activities and tasks of the crime prevention network are specified in the decision of the Council of Europe of 2009. The tasks of the Network include:

- Identifying good practices in crime prevention and assessing and conveying the information gathered to member countries.
- Facilitating cooperation and helping to create new contacts between the countries in the Network.
- Participating in the development of local and international crime prevention strategies. The Network offers crime prevention tools and supports the work of professionals and decision-makers.
- Promoting crime prevention work by organizing meetings, seminars and conferences. One of the main tasks is to organize an annual conference on good practices in crime prevention.
- Organizing the annual European Crime Prevention Award (ECPA) competition designed to reward the best European crime prevention project [1].

The European Crime Prevention Network develops and promotes multidisciplinary work in Europe for preventing crime and the fear of crime. The Network supports decision-makers and other professionals at European and national level, as well as at the level of local organizations [2].

The activities of the European Crime Prevention Network can focus on changing, topical themes or crime trends. Organized crime, cybercrime and terrorism are the designated focus areas of the European Agenda on Security (2015–2020), as well as in the EUCPN [3].

Crime prevention by nature requires a multi-disciplinary approach. Hence, numerous national policies contribute to crime prevention: criminal law, social policy, education, town planning, taxation, local authorities etc. With regard to general crime, most effective preventive action should take place as close as possible to the grassroots level. This is reflected by the emergence of multiple local initiatives, «community policing» practices, which involve the police forces, local authorities, businesses, associations and citizens [2].

ISEC has a budget of EUR 600 million for the period 2007–13 and contributes to citizens' security through projects that prevent and combat crime. Terrorism, human trafficking, child abuse, cybercrime, illicit drug and arms trafficking, corruption and fraud are a particular focus. This program has four key strands:

- crime prevention
- law enforcement
- witness protection and support
- victim protection.

The EU supports actions intended to increase operational cooperation (e.g. strengthening networking, mutual confidence and understanding, exchanging and disseminating information, experiences and best practices). Other funded activities include monitoring and evaluation, development and transfer of technology and methodology, training and exchanges and awareness raising and dissemination [2].

The European Crime Prevention Network consists of National Representatives and a Secretariat. The country holding the presidency of the Council of Europe acts as president of the Network, and the presidency changes every half year. In the first half of 2019, Romania held the presidency and after that, Finland [1].

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT BODIES OF UKRAINE AND GREAT BRITAIN

Each state is a complex mechanism in which there is a population and those who serve them. These include all executive, legislative and human rights bodies. Human rights are unique in nature, they determine the status of a person in any society and are a constructive means of civilized activity of people, satisfaction of their interests and needs in society.

The most important guarantor of law and order is the law enforcement activity of the state, which is carried out through the system of state bodies and public organizations. The activity of all state bodies is carried out directly within the framework of the law and contributes to the establishment of the foundations of legality and the strengthening of lawfulness, but there are still a number of state institutions and public organizations that are exclusively engaged in the performance of law enforcement functions.

Ukraine is on the verge of joining the European Union, and therefore the analysis of the experience of law enforcement agencies of leading European countries (Great Britain) is our main research task.

Ukrainian Law Enforcement System

According to the Law of Ukraine «On State Protection of Court and Law Enforcement Officials» (Article 2) Law Enforcement Bodies are Prosecutor's Office, National Police, Security Service, Military Law Enforcement Service in the Armed Forces of Ukraine, National Anti-Corruption Bureau of Ukraine, State Border Protection bodies [6].

Thus, it is possible to say that law-enforcement bodies are state and non-state bodies that carry out law-enforcement and law-enforcement activities, whose main task is to fight crime and other offenses in all spheres of public life.

The Activity of the Prosecutor's Offices in Ukraine

The Prosecutor's Office of Ukraine is the only system which, in the order stipulated by this Law, carries out the functions established by the Constitution of Ukraine with the purpose of protection of human rights and freedoms, the general interests of society and the state [2].

The Activity of the National Police of Ukraine

The National Police of Ukraine (police) is the central body of the executive power, which serves the society by ensuring the protection of human rights and freedoms, combating crime, maintaining public security and order [1].

The Activity of the Security Service of Ukraine

The Security Service of Ukraine is a state body of special purpose with law enforcement functions, which provides state security of Ukraine. The Security Service of Ukraine shall be subject to the protection of state sovereignty, constitutional order, territorial integrity, scientific, technical and defense potential of Ukraine, legal interests of the state and rights of citizens within the limits of the competence determined by the legislation [3].

The features of law enforcement bodies include:

1. Performance of preventive and other main functions;
2. Necessity of special organizational, legal, personnel, material-technical, financial, information, scientific and other support;
3. The employees of this body are subject to special requirements concerning business and moral qualities, educational level, absence of criminal records, etc;
4. Law enforcement officials enjoy increased social and legal protection [5].

Great Britain Law Enforcement System

Britain (United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) – democratic, legal, unitary state, form of government – parliamentary (constitutional) monarchy. The state power is based on its division into three branches - legislative, executive and judicial. The legislative body is the Parliament, which consists of two chambers – the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The executive power is exercised by the Government of Great Britain – the Cabinet headed by the Prime Minister.

There are peculiarities of the organization of the police in the city of London (the capital of Great Britain). Here the Metropolitan Police and the police of London City, headed by the commissars. The Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police is appointed as the Queen of Great Britain on the recommendation of the Minister of Internal Affairs of Great Britain. The following posts were established in the capital police: Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner of Commissioner, Deputy Assistant Commissioner of Commissioner, Commander, chief inspector, sergeant, Constable.

Other bodies that do not belong to the UK Ministry of Internal Affairs perform the functions of the police. Thus, the property and personnel protection of the British Defense Ministry is provided by the Police of the British Defense Ministry, headed by the Chief Constable, under the authority of the British Defense Ministry [4].

There are a number of agencies that participate in law enforcement in the United Kingdom which can be grouped into three general types:

Territorial Police Forces carry out the majority of policing. These are police forces that cover a police area (a particular region) and have an independent police authority.

National Law Enforcement Bodies include the National Crime Agency and national police forces that have a specific, non-regional jurisdiction, such as the British Transport Police. The Serious Organized Crime and Police Act 2005 refer to these as “special police forces” not including the NCA which is not a police force. In addition, there are non-

police law enforcement agencies, whose officers are not police officers, but still enforce laws, and other bodies with solely investigatory powers.

Miscellaneous Police Forces mostly have their foundations in older legislation or common law. These are responsible for policing specific local areas or activities, such as ports and parks [7].

Summarizing our theoretical research, we should note that the law enforcement bodies of Ukraine and Great Britain have similar bodies and functions as well as differences in their structure and activity.

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SECURITY OF PERSONAL DATE

Data security is the process of protecting sensitive information from unauthorized access. It includes all of the different cybersecurity practices you use to secure your data from misuse, like encryption, access restrictions (both physical and digital), and more. Data security has always been important. Security had always been central for the protection of confidentiality, integrity and availability of personal data.

With the increasing use of online and mobile applications, the advances of analytics and the Internet of Things, the need for data security is more important than ever, considering the risks of new exposed system vulnerabilities and cyber-attacks, as well the vast opportunities for data combination and end users' tracking. Still, security is not just about the

application of one or more measures and no security measure alone can provide an adequate protection level for personal data. On the contrary, security for personal data needs to follow a thorough and continuously monitored framework of controls, both technical and organizational, appropriate to the nature of the data processing and the associated risks [1].

Over the last years, an increasing number of personal data breaches has been reported, especially relating to online systems and services. Such breaches can lead (and have led) to serious impact on the affected individuals' private lives, including humiliation, discrimination, financial loss, physical or psychological damage or even threat to life. It is, thus, of critical importance that the data controllers and processors have all the necessary mechanisms in place both for preventing data breaches, as well as for encountering them on time and in an appropriate way.

In each country, the methods and laws regarding the protection of personal information are slightly different, but the goal is always the same - to protect personal data. Consider, for example, the security of personal data in the United States. The United States has a patchwork and ever-changing web of laws governing data privacy. While there's no comprehensive federal privacy decree, several laws do focus on specific data types or situations regarding privacy. Without a holistic statute, however, it can be unclear what protections are in place for the various types of personal information with which companies. Despite the lack of a comprehensive privacy framework, organizations that process or store data are still responsible for staying up-to-date on the latest regulations to ensure compliance.

The internet has revolutionized our lives and work, providing unprecedented access to information and communication. However, along with this increased connectivity comes new risks to privacy. Thankfully, data privacy laws govern the collection, use, and disclosure of personal data and set standards for how businesses need to handle sensitive data. The Federal Trade Commission (FTC) is the principal enforcer of these laws in the U.S. In recent years, the FTC has taken several enforcement actions against companies that have misled consumers about their data security and privacy practices.

The United States and Europe have the most comprehensive data security and privacy laws; the EU's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) came into effect in 2018, while the California Consumer Privacy Act (CCPA) took effect in 2020. GDPR and CCPA set strict standards for how service providers must handle personal data, including ensuring that data collection is transparent, secure, and obtained with the concerned individual's consent. The standards also provide individuals the right to know what personal data is collected about them and allow them to access it and request its deletion.

The main difference between CCPA and GDPR is that GDPR applies to any organization that processes or intends to process EU citizens' sensitive data, regardless of location. GDPR compliance is mandatory for any organization that processes the personal data of EU citizens, regardless

if they're customers or not. There are also no entity revenue or processing threshold requirements for GDPR [2].

Generally speaking, privacy laws fall into two categories: vertical and horizontal. Vertical privacy laws protect medical records or financial data, including details such as an individual's health and financial status. Horizontal privacy laws focus on how organizations use information, regardless of its context. The types of data covered by these laws include fingerprints, retina scans, biometric data, and other personally identifiable information such as names and addresses. While both vertical and horizontal privacy laws play an essential role in protecting individuals' privacy rights, many view vertical policies as more effective because they're better at targeting specific risks [2].

The federal government passed the U.S. Privacy Act of 1974 to enhance individual privacy protection. This act established rules and regulations regarding U.S. government agencies' collection, use, and disclosure of personal information.

The main principles of this law is that U.S. citizens have the right to access their personal data kept by government agencies and request changes if they believe the information is inaccurate. Government agencies grant users data access based on their role in their company. Individuals must know how agencies use their personal data upon collection.

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INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN THE FIELD OF COMBATING COMPUTER CRIME

Considering the fight against computer crime from the perspective of international cooperation, we will identify the following features:

1) cross-border nature – this feature is expressed in the fact that the criminal has the possibility of authorized access to any system through the Internet, regardless of state borders;

2) the specified criminal offense has a high level of latency due to the difficulty of detecting this offense and the reluctance of victims to report the commission of an offense against them;

3) lack of established mechanisms in investigation and international assistance.

One of the important events of Ukraine on the path of interstate cooperation was the ratification of the Convention on Cybercrime on September 7, 2005, which provides for the provision of powers sufficient to effectively combat crimes in the field of information and telecommunication technologies at both the domestic and international levels, the conclusion of agreements on effective international cooperation. In accordance with this Convention, the parties cooperate by applying relevant international documents on international cooperation in criminal matters, agreements concluded on the basis of unified or reciprocal legislation, as well as domestic legislation for the purpose of investigating or prosecuting criminal offenses related to computer systems and data, collecting evidence in electronic form [1, p. 131].

In order to solve the problems of international cooperation in combating computer crime, it is necessary to agree on a strategy that will take into account the proposals and objections of all parties involved in it.

It is also worth paying attention to the meeting of the Ukraine-NATO joint working group, which took place on December 8, 2010, as a result of which directions for further cooperation in the field of cyber defense were determined, in particular, Ukraine envisages the following measures:

- 1) establishment of consultative mechanisms;
- 2) exchange of experience regarding legislative provision and regulation;
- 3) development of operational cooperation mechanisms in crisis situations;
- 4) establishment of a system of information exchange regarding cyberspace monitoring;
- 5) cooperation in eliminating the negative consequences of a cyberattack.

Next, it is advisable to consider the experience of different countries in combating computer crimes.

The creation of new units in the field of combating cybercrime, in particular computer fraud, is practiced in such countries as: Australia, Belgium, Belarus, Great Britain, Denmark, Estonia, India, Ireland, China, South Korea, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macau, Malaysia, the Netherlands, Germany, Norway, South Africa, Peru, Poland, Portugal, USA, Singapore, Slovenia, Thailand, Finland, Czech Republic, Switzerland, Sweden, etc. [2].

Currently, Australia has a government telecommunications committee that regulates the country's Internet policy [3]. On the basis of the Ministry of Public Policy of China, a unit was formed to provide «control over the Internet» in China [4]. The Indian Cyber Crime Investigation Service employs professional hackers to carry out its functions. In England, the National Hi-Tech Crime Unit (NHTCU) has been established. This unit consists of forty specially trained agents located in the

main office in London and forty-six territorial investigators [5]. In the Czech Republic, the detection and investigation of cybercrimes, in particular computer fraud, is carried out by the Bureau of the Criminal Police and Investigative Service, but in the near future it is planned to create special regional units.

The study of the experience of the United States of America requires special attention. One of the features is the establishment at the legislative level of the obligation of state bodies to notify the relevant federal or local cybercrime units of all cases of unauthorized access to individual files or databases in order to respond to them in a timely manner. The USA became one of the first countries in the world to take measures regarding criminal liability for committing crimes in the field of information technologies, where this category of crimes appeared earlier than in other countries [6, p. 29]. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (hereinafter – FBI) acts as the main subject of ensuring cyber security in the entire territory of the USA.

In implementing the cybercrime program, the FBI works closely with the Department of Defense and the Department of Homeland Security, which often handle similar tasks. In order to obtain information about computer crimes as quickly as possible, the FBI has created the Internet Crime Complaint Center, where both victims and third parties, by filling out a special online form or simply by calling, can provide information about committed crimes on the Internet [7, p. 199].

Also under the direction of the FBI was the establishment of the «Internet Center», which takes complaints of criminal offenses on the Internet and provides the public with reports on suspects, computer fraud schemes and how to overcome them. In particular, the official website contains advice on preventing computer fraud, which includes the following topics:

- 1) Business E-Mail Compromise (BEC);
- 2) Database fraud (Data Breach);
- 3) Denial of Service (DoS);
- 4) Malicious software (Malware/Scareware);
- 5) Phishing (Phishing/Spoofing).

Information is analyzed and disseminated for investigative and intelligence purposes among law enforcement officers and to inform the public [8].

Therefore, the implementation of international cooperation in the field of combating computer fraud plays a significant role, as it increases the effectiveness of detection and investigation of computer fraud thanks to international experience and a unified countermeasure strategy.

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THE SPECIFICS OF THE FUNCTIONING OF CIVIL LAW IN COMPENSATION FOR NON-PROPERTY DAMAGE IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Among the rights enshrined in the fundamental Chapter II of the Constitution, there is a right to compensation damage. It is noted that everyone has the right to material compensation at the expense of the state or local self-government bodies and moral damage caused by illegal actions or inaction of state bodies, authorities, local self-government bodies, their officials and officials during the exercise of their powers. Such provisions are enshrined in European constitutional acts. Declaration of the right to moral compensation damage is a common vector of the development of democratic and legal countries, and, despite this, some countries, in particular in the countries of the European Union, have such an institute effective, thorough on a consistent judicial basis practice, but unstable and ambiguous in the Ukrainian legal space.

Currently, the main development trends institution of compensation for moral damage there is a movement in the direction of overcoming conceptual contradictions regarding the foundations of such an institution and gaps in regulation. To such problems, in particular, uncertainty can be counted circle of persons who can claim compensation for moral damage,

absence procedure, criteria for calculating such compensation, ambiguity of definition in the Civil Code of Ukraine, inconsistencies and contradictions in judicial practice, etc. The next trend is to attempt legal transformations for practical results and guarantees for plaintiffs, gradual use of the experience of EU countries and the precedents of the European Court of Human Rights.

Article 23 of the Civil Code of Ukraine defines compensation for moral damage. It is established that a person has the right to compensation for moral damage caused as a result violation of her rights. Moral damage consists of:

1) physical pain and suffering, which an individual suffered in connection with a disability or other health damage where «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons»;

2) in mental suffering, which is physical the person suffered in connection with the illegal behavior towards herself, her family members or close relatives;

3) in mental suffering, which the natural person experienced in connection with destruction or damage to her property;

4) in the humiliation of honor and physical dignity person, as well as the business reputation of a physical or legal entity.

That is, on the one hand, determining that «a person» has the right to compensation for moral damage as a result of the violation of his rights, the legislator includes compensation for the violation of the rights of legal entities as well, but in part 4 limits indemnification only to situations where associated with denigrating the business reputation of legal entities, which generally does not contradict the practice of the European Court of Human Rights.

With regard to the practice of EU countries, in Germany, compensation for moral damage is regulated by the norms of the German Civil Code (§§ 847, 823), which deal with «non-property» damage and the payment of monetary compensation for such damage . In German theory and judicial practice, the term «compensation for suffering» is used. The provisions of the German Civil Code directly provide for compensation for harm to health, unlawful restriction of the victim's freedom. Suffering is understood as physical and mental suffering (experiencing), and non-property damage is the reduction of non-property rights and benefits belonging to the individual. From the generalizations of judicial practice, taking into account the guarantee of individual rights and their inviolability at the level of the German Constitution, other types of violations are also determined, which are the basis for the emergence of obligations to

compensate for moral damage: violation of the secrecy of correspondence and records of a confidential nature, interference in a person's private life due to unauthorized photography, disclosure of information about private life, etc.

The French Civil Code contains Article 9 which directly provides protection of personal non-property rights. However even before its introduction, judicial practice used such a method of protection as compensation moral damage based on general norms regarding tortious obligations (art. art. 1382,1383). This is explained by what is in the law the term "harm" itself is mentioned as a general one category and its division into property or non-property damage should not be used as a basis for liability; compensation should be subject to any damage. In addition, to the characteristics of the concept of moral damage both national and foreign legislator, for optimal definition problematic issues must be taken into account the advanced practice of the European Court of Human Rights, which is the legal "template" and factor of trends transformations of the researched institute. Except of this, Ukraine has taken certain obligations regarding the protection of human rights. According to Article 9 of the Constitution of Ukraine provides that international treaties are valid, consent to which are binding on the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, is part of the national legislation of Ukraine. In particular, it belongs to them ratified by the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine Convention on the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and other international treaties .

Article 41 of the European Convention on protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms (hereinafter -European Convention) establishes that, if the Court recognizes the fact that there has been a violation of the European Convention or the Protocols to it, and the domestic law of the High Contracting Party allows the possibility only partial compensation, the Court, if necessary, provides the injured party with a fair one satisfaction It should be noted that at the same time The European Convention does not reveal the essence of the concept of «just satisfaction» used in it, which enables the ECHR in force given to him the competence to interpret the specified concept independently.

Fairness of compensation as a category applied by the national legislator, however, is not revealed in judicial precedents, is determined by the ECHR taking into account all the circumstances, as well as peculiarities affairs. The court strictly adheres to the position that the indemnification is purely compensatory and not punitive, aggravating or deterrent in nature. It would be it is expedient to implement similar guiding aspects judicial practice in Ukraine as well, since such a definition is by no means restrictive, allowing the Court to apply a different approach to whether the applicant had caused moral damage, depending on the circumstances and specifics of each case under consideration.

According to German law, compensation for suffered suffering is also must be fair: to your attention the general principle of alignment is taken benefits; the victim must be reinstated in the state that existed before

the violation of his rights or interests, but he must not receive a benefit as a result of such compensation to him damage. When determining the amount of fair compensation, the court takes into account the following indicators: physical suffering, mental suffering, the degree of guilt of the perpetrator, damage, his property status, etc. During calculating the amount of moral compensation damages will also be taken into account compensations that were previously assigned by the courts in similar cases.

In France, where the legislation is judicial practice is not limited by personal non-property rights and benefits by some defined list and allow for moral compensation damage in an unlimited number of cases, the court satisfies claims for compensation moral damage, guided also by the requirements of justice. This means that the judge does not will refer to arithmetic calculations, and will take into account the nature of the relationship, that is, an individual approach to the definition. In the context of research, it becomes necessary to analyze how things are within the boundaries of the Ukrainian judiciary, as well as cases of the ECHR in order to identify and compare conceptual and precedent moments.

So, we can summarize that, despite the existing conceptual internal and external contradictions (non-application of the general presumption of causing moral damage; that only the fact of an offense is a consequence of such causation; conditions, compensation criteria), the institution of compensation for moral damage is generally gradual chooses positive development trends that, in particular, it is reflected in the introduction of progressive bills. most importantly, that the Ukrainian legal fabric is permeated obligations of international agreements in the sphere of human rights and the state in general suffers to democratic transformations. As a result, we hope for the emergence of trends regarding stable and consistent judicial practice, revision of theoretical foundations and even more activity of human rights defenders.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Forensic Linguistics as a separate area of Applied Linguistics is one of the disciplines within Forensic Sciences. It has been rapidly developing as a science whose purpose is to bridge the gap between linguistics and law enforcement to serve the purposes of justice and to facilitate establishing the truth in judicial processes. Forensic Linguistics is commonly defined as an application of linguistic knowledge and methods to various legal issues as part of legal proceedings or private disputes which may potentially result in legal action. This definition seems to be quite specific as it focuses on «language as a contested object of legal examination». Materials for analysis by a linguist may be valid as evidence in court and vary from written messages, such as ransom notes, mobile phone text messages, suicide notes as well as recorded voice messages in criminal cases to contracts, wills and warning labels in civil cases. However, alongside with procedural use of linguistic evidence, in its broadest sense Forensic Linguistics studies any use of language in a legal setting including the language of legislation, crosscultural and bilingual communication, interaction of legal professionals with laypeople in and outside the courtroom. In Ukrainian scholarly literature the term «Legal Linguistics» is used to refer to the area of studies which investigates legal language and communication [1, p. 76].

To ensure the linguistic security of a united Europe, the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages was adopted in Strasbourg in 1992. The document justified the need to create favorable conditions for the preservation and development of regional and ethnic minority languages. The Framework Convention for the protection of national minorities then followed. Norway has ratified all three conventions. However, Norway's ratification of the framework Convention was unique, as it took an unprecedented decision to exclude the Sami from the list of national minorities. Finland has also thus far refrained from ratifying this document. Some regulations have also been adopted at the national level, and national constitutions have been amended as a way to protect the rights of indigenous peoples and languages. Thus, in January 2017, after long negotiations and consultations, the three countries signed the Sami Convention, which expands the definition of Sami representatives who have the right to cast their votes in elections to the Sami parliaments of Norway, Sweden and Finland. Russia did not take part in the development of the Convention. In 1987, the Sami Parliament was created; later, national commissions on Sami rights were formed, which also consider issues of language preservation. Norway formed the Sami language policy faster than

Sweden and Finland, which was caused by a wave of protests on the Alta river. In all the Scandinavian countries, there is a very limited number of Sami schools in Sami regions and most children have the right to get their education in the Sami language. In most cases, students studying Sami can choose between Sami as their first or second language. Besides, there was a lack of qualified Sami teachers and relevant educational resources and learning materials [2, p. 3–4].

However, examining the process and production of law through the lens of language allows us to understand ‘the law’ in a very different way. Language and law are inextricably linked – the law is an inherently linguistic construct: it is largely created, interpreted and applied through language. Language is, therefore, an extremely important part of, and has a significant impact on the development of any legal order.

While this link between law and language exists across all legal orders, at every level, it is more visible and arguably more important where the law in question is multilingual. In today’s globalised world, multilingual law permeates many aspects of our daily lives and is more important than ever before. The intense process of globalisation in the latter half of the 20th century has led to a rapid increase in the production of international treaties and agreements, the creation of international courts as well as a reliance on international arbitration.

Much of this globalised legal work is performed through translation and much of the underpinning law on which such work is based exists in a multi- or pluri-lingual sphere. Nowhere is this phenomenon of multilingual law more evident than in the context of the European Union, which produces law in 24 languages, with the aim of it being applied uniformly throughout (at the time of going to press) 28 member states.

The EU’s multilingual law consists of treaties, as well as secondary legislation (regulations, directives, decisions etc.), all of which are considered equally authentic in each of the 24 EU official languages in which they are produced. The multilingual nature of that legislation is generally evident to those coming into contact with such documents on a regular basis [3].

Although Forensic Linguistics is a relatively recent area of science, its growing importance is undoubtful both in common law countries and Ukraine. The outcomes of the work of linguists are applied in litigation and for expert analysis of texts of laws. Linguistic evidence may be admissible in court in case it is relevant and meets certain requirements of statutory law. In addition, expertise and research methods of forensic linguists may be invaluable in other areas of social life which only partly overlap with judicial process, such as social, cultural and commercial spheres. With regard to the obvious value of contribution of Forensic Linguistics to the legal forum, the prospects of future investigation are viewed in studying the international experience of forensic linguists as it may help to enhance methods of Ukrainian forensic linguistic experts, make them more rigorous and reliable to serve the purposes of linguistic evidence expertise in civil and criminal cases. Furthermore, the

analysis of the findings in the field of application of linguistic methods to various legal issues can foster the development of Forensic Linguistics as a distinct field of science in Ukraine.

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**STRENGTHENING THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION
IN ARMED CONFLICT**

The right to education [1] is enshrined in article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and in numerous other international human rights instruments. A clear formulation of the right to education can be found in article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The Convention on the Rights of the Child also includes a detailed recognition of the right to education in its articles 28 and 29. The right to education is an important precondition for the meaningful exercise of most of the freedoms protected by human rights law. Education enhances freedom of expression, assembly and protest, the right to vote, the right to participate in public affairs, the right to form a family and to freely decide the number and spacing of children, the right to form and join trade unions, the right to work, the right to participate in cultural life and the right to benefit from scientific progress.

The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in its general comment No. 13 on the right to education defined the core content of the right to education as including access to public educational institutions and programmes on a non-discriminatory basis, conformity of education to the objectives of the full development of the human personality and a sense of its dignity. It also includes free and compulsory primary education, the adoption and implementation of a national educational strategy which includes provision for secondary, higher and fundamental education, and free choice of education without interference from the State or third parties, subject to conformity with “minimum educational standards” (art. 13 (3 and 4)) of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights).

When conflicts result in resource constraints, States are required to ensure the availability, accessibility and acceptability of good quality education facilities, goods and services, especially to groups rendered vulnerable by conflict [2].

In situations of considerable difficulty, including armed conflict, the burden of proof still falls on the State to demonstrate that every effort has been made to use all resources at its disposal to satisfy minimum core obligations, including through international cooperation and assistance [3]. The Committee on the Rights of the Child, considering the State party report of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, urged the Government to ensure completion of children's compulsory schooling and take action to address the reasons behind non-completion, including persisting zones of insecurity, displacement of families, lack of transport and destruction of school infrastructure [4]. When highlighting issues to the Government of Thailand, [5] the Committee asked the State to provide updated information on measures taken to guarantee the right to education in the southern border provinces in the light of attacks against teachers and schools there.

Attacks resulting in death or injury to children and educators and the destruction or military occupation of educational facilities are common during armed conflict and in situations of insecurity. A 2010 report⁵⁷ issued by UNESCO estimated that in recent years the reported number of attacks on students and education staff, as well as bombings and burnings of school buildings, had risen dramatically. The Committee on the Rights of the Child confirmed in its day of general discussion [6] on education in emergency that the States' duty to provide education remains unaffected even in times of emergency and conflict. The Committee, in addressing the question of military occupation of schools by State armed forces, recommended ceasing military occupation and ensuring compliance with humanitarian law and the principle of distinction.

The Special Rapporteur on the right to education highlighted the need to protect persons with disabilities in conflict situations, noting that persons with disabilities, whatever their sex, age or geographical origin, suffer from a pervasive and disproportionate denial of their right to education. The Special Rapporteur furthermore highlighted that in emergencies, particularly during conflicts and the post-conflict period, the right to education should be better addressed by States. In the context of insecurity and armed conflict, States must abstain from acts that disrupt the process of education, including the military occupation of schools; respect the obligation to fulfil the minimum core content of the right to education, which is nonderogable; and prevent and punish attacks against students, teachers and educational facilities.

International humanitarian law and human rights law provide complementary and mutually reinforcing protection of economic and social rights in situations of conflict. International humanitarian law imposes obligations on States engaged in a conflict to refrain from harming the civilian population and also to ensure adequate conditions of life for the

civilian population with regard to matters of health, food, relief assistance, work, employment and education. The application of human rights law, and in particular the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, to conflict situations, helps in clarifying the content of the adequate conditions of life for the civilian population as guaranteed by international humanitarian law and ensures greater protection of the civilian population. States experiencing a situation of conflict must refrain from interfering with the individual's enjoyment of economic and social rights and protect the enjoyment of those rights from attacks by third parties, including by armed groups. Moreover, States cannot put aside, or postpone to peaceful times, the fulfilment of the core content of the rights to health, food, housing, access to water, or to education. Retrogressive measures in the enjoyment of the core content of economic and social rights cannot be justified exclusively on the basis of the existence of a conflict: States have to demonstrate that any retrogression was unavoidable and that all the possible measures have been taken, including seeking international cooperation and assistance, to overcome the resource constraints. States must also distribute the maximum available resources on a non-discriminatory basis. Even when conflicts result in resource constraints, States are required to prioritize the availability, accessibility and acceptability of good quality health and education facilities, goods and services to groups rendered vulnerable by conflict. A fundamental step to be taken by States to ensure availability of health care is to protect medical personnel from violence. States should also refrain from acts that disrupt the process of education, and should fulfil the minimum core content of the right to education, which is non-derogable.

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2. The Committee clarified the nature of those elements in its general comment No. 13, para. 57.
3. See Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, general comment No. 3, para. 10; and general comment No. 12, para. 17.
4. See CRC/C/COD/CO/2, para. 67.
5. See E/C.12/THA/Q/1-2, para. 23.
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POLICE POWERS IN THE UK

In Ukraine, there are two levels of management in the Internal Affairs agencies, namely: the central body with the corresponding departments in the Ministry of Internal Affairs and the territorial bodies of the police. The staff of the police is composed of personnel serving in the police who have special police ranks.

Unlike Ukraine police services in the UK are organized around two legal entities: the ‘Office of Constable’ and the police force.

Police officers (no matter their rank) each individually hold the Office of Constable. The Office of Constable grants them powers to detect, prevent and investigate crime.

Every police officer is a member of a police force. The police force organizes and coordinates their crime fighting. As members of police forces, officers (and other police personnel) are under the “direction and control” of their chief officer. Chief officers are ultimately responsible for the operation of their force. There are 48 civilian police forces in the UK: 43 territorial police forces in England and Wales, a national police force in both Scotland and Northern Ireland and three specialist police forces (the British Transport Police, the Civil Nuclear Constabulary and the Ministry of Defense Police) [1].

Policing is (by and large) a devolved matter in Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Scottish Government and the Northern Ireland Executive are responsible for deciding how most police services are organized and managed in their nations. Policing culture is very similar throughout the UK and Police Scotland and the Police Service Northern Ireland share many of the characteristics of English and Welsh forces.

The term British model of policing is sometimes used to describe policing culture in the UK. There is no formal definition of the British model, but it is typically understood through three interlinked concepts: The Office of Constable, operational independence and policing by consent [1].

The core duty of the police service is to protect the public by detecting and preventing crime. This duty is established in common law (precedents set by decisions of the courts) and the police have both common law and legislative powers to execute it. The use of police powers must be compatible with human rights and equalities legislation. Police personnel are individually responsible for ensuring their use of their powers is lawful, proportionate and necessary [2].

Powers to investigate crime. This includes a range of powers to collect evidence needed to identify suspects and support their fair and effective trial.

Powers to prevent crime. This includes a range of powers to maintain public order, prevent anti-social behaviour and manage known offenders/suspects.

Powers to 'dispose' of criminal cases. These powers allow police officers to dispose of criminal cases outside of court or charge suspects so they can be prosecuted [2].

In all countries, the main task of law enforcement agencies is to maintain public order and security, but despite the same goal, the structure of law enforcement agencies in different countries has its own peculiarities and differences.

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PECULIARITIES OF COMPENSATION FOR NON-PROPERTY DAMAGE IN THE COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

Compensation for non-property damage is a new and at the same time the most effective way to protect civil rights.

Compensation for moral damage has several features, which, first of all, consist of clearly defined illegal acts, which the legislator includes:

- causing mutilation and other health damage that resulted in physical pain and suffering of a natural person;
- illegal behavior towards a natural person, his family members, or close relatives, which led to mental suffering of a natural person;
- destruction or damage to the property of a natural person, which led to his mental suffering;
- humiliating the honor, and dignity of an individual and the business reputation of an individual and a legal entity [4].

The law of foreign countries recognizes this type of damage as moral damage and the possibility of its compensation. The experience of the countries under consideration has accumulated a rich practice of applying this legal institution. In Germany, compensation for non-pecuniary damage is governed by the provisions of the German Civil Code (paras. 847, 823), which deals with «non-pecuniary» damage and the payment of monetary compensation for such damage. In doctrine and case law, the term «compensation for suffering» (or «damage to feelings») is used. The provisions of the German Civil Code directly provide for the possibility of compensation in cases of bodily injury, causing other damage to health, and unlawful restriction of the freedom of the victim. Suffering is understood as

physical and mental suffering (experiencing), and non-property damage is the reduction of non-property rights and benefits belonging to an individual.

Jurisprudence, based on the constitutional establishment of individual rights and their inviolability, has determined other types of violations that are the basis for the emergence of obligations with compensation for moral damage: violation of the secret of correspondence and records of a confidential nature, interference in a person's private life due to unauthorized photography, disclosure of information about private life, etc. [5].

The French Civil Code contains an article (Article 9) that directly provides for the protection of personal non-property rights. However, even before its introduction, judicial practice applied such a method of protection as compensation for moral damage based on general norms regarding tortious obligations (Articles 1382, 1383). This is explained by the fact that in the law the term «damage» itself is mentioned as a general category, and it should not be divided into property or non-property damage as a basis for liability; any damage should be compensated. A general approach applies to non-pecuniary damage obligations; in some cases, the judgment on the claim for damages does not even specify what part of the monetary amount is awarded for non-property damages.

However, in theory, and judicial practice, such a division exists: damage caused to personal non-property rights and benefits is called moral (dommage moral).

In the law of England and the USA, there are several options for defining a concept similar to the concept of moral damage: psychological injury, psychiatric injury, nervous shock, and ordinary shock. The most common in the law of England and the USA and closest to the concept of moral damage is the term «mental damage».

Anglo-American law primarily distinguishes the very purpose of mental damage compensation: compensatory – in the case of simple negligent infliction, and punitive – in the case of intentional or grossly negligent infliction of such damage [2]. In the first case, the delinquent is responsible only for physical suffering, which is a consequence of mental suffering, and in the second - for any mental (spiritual) suffering, as well as for physical.

The conditions for the emergence of obligations for the compensation of non-property (moral, mental) damage in all countries are practically similar to those established for the compensation of property damage. Such obligations arise in tortious legal relations and, as an exception, may arise in contractual ones. Most often, they are used in the case of intentional damage and in those types of contractual relations where the violation of the terms of the contract by its nature is most likely to cause mental losses, that is when such a consequence of the violation of the contract as the presence of moral damage is foreseeable.

The problem of the amount of responsibility for such damage is complicated. In none of the countries, there is a single method established

by law or created by judicial practice for determining the amount of non-pecuniary (mental) damage and the amount of adequate compensation [1].

According to German law (par. 847 of the Civil Code), compensation for suffered suffering must be fair: the general principle of benefit equalization is taken into account; the victim must be restored to the state that existed before the violation of his rights or interests, but he must not receive a benefit as a result of compensation for such damage. In the process of determining the amount of fair compensation, judicial practice takes into account the following indicators: physical suffering of the victim (especially sensitivity to pain, type of physical injury, duration of treatment, and consequences), mental suffering (consequences, disfigurement of appearance, age, possibility of continuing former work, degree of awareness of the difficulty of one's situation, concern for the fate of the family, possibility of preserving individual qualities of the personality (talents, inclinations), special mental vulnerability, tendency to experience), the degree of guilt of the causer of damage, his property status. When calculating the amount of compensation for moral damage, compensation amounts previously awarded by courts in similar cases will also be taken into account.

In France, where legislation and judicial practice do not limit personal non-property rights and benefits to any defined list and allow compensation for moral damage in an unlimited number of cases, the court satisfies claims for compensation for moral damage, guided by the requirements of justice. It will also depend on the connection that exists between individual cases of moral damage and the compensation that can indirectly alleviate the condition of the victim. All the specific circumstances of the case will be taken into account and evaluated, such as, in particular, the real needs of the victim, the malice of the person who caused the damage, and the reasons that prompted the victim to make demands for compensation.

In some cases, the judge may impose a symbolic sentence, such as an obligation to pay one franc.

The commonality of the legal systems of England and the United States determines the similarity of approaches to solving the problem of the amount of compensation for mental damage. In some court decisions, a temporal approach was used, which assumes that the acuteness of the perception of anxiety and pain softens over time.

Another method is based on the assessment of the loss of life prospects: it is calculated approximately how much the victim's life expectancy is potentially reduced due to the damage to his health compared to the average life expectancy in the country.

In the legal literature, there are three general theoretical approaches to solving the question of the amount of compensation for the psychological damage that has developed in Anglo-American judicial practice – conceptual, personal, and functional [6]. The essence of the conceptual approach is to draw an analogy with property damage: human life is considered to be property as well; functions of the body are the same values

as, for example, a house, shares. Therefore, each part of the body has an objective value, and in case of its loss or damage, it must be replaced (with money, the corresponding good that can be acquired thanks to them).

The personal approach consists of the fact that the depth of experiences caused by health damage depends on the characteristics of the victim's psyche. Therefore, the purpose of compensation is to make up in a certain way for the loss of the opportunity to enjoy life in the present and the future (loss of happiness). The amount of compensation under such conditions is determined arbitrarily.

The functional approach implies the impossibility of establishing the «value» of happiness, and therefore, it is believed, the court should award the plaintiff such an amount that would be sufficient for his satisfaction. Undoubtedly, the considered methods do not exhaust the experience of English and US courts, since each type of tortious legal relationship has specific features [3].

A necessary condition for liability for mental damage in this legal system is the so-called «involvement» of the victim if caused the damage, in other words, establishing a direct causal connection of such damage with the defendant's illegal act. Fairly strict criteria are applied by the courts about the principle of predictability of mental damage, which is one of the conditions for the right to compensation.

It should be noted that the claim for compensation for mental (moral) damage is not always the subject of judicial proceedings. Quite often, the person causing the damage and the victim resolve this issue out of court.

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CRIME IN FRANCE

France has a similar crime rate to most other European countries and in common with them crime has increased considerably in recent years; the number of reported crimes has almost doubled in a decade: an estimated 18m offences are reported to the police each year, 5m of which result in an

official crime report and 1.3m in legal proceedings, 650,000 in court, although more than half of these cases are dropped [3].

People

France is a destination country for human trafficking, with victims especially vulnerable to sexual exploitation, forced labour, forced begging and slavery. Victims primarily are women and girls from Eastern Europe, East and West Africa and some Asian countries trafficked into sexual exploitation, as well as men, women and children forced into domestic servitude and other forms of forced labour. Human trafficking in France is generally also associated with both physical and psychological violence, as well as unlawful confinement. As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, there have been cases of trafficked individuals taking on dangerous and degrading work to obtain cash during the lockdowns [1].

France is a key transit and destination country for human smuggling. Smuggling activities have increased in northern France, particularly in the port city of Ouistreham in Normandy, since the closure of the migrant camps in Calais. Human smuggling across France's borders with Italy and Spain, as well as across the English Channel between France and the UK, are also of major concern. Additionally, France's overseas territories are increasingly being utilized as entry points for human smuggling activities, with Mayotte off the coast of southeastern Africa being the most affected region, followed by French Guiana. Smuggling networks also provide individuals with fake medical certificates and forged documents. Furthermore, there is an overlap between human smuggling, drug trafficking, sex trafficking and weapons trafficking. Since the end of 2018, attempts at irregular migration from Africa, the Middle East and Southern Asia across the English Channel have multiplied due to police restraint aimed at preventing migrant camps from emerging near Calais [1].

Trade

There is a steady flow of illicit weapons into and within France, primarily originating from Eastern Europe and the US. Targeted weapon theft contributes to the bulk of illicit weapons in the market, which are mainly bought by actors involved in organized crime, especially drug trafficking. Firearms are also sometimes exchanged for drugs. In 2018, France experienced the largest number of weapon thefts across the EU, in the form of both opportunistic and targeted theft. France continues to experience the worrying trend of weapons entering the country in increasing numbers, especially from the Balkans. Intelligence services highlight that weapons used during the two world wars, as well as weapons originating from the Balkan region, are often utilized to fuel criminal networks. Additionally, access to war weapons, such as AK-47s, enabled terrorist groups to attack civilians in France and also fuelled violence in suburbs where young people have easy access to arms. In mainland France, weapons are sold on both the dark web and the clearnet [1].

Criminal justice and security

In France, there are eight specialized inter-regional jurisdictions with competences over drug trafficking, organized crime and financial crimes. They are based in Bordeaux, Lille, Lyon, Marseille, Paris, Nancy, Rennes and Fort-de-France. In 2019, a new national anti-terrorism prosecution office was also created, as a result of political will to adapt the judicial system to new trends in transnational organized crime. France's prisons have also been criticized for inhumane detention conditions such as overcrowding, squalor, poor hygiene, absence of privacy and lack of activities, and allegedly run the risk of radicalizing prisoners. With regard to law enforcement, the French police and gendarmerie are in charge of combating organized crime, including drug trafficking, irregular immigration and cybercrime. The national police also has various bodies in charge of the fight against organized crime. In recent years, the relationship between the French police and the population has changed. Despite the fact that the police were deemed trusted heroes after the 2015 terror attacks in Paris, a few months after this there was a shift following numerous reports of police violence during anti-labour reform demonstrations. In 2020, trust in security forces deteriorated even further, with the Ombudsman calling the loss in confidence a crisis [1].

Drugs

The illegal drug trade in France is dominated by cannabis, as it is the number one drug consumed in France. The market has grown exponentially in recent years and is controlled by a few kingpins. It is difficult to uncover as it is fragmented and transnational. The consumption of marijuana over resin has also grown as older cannabis users seek organic and local products. This phenomenon led to an increase in self-production, which led to criminal networks reorganizing their structures by offering primarily marijuana instead of hash. However, the growing use and production of French and European marijuana did not cause a decline in the traditional Moroccan hash market. France is also a transit and destination country for marijuana. Cannabis from Morocco is transited through Spain to France and then transported to the rest of Europe by car, bus or truck. The cocaine market is the second-largest drug market in France, with it being a destination country for cocaine from South and Central America [1].

Violent crime in France

Although most crimes are against property, violent crime is increasing, particularly in the Ile-de-France. Mugging is on the increase throughout France, although it's still relatively rare in most cities. In some towns in southern France pensioners have been the target of muggers and even truffle hunters have been robbed of their harvest at gunpoint. Since 2001, a security system called *vigi-pirate* has been in operation near schools and at the entrances to public and official buildings. Sexual harassment (or worse) is common in France, where women should take particular care late at night and never hitchhike alone [3].

Worst area for crime is the Mediterranean coast (one of the most corrupt and crime-ridden regions in Europe), particularly around Marseille and Nice, where most crime is attributable to a vicious underworld of racketeers and drug dealers. Marseille is notorious as the centre of organised crime such as drug-trafficking, money-laundering, robbery and prostitution. There's a growing use of guns in urban crime, and gang killings are fairly frequent in Marseille and Corsica, where separatist groups such as the Front Libéral National Corse (FLNC), Cuncolta Naziunalist and the Mouvement pour l'Autodétermination (MPA) have become increasingly violent in recent years [3].

Thefts in France

Thefts are soaring (around half of crimes involve theft) and burglary has reached epidemic proportions in some areas (holiday or second homes are a popular target). Many people keep dogs as a protection or deterrent against burglars and fit triple-locked and steel-reinforced doors. However, crime in rural areas remains relatively low and it's still common for people in villages and small towns not to lock their homes or cars. Car theft and theft from cars is rife in Paris and other cities. Foreign-registered cars are a popular target, particularly expensive models, which are often stolen to order and spirited abroad. Car burning has become a popular 'sport' among urban youth gangs. An average of 200 cars are set alight in various cities (especially Mulhouse and Strasbourg) every weekend. Other 'games' include driving without lights at night and shooting at the first car to flash its headlights! [3].

Crime in France is combated by a range of French law enforcement agencies [1].

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SPECIFICS OF POLICE WORK IN THE MILITARY CONDITIONS OF UKRAINE

1 Legal Regime of Military Time

The peculiarities of the organization of the activity of the internal affairs bodies concerning the protection of public order in the conditions of the military situation are determined by the current legislation, first of all by the Law of Ukraine «on the legal regime of the military situation». In general, during the period of the military condition, three laws of Ukraine were adopted, which concerned the National Police in particular:

1. The Law of Ukraine «on amendments to the laws of Ukraine “on the National Police” and “on Disciplinary Regulations of the National

Police of Ukraine” in order to optimize the activity of the police, including during the operation of the military state» – There is a temporary, for the period of introduction of a military state in Ukraine, implementation of measures to ensure national security and defense, from the period of departure and containment of the armed aggression of the Russian Federation and/or other states against Ukraine and 60 days after that;

2. The Law of Ukraine «on amendments to the Law of Ukraine “on the Legal Status of Persons, Missing Persons” and other Legislative acts of Ukraine concerning the Improvement of Legal Regulation of Public Relations connected with acquiring the Status of Persons, Missing Persons under Special circumstances»;

3. The Law of Ukraine «on amendments to certain laws of Ukraine concerning the assignment of special police units during the military operation».

2 The First Consequences of the Military Situation

The activity of state authorities and local self-government bodies under the conditions of introduction of the military state is directed to the assistance of the government bodies created on the specified territory, in direct solution of tasks of defense of the state. Internal affairs bodies in the system of state bodies working in this situation take a special place, conditioned by the content of tasks in the considered conditions of activity. The effectiveness of their work depends to a great extent on the direct provision of internal security. Taking into account the operational situation, available information, political, economic, social conditions, geographical position, other circumstances special plans are developed, according to which personnel composition and material and technical support of internal affairs bodies is carried out. In case of introduction of the military state regime, the head of the internal affairs body should carry out the measures defined by the plan of preparation for action in this period, which provides a set of measures aimed at bringing the internal affairs body to the state of combat readiness and ensuring public security and protection of public order on the territory of operational responsibility. At the same time, the personnel of the internal affairs body are notified, the setting of tasks according to the plan and the current situation. Explanatory work can be combined with an application when it is necessary to take under the protection of certain important objects, to cover the ways of communication, to provide blocking of the location, to document illegal activity, to establish a person.

3 Legal Status of the National Police.

Thus, the work of the National Police of Ukraine has changed somewhat, namely their powers extended for the time of the military condition. In the context of the military situation, internal affairs bodies take measures of administrative termination, special appointment, their application is mainly a prerogative of the police, which distinguishes them from measures of general termination, which are used in the activity of many subjects of administrative and legal protection. The peculiarities of

the internal affairs bodies' activity in the conditions of a military situation have caused the necessity of organizational allocation of special subdivisions, groups or individual employees, who have advanced professional, physical or special training and are able to successfully carry out separate types of administrative activity. These are units of special purpose, groups of application of special chemical substances, snipers, specialists in video documentation, communication and other fire-retardant weapons and special means are allowed to use not all, but only those workers who have passed the appropriate professional training, recognized with the normative acts, have formed the barbed and have the right to use them according to their official status. Special measures are also called because all of them are directed directly to the person of the offender, able to cause him a certain physical harm and even to deprive life. Also, the national police will be able to receive free information from state bodies, local self-government bodies, legal entities, in particular on the military-supported, according to part 36 of Art. 23 General conditions "on the National Police". Also, changes were made in the course of the investigation. The new rules of the investigation are as follows:

1) service investigation is conducted in the form of written proceedings;

2) can be held by both a disciplinary Commission and one person, in particular an authorized leader (for the leaders and deputies of the leader of the NP – only a disciplinary Commission);

3) to be held within 15 days (the term can be extended for another 15 days);

4 Headed Police

Article 20 of the Law of Ukraine "on the National Police" has undergone changes concerning the carrying of a special badge (before making changes it was a badge).

According to the general rule, the police officer, who performs civil duties, is obliged to have a special token with him. However, the range of cases where the token is not mandatory has been expanded: when this prevents the carrying out of operative-search measures, secret investigative (search) actions, execution of secret tasks, carrying out of measures to ensure the security of participants of criminal proceedings, special measures to ensure the safety of the court and law enforcement bodies and their relatives, or during the exercise of powers during the action of the war state.

Accordingly, at the time of the military condition, the police officer who performs his duties in civilian clothes is not obliged to carry a special token. Also, during the military operation on the territory of Ukraine it is not necessary to place identification numbers or special token on individual means of protection of the police in case of fulfillment of their duties with the use of such means.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Having access to comprehensive language support, including written translation and language interpretation for law enforcement agencies, enhances communication, ensures compliance and increases staff efficiency while helping law enforcement build trust and cultivate a positive public image.

The work our police and law enforcement agencies do is extremely important, and it's imperative when utilizing language services in law enforcement that qualified and fully vetted interpreters undertake police assignments, regardless of whether it's face-to-face, telephonic, or via video remote. Professional interpreters working with law enforcement have experience in interpreting in this environment and are trained in specific terminology necessary to communicate in law enforcement settings. If a qualified interpreter is not used, and the interpreting is not conducted to a satisfactory standard, it could result in a communication breakdown, violation of rights, and even the breakdown of cases in a court of law.

When language barriers arise in law enforcement settings, you need a language services provider that can respond quickly and appropriately to serve the needs of your community. Telelanguage Interpretation and Translation Services provide the solutions you need to improve communication with non-English speakers at every touchpoint while maintaining and enhancing compliance with the law and government regulations. Certified interpreters are available 24/7, 365 days a year [1, p. 2].

This paper examines language rights in the light of international law instruments. The paper contends that although international law provides for a number of language rights only very few of them can be regarded as universal human rights. First, the paper describes the purpose of language rights protection. Second, it analyses the scope of language rights protection and distinguishes between individual and collective language rights. Third, three basic categories of individual rights addressing language questions are

analysed, i.e. procedural linguistic human rights, freedom of expression and nondiscrimination on the grounds of language. Next, language rights of persons belonging to minorities are examined. Finally, the paper concludes that under international law language rights which are universal human rights include linguistic aspects of the right to a fair trial and the right to liberty and security as well as the right of non-discrimination on the grounds of language use in private sphere. The language rights protected otherwise do not fall within the category of human rights and their protection is not universal [2, p. 1].

Conclusion: Law and linguistics are very important in our life and we must have to know all things about them.

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FEATURES OF THE CIVIL LAW SYSTEM IN THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Analysis of the civil law tradition of European countries is of great practical importance on the way to the European integration of our country. Such research is necessary for an effective process of harmonization of Ukrainian civil legislation with the civil legislation of the European Union states.

To begin with, it should be noted that the system of civil law is a systematized collection of its elements (norms, institutions, sub-branches), located in a certain sequence and hierarchy, determined by the internal logic of this branch. There are two main systems of civil law: institutional and pandect. The institutional system consists of the combined norms of civil law in three main institutions: persons (legal status of persons), object (things, rights to them), ways of acquiring things (obligations). The civil law of Ukraine is built according to the pandect system. Its essence lies in the fact that it provides for the separation of the general part of civil law and the separation of property law from obligation law [1].

Also, it is worth noting that Ukraine belongs to the Eastern European civil legal system. At the same time, like all other countries, Ukraine also feels the influence of the Anglo-American legal system. In particular, this is manifested in the recognition of the role of judicial practice, the growth of the legal significance of the guiding explanations of the Plenum of the

Supreme Court of Ukraine and the High Economic Court, and the diversification of sources of civil law regulation of social relations.

The civil law system of Hungary is built on the principle of the pandect system and includes introductory provisions, property law, obligation law, the right to intellectual property works and inheritance law [2]. The current Civil Code of Poland is built on the principle of the classical pandect system, in which general and special parts are distinguished (property law, obligation law, family law, inheritance law) [3]. However, the Polish civil law system belongs to the Central European civil law system. A notable role in the formation of this system of civil law was played by the indirect nature of the reception of Roman law. When considering the civil law of Poland, it is necessary to take into account its features, which consist in the coexistence and simultaneous influence of the Romanian and German systems of civil law, as well as the presence of provisions of Soviet legislation in this system. This system was formed in parallel with the Romanian and German systems of civil law, as a result of which it has a number of common features, both from the first and from the second. For example, a mortgage is considered a property right. The specific institution of usufruct (the right to use someone else's property with the right to withdraw income from it, but with the condition of preserving its integrity and economic belonging), as well as the concept of ownership as an independent civil law institution, etc., was transferred from French civil law to Polish law.

An important characteristic of the modern development of the law of Eastern European countries is a decisive rejection of the «dualism» of private law. Thus, simultaneously with the entry into force of the new Civil Code of the Czech Republic, its Commercial Code of 1991 ceased to operate [4]. Together with the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania and other countries abandoned commercial codes.

Thus, the European integration processes in Ukraine make it necessary to study the civil law systems of countries that have already passed this path of European integration. However, it is impossible to fully reproduce the experience of other countries, because each system of civil law has its own characteristics.

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ACTIVITY OF LAW ENFORCEMENT BODIES DURING MARTIAL LAW

Martial law is a special legal regime imposed in Ukraine or in certain localities in the event of armed aggression or danger to Ukraine's state independence, territorial integrity. It provides the relevant public authorities with the powers necessary to avert threats and ensure national security.

Today, martial law is a special mode of activity of public authorities and other state bodies in Ukraine in exceptional cases related only to external circumstances – the need to repel aggression against Ukraine or prevent the imminent threat of aggression.

Features of the organization of law-enforcement bodies activity concerning public protection order in martial law is determined by current legislation, primarily the Law of Ukraine «On the legal regime of martial law» [1].

Psychological training of personnel, special physical and professional training and hardening are important. With a high general readiness of personnel to act in martial law, even the sudden emergencies will not put the police in a difficult position.

Protecting public order under martial law, law enforcement agencies use such methods of social settlement as persuasion and coercion, in particular, administrative termination.

The mechanism of persuasion involves a set of different means, forms and methods of influencing the consciousness and behavior of people. Legal persuasion should be practiced by law enforcement officers who are well versed in the law, have authority and respect among the population.

Explanatory work can be combined with coercion, when it is necessary to protect some important objects, to ensure the blockade of the area, to document illegal activities, to establish identity.

Administrative termination measures are the most common group of administrative coercion and can be used to interrupt both criminal acts and administrative offenses. Giving the police the right to use administrative measures such as the use of weapons, measures of physical influence, special means, the Law of Ukraine «On National Police» provides that they are used to ensure public order, public safety and fight crime [2].

Police officers who perform duties related to the protection of public order in martial law must know the organization and tactics of law enforcement agencies in such conditions, tasks, functions, forms and methods of policing, decisions of local authorities on public protection procedure, current legislation, in particular that regulates the activities of law enforcement agencies in martial law. That is, the extreme complexity of

maintaining public order in martial law requires high professional training of law enforcement officers.

The actions of law enforcement agencies in martial law must be legally competent, perceived by citizens whose rights and freedoms are restricted as fair and lawful. Illegal actions by law enforcement officers can cause significant harm.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the internal affairs bodies carry out activities on behalf of the state, whose place and role during martial law is to realize national interests in combating military threats.

The effectiveness of methods of ensuring martial law largely depends on the flexibility and dynamism of the use of forces and means of internal affairs. At the same time, it is important to improve the forms and methods of interaction between the police and the public in ensuring the martial law regime.

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LA NOTION DE CRIME CONTRE L'HUMANITÉ

Un crime contre l'humanité est une incrimination créée en 1945 dans le statut du tribunal militaire de Nuremberg, établi par la Charte de Londres (art. 6, c).

Ce terme désigne une «violation délibérée et ignominieuse des droits fondamentaux d'un individu ou d'un groupe d'individus inspirée par des motifs politiques, philosophiques, raciaux ou religieux» [1]. La notion de crime contre l'humanité est une catégorie complexe de crimes punis au niveau international et national par un ensemble de textes qui regroupent plusieurs incriminations [2].

La Cour pénale internationale est le seul tribunal permanent [3] chargé de sanctionner les crimes contre l'humanité, en dehors des juridictions pénales nationales pour les États qui ont placé le crime contre l'humanité dans leur droit pénal. Le statut de la Cour est actuellement en vigueur dans 123 États parmi les 193 qui ont ratifié la Charte de l'ONU, tandis que 14 autres ne l'ont pas encore ratifié.

Il est à noter que l'expression « crimes contre l'humanité et la civilisation » a été utilisée une fois en 1915 dans une déclaration commune des gouvernements français et britanniques et pour condamner le génocide arménien. Selon les experts, le concept de crime contre l'humanité apparaît pour la première fois dans le droit positif en 1945 dans le statut du Tribunal

militaire de Nuremberg, établi par la Charte de Londres (art. 6, c). Ce terme a été soutenu par le juriste britannique de renom Hersch Lauterpacht.

Il faut souligner que la nouvelle incrimination était destinée à juger les responsables des atrocités exceptionnelles commises pendant la Seconde Guerre mondiale, notamment les crimes les plus graves qui englobent l'ensemble de la communauté internationale. Cette nouvelle incrimination sera également utilisée pour assigner des hauts dirigeants du régime showa devant le Tribunal militaire international pour l'Extrême-Orient.

Aux termes de l'article 6c du statut du Tribunal militaire international de Nuremberg, le crime contre l'humanité est défini comme « l'assassinat, l'extermination, la réduction en esclavage, la déportation, et tout autre acte inhumain inspirés par des motifs politiques, philosophiques, raciaux ou religieux et organisés en exécution d'un plan concerté à l'encontre d'un groupe de population civil » [3].

Dès lors ce crime appartient aux concepts fondamentaux du droit. On notera que la définition de cette qualification s'est faite au cours des années après la Seconde Guerre mondiale. Le crime contre l'humanité est mieux défini grâce à l'article 7 du Statut de Rome de la Cour pénale internationale [4].

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CYBERCRIME AND THE FIGHT AGAINST IT IN POLAND

Nowadays, the use of information technology has no limits. The virtual space takes over everything from the real one in a row, including crime in its new forms and manifestations. In the legal world, some have even personally encountered cybercrime. It includes various types of crimes committed using a computer and the Internet. The object of cybercrimes is personal data, bank accounts, passwords and other personal information.

In Poland, cybercrimes include copyright and related rights violations, fraud, illegal actions with transfer documents, payment cards and other means of accessing bank accounts, equipment for their production;

evasion of taxes, duties, i.e. mandatory payments, importation, production, sale and distribution of pornographic items, illegal collection for the purpose of use or apply of information constituting a commercial or banking secret.

In recent years, Poland has demonstrated a consistent state policy of combating cyber threats. Poland became aware of the danger of cyber threats after large-scale cyber attacks in 2012. At that time, the work of government websites was paralyzed, and the mass protests that began in the streets swept through the network through massive DOS attacks.

The consequences that followed revealed several gaps, such as the weakness of the state's telecommunications and information provision, as well as the low awareness of state officials and their reluctance to acknowledge the problem. Some of them publicly stated that government websites do not work because too many people visit them. For a long time, the authorities' efforts to combat cyber threats were insufficient. However, a series of large-scale attacks against the background of the absence of a single coordinated decision-making center became the impetus for action.

There were 4 factors that positively influenced the solution to this problem:

1) the adoption of amendments to the legislation that allow the introduction of a state of emergency in the country in the event of an attack in virtual space, introduced a legal innovation, so to speak;

2) the authorities agreed with the inexpediency of functioning of several institutions for combating cyber threats, which only duplicated each other;

3) in 2016, the National Cyber Security Center was created within the framework of the Ministry of Digitalization. Its key task was the prevention of threats, response to them and coordination of actions. The work of the center is a successful example of public-private partnership in the field of cyber protection;

4) Poland has developed a new cyber security strategy. It predicts that by 2020 the authorities will guarantee the safety of citizens, subjects of economic activity and state institutions in the field of cyber security.

Poland's system does not mean that it has coped with threats, but according to the National Cyber Security Center, the number of incidents is decreasing. However, the increase in the number of messages is an indicator of the growing awareness of users who are able to report it. Poland was one of the countries against which Russian hackers waged cyber wars. In particular, they stole information from state institutions.

Ukraine's path in this struggle can be compared to Poland's. We have repeatedly encountered Russian-inspired cyberattacks. The most famous of them were the attempts to interfere with the work of the CEC server in 2014, Oblenergo servers in 2016, as well as the websites of the State Treasury, the Ministry of Finance and other state institutions.

The legislative base of Poland is an important component, which is why this country has moved from words to actions. Therefore, countering

cybercrime and the level of cyber security are currently one of the priority directions in the country's policy. But for a comprehensive fight against this problem, joint efforts of the state, citizens and the international community are needed.

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CRIMINAL BRIBERY AND CORRUPTION LIABILITY UNDER GERMAN LAW

Bribery and corruption are regulated under the German Criminal Code (Strafgesetzbuch). On one hand corruption of public officials is unlawful in circumstances where an individual person offers, promises or grants a public official an advantage for the accomplishment of an act which is contrary to his or her duty (Section 334 of the Criminal Code – Strafgesetzbuch) or in accordance with his or her duty (Section 333 of the Criminal Code). These rules apply regardless of whether the act has occurred or have yet to occur. On the other hand the public official acts unlawful in these situations if they accept an advantage (Sections 331 and 332 of the Criminal Code).

Is commercial bribery and bribery of foreign agents illegal?

Corruption in the course of business and trade is also unlawful (Section 299 of the Criminal Code). It occurs if, during the course of a business transaction, an employee or agent intentionally demands, allows himself to be promised, or accepts a benefit for himself or another as consideration for giving an unfair preference in the competitive purchase of goods or commercial services. To be guilty of active commercial bribery, the defendant must have acted «for competitive purposes» to obtain «an unfair preference in the purchase of goods or commercial services». Passive commercial bribery requires the recipient to accept (or allow to be promised) a briber «as consideration 55 for according an unfair preference to another in the competitive purchase of goods or commercial services».

Further, active commercial bribery of foreign employees/agents requires the defendant to act «in order to obtain or retain an unfair

preference in a competitive purchase or an unfair advantage in international business transactions».

Prosecution and penalties: Bribery in commercial practice is prosecuted only upon a criminal request or if the prosecutor's office considers ex officio that criminal proceedings are required because of a special public interest.

As regards penalties, individuals convicted of committing a bribery offence in commercial practice shall be liable for a term of imprisonment between three months and five years (in less serious cases, imprisonment for not more than three years or a fine). That sanction applies for each count of bribery, however, the total term of imprisonment must not exceed 10 years. Individuals are also subject to confiscation of the gross profit or revenue obtained as a result of the bribery offence [1].

Is the law applied extraterritorially?

The prohibition in principle applies to both domestic and foreign corruption. Companies are guilty of an administrative offence if their management has failed to fulfill the supervisory measures required to prevent bribery by employees of the company (Section 130 of the Administrative Offences Act). For that reason one has to start off by asking in what circumstances persons who are working or acting for foreign companies may be prosecuted for foreign bribery, thereby rendering the companies criminally accountable (i.e. it is irrelevant whether the company involved is a domestic or a foreign one).

Finally, acts committed by German citizens or acts committed against either German or other EU member state public officials are unlawful, regardless of where the criminal offences have been committed.

Bribery in public office: German anti-bribery and corruption law prohibits giving to (offer, promise or grant), and taking (demand, allowance or acceptance) benefits by a public official for himself or another in connection with the discharge of an official duty (Section 331 StGB) or the past or future performance of an official act that violates his official duties (Section 332 StGB).

Electoral bribery: Buying and selling votes for an election or ballot by delegates is under scrutiny of German anti-bribery and corruption law (Section 108e StGB). Likewise, granting or accepting gifts or benefits for voting or not voting in a particular manner is equally prohibited (Section 108b StGB) (see above).

What are the potential penalties?

Individuals: The penalties for individuals range from fines to imprisonment whereas the sanctions apply to each count of bribery. The maximum aggregate sentence is, however, 10 years. The penalties according to the offense type are:

1. Bribery in public office – fine or imprisonment up to 3 years, in serious cases up to 10 years;
2. Bribery in commercial business transactions fine or imprisonment up to 5 years, in serious cases up to 5 years;
3. Electoral bribery fine or imprisonment up to 5 years. [2].

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FEATURES OF MORAL DAMAGES IN AUSTRALIA

The legal system of Australia has multiple forms. It includes a written constitution, unwritten constitutional conventions, statutes, regulations, and the judicially determined common law system. Its legal institutions and traditions are substantially derived from that of the English legal system. [3] Australia is a common-law jurisdiction, its court system having originated in the common law system of English law. The country's common law is enforced uniformly across the states (subject to augmentation by statutes) [4].

The Australian Constitution sets out a federal system of government. There exists a national legislature, with a power to pass laws of overriding force on a number of express topics. [5] The States are separate jurisdictions with their own system of courts and parliaments, and are vested with plenary power. Some Australian territories such as the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory have been granted a regional legislature by the Commonwealth.

Moral damages are a type of extraordinary damage that compensate an employee for mental distress or other intangible injury arising from the employer's breach of its duty of good faith and fair dealing in the manner of dismissal. Moral harm is compensated with cash, other property or by other ways. The size of monetary compensation for moral damage is defined by court decision, which depend on the nature of the offense, the depth of physical and mental suffering, deterioration of the victim skills or his (her) deprivation of feasibility for their use.

Also the size of compensation depends on the degree of guilt of the person which caused the moral damages, if guilt is the basis for reimbursement, as well as on other circumstances which are significant. In determining the amount of reimbursement, court take into account the requirements of reasonableness and fairness [1]. Moral harm is compensated regardless of the property damage, which is refundable, and is not associated with the size of this reimbursement. Moral harm is compensated only once, unless otherwise is stipulated by contract or law. Exemplary damages are allowed only in addition to moral damages such that no exemplary damages can be awarded.

The plaintiff bears the onus of proving that the defendant's conduct caused the losses claimed. At common law, the defendant bears the onus of proving:

- failure to mitigate on the plaintiff's behalf
- contributory negligence.

The onus is on the plaintiff throughout to quantify damages. This does not necessarily require proof of the loss in actual monetary terms. Medical expenses and care costs for the past are rarely disputed and those expected in the future are normally capable of reasonable estimation.

Once a loss is proved, the court is required to do its best to put a value on that loss even if the evidence is less than satisfactory. In the absence of evidence, a plaintiff cannot complain that inadequate damages have been awarded, where the court dealt with the assessment of income loss in the absence of evidence of likely earnings from planned pre- and post-accident careers.

It is standard practice to itemize amounts awarded to a plaintiff under various heads of damage and to give reasons for arriving at each of the stated figures. Care needs to be taken to avoid the possibility that the amounts assessed under the various heads of damage might be duplicated. [3] For instance, a court must balance, in assessing general damages, the effect on a plaintiff of any incapacity to undertake domestic responsibilities for his or her family against making allowance for the provision of voluntary or commercial careers.

The recognized heads of damage (not only moral, but at all) are:

1. **General damages:** this is the term applied to non-pecuniary damages or non-economic loss suffered as a result of pain, disability, loss of enjoyment and amenities of life, disfigurement or loss of expectation of life.

2. **Pecuniary loss:** this term covers out-of-pocket expenses involved in medical and other treatment expenses; aids and appliances, domestic and personal care.

3. **Income loss:** covering actual income loss to the date of trial and loss of income-earning capacity thereafter.

4. **Aggravated damages:** awarded to a plaintiff who suffers increased distress as a result of the manner in which a defendant behaves when committing the wrong or thereafter.

5. **Exemplary damages:** awarded to mark the court's disapproval of the conduct of the defendant and to deter its repetition by the defendant or others.

6. **Nominal or contemptuous damages:** this head of damage is of little relevance to claims in tort involving personal injury where actual damage is a necessary part of the cause of action. It commonly arises in cases of trespass to the person where the options available to the court range between nominal damages and a more substantial award depending on the circumstances. [1]

All in all, Australia is a multicultural society with migrants coming from many different cultural and religious backgrounds. Australians have

many common values and principles that unite them. They live by the same laws. All Australians have the right to express their culture and beliefs. At the same time everyone is expected to uphold the principles and shared values and freedoms that support Australia's way of life.

These shared values include

- freedom of speech
- freedom of association
- freedom of assembly
- freedom of religion
- freedom of movement
- respect for the freedom and dignity of the individual
- commitment to the rule of law
- parliamentary democracy
- equality of opportunity for all individuals, regardless of gender, country of origin, religion or ethnic
- background
- acceptance of cultural diversity
- a spirit of equality that embraces mutual respect, fair play and compassion for those in need [2].

Talking about moral damages we can conclude that in Australian law is a lot of paragraphs and documents that look at this problem and say how to deal with it. Many lawyers are making scientific researches. As you can see, damages are qualified into different groups, this part of law institution in Australia is very structured. There is also punishment for the moral damages, it can be compensated in different ways. So, I can say that people in Australia are protected really good in the sphere of moral damages.

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EXPERIENCE OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

Corresponding studies show that in foreign countries, society's increasing law enforcement requirements affect the organization of law enforcement activities. Global experience shows that not all types of enforcement functions can be performed by state bodies within the appropriate volume. In this respect, private security and detective services have expanded in different countries. The detailed analysis carried out demonstrates the diversity of the regulation of safety activities in foreign countries.

Specifically, in the United States, there is still no domestic law regulating the activities of non-state law enforcement agencies. At the same time, in 35 states, private investigators are allowed to operate. In 16 US states licensing to perform different types of non-state law enforcement activities requires the presence of US citizenship [1, p. 10].

Currently, 21 schools operate in the United States, which train staff for non-state law enforcement structures [2, p. 30–31].

These institutions regularly conduct special studies in the field of activity of nonstate security services. The result was the emergence in 1986 of a special program for the police to inform private security agencies about the state of crime in society. There were also monthly meetings of representatives of state and non-state law enforcement structures for the exchange of experiences and information [3, p. 81].

Today, over a million people are involved in law enforcement in the United States, which is twice the work of the American police.

Private security services, according to the activity profile, are divided into three types:

- 1) actual safety structures;
- 2) detective enterprises;
- 3) corporate In-House Security Services [4, p. 237].

Their duties include: 1) safeguarding the assets of the company and the safety of its employees; 2) prevention of fires and accidents; 3) prevention of offences and property damage; 4) investigation of crimes; 5) protection of public order;. 6) informing the police of the perpetration of crimes and arresting criminals.

In France, the activities of private detective agencies are regulated by the Act of 28 September 1942 No. 891 with amendments and later additions. Criteria that an applicant must meet are essentially similar to those found in other countries; in particular: the candidate cannot have a criminal records act, serious administrative and disciplinary penalties, should not be under supervision.

By virtue of the French law of 23 December 1980 No. 50-1058, any breach of the above mentioned provisions of the Law No. 891 foresees a term of imprisonment of 1 to 3 years and a fine of 6 to 40,000 francs. The competence of private detectives in France in modern stage includes:

- industrial espionage;
- protection of enterprises from unscrupulous competitors;
- ensuring security in banking activities;
- ensuring the safety of clients [5, p. 34].

In Britain, there is no law that would require private investigators to be registered. Only 2,000 detectives are identified as members of the Blackburn-based Professional Institute of Investigators. Today's national government sees the need to implement a comparable registration system with a particular investigative background check that is required. Since there is a growing need for private detective agencies' services. In this regard, a measure that calls for a mandatory license for this kind of activity has been submitted to Parliament. Its acceptance, though, is being retracted [4, p. 236–237].

A private investigator must adhere to all laws and regulations governing entities of a similar genus and be registered as an institution engaged in craft (business) in Germany.

Neither professional training nor relevant job experience are required of the founder. The presence of a minimum capital of 50,000 euros is a requirement for the foundation of a bureau.

There are currently more than 3,000 individuals employed by more than 400 private detective services and security firms in Belgium. The country's Ministry of Internal Affairs issues the license required to operate a private security company, which must be renewed in a similar manner and at the same price every five years.

In Belgium, a specific organization has been established to regulate the operations of private security firms and to take appropriate action when necessary.

In Finland, private security firms are subject to strong legal restrictions on their ability to operate (Law on private investigation and Law on private security guards). A private detective agency can only be established with the appropriate authorities' approval. A permit for this type of activity is issued by the governor when it occurs on the territory of a single province (region), and by the national government when it occurs concurrently in multiple provinces.

The People's Republic of China's experience with private security services is particularly interesting. There are now approximately a thousand private security firms operating in China as of the middle of the 1980s.

The first private security firms started to work in China's cities with the most active development of new business models and in special economic zones. Methods of operation and the sequence of these services' interactions with law enforcement agencies were worked out over a three-year period.

Nearly every other nation in the world has laws that govern how security agencies must operate. The well-established collaboration between the police and commercial security guards, including crime prevention, is also important to note.

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BULLING PREVENTION IN GREAT BRITAIN

The problem of bullying has become quite widespread and mass phenomenon today. Data presented at the Cyber Security Forum 2018 (CSF 2018) report that 46 % of teenagers aged 14–17 have witnessed aggressive online behavior, 44 % have received aggressive messages. Bullying at school has negative consequences in the future. Also, Bullying leaves psychological traumas for life. Bullying is expressed in the inability to build full-fledged relationships with other people and to raise one's own children.

Dan Olweus' Norwegian nationwide program is the most effective anti-bullying program.

It's recognized by the monitoring results. The results demonstrated effectiveness - it reduces the number of incidents related to bullying by 30-50%. indicators decreased in antisocial behavior, including drunkenness, theft, vandalism, the general climate in schools improved. Psychologist Dan Olweus insists on the importance of working with the whole set of social roles: the "bullying circle" is not only the victim and the aggressor, but also supporters and passive observers. This program is based on the principles of creating a warm and positive school environment and focuses not on punishment, but on encouraging peaceful coexistence with firm frameworks and limits on unacceptable behavior. The implementation involves three levels: school-wide, group and individual. According to the

decision of the Norwegian government, the D. Olveus program was included in the implementation in all schools as mandatory.

Delvin Tatum's program is implemented in Great Britain. It is similar to D. Olveus's development

The program includes three stages: crisis management, intervention and prevention. In British schools, a Personal and Social Education lesson is held every week. Teamwork helps reduce the risk of bullying. In addition to special lessons, schools have anti-bullying programs. They control order outside the school as well. For example, schools have developed special maps (most often online maps). Children mark the places where bullies molested them. As this map is updated, teachers patrol new dangerous locations. Schools organize mutual aid groups. Older students tell younger students how to deal with bullying.

The Law (Education and Inspections Act) regulating rules and measures to prevent bullying among students. Teachers, school children and their parents must be aware of this document. In addition, according to the Equality Act, school employees are obliged to prevent bullying.

Each school imposes sanctions on aggressors. Some elementary schools is organized «school court».

The commission consists of representatives of school children and teaching staff. They analyze complaints about bullying and determine the «measure of punishment».

In Great Britain, Facebook's representative office joined the fight against cyberbullying. The representative office organizes the work of «responsible for the Internet» at each secondary school in 2014, in cooperation with Yale University, Facebook launched a special online project «Center for the Prevention of Bullying».

In turn, the Prince William Foundation announced the launch of a project that teaches children aged 11–16 how to combat online bullying.

Bullying is a serious socio-pedagogical problem today. Meetings are held at the level of ministers of education, legislative measures are being developed in the direction of its prevention, etc.

Practice demonstrates effective prevention of bullying in schools. Practice requires a coordinated organization of intra-systemic and interdepartmental interaction. The basis of cooperation is a clear legislative and regulatory framework

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THE IMPORTANCE OF POLICE OFFICERS DURING THE WAR IN UKRAINE

Several months have passed since the National Police turned into a multi-purpose structure. After all, with the beginning of a full-scale war, its employees are engaged in many cases - from the maintenance of public order, which is customary for them, to the evacuation of the civilian population from the combat zone, the detection of saboteurs, and the investigation of Russian war crimes.

In the territories where active fighting is taking place, the following officers go to the scene: an investigator, a forensic expert who must document, package evidence. A forensic medical expert or a doctor and explosives experts who must first examine the place.

The police have now institute more than 3,200 criminal proceedings regarding more than 4,100 missing and wanted civilians. Recently, the police have found 675 our citizens alive.

Since the beginning of April, the National Police have operated a hotline to which citizens who have lost contact with their relatives and friends call. In total, there were 7,000 such appeals – about 3,000 people who were missing.

Since the start of the full-scale invasion, the police have documented more than 19,000 crimes, committed by the Russian army. Approximately 70 % of them are crimes related to violations of the laws and customs of war.

From the beginning of the full-scale war in Ukraine many police officers have been killed and have been seriously injured.

The entire personnel of the National Police of Ukraine stands around the clock to defend the state and the security of citizens. The police, together with military personnel, employees of other law enforcement agencies and territorial defense, are intensively protecting law and order in the regions, looking for saboteurs and counteracting looting.

In addition, law enforcement officers serve at checkpoints, conduct document checks and search vehicles, and help drivers on the roads.

Also, a special place in the war is occupied by the special purpose police «KORD». They serve in the hottest spots, detain saboteurs and neutralize armed criminal groups.

The police were given more powers during martial law, which they can now use freely and legally. These are such powers as:

- receiving information from state bodies and state-owned enterprises upon written request within clearly defined terms;
- the requirement that police officers were obliged to wear an identification number or a special token for their safety during the

performance of official duties with the use of personal protective equipment has been canceled;

- if it is necessary to repel an attack or to arrest a person who has committed an offense and/or is resisting a police officer, the police officer has the right to use both coercive measures and improvised means;

- within the scope of competence, the police conduct demining of an operational nature in terms of detection, neutralization and destruction of explosive objects;

- the police are allowed to collect biometric data of individuals, including fingerprinting.

Police officers are very helpful to the civilian population in the territories where active fighting is taking place. They deliver food, water and necessary medicine to civilians. Evacuation of the population from such areas is also very important. Every day, police officers risk their lives, serving at checkpoints or evacuating the wounded and civilians.

This is a great feat, because all the time before the war, the police were engaged in the investigation of offenses and service activities, which were aimed at preventive work with the population and assistance. Now, every policeman will slightly change his work direction and is ready to protect the civilian population from Russian aggression.

The policemen, who at the time of the attempted occupation and encirclement of Mariupol remained to the last in the city under the enemy's fire, deserve great attention and respect. At that time, they constantly helped the civilians of the city to survive. Risking their lives, they delivered water, food and medicine. They are the heroes of modern society.

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ORGANIZED CRIME IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

The main object of the article is to give the information about criminal activity in the United Kingdom.

The National Crime Agency has estimated that £90 bn of criminal money is being laundered through the UK every year, 4% of the country's GDP. London has become the global capital of money-laundering and the beating heart of European organized crime.

According to the National Crime Agency (NCA), there are over 350 000 individuals estimated to be involved in organized criminal activity in the UK, with just under 5 000 different organized crime groups thought to be operating in the country. Mafia-style groups are not particularly pervasive in the UK, but there are several organized crime groups in some of the country's major cities that display a number of the key characteristics of such groups, including control of local territory and high levels of access to weapons. Nevertheless, such groups – traditionally family-based syndicates – have declined substantially over the past decades, with loose criminal networks playing a far greater role in the country's organized crime landscape. A prime example of the type of criminal networks dominating the scene in the UK is the drug-trafficking networks involved in the county-lines phenomenon. Most illicit economies in the country are, in fact, controlled by such networks: in particular, the human trafficking and smuggling markets, as well as the drug markets.

Several forms of human trafficking are prevalent in the UK, victimizing foreign nationals from all across the world as well as British citizens. The two primary forms of trafficking perpetrated in the country are forced labour and trafficking for the purposes of sexual exploitation, which affect adults and children alike. Victims are forced to work in various economic sectors, both licit, such as agriculture, construction, textiles and domestic service, and illicit, notably within the drug trade. Indeed, the exploitation of youth in the so-called 'county lines' phenomenon – in which children and vulnerable adults are trafficked and exploited as drug couriers transporting crack cocaine and heroin from major cities to rural areas across the country – has continued to rise in recent years. Furthermore, the growth of online child sexual exploitation witnessed over the past decade is most likely to have been exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic. Overall, the human trafficking illicit economy in the UK is highly organized, involving a range of foreign criminal groups as well as domestic criminal actors.

The UK is an important destination country for human smuggling but, although the human smuggling illicit industry may

garner far greater attention in the media than does human trafficking, its criminal economy is not as widespread across the country. Moreover, it involves fewer sophisticated organized crime groups in the UK; the professionalization of the criminal market is largely limited to the activities taking place on the French side of the Channel. There do exist, however, domestic groups that either liaise with groups based in France and Belgium or directly organize the irregular crossings across the Channel. The number of individuals irregularly crossing the Channel in 2020 increased significantly from the previous year. While this may suggest an increased ability of smuggling networks to circumvent law enforcement efforts to clamp down on the crossings on both sides of the Channel, the increase is largely the manifestation of a displacement effect caused by the shutting down of formal channels through which individuals can seek asylum in the UK. The refugee resettlement scheme was paused in March 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic, not resuming until the end of the year, which pushed migrants towards the use of smuggling networks instead.

Drug trafficking remains a key component of the organized crime landscape in the UK, and drug use and drug-related deaths are at record levels. While drug-related harm affects all four nations of the UK, Scotland in particular is acutely affected by drug-related deaths, with one of the highest drug-related death rates in Europe. The UK has among the highest prevalence of cocaine users in Europe, and deaths related to cocaine use have increased significantly over the past decade. The majority of cocaine in the UK is supplied by the major global suppliers of Colombia, Venezuela and Ecuador. The principal method of transportation of cocaine to the UK is via maritime routes across the Atlantic, using Spain, Belgium or the Netherlands as the main transit hubs. The criminal groups involved in the cocaine market are highly organized and extremely professional, and foreign criminal groups have strengthened their foothold in the UK market in recent years, in particular Albanian organized crime groups. While violence is limited in the market for powder cocaine, which is considered a largely middle-class drug, the crack cocaine market is far more violent and involves significant levels of exploitation on behalf of the criminal actors behind the illicit trade. A common feature of county-lines trafficking, whereby organized crime groups traffic drugs from major cities to smaller, often rural areas, is the exploitation of young and vulnerable individuals.

On the whole, the UK has among the lowest levels of firearm offences in the region and gun regulations in the country are extremely tight. Arms trafficking is not a particularly lucrative market in and of itself in the UK and, as such, does not represent a major source of income for organized criminal groups. This notwithstanding, gun seizures have increased substantially over the past five years, with the most common source countries being other states in Europe, primarily in Central and Eastern Europe, often transiting through France, Belgium

or the Netherlands. There are several distribution channels for arms trafficked into UK, primarily across the Channel but also via Northern Ireland. Furthermore, there is considerable overlap between the presence of illicit firearms and drug supply within the UK. A key feature of the illicit arms market in the country is the prevalence of modified, converted or reactivated firearms.

The UK government is extremely vocal in its desire to tackle serious and organized crime, with significant focus placed on a number of different criminal markets, such as human trafficking, wildlife crime and the drug markets.

In conclusion, this article tells us about criminal activity in the UK and gives analysis on different spheres, where crime is spread.

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FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF COMBATING DRUG TRAFFICKING: THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

Using drugs is one of the most essential diseases of American society. The spread of drug abuse in the United States is just incredible – there are now consumed about three-quarters of the cocaine produced in the world, over two and a half million Americans «sit on the needle» or regularly use drugs in other ways, and we are not talking about relatively «easy», say about marijuana, which since the sixties has become almost an organic part of the subculture, and about drugs «heavy» – about two million cocaine addicts, does not less than percent of the total population; a huge army of consumers of heroin, crack and other means. In General, it is believed that one in ten Americans, including schoolchildren, is addicted to drugs.

Today, Mexico is the main supplier of drugs to the United States. As you know, the United States ranks first in the world in drug consumption, respectively, neighboring Mexico at one point became profitable to use this American weakness. Drug trafficking in the country began to flourish, and with it began to appear the first drug cartels. Between 2005 and 2010 alone, seizures of marijuana increased by 49 %, methamphetamine by 54 %, heroin by 297 %, and ecstasy by 839 % at the southern border of the United States [1].

In 1947 a special police was created, the main purpose of which was the fight against drugs, but in fact its leadership was involved in the implementation of drug trafficking, because the police could easily be bribed.

In the 1990s, there was a sharp rise in the cocaine trade in Mexico. One of the reasons, paradoxically, was the North American free trade agreement (NAFTA), which was concluded by Canada, the United States and Mexico in 1994. Many farmers, due to the appearance of cheap American goods on the Mexican market, could not realize the sale of their goods, followed by the ruin and poverty of the majority of the population. In 2006, Mexican President Felipe Calderon decided to put end the unrest in the country and declared war on the drug cartels. He tried to counter police corruption, which had grown to unthinkable levels and was due primarily to the minimum wage of Mexican police officers. Calderon also added tens of thousands of troops to help the local police of the Mexican States, and in most cases completely replaced the local police force.

All this time, the United States saw the problem mainly only in Mexico, on its population that consumes drugs, they focused much less attention. Therefore, the next program to support Mexico's domestic fight against drug cartels was the program of providing funds for the purchase of weapons and equipment, as well as military training, which was called the «Merida Initiative» or «Plan Mexico». In fact, it was supposed to help Mexico eradicate problems with lawless crime, as well as normalize the situation on the common border, both with regard to migration and drug trafficking. But unlike previous bilateral actions, Merida was based on the fact that the United States ranks first in the world in terms of drug consumption, so the initiative to combat drug trafficking according to the plan had to be General.

However, Merida did not produce the desired results, although in 2010 the Congress made a proposal to extend the project.

Almost in parallel with the «Merida» in 2006, the government began to carry out «Project Coronado», which lasted almost 4 years and ended with the famous operation to destroy the Mexican drug cartel La Familia. The essence of it was about the same as that of the above operation. During the program, 1,200 people were caught who were involved in the drug business in one way or another.

In 2017 the newly elected 45th President of the United States Donald Trump signed a decree on the protection of the state border, according to which it is planned to continue the construction of a wall on the border with Mexico [3].

In addition, on the southern border of the United States, the number of armed clashes between Mexicans and US. customs services increased, which led to a high concentration of border guards and special agents not only at the crossing points, but also along the entire length of the border.

However, despite all the actions taken, the drug war in Mexico is going on to this day, and unilateral actions, even with the support of the United States, are not enough for Mexico. Therefore, it seems rational to take measures in the United States, because the level of drug use by Americans remains very high, the demand does not decrease and Americans continue to sell firearms to Mexicans. Of course, as a solution, many

propose the abolition of criminal liability for the use and possession of drugs, in particular marijuana - one of the most used drugs in the United States. But such a development is unlikely to help, since the loss of marijuana in the drug cartel markets will certainly affect the cartel's finances, but only slightly: savvy dealers will find another way to profit. In addition, it is necessary to take into account the difference in the laws of the us States. In some of them, taxes on certain goods of limited consumption may vary, so they are also sold on the so-called gray market. A similar situation can happen with drugs.

One solution is to decriminalize drug users and provide them with mandatory medical services. A controversial view, but in a report outlining these ideas, the drug policy Commission referred to the successful implementation of decriminalization programs in Portugal and Australia.

Increased border security, tighter migration policy, as well as mass arrests also did not affect the business of drug cartels, because dealers not only began to transit drugs by land, but also by air, water and underground. In addition, according to a report by the U.S. border patrol, one in four of the five drug detainees is a U.S. citizen. Dealers recruit ordinary American citizens, threaten them, offer huge money, etc. It remains to act against the main motivation of the drug business-money, to carry out actions aimed at financial restrictions, not to spend the profits, freeze accounts, etc. But here again, a big role is played by corruption, which can contribute to the transition of certain banks to the side of criminals: what you can find a lot of evidence.

Thus, it can be concluded that perhaps only Latin American countries, including Mexico, can stop this drug boom and the accompanying drug war. Once Mexico legalizes cocaine, it will descend on the United States, which will not be able to stop it. By moving drugs from the black market, the government will be able to destroy the source of huge revenues of drug cartels, which will greatly weaken their position. If this happens, the entire regime of world control over drugs and drug trafficking will collapse. Accordingly, the war on drugs will become meaningless. Of course, the developed countries, together with the United States, which are the main consumers, will have to choose ways to solve the resulting problem, which can be reduced to the same legalization and simultaneous development of the national Institute of health in the field of drugs, as well as decriminalization of consumers, i.e. in the future it may be more rational for America to pursue policies aimed at minimizing the harm from drugs, rather than trying to limit drug trafficking.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Recognizing the current existence of legal linguistics as an independent interdisciplinary area of science, we highlight the problems existing in this field of knowledge, particularly related to inconsistent and fragmentary nature of studies, from both linguistic and legal points of view, lack of integrated approach as well as absence of unified and sufficient definitions of the investigated phenomena. Presently one could consider legal linguistics as an independent interdisciplinary area of science. However, despite a rather significant volume of scientific works, sharing this subject, the terminology of this area of scientific research is quite unstable demonstrating inconsistency and lack of uniformity. It should be noted, that currently the scientific area in question does not have a unified definition of the phenomenon we are interested in, just as there is no expressly accepted term for its designation: «language of law», «legal language», «lawyers' language» – are among the terms that we encounter in academic literature. However, it is customary in legal science to distinguish between the terms «legal language» and «language of law» [1].

In the first of a series of five articles exploring the phenomenon of multilingual EU law, Dr Karen McAuliffe, PI on the European Research Council funded project 'Law and Language at the European Court of Justice', explains the importance of taking language into account when thinking about law

Law permeates almost every part of our lives. 'The law' governs what we can and can't do in a society, regulating our rights and duties at local, regional, national and international levels. Often, non-lawyers (and indeed some lawyers) view the law as a definitive set of rules, perhaps somewhat complicated to navigate without specialist advice, but clear and precise, nonetheless.

However, examining the process and production of law through the lens of language allows us to understand 'the law' in a very different way. Language and law are inextricably linked – the law is an inherently linguistic construct: it is largely created, interpreted and applied through language. Language is, therefore, an extremely important part of, and has a significant impact on the development of any legal order.

While this link between law and language exists across all legal orders, at every level, it is more visible and arguably more important where the law in question is multilingual. In today's globalised world, multilingual law permeates many aspects of our daily lives and is more important than ever before. The intense process of globalisation in the latter half of the 20th century has led to a rapid increase in the production of international treaties and agreements, the creation of international courts as well as a reliance on international arbitration.

Much of this globalised legal work is performed through translation and much of the underpinning law on which such work is based exists in a multi- or pluri-lingual sphere. Nowhere is this phenomenon of multilingual law more evident than in the context of the European Union, which produces law in 24 languages, with the aim of it being applied uniformly throughout (at the time of going to press) 28 member states.

The EU's multilingual law consists of treaties, as well as secondary legislation (regulations, directives, decisions etc.), all of which are considered equally authentic in each of the 24 EU official languages in which they are produced. The multilingual nature of that legislation is generally evident to those coming into contact with such documents on a regular basis.

However, there is another source of EU law, the multilingual nature of which is not always so obvious: decisions of the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU). When a member state or other legal party to an action before the CJEU engages with that court, it does so in its choice of one of the 24 EU official languages. Since all correspondence in relation to the relevant action, including notification of the 'authentic version' of the judgment, is carried out in that one language, the multilingual nature of the process behind the scenes is not always apparent. However, given the importance of CJEU case law as a source of EU law, its multilingual nature should not be ignored.

Based on the theoretical assumption that a linguistically 'hybrid' community, such as that of the CJEU, functions primarily through language interplays, negotiations and exchanges; and that the 'process' within any institution will necessarily affect its 'output', the LLECJ project investigates the cultural and linguistic compromises at play in the creation of the CJEU's multilingual case law. The project aims to shed greater light on the development of EU case law and consequently on EU law more generally, by taking account of the multilingual nature of that law.

By clarifying the ways in which language plays a key role in determining judicial outcomes, we can challenge EU scholarship to look beyond more conventional approaches to the development of a rule of law which draw on law alone, and develop a fuller and more nuanced understanding of the phenomenon of multilingual EU law [2].

Studying the use of the language of law in foreign countries is important for gaining experience that can be used for the development of one's own legal state in Ukraine.

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COUNTERING ILLEGAL AND PSYCHOTROPIC DRUGS FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

Traditional international law recognized the special danger for the world community and society of certain criminal offenses and the need to apply joint measures for their prevention and neutralization. Illegal distribution of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors, along with certain other offenses, was qualified as a crime of an international nature, and states undertook to either punish or extradite persons who committed these crimes, regardless of whether they were on the territory which country the crime was committed, against whom it was directed and which country the criminal was a citizen of narcotics from ancient times were known in almost all world civilizations: in Ancient Egypt, Babylon, Ancient Greece, Ancient Rome, Aztecs, Incas, Ancient India, China, and even among the peoples of the Far North.

In the middle of the 19th century, the spread of narcotics and the spread of drug addiction began to develop into a serious social problem, which led to the adoption of restrictive measures in a number of countries. In particular, a series of laws directed against opium smoking, breeding and smuggling of opium were adopted in China and India [1]. In 1845, France adopted a law on poisonous substances, in particular narcotics [2].

Drug addiction, after all, is an ancient problem of mankind and one of the most serious social diseases of society, a rather complex problem of our time.

It should be noted that in the foreign scientific literature devoted to this problem, many different theories are presented that «reveal» the causes of drug addiction due to excessive urbanization and migration of the population, the «harmful» influence of scientific and technological progress, as well as due to the «existential» emptiness of individuals. One group of these theories tries to mask the social roots of drug addiction, the other, paying attention to the social nature of the emergence of drug addiction, does not reveal its real causes due to the class limitations of its worldview. Drug addiction, of course, is considered a negative social phenomenon that includes harmful consequences for people's health and behavior.

At the end of the 19th – the beginning of the 20th century. non-medical use, consumption and distribution of narcotic drugs became a serious social problem for a number of new countries [3], which objectively prompted the governments of these countries to take appropriate restrictive measures. Separate anti-opium ordinances have appeared in some US states [4].

However, for the effective fight against this social evil, already at that time, not only national, but also coordinated measures of the states on the international level were needed. The growing understanding of the dangers of drug abuse, the urgent need for coordinated actions against the illegal trade in narcotics and their illegal distribution, as well as the demands of the democratic public, concerned about the spread of drug addiction in Europe and the United States, forced the ruling classes of capitalist countries to take international measures to combat the spread narcotics, primarily opium from Asia and the Far East.

The problem of the effectiveness of combating the illegal circulation of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors is extremely important for every state. Under modern conditions, the deepening of integration processes poses the need for Ukraine to develop effective and optimal directions for improving legislation on these issues using foreign experience. The study of the legislation of other states in the field of control over the circulation of the specified means, substances and precursors, as a method of learning the peculiarities of the regulation of social relations in this area, has an important scientific-practical and theoretical-cognitive value, because thanks to the obtained results, additional opportunities for choosing optimal ways of its improvement.

Carrying out a comparative legal analysis of the legislation of foreign states in this area, according to the criterion of the severity of legal measures, scientists conventionally divided them into 3 [5, p. 16] or 4 groups [6, p. 269]. In foreign countries, state control over the circulation of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors, depending on the direction of state policy in this area, should be divided (conditionally) into 3 groups. The first group - with a particularly strict state policy in the sphere of control over the circulation of the specified drugs, where even their possession in small quantities is punishable up to the death penalty (Malaysia, Iran, Pakistan, China, etc.). The second group - with a strict state policy in this area, where total control over their legal circulation is exercised, but extreme punishment measures are not applied (Germany, USA, Great Britain, France, etc.). The third group is characterized by a liberal regime regarding their circulation, where the liberalization of circulation of so-called «soft» narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors is practiced, although state control over their circulation remains and is quite effective (Spain, the Kingdom of the Netherlands) [5, p. 16; 7, p. 221].

In most foreign countries with established democratic forms of government, there is an effective system of state control bodies – both parliamentary and governmental – to ensure counteraction to the illegal circulation of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors. For

example, in Japan, in addition to the drug police, there is the Health Policy Bureau («The Health Policy Bureau»), which is subordinate to the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan and mainly monitors the drug situation. and promotion of preventive measures. The Pharmaceutical and Food Safety Bureau («The Pharmaceutical and Food Safety Bureau») also functions within the structure of the Ministry of Health of Japan, which includes the Compliance and Narcotics Division («Compliance and Narcotics Division»), which also has control functions. regarding testing and state certification, the quality of medicinal narcotic drugs and their advertising, and carries out control measures on the circulation of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances, hemp, opium, and stimulants. Employees of this Department have the powers of police officers in cases involving offenses related to such drugs, and conduct activities related to the international investigation of offenses related to the use of substances from hemp, opium, and stimulants [8].

Each state chooses its own way of combating the illegal circulation of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors, taking into account historical, socio-cultural, economic factors, as well as the requirements of ratified international legal acts. And according to the norms of international law, states are obliged to take measures to reduce the supply and demand for controlled substances. At the same time, they should ensure that these efforts are harmoniously combined with obligations to ensure the availability of sufficient quantities of controlled substances for medical purposes and that such measures are combined with the human rights obligations of States.

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ACTIVITIES OF PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS TO PREVENT AND COUNTER DISCRIMINATION IN UKRAINE

The activity of public organizations to prevent and counter discrimination in Ukraine is a key and driving force that can promote conscious enterprises and organizations. The very issue of organizing and countering discrimination in Ukraine is key for a quality organization that represents its country.

«On the Ukrainian territory of conscious organizations and enterprises, we see such a picture of the organization of prevention and countermeasures against discrimination. Namely, the State Tourism Development Agency (DART) emphasizes that employees should treat each other with respect and dignity and should not engage in discriminatory behavior, which is prohibited under the Human Rights Code. Prohibited grounds for discrimination are race, color, ethnic origin, place of birth, religion, marital status, marital status, disability, mental disability, sex, sexual orientation, age, political beliefs, or serving a criminal or administrative penalty, unrelated with the person's employment. In addition, the behavior of public service employees at the workplace should meet acceptable social standards and contribute to the formation of a positive work environment. The employee's behavior should not jeopardize the integrity of the civil service. All employees can expect and are responsible for their contribution to a safe workplace. Violence in the workplace is unacceptable. Violence is any use of physical force against a person that causes or may cause harm and includes the attempted or threatened use of force» [1].

«The State Employment Service of Ukraine (SESU) within the framework of its powers is clarifying the provisions of the Law of Ukraine "On Employment of the Population», for which a separate section has been created on the website of the SESU, 2 indicating the responsible employees. Among the listed topics on which specialists provide advice, there is no mention of the prohibition of discrimination in employment and the specialist responsible for this area, to whom one could turn for clarification. At the same time, Article 5 of the aforementioned law guarantees «protection against discrimination in the field of employment, unjustified refusal to hire and illegal dismissal»;

Determining a responsible employee, including the topic «discrimination» in the list of topics on which DSZU provides clarification and consultation, creating a separate hotline, at least for recording complaints about discrimination, would be a good example of working both to prevent and to counter discrimination. Such separate thematic subdivisions could also be introduced on the websites of the territorial subdivisions of the DSZU [2].

The issue of activities of non-governmental organizations to prevent and counter discrimination in Ukraine is the most relevant issue today. It is this question that allows any organization to consciously and wisely approach issues not only of discrimination against a man or woman, but also discrimination against your skills, capabilities, appearance and vision.

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**COMBATING GENDER-BASED DISCRIMINATION,
PREVENTING AND RESPONDING TO GENDER-BASED
VIOLENCE IN A ZONE OF MILITARY CONFLICT**

Wars and conflicts, such as violent clashes between two groups, shall be studied through a gendered lens. We understand gender in a hierarchical and relational way, imbricated in a normative binary relation: male/female, masculine/feminine. The United Nations (UN) Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery attributes gender to socially constructed variables for each sex in a particular society and culture, identifying differences in roles, responsibilities, opportunities, needs and constraints. When looking at conflicts and wars through a gendered lens, gender appears as a power relation: men are exposed to brutality and violence whereas women are seen as victims [1]. Sexualised violence against women and girls during wars has always been a part of human history. It occurs every day, all over the world. The predominantly male perpetrators include soldiers, paramilitaries and police officers, but also civilians.

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a latecomer to the concerns of international organizations. The UN focused particularly on this issue in the 1990s, in a desire to give priority to human rights and particularly to women and girls' rights. First, in 1993, the UN adopted the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, which is the first international framework that explicitly defines the forms of violence against women. However, the real progress is illustrated by the establishment of a legal and political framework. In 2000, the UN Security Council thus issued Resolution 1325, as part of the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda. This agenda stresses the importance of women's voices and participation in peacekeeping as well as their specific vulnerability in armed conflict.

The Ukrainian government has recently taken a reform which allows for the military to be prosecuted for domestic violence on a general basis rather than on the basis of the disciplinary statute as it was before. This is especially important in light of the findings of increased risk of domestic violence in families of veteran. During war, as in peacetime, women are exposed to different forms of violence, and to a different extent, as compared to men. In other words, there are gender-specific aspects of conflict-related violence, both in immediate conflict areas and in the places where affected populations might seek refuge.

One form of violence against women in conflict areas is sexual violence and rapes perpetrated by combatants. Scholars and policy analysts tend to portray this violence as a weapon of war, meaning that it is a way of humiliating and demoralizing the enemy as individuals and as communities. Differently put, the narrative that portrays sexual violence as, for instance, the consequence of unmet sexual needs among soldiers is increasingly less accepted. Sexual violence against women perpetrated by armed forces in conflict areas is tragically prevalent. While proper quantification of the phenomenon is hard, because many of those affected do not speak out because of shame or fear of stigmatisation and exclusion, or the renewed pain of remembering traumatic experiences; others died from the consequences of their rape, were murdered, or took their own life years later. The sexual conduct and touch occur without the other person's approval or consent, or their ability to grant consent.

Violence entails many consequences for women's lives. Physical consequences of violence include infertility, incontinence and psychosomatic disorders such as chronic abdominal pains. For many women and girls, consequences are also an unwanted pregnancy or infection with HIV. Psychological disorders such as extreme anxiety or depression are frequent. Research suggests that 50 to 60 per cent of those affected develop a post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) [2].

Sexualised violence disrupts family cohesion. For example, people affected by rape often find it difficult to permit emotional intimacy with people close to them. More than one half of the participants in a study on the long-term consequences of sexualised wartime violence carried out by Medica Mondiale and Medica Zenica reported that their experiences of rape have an absolute or partial influence on the relationships to their children. Some told of the great difficulties they experience in being an emotionally stable parent. Symptoms of trauma, if left unprocessed, can be transmitted within a family and on to the next generations, in the form of excessive irritability or separation anxiety, for example. In post-war societies, the crimes are suppressed and swept under the carpet. Many of those affected keep silent out of shame or fear of stigmatisation and ostracism.

What can society do to support those affected? In order for survivors to deal with the violence they experienced, it is essential for them to receive acknowledgement that they suffered an injustice, to have material and physical security, and to be accepted (back) into a community showing them

solidarity. Their trauma is not only theirs as individuals but also a trauma of their society. An awareness of this fact can make a decisive contribution to removing the taboos and stigma surrounding the issue of wartime rape. In order to overcome the culture of silence, we need statements of position from authorities and public figures, an active culture of remembrance, and the inclusion of the issue in schoolbooks and history books.

In a series of resolutions and accords, the international community has pledged to protect women from violence and strengthen their rights. However, the political will is still lacking to actually fulfil these promises and implement the agreements. Unless we manage to eradicate the misogynist structures underlying sexualised violence and create gender justice in their place, women and girls will not be able to live in dignity and free of violence.

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THE SPECIFICS OF THE NATIONAL POLICE OF FRANCE AND THE NATIONAL GENDARMERIE OF FRANCE

The National Police is one of two national police forces of France, the other being the National Gendarmerie. The National Police is the country's main civil law enforcement agency, with primary jurisdiction in cities and large towns. By contrast, the National Gendarmerie has primary jurisdiction in smaller towns, as well as in rural and border areas. The National Police comes under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior and has about 145,200 employees (as of 2015). Young French citizens can fulfill their mandatory service in the police force.

The National Police operates mostly in cities and large towns. In that context, it conducts security operations such as patrols, traffic control and identity checks. Under the orders and supervision of investigating magistrates of the judiciary, it conducts criminal inquiries and serves search warrants. It also maintains specific services ('judicial police') for these inquiries.

The role of the National Police is generally to ensure that the laws are observed and enforced. Efforts are also directed at the prevention of delinquency. In that context, the National Police conducts security operations (e.g. patrols, traffic control, identity checks); and under the

supervision of the judiciary, conducts criminal enquiries, serves search warrants, etc., as well as maintaining specific “judiciary police” services for criminal enquiries.

The French Gendarmerie is a military institution created to ensure public safety. It guarantees the protection of individuals and their properties, informs, warns and rescues. In addition to ensuring the maintenance of law and order and the enforcement of legislation, it may also contribute to the military defense of the nation.

Its missions include the policing of French countryside areas and small towns, usually with populations less than 20,000. Thus, although this comprises only 50 % of the population, it is responsible for about 90 % of the territory. This territorial Gendarmerie conducts crime investigations under the same laws and regulations as the members of the active Directorates of the National Police.

The police and gendarmerie are the internal security forces under the authority of the Minister of the Interior. They act according to the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure. Their tasks are to protect national institutions and national interests, uphold the rule of law, maintain law and order, protect people and property. The police and gendarmes serve the institutions of France and the community with fidelity, honor and dutifulness. The police are a civilian force, The Gendarmerie is a military force: each obeys its own rules and both are subject to a common code of ethics when carrying out their law enforcement duties. The rules for each individual Force are listed below.

Being a police officer comes with responsibilities and involves risks and undefined responsibilities that deserve everyone’s respect and consideration.

Police officers have the task of keeping the peace at the risk of their own lives and thus honoring the memory of those who died on duty. Police officers must be impartial.

During the service they refrain from expressing their religious, political or philosophical beliefs. Outside the service, they express themselves freely, within the bounds of confidentiality and loyalty to the French institutions. Within the same limitations, staff representatives have greater freedom of expression within their mandate.

Police officers are available at all times for the needs of the police service.

Gendarmes have military status. They obey military rules and uphold the values inherent in their status. The military profession requires discipline, availability, loyalty and impartiality under all circumstances. It requires a spirit of sacrifice – including ultimate sacrifice. The duties and undefined obligations involved deserve the respect of the citizens and the consideration of the nation.

Military honors are given to gendarmes who die on duty or because they are wearing their uniform. Your memory will be honored. Gendarmes

are only allowed to express opinions or convictions – especially philosophical, religious or political ones

Convictions – off duty and with the restraint required by the military profession, in accordance with the provisions of the Defense Act.

Within the framework of the internal dialogue set up within the military institution, they have at their disposal various representative and consultative bodies in which they can express themselves freely.

As soldiers of the law, gendarmes are subject to the duties and vague obligations arising from the general military status established in the Defense Law. They are also subject to the special duties associated with the conditions of being a gendarme.

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PECULIARITIES OF POLICE EQUIPMENT DURING MARTIAL LAW

Police officers are everyday heroes who sacrifice their lives on a daily basis. Every minute of every day, police men and women work to protect citizens. They catch criminals, break down their networks, and ensure justice is served against those people who don't respect the importance of law and order.

A career in law enforcement isn't easy, and police work is filled with rigorous physical and emotional demands. Preparation and training are a top priority for a police officer and the right police officer equipment is critical [1].

Saving your life while performing official duties is one of the most important tasks of a police officer, especially in the conditions of a full-scale invasion of the Russian Federation on the territory of Ukraine, and the right choice of equipment helps with this task, both for performing everyday official tasks and for direct combat contact.

The equipment of a police officer includes a uniform, equipment, weapons, special means, and the type of body armor vest worn will depend on their department's requirements and threats that they may encounter [2], but in my opinion, when there are increased risks during the performance of police duties, certain elements of equipment, namely means of personal protection and means of providing pre-medical assistance, have acquired a generally important character, because, for example, if earlier an investigative-operational group worked on crime scene without means of

personal protection, today, this is extremely important, since police officers work under enemy fire.

Focusing on the means of personal protection and the means of providing pre-medical care, I propose to analyze what elements they consist of:

Personal protective equipment consists of helmets, bulletproof vests, and other special equipment. Body armor is an item of personal protective equipment that provides protection against specific ballistic threats within its coverage area. In this standard, the term body armor refers to that which provides coverage primarily for the torso. Personal body armor covered by this standard is classified into five types (IIA, II, IIIA, III, IV) by level of ballistic performance. In addition, a special test class is defined to allow armor to be validated against threats that may not be covered by the five standard classes [3].

Provision of pre-medical assistance is carried out through means for temporary stopping of bleeding and medicines that reduce pain sensations in case of injury.

To summarize the information I already mentioned, I want to say that one of the most important factors that affect the performance of any police officer is the quality of his uniform and equipment. That is why ensuring our law enforcement with the best equipment is one of the most important conditions for safe and quality policing.

The faster it will be true the higher level of trust the population will become. Also, that fact will give our police officers more confidence and motivation to perform their duties

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FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF FIGHTING ORGANIZED CRIME IN THE USA

Today our country is going through hard times. Many crimes have been committed. The police is involved in fighting for justice and providing legal assistance to citizens. Our country has no similar experience in fighting against crime during martial law. Therefore, it is necessary to use the foreign experience of colleagues and adapt it to our country.

Each country has developed its own system of crime control and crime prevention. Some countries have common or similar methods of fighting and preventing crimes.

Fighting crimes is an important function of the state, which means the activities of competent state bodies to respond to crime as a social phenomenon, eliminate and prevent negative consequences for society.

Today in European countries are implementing a comprehensive (integration) approach that combines preventive and repressive measures, denoted by the term «counteraction».

Analysis of international experience in combating crime shows that in modern conditions criminal manifestations pose a real threat to democratic development and national security of most countries of the world. Criminal elements, having close interregional and international ties, increasingly direct their efforts to establish control over the most profitable areas of economic relations.

The lack of a unified national concept of combating crime, inconsistency of national, regional, sectoral state targeted programs of social prevention in the relevant areas does not contribute to the prevention of crime in the country.

This situation does not comply with the proclaimed constitutional provisions on a social, democratic and legal state, as the current situation does not take into account the realities of our time, because the fight against crime has long become a global world problem, which has become not only national but also international, transnational in nature.

Researches in this area are due to the fact that over the past decade, there has been a tendency to increase the crime rate around the world, and, at the same time, a lack of social and legal control measures against the growing criminalization of social relations.

In general, violent crime in the world is growing by 9 % annually. According to official statistics, in the first half of the 1990s in a large part of European countries, as well as Japan, there was an increase in the main indicators of crime. The highest rates of the most dangerous crimes at the turn of the 1990s were recorded in the USA, Canada and Australia. In 1988, 28.8 % of US citizens and 28.1 % of Canadian citizens were victims of at least one crime. In Europe the highest rate of this category was registered in the Netherlands – 26.8 %, Spain – 21.9 %, Germany – 21.9 %. The beginning of the 1990s did not bring positive changes in the dynamics and trends of crime in almost all countries of the world. The activities of organized criminal groups became more sophisticated and the proportion of violent crimes increased. In most Western European countries, there was a sharp increase in crime in the period from 1987 to 1994, with an average annual increase of 4.4 %.

Generalization of the experience of cooperation criminologists and employees of the above law enforcement agencies, allows to determine its most effective forms, namely: planning of joint programs to combat the most dangerous types of crimes; mutual consultations on the development of crime prevention strategies; development of current crime prevention strategy; development of current and long-term crime prevention programs crime prevention; exchange of experience in the organization of prevention.

The analysis shows that the most achievable forms of exchange of such experience are: exchange of information on ways of committing, concealing and detection of crimes; special literature; delegations of

practitioners and workers and scientists; results of scientific research, etc. The exchange of experience is facilitated by: joint preparation of collections of scientific works, scientific and educational literature; joint preparation of information, proposals, drafts of legislative acts; expansion of international specialization and cooperation in the development of measures aimed at eliminating the causes and conditions that contribute to crimes; joint conduct of scientific research and their implementation in practice; coordination of current and future plans to combat crime.

Due to the fact that the fight against crime in developed countries is given great importance, there is a need to implement their positive experience in Ukraine. Thus, the United States is characterized by positive developments in the fight against crime in national planning, and for Japan – at the local level. In particular, in 1970 the US Congress adopted The Organized Crime Control Act, which provides for a number of legislative and preventive measures to prevent crimes that are subject to federal jurisdiction. The United States is also expanding the involvement of citizens in preventive work, where there is an institution of voluntary assistants of the police.

The methods of crime control and prevention may be different, but the goal is always the same – offenders must be held accountable for their actions.

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ENSURING NATIONAL SECURITY IN FRANCE

Ensuring the national security of each state is one of the main problems of our time. In foreign countries, great value is attached to the selection of personnel for ensuring national security and defense [1].

I will focus on a country like France and a division like Groupe d'intervention de la Gendarmerie nationale. This is an elite anti-terrorist unit of the French national gendarmerie. The unit's tasks include neutralizing armed criminals, especially those related to the release of hostages, counterterrorism activities, resolving situations related to hijacking and riots in prisons [2].

Its motto is «commit for life». This is an elite unit of the French national gendarmerie, which specializes in crisis management and

dangerous missions that require special knowledge, in particular in the following three areas:

- intervention: fight terrorism, release hostages, release madmen and risky arrests in the fight against organized crime;
- surveillance-research: monitoring, collecting information and evidence about dangerous individuals in the fight against terrorism and organized crime;
- security-protection: protect people (such as certain ambassadors) and/or sites that are particularly threatened.

The division also conducts numerous training courses in these areas in France and abroad.

GIGN consists of a central formation established in the Satori District of Versailles and fourteen local branches called GIGN branches (AGIGN), which are located on the French mainland and abroad.

The division reports directly to the director general of the National Gendarmerie, who deals directly with state bodies in the event of a major crisis. In its most common missions, it is involved in supporting the departmental gendarmerie on national territory, but it also intervenes abroad in coordination with the French armed forces and, in particular, the Special Operations Command (COS).

The selection of applicants is carried out strictly and carefully. Twice a year – in spring and autumn – ads are posted in all mobile gendarmerie barracks, which contain information about the organization of selection for the group. Applicants can be men and women with officer ranks. There are certain requirements for joining Special Forces:

- the age must not be older than 30;
- having French citizenship;
- to work in the gendarmerie;
- have at least 5 years of continuous service experience in the National Gendarmerie.

A lot of attention is paid to psychological stability, because a special agent must control his emotions and actions even in the most difficult situations. In addition to absolute physical readiness, the candidate must be strong in spirit and have a developed intelligence and survival instinct.

As a result of the analysis of foreign experience, namely in France, in countering terrorist activities and conducting anti-terrorist operations, the priority areas are [3]:

- creation of a single, independent specialized structural division
- introduction of anti-terrorist training,
- establishing a constant exchange of experience with the relevant bodies of foreign states and international organizations engaged in the fight against terrorism.

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CYBERCRIME POLICY IN SPAIN

Cybercrime is criminal activity that either targets or uses a computer, a computer network or a networked device. Most cybercrime is committed by cybercriminals or hackers who want to make money. However, occasionally cybercrime aims to damage computers or networks for reasons other than profit. These could be political or personal [1].

Nowadays, the use of information technology has no limits. The virtual space takes over everything from the real one in a row, including crime in its new forms and manifestations. Cybercrime includes various types of crimes committed using a computer and the Internet. The object of cybercrimes is personal data, bank accounts, passwords and other personal information.

The guiding principle of the National Cybersecurity Strategy in Spain is ensuring the appropriate coordination and cooperation among all the public authorities and also involving the private sector and citizens when necessary. The investment in prevention is growing in order to reduce the possibility of the citizens to become a victim of any kind of crime [2].

Today cyberattacks harm not only individuals and legal entities, but also states. Every year, hundreds of events of various levels are held around the world to discuss current cyber security issues. Cybercrimes can include all crimes against computer systems and data (for example, intentional access to a computer system or its part; intentional damage, destruction, deterioration, changing or hiding computer information). Also, cybercrimes can include intentional actions related to the violation of copyright and related rights, the implementation of intentional illegal actions related to the production, offering or providing access, distribution of child pornography, intentional actions that lead to the loss of property of another person through any input, changes, destruction or concealment of computer data.

The Spanish authorities listed the following main trends with regard to current cybercrime:

- sexual exploitation of children on the Internet;
- online fraud (Payment fraud);
- cyber-attacks;
- online criminal markets;

- the convergence of cybercrime and cyberterrorism;
- cross-cutting crime factors, mainly social engineering techniques and cryptocurrencies [2].

The prevention is a fundamental pillar. There are many initiatives and good practices in terms of awareness-raising campaigns within schools, training of practitioners and mass media campaigns:

- giving a coordinated and efficient answer to issues related to the security of both minors (schools and their environments) and the rest of groups of Spanish population (the elderly, tourists, vulnerable groups of people, etc.);
- fostering the awareness of the society about police resources for crime prevention and victims' protection;
- enhance the trust of society in the National Police and the development of proactive behaviour to reveal the situations and crimes of which they may be victims;
- collaborating with other public institutions with responsibilities in this area [2].

It is impossible to completely protect yourself from cyber-attacks. However, following at least the minimum-security rules for online behavior will significantly increase the chances that you will not be hacked. Security rules include not downloading software from untrusted sources; use antiviruses to work with computers; do not open files and letters from suspicious sources; do not click on suspicious links.

According to recent data, more than 13 thousand legal proceedings for cybercrime took place in Spain, most of them corresponding with fraud or crimes against sexual freedom. Despite this, about 60 percent of the Spanish population took measures to improve their safety when surfing online in recent years. Crimes against intellectual property also deserve special attention, not only because of the large losses they generate for the economy, but also because this is a type of crime that is mostly viewed favorably by the general public in Spain [3].

More than 70 % of the Spanish population use the internet every day. But these individuals, as well as businesses and groups of all sizes, are all putting themselves at risk of some form of cyberattack each time they go online. After the many high-profile cases of cyber-attacks all around the world in the last years, Spain and its people are more aware of the importance of cybersecurity than ever before. A big focus of Spain's National Cyber Security Strategy is to educate the general public on cybersecurity and raise awareness regarding cyber-attacks and what can be done to protect against them. The authorities understand that to see the stats on cybercrime in Spain dropping, the Spanish people need to know what they're dealing with and the best ways to protect themselves. Some studies even indicate that three in four of Spain's internet users have zero protection [4].

Of course, the implementation of security measures will only minimize the possibility of accidental unauthorized access to your devices and systems, but it is impossible to provide a complete guarantee of avoiding hacking. Thus, the most common type of crime is fraud on the Internet.

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COMBATING OF INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

Nowadays, the phenomenon of terrorism is quite common. Until recently, turning to terror as a means of solving political or religious problems was an exceptional, extraordinary phenomenon, nowadays, almost daily reports of terrorist acts are seen as inevitable. Terror has become an organic component of modern life and has acquired a global character.

Terrorism (from Latin *terror* – fear, intimidation) is a form of political extremism, the use of the most violent methods of violence, including the physical destruction of people to achieve certain goals. Terrorism is committed by individuals, groups that express the interests of particular political movements or represent the country. Where terrorism is elevated to the rank of public policy. Terrorism is an anti-human way of solving political problems in the face of confrontation, clashing interests of different forces, manifestations of inequality in interstate, interreligious relations. It can also be used as a means of satisfying ambitions by individual politicians, as well as as an instrument of their goals by the mafia structures, the criminal world. Terrorism can be defined as a policy of intimidation, suppression of the enemy by force. There are three main types of terrorism: political, religious and criminal. There is little legal comment on the classification of acts of terrorism [1].

These include:

- Attack on government or industrial sites that cause material damage and is an effective means of intimidation and demonstration of force;
- seizure of state institutions or embassies (accompanied by hostage-taking, which causes serious public outcry);
- seizure of aircraft or other vehicles (political motivation);
- the release of fellow party members from prison; criminal motivation – demand for redemption);

- violent actions against the victim’s identity (for intimidation or for propaganda purposes);
- kidnapping (for the purpose of political blackmail to achieve certain political concessions or release of prisoners; a form of self-financing);
- political killings (this is one of the most radical means of conducting a terrorist struggle; killings, in the understanding of terrorists, should free the people from tyrants);
- explosions or massacres (calculated on psychological effect, fear and uncertainty of people).

It should be noted that there are no terrorist organizations in Ukraine aimed at overthrowing the polity. The problem of terrorism in Ukraine is in a different plane, it can be noted «criminal terrorism» within the country and the activities of foreign terrorist organizations in the territory of Ukraine.

It is difficult to draw a clear line between criminal terrorism and ordinary banditry. It is believed that acts of terrorism are committed against law enforcement officers. And the number of such actions in our country in recent years has been increasing. The terrorist attacks in Istanbul, Madrid, the latest series of terrorist attacks in Russia (Moscow, Beslan, plane bombings), the ongoing terrorist attacks in Iraq, and the numerous terrorist threats against new attacks on various states spread through the media, especially the severe consequences of the terrorist attacks, manifested, first of all, in the death of a large number of innocent people, the boldness and cynicism of the perpetrators of the offenders give grounds to claim that despite the measures taken by the governments of the anti-terrorist coalition countries, the level of terrorists tion activity is high and tends to increase.

According to many experts, one of the main reasons for this horrific reality is the inconsistency of the level of counteraction by the anti-terrorist coalition countries with the real scale of the terrorist threat. The mass and geographical spread of terrorist acts, their occurrence in the vast majority of cases beyond the borders of one particular country, as well as the existence of a stable and carefully regulated network of connections between different terrorist groups, which operate even in different regions of the world, make it possible to characterize modern terrorism as a phenomenon, of international character.

On this basis, experts conclude that effective combating of international terrorism requires unification and coordination of actions of all countries within the framework of the interstate anti-terrorist coalition. At the same time, the coordinated activities of several states that are part of already existing international or regional political, economic, military alliances are considered as the first and most effective steps in practical implementation of this task.

The rise of acts of terrorism, the unpredictability of the consequences of these acts are of great concern to the world community, which is increasingly stepping up its efforts in the fight against terrorism. Since the twenty-seventh session, the UN General Assembly has been discussing annually on measures to prevent terrorism. In December 1972, a Special

Committee on International Terrorism was formed, comprising representatives of 34 states. In early 1995, the UN General Assembly unanimously adopted the Declaration on the Elimination of International Terrorism. In recent years, more than ten conventions and protocols on the fight against terrorism have been drawn up. But complexity, variety of forms of its manifestations complicate the solution of this problem.

In this regard, we consider it appropriate to consider certain aspects of the European Union's activities as the most influential intergovernmental grouping in Europe in involving Member States' special services in the fight against terrorism.

It should be noted that the cooperation of the intelligence services of some European countries, in particular in the field of combating international terrorism, has been taking place since the early 1980s. The main content of their cooperation is the bilateral exchange of information on these issues. In 1975, the so-called TREVI Group (Terrorism, Radicalism, Extremism and International Violence) was formed, bringing together EU Ministers of Justice and Home Affairs to strengthen the fight against international organized crime, terrorism and drug trafficking. Now this group has given way to cooperation in the field of Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) in the EU, the so-called K4 Committee, which consists of high-ranking officials and prepares decisions in the JHA area and is responsible for their implementation. The Berne Club was founded in 1965 and unites 18 countries today. It meets at the level of heads of special services every 6 months and makes decisions only unanimously. It includes heads of intelligence services of EU member states. Since its inception in 1977, the Kilowatt Group has brought together 15 members (9 members of the European Economic Community (now the EU) as well as Canada, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the US and Israel. The NATO Special Committee on the integrates the security services of Allied countries, and is responsible for counterintelligence and counter-terrorism, especially to ensure the security of military troops deployed abroad [1].

Existing cooperation structures include the Conference of Ministers of the Interior of the Western Mediterranean, which was set up in 1982 on the initiative of France, of which France, Spain, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco are members. The goal is to combat Islamic fundamentalism and organized crime. In the same row is the Middle European Conference (MEC), which brings together the heads of intelligence and security services in Eastern and Central Europe. The ILETTS (International Law Enforcement Communication Seminars) seminars are designed to bring together, on an informal basis, representatives of special services for legal interception of telecommunications [2].

Summarizing the above, it should be noted that used at the beginning of the XXI century. The measures taken by the European Union to intensify the fight against terrorism in order to enhance the coordination of the activities of the intelligence services of the member states of the organization are quite meaningful and thoughtful, and in the future diligent work of organizations will be able to eliminate the problems of terrorism.

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INTERACTION OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES AND THE PUBLIC IN THE FIELD OF PUBLIC ORDER IN UKRAINE

Interaction of bodies of internal affairs with public formations is carried out on the basis of general principles of public administration. These principles and forms of interaction of the bodies of internal affairs with public formations on the protection of law and order are enshrined in the regulations governing the activities of the bodies of internal affairs and public formations, as well as other acts. The following forms of interaction of the law enforcement agencies with public entities participating in the protection of law and order are the most widely used in law enforcement practice:

1. Exchange information on the state of public order and public safety. This information is needed to identify topical objectives for preventing and stopping offenses, planning work, improving its effectiveness, and evaluating end-points. The volume and receipt of information by the organs of the internal affairs are determined by the heads of the relevant bodies of internal affairs.

2. Bold planning and implementation of measures to ensure the protection of public order and public safety and the prevention and suppression of offenses.

3. Provision by the law enforcement agencies of assistance and support to public entities in the fulfillment of their tasks regarding law and order.

4. Training of employees of the internal affairs bodies of members of public formations on methods and forms of prevention of offenses; carrying out work on legal training with them; falling of methodical and other help in planning and accounting of their activity.

5. Direction by internal affairs bodies of offenses materials into public formations for consideration and implementation of appropriate measures of public influence on offenders.

6. Referral by the public formations of the materials on the offenses to the bodies of internal affairs, if during the consideration of the case on the offense of public formation will be convinced of the need to bring the offender to criminal or administrative liability.

7. Cooperation of citizens with the bodies of internal affairs regarding the protection of law and order on a contractual basis is carried out at the expense of the organs of internal affairs. Support for communication with the media is a prerequisite for fulfilling the tasks and functions entrusted to the bodies of internal affairs (the police). Contacts with journalists and other media representatives can help: assist them in obtaining and verifying information (conducting interviews, reviewing materials, engaging press representatives to participate in raids, patrols and other events). The Law of Ukraine «On Participation of Citizens in the Protection of Public Order and the State Border» provides for several forms of citizens' work on the maintenance of law and order, among which the main ones are:

- Patrolling, stationing along with ATS employees;
- Participation in ensuring public order protection during mass events coordinated with local self-government bodies;
- Participation in activities aimed at combating certain types of offenses [1].

Lawfulness in the work of the police of public safety ensures legal and social protection of citizens, the confidence that their rights and freedoms, honor and dignity are securely protected by the state. Public security police protect a person regardless of her nationality, place of residence, social, property and official status, age, sex, education and language, attitude to religion, political and other beliefs. Public security police officers are forbidden to resort to extreme measures in the humiliation of human dignity. They must restrain themselves and dignity from wrongdoing by offenders. In all cases, the limitation of the rights and freedoms of citizens, the police officer must explain the grounds for such a restriction, as well as the rights and obligations arising from the application of restrictions.

The state of law and order is also ensured by the principle of justice. In order to give a fair assessment of human behavior, it is necessary to know its moral state, the social direction of action, which is possible only on the basis of an analysis of all components of a particular person. Therefore, a fair assessment of human behavior contains not only objectivity, goodwill, but also awareness of all aspects of human behavior, the development of personality, its individual and psychological peculiarities.

So, we conclude that there is now a need for new ones normative legal acts of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine Department of National Police of Ukraine which should regulate the specifics of the interaction of law enforcement authorities with the population. It is necessary to prepare methodological recommendations on the subject and procedure of conducting classes with public assistants of police inspectors to develop a mechanism for involving law enforcement activities of persons who are not members of public organizations. We believe that such training can be conducted on a base of territorial departments of the National Police and on the basis of educational institutions of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine. Based on the foregoing, the following conclusions can

be made: the organization of police activities are based on its public support and aim at preventing crimes and offenses fully complied with the present conditions. Improving the interaction of the police and the population is a prerequisite for citizens' trust to law enforcement agencies. The analysis and use of foreign experience of the participation of the population in law enforcement activity is an effective tool for qualitative improvement police cooperation and the public is a real opportunity to improve the efficiency of the police.

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PECULIARITIES OF COMBATING CRIMINAL OFFENSES UNDER MARTIAL LAW

Due to the start of the war on February 24, 2022, martial law was introduced in Ukraine. In connection with it a decision was made to amend the Criminal Code of Ukraine, which increased criminal liability for a number of crimes under martial law. Thus, according to Clause 11 of Part 1 of Article 67 of the Criminal Code of Ukraine, the commission of a crime under martial law is an aggravating circumstance for punishment [1].

For a more convenient understanding, we note that this is the use of a more unfavorable time period for society, difficult circumstances and conditions by the guilty person, which may indicate an increased degree of social danger of crimes committed under martial law.

Undefined and unsettled issues in the spectrum of criminal proceedings are a problem of conducting criminal proceedings in martial law. Since the tasks of criminal proceedings remain unchanged, but the mechanisms for achieving the goals cease to work in the conditions of martial law. According to the Law of Ukraine «On the Legal Regime of Martial Law», courts, bodies and institutions of the justice system are authorized to work only within the limits of the powers defined by the Constitution and Laws of Ukraine.

The first means of crime prevention is the prevention of criminal offenses. It consists in neutralizing the criminogenic prerequisites of a possible offense, or activities aimed at eliminating and neutralizing the reasons for its possible commission, as well as the conditions that contribute to it. When prevention turns out to be insufficiently effective, there is a need to apply the second means of prevention – the prevention of a criminal

offense. Warning is a set of measures directly aimed at the consciousness of specific individuals or individual groups of them, who have criminal intentions and plan to commit a crime. At the level of individual crime prevention, a warning manifests itself as informing a potential criminal about the irrationality of his planned criminal offense. The main feature of this form of prevention is the presence of efforts applied to specific individuals who intend to commit a crime. From the point of view of criminal law, this means that prevention of a crime is the activity of prevention subjects at the stage of detecting the intent to commit it.

If a warning does not stop a potential offender and he starts preparing to commit a criminal offense, the third, last mean of crime prevention is applied - stopping the actually started creation of conditions for committing a criminal offense, i.e. stopping preparations for committing it. The suspension remains in the sphere of preventive activity, provided that the act committed in the process of preparation is not criminally punishable. If preparation for a crime is subject to criminal liability, the termination of such preparation should be considered not as a means of prevention, but as a legal response to its commission. Stopping a crime even at the stage of an attempt to commit it should be considered legal response, not prevention, because an attempt is recognized as a criminal act [2].

In the process of criminal law response to the commission of offenses, another relatively independent direction of counteracting crime is implemented - prevention of new crimes. As with the two previous levels of countermeasures, criminal-justice prevention is carried out in stages, starting with the prevention of criminal offenses, i.e. with the neutralization of the reasons for committing the offense and the conditions that contribute to it. If the specified measures are ineffective, a warning to commit a criminal offense is applied, mainly due to the subject's assurance of the irrationality of such an act. In the case of ineffectiveness and prevention, the authorized subject can terminate the criminal offense that has begun by the means provided to him by law [3].

Therefore, the criminal justice authorities first respond accordingly to the fact of the commission of a crime, and during the criminal proceedings they prevent new crimes according to the above algorithm, and this process continues constantly. The two-component complex of criminal justice counteraction to crime is a kind of permanent tool at the disposal of criminal justice bodies, which must be professionally applied and improved.

Therefore, the essence of combating crime is the implementation of social management activities, including the implementation of public and private initiatives and criminal justice efforts aimed at keeping crime within socially acceptable limits, the content of which is the prevention of such offenses and the legal response to them as interconnected continuous processes. In conclusion, it should be added that martial law is a legal regime that is indefinite in time and unpredictable in terms of circumstances. On the other hand, criminal proceedings always have specific or reasonable time points – the term of the preparatory court session, the term of the appointment

of the trial, the reasonable term of consideration of the criminal proceedings, the term of the preventive measure, the term of bringing to criminal responsibility, etc. No matter how radical it sounds, criminal proceedings must continue even during the war. And legislative changes aimed at ensuring the capacity of criminal proceedings in such conditions should be complemented by mechanisms to prevent the manipulation of martial law in order to prolong the judicial process.

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COMBAT AGAINST CYBERCRIME IN THE USA

The Internet as an invention is very useful for society, but with the advent of the Internet, new types of dangers have appeared, such as cybercrimes. Cybercrime is a general name for criminal activities that are used on the Internet, often with the intention of making money or obtaining personal information [1].

Every state cares about its citizens, and also provides information security with the help of organizations that identify cybercriminals and fight against them. One of these countries is the USA. In the USA there is a division of national significance.

The National Cyber Security Division (NCSA) is a division of the Cyber Security and Communications Directorate of the Directorate of National Security and Programs of the US Department of Homeland Security [2]. The main task of this unit is cooperation with other equally important state authorities and assessment of threats in the field of information security. The goals set for this unit are: to effectively respond to crimes in cyberspace, implementation of a risk management program to protect critical infrastructure.

The national politics of the United States in the field of information protection is formed by the Agency of National Security (NSA), and the most important strategic issues of information security are considered by the National Security Council issued by the directives of the President of the United States, whose: «Politics in the field of communication systems» (1977), «United States National Security Policy in the Safety Security Systems in Automated Information and Telecommunication

Systems in Automated Information Systems» (1984) and others. USA, as well as other countries, it actively developed precisely in this direction, that is, to ensure the information security of its citizens and the country itself. If we speak in general, then there were 4 stages of US development in the direction of cybersecurity.

The main tasks of the US National Security Agency are to ensure the functioning and implementation of state policy in the field of information space. The agency is responsible for the collection and analysis of foreign intelligence, as well as for the protection of US government information systems and computer networks. It is important to note that the agency is engaged in cryptological intelligence, and it is also part of the US Department of Defense.

The National Security Agency of the United States is an integral part of the country's security system along with the Central Intelligence Agency and other agencies, but unlike the Central Intelligence Agency, it does not engage in the use of agents in other countries. According to the federal law, the activity of an agent [3].

In addition to the US National Security Agency, its issues in the field of cybercrime prevention are also regulated by certain regulatory legal acts. Their general meaning is that they:

- determine the objects of legal protection in the information sphere;
- determine the procedure for realizing ownership of information objects, the rights and obligations of owners;
- determine the legal regime of functioning of information technologies;
- determine the categories of access of individual subjects to certain types of information;
- establish categories of secrecy;
- define the concept of «confidential information» and the limits of its legal application [4].

Therefore, organizations and agencies of the USA have achieved large-scale development in the fight against cybercrime and continue to further improve the system of information security.

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CONSTITUTIONAL PRINCIPLES OF COMPENSATION FOR DAMAGES IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

With the formation and development of a democratic society, which accordingly needs protection from the state, the issue of compensation for damage in the EU countries at the constitutional level becomes relevant.

Tort obligations are based on the norms of objective law, so the law establishes a list of conditions under which they arise. These conditions include [6]:

- damage caused to property or person ;
- unlawful act, which caused the damage;
- causal link between the unlawful act and the damage;
- guilt as a mental attitude of the perpetrator of harm to the violation committed by him and its consequences.

It is quite interesting to study the constitutional consolidation of the provisions on damages in the European Union.

According to the Basic Law (Constitution) of the Federal Republic of Germany, namely paragraph 3 of Article 14 «Alienation of property is allowed only for the common good. It may be carried out only by law or on the basis of a law regulating the nature and amount of compensation. Compensation shall be determined on the basis of fair consideration of the interests of the public and the persons concerned. Disputes over the amount of compensation shall be considered by courts of general jurisdiction». As it is seen in this normative legal act, the specification is only for compensation for damage to property [5].

The same situation is in the Constitution of France in Article 17 «Since property is an inviolable and sacred right, no one may be deprived of it except in the case of an indisputable public necessity established by law and subject to just and prior compensation». The Constitution ensures the inviolability of property and just prior compensation if the general necessity established by law requires property sacrifices [3].

German law, unlike French law, enshrines the system of the so-called mixed tort, which covers general and special torts. At the same time, it cannot be confidently asserted that there is a clear legislative definition of a general tort, but in some articles of the Civil Code (paras. 823, 826) provisions are formulated that the obligation to compensate for damage arises in case of infringement of any right and as a result of causing damage by any unlawful actions.

Article 30 of the Constitution of Lithuania «Compensation for material and non-pecuniary damage caused to a person shall be established by law», and accordingly, Article 23 does not forget that «seizure of property is possible only in accordance with the procedure established by

law for public needs and with fair compensation», this provision is similar to the provisions of France and Germany [2].

It is worth noting that the Austrian Constitution addresses the issue of compensation for damage only in relation to damage to health, Article 23 of the Constitution stipulates that the damage is compensated to the victim from law enforcement officials [1].

And finally, the Czech Republic, in paragraph 3 of Article 36 of the Constitution stipulates that «Everyone has the right to compensation for damages caused by an unlawful decision of a court, other state or public administration body or an incorrect official procedure» [4].

It is worth noting that the obligation to cause damage in all legal systems is considered as one of the institutions of civil law and is called non-contractual obligations or tort (unerlaubte Handlungen, delicts, torts). In this regard, it is worth noting that the constitutional consolidation of compensation for damage is somewhat indirect, since the specifics are given in the civil code of a particular country.

The law of all countries establishes the principle of full compensation for damage, which means that both positive damage and lost income are compensated. In some cases, the amount of compensation may exceed the amount of damage: when damage is caused to the person, life and health (Germany).

Thus, taking into account the above and the study of the constitutions of some European Union countries, it is worth noting that at the constitutional level in all countries compensation for damage is enshrined in its various manifestations, but the specificity of such a norm is enshrined in a special document or civil code of a particular country.

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LAW ENFORCEMENT AND THE REFUGEE PROTECTION UNDER INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW

It is often during armed conflicts that human rights are infringed upon the most. Therefore, over the years, experts have focused much attention on the formulation of instruments aimed at alleviating human suffering during war and conflict. Today, three areas of modern international law attempt to provide protection to victims of war: human rights law, refugee law and humanitarian law. While these fields are closely linked, they need to be distinguished systematically.

There is a conceptual parallel between international refugee law and international humanitarian law. Both originated in the need to address the protection of persons in the hands of a State of which they are not nationals. By contrast, international human rights law was developed to protect persons against abuses by their own State. International humanitarian law and human rights law have grown closer over the years. International humanitarian law has extended its reach into non-international armed conflicts, and human rights law has been recognized as applying to all individuals within the territory or jurisdiction of a State, even if only temporarily, including during times of armed conflict (though some restrictions can be applied to non-nationals and also during times of armed conflict or similar emergency). Similar developments are beginning to happen in relation to refugee law, but a radical rethinking is needed.

The most important legal challenge that the international community has to face actually can be resumed in the search of new laws to stop violence preserving the existing laws on protection provided by the International Law. Reaching a balance between the unavoidable obligation of the State of guaranteeing its security and the security of its citizens without damaging the protective legate in human rights is the fundamental landmark of the preceding XX century.

It is clear that in some situations international humanitarian law provides protections that are either stronger than or complementary to those of international refugee law. In contemporary international legal thinking (which often stands at odds with international political thinking), it is becoming increasingly clear that no international legal framework can or should be seen in isolation. Although the development in human rights law may not by itself be determinative of the interpretation of elements of the 1951 Refugee Convention, the law on human rights that has emerged as an essential part of the international legal order must be taken into account for purposes of interpretation. In the same way, it is useful to draw on the protections afforded to internees under international humanitarian law, and to extrapolate from these with regard to detention under international

refugee law. In addition, where circumstances of refugee flight are conducive to the direct application of international humanitarian law, it may bring considerable clarity to practices and principles which directly affect refugees and asylum-seekers. This is likely to be particularly so in situations of mass influx and expulsion. It is important to recall here, as with human rights law, that there is no reason why refugee law and international humanitarian law should not run in parallel. The fundamental point raised here is that although the linkage and relative strengths (and weaknesses) of human rights law in relation to both refugees and situations of armed conflict are being increasingly recognized and applied, the same is not yet the case with international humanitarian law and refugee law. Rather than beginning with the law and presuming which situations it does or does not apply to, the better approach is to examine the situation and then consider which law provides the best protection, or whether a combination (or application by analogy) is a better option. In the same way, if some persons fall outside the scope of the law - e.g. those deemed not to be eligible for refugee status for one reason or another - the question of what happens to them and whether they are protected by international humanitarian law, as well as human rights law, should not be forgotten. Such consideration should apply not only to the standards, but also to the body mandated to act in relation to those standards: in some circumstances, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) may be better placed than the UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR) to provide protection. Finally, both refugee law and international humanitarian law share the strengths and weaknesses of having a field-based protection and assistance agency. The experience of the ICRC could be used to improve UNHCR's practice in some respects, but both streams of law would benefit from enhanced treaty monitoring and implementation procedures. The question of developing these procedures in relation to refugee law is under discussion as part of the UNHCR Global Consultations on Refugee Protection.

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PROTECTION FROM DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THE USA

Domestic violence is one of the problematic issues affecting the modern world. Women are mostly the victims of such violence; according to statistics, every fourth woman in the world suffers from or has experienced such violence.

Women ages 18–24 are most likely to be victims of domestic violence, but children and men are also commonly victimized. The U.S. Centers for Disease Control (CDC) has reported that more than one in four women and one in ten men are affected by domestic violence. Also according to the CDC, 43 million women and approximately 38 million men have experienced psychological aggression by an intimate partner in their lifetime [4].

In 1994, Congress passed the Violence Against Women Act («VAWA»). This Act, and the 1996 additions to the Act, recognize that domestic violence is a national crime and that federal laws can help an overburdened state and local criminal justice system [2]. In 1994 and 1996, Congress also passed changes to the Gun Control Act making it a federal crime in certain situations for domestic abusers to possess guns. The majority of domestic violence cases will continue to be handled by your state and local authorities. In some cases, however, the federal laws and the benefits gained from applying these laws, may be the most appropriate course of action [3].

Domestic assault by an habitual offender.

In General any person who commits a domestic assault within the special maritime and territorial jurisdiction of the United States or Indian country and who has a final conviction on at least 2 separate prior occasions in Federal, State, or Indian tribal court proceedings for offenses that would be, if subject to Federal jurisdiction:

- any assault, sexual abuse, or serious violent felony against a spouse or intimate partner, or against a child of or in the care of the person committing the domestic assault; or
- an offense under chapter 110A, shall be fined under this title, imprisoned for a term of not more than 5 years, or both, except that if substantial bodily injury results from violation under this section, the offender shall be imprisoned for a term of not more than 10 years.

Domestic Assault Defined.

In this section, the term «domestic assault» means an assault committed by a current or former spouse, parent, child, or guardian of the victim, by a person with whom the victim shares a child in common, by a person who is cohabitating with or has cohabitated with the victim as a

spouse, parent, child, or guardian, or by a person similarly situated to a spouse, parent, child, or guardian of the victim [18 U.S. Code § 117].

According to the Domestic Violence Act No. 116 of 1998 it is: any form of abuse which includes physical, sexual, emotional, psychological or economic harassment damage to property. In the USA, these forms of violence are understood as follows: emotional violence is, for example: «You are fat», «you are too thin», «you are a worthless accountant», «why should I listen to your primitive philosophy»; economic violence: «I will close our joint account now», «you will report to me every cent spent», «I will not repair your car», «you eat too much»; psychological violence: «I will call the police and say that you beat me, you know my connections», «one more word – I will leave» «I will take the children with me and make it so that you will never see them»; intimate insult; physical violence: stretched clothes, broken glasses, pinches, cracks, slaps, cuts and shot limbs.

To prevent violence in the USA, a mandatory response strategy has been implemented. Medical institutions are obliged to contact about any facts of violence. In some states, citizen are required to report incidents to law enforcement mistreatment of children.

The police of the USA are a key 24 hour agency for women experiencing domestic violence, and the first port of call in emergency (by dialing 999). More than 400 NYPD domestic violence prevention officers, investigators and supervisors assist victims of domestic violence in precincts and Housing Bureau police service areas citywide. Domestic violence officers visit the homes of victims, make referrals to court, provide counseling services and shelter alternatives, facilitate obtaining orders of protection and help in personal safety planning.

Victims of domestic violence, stalking, and other sexually related crimes who have entered the United States on a temporary basis may be eligible for nonimmigrant status. In addition to enforcing the laws and working to ensure victims' safety, the NYPD Domestic Violence Unit performs domestic violence awareness outreach. Each local precinct and police service area has a domestic violence office.

The NYPD has prepared three separate brochures about domestic violence and the strategies that can help combat or prevent it. These brochures have been translated into Spanish, Haitian Creole, Chinese, and Arabic.

Therefore, the police of the USA maximally counteracts domestic violence, this is indicated by the American legislation itself. It is also possible to conclude that the legislation of the USA (in terms of combating domestic violence) is stricter than the legislation of Ukraine. The United States also participates with many countries to resolve this issue. In order for Ukraine to achieve such a result, to improve the protection and prevention of domestic violence, it needs to cooperate with the USA and jointly solve this issue in order to make the most positive and necessary decisions for Ukraine.

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THE FIGHT AGAINST INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM

Terrorism of that time should be considered as an organized type of crime. Today, the era of lone terrorists is over. Terrorist activities are becoming well-organized (planned, properly funded, etc.). It is virtually impossible to prepare and commit a terrorist act without purchasing weapons, explosives or other means. And the shadow market of such items is controlled by the same organized crime. Therefore, organized principles can be seen not only in terrorism, but also in a number of related crimes. The recognition of terrorism as a global problem is evidenced by the adoption of many normative acts at the international level. In our opinion, the basis of modern understanding of terrorism should be sought in these normative acts. The center of development of international legal documents on combating terrorism is the United Nations. Within its framework many international treaties of general character aimed at combating terrorism have been prepared and adopted, namely:

– Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, in particular Diplomatic Agents, of December 14, 1973;

– International Convention against the Taking of Hostages, of December 17, 1979;

– International Convention against the Recruitment, Use, Financing and Training of Mercenaries, of 4 December 1989;

– Convention on the Safety of United Nations and Associated Personnel, of 9 December 1994;

– International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings of 9 December 1994.

Terrorism is a socially dangerous activity that consists in the deliberate, purposeful use of violence through hostage-taking, arson, murder, torture, intimidation of the population and authorities or other attacks or threats against the life or health of innocent people.

International terrorism is the most serious criminal offense of international character, the object of which is the stability of international relations, territorial integrity, public security, life and health of people, their property, rights and legitimate interests.

According to the legislation of Ukraine, the following activities are recognized as terrorist:

– planning, organization, preparation and implementation of terrorist acts;

– incitement to commit terrorist acts, violence against individuals or organizations, destruction of material objects for terrorist purposes;

– organization of illegal armed groups, criminal groups or criminal organizations, organized criminal groups for committing terrorist acts, as well as participation in such acts;

– recruitment, arming, training and use of terrorists;

– propaganda and dissemination of terrorist ideology;

– financing of known terrorist groups (organizations) and other assistance to them.

The Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine carries out the fight against terrorism by preventing, detecting and suppressing crimes committed for terrorist purposes, the investigation of which falls within the competence of the internal affairs bodies; provides the Anti-Terrorist Centre at the Security Service of Ukraine with the necessary forces and means; ensures their effective use during anti-terrorist operations.

Thus, modern terrorism is a complex system consisting of a set of complementary processes - ideological, criminal, military, economic, political, religious and nationalistic. The following priority areas of activity of international organizations in the fight against terrorism can be identified:

1) prevention and suppression of terrorism financing;

2) countering the use of the Internet for terrorist purposes;

3) promoting cooperation on counter-terrorism issues, in particular, between state bodies and the private sector (business, industry, etc.), as well as the public and the media;

4) non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction;

5) protection of human rights in relation to counter-terrorism measures.

Based on the results of the study, it is possible to identify common obstacles that prevent international organizations from effectively interacting, conducting independent procedures within their territory, and pushing back the adoption of effective and urgent measures to combat international terrorism, namely:

- lack of a common definition of "international terrorism";
- bodies that duplicate each other;
- strategies based on the same principles;
- complicated decision-making procedure.

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**SPECIFICATIONS OF MILITARY POLICE WORK
IN THE CONDITIONS OF MILITARY CONFLICT**

Today, the topic of war is very relevant, as the situation in the country is not easy. The aggressor country is trying to get the desired territory by its own forces, but our military forces proudly and courageously defends our freedom. The Armed Forces of Ukraine include not only the armed forces, but also the military police, about which we want to tell in more detail:

1) Military police is a disciplinary force, composed of soldiers, which exercise police and related functions in armies. Generally, their principal duty is to maintain law and order, prevent and investigate crime within the army, and operate confinement facilities. They also engage in combat as infantry when required [5].

2) The military police have demonstrated their ability to move, communicate, and engage the enemy. By sustained outstanding performance of combat and combat support missions, they have met all established criteria. I fully endorse the military police for a basic role in Army planning as a combat support element [4].

Main Tasks of the Military Police are:

- search for firearms, ammunition for them or explosives stolen or lost in military units;

- ensuring law and order and military discipline in military units (units) of the Armed Forces, law enforcement agencies and other military formations sent to other countries;
- participation in garrison events;
- conducting official investigations within the scope of competence;
- ensuring the execution of criminal punishment against servicemen who have been sentenced to detention in a disciplinary battalion by a court verdict;
- pre-trial investigation of crimes and criminal misdemeanors related to military service committed by military personnel, as well as corruption crimes committed by employees and civil servants of the Ministry of Defense and the Armed Forces;
- carrying out investigative activities within the limits of the given powers;
- protection of the property of the Armed Forces against theft and other criminal encroachments [2].

Organizational and legal aspects of ensuring children's rights in martial law also play an important role.

The ongoing armed aggression of the Russian Federation against Ukraine with a special acutely put on the agenda the issue of protecting the rights of the child in the conditions of martial law. First of all, it is about protecting children from physical and psychological violence. At the same time, it should be noted that the occupiers knowingly violate the requirements of Articles 5 and 38 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, which ensure the child's inalienable right to life and respect, norms of international humanitarian law regarding children. Absolutely it is unbearable that every day as a result of armed confrontation with the number of Ukrainian children killed by the aggressor is increasing.

In the conditions of the military invasion, there was a need for implementation of a complex of organizational and management solutions aimed at solving the specified problem. Therefore, it is an absolutely logical and correct decision made by the Government of the country of the Coordinating Headquarters for the Protection of Rights of a child under martial law. The headquarters will coordinate the work of the central and local bodies of executive power, bodies of local self-government regarding evacuation, creating safe conditions and ensuring rights during wartime status: orphans, children deprived of parental care, who have not reached 18 years of age and live in or are enrolled in institutions of various types, including number of children with disabilities; children who do not have such a status, but live or are enrolled in institutions of various types, including children with disabilities; children, who are brought up in family forms of education; children who are placed in families foster guardians [1].

The police have expanded rights to use improvised means and coercive measures.

In peacetime, in the order and cases defined by law, police officers are allowed to use coercive measures such as physical influence (force),

special means (truncheons, handcuffs, tear gas and irritant agents, etc.), firearms. Police officers are prohibited from using coercive measures that are not provided for by law.

However, during martial law, if it is necessary to repel an attack or to arrest a person who has committed an offense and/or resists a police officer, a police officer has the right to use both coercive measures and improvised means.

Police officers are also given the right to apply coercive measures to persons participating in armed aggression against Ukraine without taking into account certain restrictions and prohibitions defined by law (in particular, it is allowed to use coercive measures without warning, to inflict blows with special means without restrictions on the location of their infliction, as well as use of firearms).

There are some specific powers of military police that are very relevant in the course of the 2022 war in Ukraine:

- ✓ Performing of official duties by police officer in civilian clothes;
- ✓ Convoying of persons and detention of persons in temporary detention centers;
- ✓ Demining and technical and forensic examination of the scene;
- ✓ Collecting of biometric data;
- ✓ Using of technical devices by police officers;
- ✓ Police cooperation with Interpol and Europol [3];

Summarizing everything, we can say that today's war against the northern enemy has exacerbated the issue, main tasks of Military Police and, in fact, expanded their powers.

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COOPERATION OF POLICE UNITS WITH THE SOCIETY IN COMBATING CRIMES

Changes in the modern Ukrainian society, its economic, political, spiritual spheres naturally influence the process of formation of new ones the relationship between the state, its institutions and the civic society. This applies to such a state institute as bodies law and order. The National Police of Ukraine is the central executive body power that serves the public by ensuring the protection of rights and freedoms human rights, combating crime, maintaining public safety and order.

The interaction of the population with the police is based on the conditions of partnerships. The activities of the police are carried out in close cooperation and cooperation with population, territorial communities and community associations on partnerships and aimed at meeting their needs. In order to determine the causes and conditions of the offense, planning of the service activities of police bodies and units is carried out from taking into account the specificity of the region and the problems of the territorial communities. The level of public trust in the police is the main criterion for assessment the effectiveness of the activities of police bodies and units.

Detention of criminals is one of the basic directions of police activity, but it is worth to note that many crimes may be cleared up on the hot trails, thanks to the interaction of law - enforcement bodies with population, therefore, the relationships of police with population should be based on the principles of trust and mutual understanding.

Nowadays there is insufficient interaction of law enforcement bodies with the population, therefore the creation of citizens' trust to the bodies of internal affairs is a priority task for police activity.

Of course, police should be the guarantee of citizens' personal safety, their rights and freedoms, legal interests, prevention of offences and crimes. Accordingly, in order to accomplish these tasks police have certain powers defined by the Law of Ukraine "On National Police", rights and responsibilities. The quality of fulfilment of these tasks influences on appreciation of police work.

In recent time, the level of population confidence in police is at the low level. In law enforcement bodies, as in any other structures there are workers, aimed primarily at personal gain. They are not interested in the security of the society. As it is known, in our society trust is easy to lose, but it is difficult to earn. In general, the impact of such employees leads to a rapid loss of confidence in militia. Citizens, who are closely faced with irresponsibility of policemen, begin to share their experiences with other

people, who do not have sufficient information of police and work and perceive it negatively as a whole.

Speaking about the preservation of confidence in police one should not miss the following factor: police officer must constantly observe official etiquette.

Friendly attitude to citizens, loyalty, tolerance, restraint are positively appreciated by people and, as a rule, cause the reaction, which contributes to the resolution of the conflict situation, the development of positive attitude towards police.

Also, in our opinion, the assessments of law enforcement activity, the credibility to it are based on the system of the mass media. The citizens, looking at the negative behavior of policemen, which the "fourth power" reflects, form bad attitude to them.

In the system of public administration bodies Internal affairs occupy a special place. Each police unit on the site includes various specialists and each of them acts in its own direction. For example, the activities of the inspector of preventive activities are aimed at preventing and preventing the violation of the law by people. Investigators and security officers are directly involved in investigating the most complicated cases. At one of the classes, our course officer told a story about police officers working in the field of criminal police. In the nineties, the criminal police did not shave their beards and did not wear uniforms, as they directly interacted with suspects in "their territory". In addition, there is a unit as juvenile prevention at the police. The industry is committed to preventing juvenile delinquency. We think that the most important thing is timely prompt response of law enforcement agencies to all appeals of citizens, will undoubtedly increase people's trust in police.

In conclusion, I would like to underline the fact that the effectiveness of police work significantly falls without trust and cooperation with population. The majority of people do not believe in the possibility of police to restore justice and order in the society. Many people do not want to deal with police for popular opinion that they do not will to help. Whatever it is, I believe in the fact that the law enforcement authorities eventually will be able to establish good reputation with the population, to earn its trust. In spite of public opinion, policemen do everything to maintain order and peace of the citizens in our country.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE

The Council has approved conclusions on the European security situation, asserting that European security is indivisible and that any challenge to the European security order affects the security of the EU and its member states.

In its conclusions, the Council condemns Russia's continued aggressive actions and threats against Ukraine, and it calls on Russia to de-escalate, abide by international law and engage constructively in dialogue through the established international mechanisms. As stated by the EU heads of state and government at the European Council meeting in December 2021, any further military aggression by Russia against Ukraine will have massive consequences and severe costs.

The EU confirms its unwavering support for the independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine and other Eastern Neighbourhood partners within their internationally recognised borders, and it calls on Russia to re-engage constructively in existing international frameworks for the sustainable and peaceful resolution of conflicts.

The Council reaffirms the united approach of the EU and the ongoing strong cooperation and coordination with the United States, NATO, Ukraine and other partner countries. It reiterates the importance of further strengthening the resilience and response capabilities of the EU and its close partners, including in countering cyber and hybrid attacks, foreign information manipulation and interference, including disinformation [1, p. 1].

Legal language permeates our lives, even if we are often blissfully unaware of this. Written legal texts of one sort or another in fact govern virtually everything we do. To take an average day, it might begin with the sound of your alarm clock going off. The power which supplies your alarm clock comes from an energy company, with whom you will have entered into a written contract governing the terms of the supply. Despite our day-to-day reliance on the company upholding its end of this contract, you probably haven't given its existence any thought, especially not at this time in the morning [3, p. 2].

Another preliminary context which represents a common site of interactional difficulty, at least for the lay participant, is in the communication of rights. Several linguistic studies have highlighted the potential injustice caused by the interactional strategies and interpretive norms utilised by representatives of the legal process in situations where an individual may wish to invoke a particular legal right. This includes the invocation of the right to a legal representative for a police interview in the US, where the legal process apparently expects a person in a massively disadvantageous position to abandon all communicative norms of indirectness, politeness, and power

relations, and to make their request for a lawyer in only the most literal and imposing manner. Thus utterances such as ‘I think I would like to talk to a lawyer’, and ‘maybe I should talk to a lawyer’ have been held by US courts not to be sufficiently clear to amount to an invocation of that right (see Solan & Tiersma 2005: 54–62 for an accessible discussion). However, Solan & Tiersma (2005: 62) points out that the same legal system shows itself to be entirely capable of determining the inferred meaning of far more ambiguous requests made by police officers who would otherwise be held to have carried out illegal searches [3, p. 5].

Put simply, the task of a court is to decide between competing versions of events, on the basis of the evidence presented to it. The court can only base its decision on what is presented to it in court; there are consequently detailed and complex rules governing admissibility. The general principle is that only evidence of ‘fact’ is admissible; a person’s ‘opinion’ is not: the only opinion which counts is the court’s, and no witness should usurp that function. However, sometimes the court will need help in interpreting the ‘facts’ presented to it, for example technical engineering data about a ship which sank, or complex medical information. In order to assist with this, an expert can be called. Their task is to apply their expertise to the facts which are being presented, and to provide the court with their opinion on them. This therefore breaks the fundamental rule about the inadmissibility of opinion evidence. Consequently, a huge body of case law and procedural rules has developed around expert evidence, in order to police the boundaries of its admissibility. There is no need here to go into the complexities of the relevant principles, but it is worth highlighting that one of the main criteria will be whether the expert can provide ‘information which is likely to be outside the experience and knowledge of a judge or jury’ (R v Turner⁵, a UK criminal case). The challenge for linguistics, then, is to convince courts that our discipline can offer scientific analysis and insight that goes beyond the knowledge that judges, as gatekeepers, think they already have about the language they use every day. In addition, courts will assess the validity and reliability of the methodology used, applying criteria such as whether there are known error rates⁶. A further concern, then, is developing methodologies and analytic frameworks which are robust and valid. This is, of course, essential given the use to which such analyses will be put and the hugely significant consequences for those directly involved. It also means that the field of forensic linguistics is increasingly at the forefront of developing reliable and innovative methodologies, especially for the analysis of short texts such as text messages. Thus this most ‘applied’ of linguistic fields has the potential to make major theoretical contributions.

It must also be noted that of the cases in which the advice of a linguistic expert is sought, a majority never reach court. They may be settled at an earlier stage, or a prosecution might be dropped, or a guilty plea might be entered. Nevertheless, the linguistic evidence may well have played a role in that outcome [3, p. 9].

All in all, there are many areas of common interest between law and linguistics. Law is about justice, and yet the legal system's use and interpretation of language has frequently been demonstrated by linguists to lead to the perpetuation – indeed creation – of injustice. It seems that this is often due to misunderstanding or ignorance of the principles of language and communication, rather than any deliberate intention. Much of the work mentioned in this work is already making that contribution, but it is only a starting point.

Law and linguistics are very important in our life and we must have to know all things about them.

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PROBLEMS OF COMBATING CRIMES IN THE UNITED MEXICAN STATES

Latin American countries differ significantly from the rest of the world in terms of the structure of the instruments of killing. As of 2021, on average, about 65 % of people are killed with firearms, and 20 % of victims are killed with cold weapons. For comparison, we note that this structure is significantly different in the EU member states: firearms – 20 %, melee weapons – 30 %. This shows that there is an uncontrolled market for firearms in Latin American countries, which shows the organized and armed nature of most crimes.

Having determined the general state and nature of modern crime in the countries of Latin America, we will try to explore the main forms of crime prevention in the individual country of this region – The United Mexican States.

Mexico, officially the United Mexican States is among Latin American countries with a high level of crime. To some extent, this is facilitated by the features of the geographical location of this country. The

territory of Mexico is a drug traffic because it borders the USA that is the main market for drugs (cannabis, cocaine, methamphetamine) produced in the countries of Latin America.

The uncontrolled drug trafficking and the corruption of law enforcement officials became the impetus for the involvement of regular Mexican military units to fight drug crime. Such experience has existed since 1986. In order to coordinate the actions of the army and the police in crime prevention, the so-called 10th Special Operations Department of the General Staff was formed within the structure of the Ministry of Defense of Mexico. The servicemen of this division undergo special training in training centers for fighting crime, they have good technical equipment. To increase the prestige of the service in this part of the Mexican army and to reduce the risks of corruption, the lives of its members are insured to the extent of \$30,000. USA, military personnel have a decent salary. During the entire period of activity of this military formation, several thousand tons of drugs were seized, several hundred criminals were physically destroyed, more than a hundred illegal airports were destroyed, used by drug cartels to transport drugs to the United States and other countries [3].

The inaction of the corrupt Mexican police, the wide spread of crime contribute to the strengthening of the self-organization of the population. This activity is not always legal, as there are signs of arrogance on the part of ordinary citizens in relation to criminals, carrying out lynching with the use of inhumane methods. In the country, there are often cases of group infliction of bodily harm by citizens on criminals of varying degrees of severity. There are examples of criminals cutting off body parts that they use to commit crimes. For example, in one of the Mexican settlements, a mob of angry people tied a criminal to a tree, who was burned alive. This terrible picture was shown by the local media.

Sometimes, due to mistrust of the police, local residents form armed volunteer self-defense units to oppose representatives of organized crime groups with corrupt ties to law enforcement officials. For example, in the city of Paracuaro in the state of Michoacán, 600 members of the Self-Defense Forces, called «Autodefensas», armed with firearms, disarmed and arrested the local police chief, who was suspected of having ties to the Caballeros Templarios («Templars») drug cartel.

It goes without saying, that the repressive direction of fighting crime prevails in Mexico. It consists in armed opposition to organized crime by arresting or physically destroying criminals, destroying criminal infrastructure (premises where drugs are produced; equipment for their production; illegal private airports).

The social component of crime prevention in Mexico is currently carried out in accordance with the adopted program documents, in particular: the National Development Plan for the country for 2013–2018, the National Program for the Fight against Hunger for 2014–2018, the Program for the Development of the Social Sector for 2013–2018 [4]. These documents provide for a number of strategic directions for the development

of the socio-economic sphere in Mexico regarding the fight against unemployment, the development of national production, housing construction, and support for the tourist business.

Recently, preventive measures have been gradually implemented in the country with the widespread involvement of non-governmental crime prevention organizations in their implementation: churches, trade unions, employers, higher education institutions, cultural and artistic figures, etc. An example of crime prevention in Mexico is the implementation of the program «Comunidad en Libertad Asistida» («Community Probation Project»), designed to prevent recidivism among youth and minors [2, p. 128].

Like other Latin American countries such as Brazil, Mexico is taking steps to restore public space. For this purpose, a national program «Returning public space to life» was adopted. The content of such programs is related to the ideas of ecological design theory (the theory of «broken windows»). The arrangement of abandoned territories, which can become a place for committing various crimes, is carried out with the participation of representatives of the local community, interested in the safety of their area and reducing crime.

The exploration of the current state of crime prevention in the United Mexican States gives reason to draw the following conclusions: 1) the basis of crime prevention in this country is the development of the criminal justice system and the introduction of social preventive activities; 2) recently, the governments and local authorities of Mexico pay more attention to the expansion of crime prevention structures at the expense of public organizations and individual citizens; 3) the most widespread form of public influence on crime is the development and implementation of crime prevention programs with the broad participation of public organizations, volunteers and volunteers; 4) the development of crime prevention programs and the assessment of their effectiveness is carried out with the support of national and international scientific and educational institutions.

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FIGHT AGAINST CRIME

Crime today is the biggest problem in the world. It can be defined as an unlawful act that is considered punishable by a state or any other authority. Another definition of crime can be defined as an act that is damaging not only to some individuals but also to a community, society, as well as the state. Such acts are forbidden by law and are considered culpable.

In many countries, highly sophisticated methods are used to tackle crimes. Despite the tight security and strict laws, crimes occur in our society every single day.

First of all, it is worth noting the fight against crime **in Ukraine**.

The fight against crime is a complex systemic response to crime with the use of repressive and non-repressive means, which is the unity of the following three subsystems:

- general organization of struggle;
- prevention (prevention) of crime;
- law enforcement activities.

The fight against crime is based on the following principles:

• legality (implementation of only measures directly provided for by legislative acts of Ukraine);

• interaction (participation of law enforcement and all other state and local self-government bodies, enterprises, institutions, organizations, associations of citizens, individual citizens);

• complexity (definition of the hierarchy of goals and tasks, which are specified in time, territory and branch aspects, regarding the types of crimes and the level of preventive work);

• predominance of methods of persuasion (that is, the use of coercive measures only after exhausting all other means of influence);

- publicity

Combat measures can be carried out on the entire territory of Ukraine or in its separate region, in a certain branch of the national economy, at an enterprise, in an institution, organization, among a certain category of the population (general prevention of crime) or in relation to a specific person (individual, prevention). The Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine approves complex target programs to combat crime, which are specified at the regional and local levels, as well as at individual enterprises, institutions, and organizations. The coordinating committee for combating corruption and organized crime under the President of Ukraine is the body that coordinates the activities of all actors in the fight against crime. Since the fight against crime, especially its types such as environmental crimes, terrorism, drug trafficking, prostitution, car theft, has become a global

problem, Ukraine closely cooperates in this direction with relevant international organizations, in particular with Interpol.

In my opinion, it is also appropriate to cite examples of the fight against crime in foreign countries.

France and the fight against organized crime

Combating organized crime is a major challenge for the international community. Alongside terrorism, it now represents the largest non-military threat to internal security and international economic stability.

Although it is by definition difficult to assess, the overall proceeds of organized crime probably total around €1 trillion per year.

In a context where criminality respects no national border or sovereignty, it is vital to have a comprehensive approach to fighting crime and strengthen international cooperation, particularly between judicial bodies and law enforcement agencies. France therefore plays an active role in multilateral forums dealing with these issues, working to ensure the coherence and effectiveness of the different forums.

Fighting crime in the Netherlands

The Netherlands wants people everywhere to live in peace and security. In order to fight terrorism, drug trafficking and cybercrime, countries need to work together. By doing so, they promote mutual legal assistance and make it easier to extradite people suspected of crimes. This is why the Netherlands is investing in efforts to enhance the rule of law and strengthen institutions in other countries, for example in the Western Balkans and North Africa.

Crime Fighting in The United States

There are two basic models of the criminal justice system. The first, the Crime Control Model, reflects traditional conservative values. In this model the control of criminal behavior is the most important function of criminal justice.

The second, the Due Process Model, embodies traditional liberal values. In this model, the principal goal of criminal justice is at least as much to protect the innocent as it is to convict the guilty. The majority of Americans believe that criminal justice involves fighting crime and that law enforcement is the only institution with that responsibility.

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EXPERIENCE OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN FIGHTING CORRUPTION IN UKRAINE

Today total corruption has penetrated all spheres of life in Ukraine. The corruption scope even became a threat to the national security. The Ukrainian society is not only fully aware of the complexity of the current situation, but also claims the government to take strong anti-corruption measures. Recent dramatic events of Euromaidan in Kyiv shows that the Ukrainian people do not want to live as before, tolerate the arbitrariness of officials, corruption and social injustice.

Here are a few examples of countries, which had made substantial progress in fighting corruption. Most of these countries recently had an extremely high level of corruption.

Israel

The basis of all anti-corruption measures in Israel - is ramous monitoring of possible corruption actions. The monitoring is carried out by government agencies, special units of the police, the Office of the State Controller, which is independent from the ministries and various NGOs. If the corruption facts appear the investigating bodies are being informed immediately.

The legislation of Israel provides significant social benefits for the state employers. At the same time the penalties for the officials, involved in corruption actions are very heavy, thus local corruption in the country is almost absent. The number of cases brought to court is less than 5 %.

Likewise the register of the corrupted firms has been also created in Israel.

Germany

The liquidation of material and first of all the financial part of organized criminal groups is the basis for fight against corruption in Germany. The legal base in the country prevents money-laundering, the property of persons, involved in corruption actions should be confiscated. Likewise, the bank institutions are obliged to provide information, concerning the money transactions over 20 000 Euros, to the law enforcement agencies. This information should be used for the investigation purposes only. Everyone, who opens a bank account for the total amount of 50 000 Euros, is obliged to pass the dew identification procedures.

The general line of the German government in the area of prevention of corruption is the elimination of corruption in public service.

Great Britain

This country has the most ancient traditions in the fight against corruption. The system of anti-corruption mechanisms is settled here on the legislative level. The first anti-corruption law in the civil service was

adopted here in 1889. The following two laws as of 1906 and 1916 were consequences of society's reaction for spreading this socio-political phenomenon. Contrasting legal traditional principles, these laws obliges officials to prove own innocence.

The Committee on Standards in Public Life was established in October 1994, as an advisory non-departmental public body of the United Kingdom Government. The Committee's original terms of reference were: to examine current concerns about standards of conduct of all holders of public office, including arrangements relating to financial and commercial activities, and make recommendations as to any changes in present arrangements which might be required to ensure the highest standards of propriety in public life. In particular, the committee studies activities of members of parliament who advise firms related with impact on a state policy.

Japan

The experience of fight against corruption shows, that the absence of single unified act, aimed to defeat this evil, does not affect the effective resolution of the problem. For example, in Japan the anti-corruption regulations are present in different national laws. Moreover, Japan has no single agency designated solely to fight corruption; however, many agencies actively fight corruption within their jurisdiction. For example, the Fair Trade Commission (JFTC), the National Police Agency (NPA), and the National Tax Administration Agency (NTAA) [3].

In Japan, as in other countries, the main tendency of the fight against corruption is the human resources policy.

Thus, the priorities in the fight against corruption are:

- 1) Measures of Political Economy (accountability of political leadership, political parties and campaigns financing reform);
- 2) reform of civil service (adequate salary, motivation policies);
- 3) civil liberties (the system of social and legal control, as well as influence over politicians by civil society).

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CRIME PREVENTION BY LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

Crime prevention is a system of measures taken by state bodies, public organizations, government officials and other persons aimed at counteracting the processes of crime determination, aimed at re-socialization of potential criminals, prevention of new crimes.

The importance of crime prevention was clear to thinkers of antiquity and modern times. Cesare Beccaria wrote: *It is better to prevent crimes than to punish them. This is the goal of any good law, which is essentially the art of leading people to the highest happiness or to the least possible misery, judging by the relationship between good and evil in our lives* [1]. According to most criminologists, crime prevention is more effective than other methods of combating crime. The damage caused by crime to society is enormous. On the «black account» of crime which is not only material losses, but also lives taken by murderers, crippled fates. The higher the crime rate, the higher the indirect costs associated with ensuring the activities of law enforcement agencies, the exclusion of a significant part of the population from the process of social reproduction. The purpose of crime prevention is to prevent this damage. Precautions taken in the early stages of the formation of a criminal personality, allow «small blood» to re-socialize a potential offender, to return him to normal life in society.

Depending on the scope of prevention measures, criminologists distinguish between general, special and individual crime prevention.

General crime prevention. The roots of crime always lie in negative social phenomena, social, political, economic and spiritual problems inherent in a particular society. Therefore, the most effective in terms of reducing the number of crimes committed in the long run are measures aimed at strengthening the economy, providing jobs, social programs to improve living standards, creating a positive moral climate in society, suppression of crime-related phenomena such as alcoholism and drug addiction, vagrancy, poverty, illegal migration, interethnic and other conflicts.

Special crime prevention. Special warning is given by influencing social groups, individuals and organizations or areas of activity for which there are grounds to believe that they are criminogenic or victimized.

For example, the increased criminogenicity of an individual may be determined by the preliminary facts of the crime (in this case, the criminological warning is aimed at preventing recidivism), administrative and official offenses, immoral acts, behavior that clearly does not correspond to the social role, targets impossible to achieve for this person using legal means. The criminogenic characteristics of social groups are similar: this may include anti-social, protest orientation of the group,

political or social radicalism, which are in conflict with the inherent moral attitudes and value systems of society as a whole.

Individual crime prevention. The addressee of individual prevention, which can be considered as one of the special prevention types, is a specific person, whose personal characteristics objectively indicate the possibility of committing a criminal act in future. The object of individual prevention can be both the person himself, his negative social qualities, and the social microenvironment, his surroundings (family, life, workforce).

The need to apply individual preventive action to a person is determined by establishing a set of related criminogenic factors:

- committing past offenses and immoral acts;
- deformed value orientations, incomplete socialization of the individual, low level of legal awareness;
- the presence of pathological mental disorders that are criminogenic in nature (some mental anomalies, sexual deviations, etc.);
- formation of personality in a social environment that is unfavorable: in a single-parent family, in conditions of immoral and illegal behavior of parents and close relatives, and so on;
- adverse living conditions: poor material and living conditions, negative social and domestic climate, etc: Analyzing all methods mentioned above we can state that «The best defense is an attack», which means that the preventive activities of the police are even more important than the pre-trial investigation because they do not allow criminals to realize their intentions.

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LA LUTTE CONTRE LE PROXÉNÉTISME EN FRANCE

Aux termes du code pénal français le proxénétisme est défini comme le fait de générer des profits sur l'activité de prostitution d'autrui grâce au pouvoir que l'on exerce sur les personnes qui se livrent à cette pratique [3].

La plupart des législations distingue les types de proxénétisme suivants:

– le proxénétisme direct, défini comme le fait «d'aider, d'assister ou de protéger la prostitution d'autrui; de tirer profit de la prostitution d'autrui, d'en partager les produits ou de recevoir des subsides d'une personne se livrant habituellement à la prostitution; d'embaucher, d'entraîner ou de détourner une personne en vue de la prostitution ou d'exercer sur elle une pression pour qu'elle se prostitue ou continue à le faire» [4].

– le proxénétisme indirect qui consiste à fournir en connaissance de cause des locaux publics ou privés à des personnes se livrant à la prostitution. Le proxénétisme immobilier est une part importante du proxénétisme. Il a de multiples visages : cabarets, restaurants, boîtes de nuit, clubs privés, bars à hôtesse... Même le simple fait de prêter une camionnette à une personne prostituée relève du délit de proxénétisme [4].

Il faut rappeler que la France est partie à la Convention Internationale de 1949 pour la répression (et l'abolition) de la traite des êtres humains et de l'exploitation de la prostitution d'autrui.

En application des dispositions de ce texte a été créé, par décret du 31 octobre 1958, l'Office Central pour la Répression de la Traite des Êtres Humains (O.C.R.T.E.H). C'est une structure originale qui permet une meilleure répression d'un secteur important du crime organisé [1, p. 137].

Les missions de L'O.C.R.T.E.H sont: centraliser, au plan national, les renseignements et la documentation en matière de prostitution et de proxénétisme, coordonner l'action des services de Police et de Gendarmerie dans son domaine de compétence, coopérer avec les pays membres de l'Organisation Internationale de Police Criminelle [1].

On notera qu'en France la prostitution est tolérée dès lors qu'elle s'effectue sans aide ou incitation extérieures, pour le seul compte de la personne prostituée et de son plein gré. La loi a abrogé l'infraction de racolage actif ou passif qui constituait auparavant un délit et a créé l'infraction d'achat d'acte sexuel qui punit d'une amende de 1500 euros toute personne ayant recours à la prostitution d'autrui [2].

D'après le protocole additionnel à la convention de l'ONU contre la criminalité organisée, le proxénétisme constitue une dimension de la traite des êtres humains, notamment l'exploitation sexuelle. En droit pénal français l'infraction de traite des êtres humains est définie comme le fait, en échange d'une rémunération ou d'un avantage, de recruter une personne par la force, la menace ou la tromperie, de la transférer et la transporter puis de la mettre à disposition de soi-même ou d'un tiers, à des fins d'exploitation sexuelle, de travail forcé, de prélèvement d'organes [2].

Conformément à l'article D8 du code de procédure pénale, tous les services de police et de gendarmerie doivent transmettre à l'O.C.R.T.E.H les renseignements relatifs à la criminalité liée à l'exploitation sexuelle dans un but de centralisation, de classification et de diffusion au niveau national et international.

L'O.C.R.T.E.H alimente les fichiers Europol et constitue le relais d'Interpol pour les échanges de renseignements. Il est en contact direct avec tous les services de police et de gendarmerie chargés de constater les infractions relatives au proxénétisme.

L'O.C.R.T.E.H participe à des réunions internationales, collabore avec tous les ministères, organismes internationaux, organisations non gouvernementales et associations nationales de prévention et de réinsertion des personnes prostituées.

Les filières constatées en France, comme en Europe de l'Ouest et dans les pays d'Afrique de l'Ouest trouvent leur origine principale dans des groupes criminels installés dans les pays de l'Est (Bulgarie, Roumanie, ...) et d'Afrique de l'Ouest en particulier au Nigeria et au Ghana [2].

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**THE CURRENT STATE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING
BY POLICE OFFICERS ACCORDING TO INTERNATIONAL
STANDARDS**

Against the current background of integration processes in European education, Ukraine cannot stand aside. The system of higher education is significantly changing in accordance with the processes of European integration, which is positively supported by the government of our state. And as a consequence of these processes, the process of teaching and learning foreign languages in higher education institutions is undergoing positive changes.

The process of learning foreign languages was and remains one of the main components of the process of becoming a real specialist. It is worth noting that the new language policy, which is being introduced in Europe, is an order to introduce multilingualism among high school graduates.

In the current realities of development and reform of our state in the field of law enforcement has become more relevant the question of the actual creation of a newer and more advanced system of recruitment. It should be noted that the main direction is the course for the formation of new psychological skills of law enforcement officers, starting with patrol police, and ending with the leadership [1, p. 85].

The current stage in the history of the Ukrainian police has opened a new section in its formation, namely international cooperation in various spheres of state functioning, in particular in the training of highly professional personnel. Continuing and improving international cooperation with different countries, the leadership of the National Police identifies the following ways of training:

- creating opportunities and new conditions for the application of European experience in the field of professional training, including in-depth study of foreign languages;

- full improvement of the educational process, in particular a new level of foreign language learning;

- implementation of the latest scientific research on the development of law enforcement and modern methods of combating international crime.

During the performance of his / her official duties, a police officer enters into a dialogue with more than a dozen people, and therefore in order to avoid most conflict situations, or to resolve them as soon as possible, a police officer must adhere to the culture of professional speech. And against this background, it is important to highlight such an element as knowledge of a foreign language. After all, knowing it, a police officer can easily communicate with citizens of other countries who violate current legislation of Ukraine, or who are in trouble and need professional help.

At this stage, Ukraine is a tourist country, and a police officer has a duty to protect the protected rights and freedoms not only of our citizens, but also of foreigners. If a foreigner has any problems, he should turn to the Ukrainian police and receive highly qualified assistance, and knowledge of a foreign language in this case is simply a necessary element.

Regarding the methods of learning English, it is necessary to dwell on the use of modern learning technologies with the use of Internet resources, which today is becoming increasingly important. Internet system is considered as one of the leading newest learning technologies since its opportunities in the field of education are endless: the organization and planning of the process training, search for information for both teacher and cadet, selection texts for cadets with different levels of English.

The use of online resources in teaching should be linked to the method listening, which allows not only intensifying the learning process, but also to apply a professional-oriented approach and ensure the level English language proficiency taking into account modern demands of society and find certain shortcomings and gaps in learning. The above points with positions of teaching methods make the use of the Internet relevant system of teaching English to non-linguistic student's specialties, which provides the most effective development of all types speech activity, and listening in particular. Therefore, it is necessary to be clear formulating the principles of learning not only listening but also listening through Internet system. However, in my opinion the most effective method learning English will be the introduction of the practice of international

communication, because a native English speaker can more quickly and more effectively tell and explain what interests the cadet.

That is why the government and the Ministry of Internal Affairs are currently developing new methods and forms of learning a foreign language both among current law enforcement officers and future staff at the stage of higher education. The very knowledge of a foreign language can not only significantly increase the status of police officers, but also will increasingly inspire confidence in foreign tourists, which will increase the authority of law enforcement agencies of Ukraine [2, p. 203].

So, should Ukrainian police learn a foreign language? I believe that the answer to this question is self-evident. Of course, yes! But we want this new trend to continue to develop in our country, and find support from the leadership of the law enforcement agencies. After all, the ability to communicate in a foreign language, including for a police officer, is in the modern world a kind of window into the world, the achievement of goals through new abilities.

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CANADIAN SHERIFFS AND THEIR JOB TO PROTECT LAW AND ORDER

Most provinces and territories in Canada have sheriffs. Sheriffs are primarily engaged in services such as courtroom security, transfer of prisoners after arrest, security of court proceedings and enforcement of court orders.

Sheriffs also protect the lieutenant governor (the authorized representative of the Queen of Great Britain in the province), government buildings and courts, and are responsible for transporting prisoners. In law enforcement, the duties of sheriffs are regulated at the provincial level.

In 2005, Alberta underwent a major law enforcement and enforcement reform. With the police unable to cope with a significant workload, the decision was made to reform the Alberta Ministry of Justice's court security and prisoner transport division into the Alberta Sheriff's Department, which was designed to fill gaps in law enforcement and relieve the police, allowing officers to focus on criminal investigations [1].

Sheriffs are divided into several units, namely:

– The Neighborhood Safety and Community Safety Unit is governed by the Community Safety and Neighborhood Act of Alberta. The duties of sheriffs include the detection, suppression and investigation of offenses occurring on private property. Such offenses as production and sale of narcotic substances, prostitution, exploitation of children, illegal circulation of firearms fall under the scope of this law. The Neighborhood Safety and Community Safety Unit is governed by the Community Safety and Neighborhood Act of Alberta. The duties of sheriffs include the detection, suppression and investigation of offenses occurring on private property. Such offenses as production and sale of narcotic substances, prostitution, exploitation of children, illegal circulation of firearms fall under the scope of this law.

– The Traffic Management Unit works in collaboration with the Royal Mounted Police as an integrated traffic authority.

– The Investigations Unit is part of the Law Enforcement Response Team. This team includes, in addition to the sheriffs, 4 municipal police departments and the Royal Mounted Police. Created to combat domestic violence, organized crime, drug trafficking and child exploitation [2].

(Good Neighbor Unit) After establishing the facts of illegal activity, sheriff has the right to apply to the court to obtain a warrant for the protection of public order under the procedure of civil proceedings. In the warrant, the court may indicate a ban on the use of the premises for a period of up to 90 days and must specify the requirements that must be met by the owner in order to eliminate the violations. After that, sheriffs monitor the execution of such a warrant, enforcement measures are taken.

(The Traffic Management Unit) As part of its activities, the unit supervises road safety, detects, stops and documents violations, as well as conducts educational activities and raises citizens' awareness of typical dangerous situations on the roads. Sheriffs are tasked with reducing risky driving, improving highway traffic control, reducing fatal and injury-related traffic accidents, and combating drug trafficking.

(The Investigations Unit) Currently, this integrated team forms the main areas of work in the field of law enforcement work for a high-quality response to serious crimes and the activities of criminal groups. The unit includes specialists specializing in specific types of crime, a risk and threat management group that develops plans to combat domestic violence, and a criminology service that conducts strategic analysis of criminal activity [3].

Considering that, unlike in the USA, Canadian sheriffs have powers that complement the activities of the police, increase the capacity of law enforcement agencies, but do not duplicate their functions, this experience can be useful for territorial communities in Ukraine.

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CONCEPT OF TERRORISM FIGHTING: FOREIGN EXPERIENCE

In the 21st century, humanity has made significant progress in various spheres of social life, but social progress is also manifested in destructive, criminal and hazardous forms for the further sustainable growth of humanity. They are terrorism, separatism, seizure of the territories of sovereign states, as well as an increase in economic crime, legalization (laundering) of proceeds obtained through crime, fraud with financial resources, cybercrime is spreading, etc.

The relevance of this research topic consists in the fact that, under modern conditions, criminal manifestations pose a real threat to democratic development and national security in most countries of the world. Criminal elements, having close interregional and international ties, are increasingly directing their efforts to establish control over the most profitable areas of economic relations.

Some aspects of foreign experience in the prevention of terrorism are devoted to the work of such domestic and foreign researchers, such as: V. F. Antipenko, Yu. M. Antonyan, N. S. Behlova, V. O. Glushkov, V. M. Dryomin, V. P. Yemelyanov, M. N. Imanti, I. I. Karpets, V. V. Krutova, V. A. Lipkan, V. Ya. Nastyuk, V. V. Luneev, and others.

The lack of a unified national concept of combating crimes, the inconsistency of state-wide, regional, sectoral state targeted social prevention programs in the relevant areas does not contribute to the prevention of crime in the country. Such a situation does not correspond to the proclaimed constitutional provisions on a social, democratic and legal state, since the existing situation does not take into account the realities of modern times, because the fight against crime has long since turned into a global world problem that has acquired not only a national, but also an international, transnational character [1].

In general, forcible crime is increasing by 9 % every year in the world. according to official statistics, in the first half of the 1990s, in a significant part of the European countries, as well as in Japan, there was an increase in the main indicators of crime. The highest indicators for most unsafe crimes at the turn of the 1990s were noted in the USA, Canada and Australia. In 1988, 28.8 % of US citizens, 28.1 % of Canadians became casualties of at least one crime. In Europe, the highest rate of this category was registered in the Netherlands – 26.8 %, Spain – 21.9 %, Germany – 21.9 %. The beginning of the 1990s did not bring positive changes in the

dynamics and trends of crime in almost all countries of the world [1]. The activity of organized criminal groups is becoming more and more sophisticated and the specific weight of violent crimes is increasing.

One of the types of organized crime is terrorism, which is defined as a crime of a violent nature that has an international resonance and is aimed at intimidating or harming individuals or people in general, in order to achieve their goals, usually political.

Terrorist acts threaten human rights to the maximum extent. It is difficult to imagine that human rights can be respected when human life itself is clearly at stake or seen as «collateral damage» during mass bombings that directly or indirectly lead to injury, disease, suffering, destruction of homes and death. In times of war, especially war that continues continuously for several years, every human right is adversely affected. Health care systems are crumbling, education is suffering, rights to housing, work, food and water security, the legal system, freedom of the press and speech, and the responsibility of the state, or «hostile» state, for offense – all of these rights are being curtailed, if not eliminated. Completely.

The fight against terrorism is based on the following principles:

- legality and strict observance of human and citizen rights and freedoms;

- comprehensive use of legal, political, socio-economic, informational and propaganda and other opportunities for this purpose; priority of preventive measures;

- the inevitability of punishment for participation in terrorist activities;

- the priority of protecting the lives and rights of persons exposed to danger as a result of terrorist activities;

- a combination of overt and unspoken methods of combating terrorism;

- non-disclosure of information about technical methods and tactics of anti-terrorist operations, as well as about the composition of their participants;

- unity of command in the management of the forces and means involved in carrying out anti-terrorist operations;

- cooperation in the field of combating terrorism with foreign countries, their law enforcement agencies and special services, as well as with international organizations fighting terrorism [2].

Antiterror legislation in the USA began to actively develop after the well-known terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. The new federal law "Patriotic Act" of 2001 significantly expanded the powers of special services and law enforcement agencies in the field of combating terrorism, which later became the cause of many scandals related to surveillance both by their own citizens and by representatives of foreign countries. Although many of the controversial provisions of anti-terrorism legislation have been repealed by Congress, it still has a significant number of provisions that allow various government agencies to collect classified information [2].

In conclusion, we can note that the importance of research in this area is due to the fact that during the last decade, there has been a tendency to increase the level of crime throughout the world, and, at the same time, the lack of social and legal control measures against the growing criminalization of social relations. In Ukraine, there is no concept of fighting crime approved at the state level, which is due to many economic, social, political, legal and other features and contradictions of the development of market relations in the country: the creation of the criminal justice system has not been completed; law enforcement agencies are being reformed; development of national legislation continues; state institutions are implemented, which must meet the best European and world standards in this area of public relations.

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THE IMPACT OF SUBSTANDARD AND FALSIFIED MEDICAL PRODUCTS AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES

The International Council of Nurses (ICN) is committed to action to address the problem of substandard and falsified (SF) medical products and their consequences.

The existence of substandard and falsified medical products is an unacceptable risk to public health. They affect every region of the world, and medicines from all major therapeutic categories have been reported, including vaccines and diagnostics. They harm patients and undermine confidence in medical products, healthcare professionals and health systems. WHO is working with stakeholders to minimize the risks from SF medical products by collecting data and transferring knowledge and good practices to countries. SF medical products have a substantial negative impact on public health. Although definite morbidity and mortality rates as a result of SF medical products are not available, with an estimated 10% of medical products in low-and middle-income countries being falsified or substandard, the rates are projected to be extremely high. SF medical products can lead to serious adverse reactions or no therapeutic response. As well, they severely challenge the progress and investment made in the prevention and treatment of communicable diseases. Antimicrobial resistance is considered one of the biggest threats to humanity and SF

medicines are fueling this global problem and promoting the spread of drug-resistant infections. SF medical products also have significant socioeconomic and economic impacts including increased out-of-pocket spending, lost productivity, lost income and increased poverty [1]. SF medical products are a symptom of a larger problem and one that is of utmost importance to ICN and the nursing profession: a lack of access to quality, safe and affordable healthcare. Much of the morbidity and mortality from SF medical products could be avoided if people were assured the availability of affordable, quality, authentic medical products. Billions of people around the world do not have access to effective preventative, health promotive and life-saving healthcare. Inequities in access to healthcare, a lack of development of medical products for certain health conditions (vaccines, diagnostics and medicines), and high prices for both out-of-pocket payers and health systems are some of the factors that are fueling the proliferation of SF medical products [2].

The punishment for a criminal offense of the Criminal Code of Ukraine is a special form of state coercion that is applied, according to a court verdict, to a person guilty of falsifying medicinal products or trafficking in counterfeit medicines, with a view to correcting them and preventing a new offense by a convicted person, and other persons and expressions on behalf of the state of negative moral and political evaluation of the guilty and committed criminal offense. In each case, the punishment for adulteration of medicines or the circulation of counterfeit medicines is enforced by the law enforcer, which provides for punishment for a completed crime, the principles of criminal law, taking into account a number of circumstances, such as: identity of the offender, incidents, the nature of the objective and subjective features of the act required to fulfill the task of criminal law and to achieve the goal of correcting a person, etc. There are now cases where the court does not apply special confiscation in the case of adulteration of medicines or circulation of counterfeit medicines, whereas the subject of this criminal offense (counterfeit medicines) is a mandatory feature of the crime, which, accordingly, requires confiscation, and further destruction of the forgery. At the same time, there is a tendency to release the guilty from serving their sentences on the basis and in accordance with Art. 75 of the Criminal Code of Ukraine with the appointment of a trial period [3].

The problem of counterfeiting exists not only in Ukraine, but all over the world, including the EU and the US. One of the effective ways to combat drug trafficking is to introduce serialization: placing the manufacturer on the package with a 2D code (QR code).

In short, the system works like this: the manufacturer applies a QR code to each package during the production process, which contains the unique serial number of the package, the expiry date and other information. Prior to placing the party on the market, an array of such serial numbers is transmitted to the electronic database of a state body. The QR code is read by the scanner and verified with the monitoring system at each part of the

supply chain: importer – distributor – pharmacy. The system cannot have two identical serial numbers, so the drug pack cannot have a «duplicate», and the pharmacy will not be able to sell the pack with the serial number of drugs that have been tampered with, stolen or expired. Serialization of medicines was introduced in the US in 2015, and since February 2019 has become mandatory in Europe.

In Ukraine, in the fall of 2019, a pilot project on pack serialization is being introduced, but the professional market speaks of many difficulties: lack of proper legal framework, lack of equipment, software and even internet access to pharmacies. However, the introduction of serialization in Ukraine will cause a serious blow to counterfeiting and counterfeit products.

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THE LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES IN THE USA: CLASSIFICATION, ROLE AND MEANING

The main purpose of law enforcement is to protect communities, hold individuals accountable, and ensure justice. Even in its most basic form, law enforcement activity is a difficult and complex task. Any time one group of people is given power and authority to control the behavior of others, human nature will insert variety and intricacy into the equation.

The term «law enforcement agency» means an agency of the United States, a State, or a political subdivision of a State, authorized by law or by a government agency to engage in or supervise the prevention, detection, investigation, or prosecution of any violation of criminal law [1]. There are many different types of law enforcement agencies, from small town police

departments to large U.S. federal agencies. The types of jobs available will depend on the type of agency, its mission, size, and jurisdiction [2].

The primary duties of law enforcement include the investigation, apprehension, and detention of individuals suspected of criminal offenses. Some law enforcement agencies, particularly sheriffs' offices, also have a significant role in the detention of individuals convicted of criminal offenses [3].

There are the following types of Law Enforcement Agencies:

- U.S. Federal Law Enforcement Agencies (deal with catching criminals who break federal law). The following is a list and description of some of the most important ones:

- a) FBI – The Federal Bureau of Investigation is the most well-known and important federal police agency in the United States. It is a semi-autonomous agency supervised by the Department of Justice. The FBI conducts a wide array of law enforcement activities that range from investigating kidnappings and terrorism to stopping human trafficking and preventing cybercrimes.

- b) DEA – The Drug Enforcement Agency is responsible for preventing crimes involving controlled substances.

- c) ICE – U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement is responsible for monitoring immigration to the United States and catching undocumented migrants.

- d) USMS – The United States Marshals Service – the main activity directed to the protection of federal judges.

- e) DOD – The United States Department of Defense Police deals with law enforcement issues within the military.

- f) USSS – The United States Secret Service protects the president and other high-ranking government officials.

- g) TSA – Transportation Security Administration, founded in 2001, oversees the ways Americans use planes, trains, and automobiles to travel.

- h) CPB – The United States Customs and Border Protection monitors the United States borders. It has about 43,000 employees.

- i) OIG – Office of the Inspector General has the responsibility of investigating on-the-job crimes at the Department of Justice. This office has jurisdiction only within the Department of Justice [3].

- State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies (there are more than 17,000 state and local law enforcement agencies in the United States):

- 1) Local Police includes municipal, county, tribal, and regional police that derive authority from the local governing body that created it. The primary purpose is to uphold the laws of the jurisdiction, provide patrol, and investigate local crimes.

- 2) State Police / Highway Patrol – State police often perform police duties to include highway patrol and statewide investigations. Some states have only highway patrol with investigative functions covered by a separate entity such as a state bureau of investigation. State police assist local police

with investigations and emergencies that extend beyond the resources and jurisdictional boundaries of the local agency.

3) Special Jurisdiction Police – Officers for special jurisdictions provide police services for defined entities or areas within another jurisdiction. These include parks, schools, transportation assets (e.g., airports, subways), hospitals, housing authorities, and government buildings. Special jurisdiction police are generally full-service departments, offering the same services as local police.

4) Deputy Sheriffs – Generally sheriff's offices are granted authority by the state to enforce state law at the local county level. Deputies commonly run the local jail, serve warrants, and court summons, and respond to calls for service in areas outside local police jurisdictions [2].

Customs and border-surveillance agencies have access to some of the most complex and exotic watercraft to combat illicit drug-running and border incursions. The activities of police forces are adapted to the kinds of societies in which they operate [4].

Law enforcement agencies respond to, detect, and prevent crime. Within this perspective, it is recognized that police officers play a significant role in adapting and responding to unexpected or unknown situations, as well as recognized situations, such as theft or domestic dispute [5, p. 85]. Police technology refers to the wide range of scientific and technological methods, techniques, and equipment used in policing. Local police department officers have the most interaction with their communities. City, county, and municipal officers are those who respond to 911 calls, and monitor roadways and enforce traffic laws. Traffic stops are the primary way most people interact with law enforcement personnel. Most importantly, local law enforcement, like hospitals, operate 24 hours, 7 days a week; people turn to police departments when they do not know who else to turn to [6]. Data are typically collected directly from law enforcement and related agencies, including crime laboratories, police departments, sheriffs' offices, and training academies. The most recent tool to access incident-based data on crimes recorded by law enforcement is the Law Enforcement Agency Reported Crime Analysis Tool (LEARCAT) [7, p. 11].

The role of the law enforcement agency is to ensure the safety and security of those who uphold the law, and to protect and help communities from those who do not. But they need to do so without using tactics that disrespect civil liberties or generate animosity in the neighborhoods they serve [6]. Policies and practices that focus on transparency and accountability can help bridge gaps between law enforcement personnel and communities. Individuals and communities that take responsibility for their safety can also foster mutual trust and understanding with law enforcement. Collaboration and opportunities to work together can make officers' roles easier and make communities safer for everyone [8, p. 16].

It is worth saying that work in law enforcement agencies is extremely dangerous. Nevertheless, there are a lot of employees which work in the above these agencies. In a democratic nation, we expect the law

enforcement agency to operate within the framework of our defining principles – equal treatment, respect for individual liberty, and accountability. When the law enforcement agencies reflect these principles, they play an important role in society control and the overall well-being of society, which results in a more willing and cooperative public.

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FIGHT AGAINST TRANSNATIONAL CRIME IN THE WORLD

Organised crime threatens peace and human security, impedes human rights and undermines the economic, social, cultural, political and civil development of societies. Transnational organised crime, in particular illicit drug trafficking, relies on highly organised international logistical structures. It encroaches on national and regional borders, relying on well-established international criminal networks. The threats posed by transnational organised crime, linked not only to the manufacture, trafficking and consumption of illicit drugs, but also to trafficking in persons, smuggling of migrants, and environmental crimes, have been

amplified by weak border controls and money laundering. The huge sums of money involved can undermine legitimate economies and have a direct impact on public processes by 'buying' elections through corruption. These scourges greatly benefit their perpetrators and translate into high risks for those who fall victim to them. Every year, countless people lose their lives to organised crime actors, succumbing to drug-related health problems or injuries from firearms. In other cases, the loss of life is due to terrorism.

Organized crime, in particular, is a truly global phenomenon that affects the everyday life of all of us. It is more concealed than other crimes, as organized criminal groups make targeted efforts at keeping their crimes and organization under the radar of law enforcement authorities. It is also harder to eradicate, as it often insinuates the culture and even the way of living of populations around the world. As such, it can be effectively tackled only if people have the necessary knowledge to understand it and are empowered to stand up against it.

Transnational Crime Demands Transnational Strategies

While governments and law enforcement deal with mafias at a national level, the power of transnational organized crime has grown dramatically, in some cases undermining the democratic foundations of some countries. The new challenges of global crime that mainly come from infiltrations into the economic and financial system can no longer be ignored – countries must find effective strategies to control the illegal economy that revolves around transnational organized crime. The harmonization of laws across various nations is only one of the challenges to be addressed as soon as possible. Another major challenge lies in the «rules» of the global market. The criminal economy is against the laws of the countries, but not against those of the markets. It is also possible to economize outside or even against the law, and the mafias are the most authentic demonstration of this. It is no coincidence that the main world mafias (Italian, Russian, Chinese, Japanese, and South American) constitute the economic power in many developing countries and are capable of overturning the rules of the market, of conditioning the legal economy and democracy. Without new European and international regulatory interventions on occult economies and tax havens, starting with the breakdown of economic relations and financial embargoes, there is no progress because the «war» is fought with blunt weapons.

Trafficking of drugs, including cocaine, generates income to fund other crimes.

Twenty years after the UN Palermo Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC), despite the undoubted progress in the field of international judicial cooperation, some critical points still emerge from the practice of law enforcement. The result is a constant challenge to the rule of law and fundamental rights, which also undermines people's right to safety and their trust in public authorities. Even the phenomenon of international terrorism, in its current form, knows no borders of states and regions. To be effective, the fight against terrorism

should be conducted in connection with the fight against other forms of organized crime and with a united spirit among all the institutions involved. The fight against the phenomenon of narco-terrorism and, more generally, the deadly combination of terrorism and organized crime-for the trafficking of arms and human beings, for the smuggling of oil, for kidnapping for the purpose of extortion, and for the financing of terrorism itself – would require not only a joint commitment but, above all, a «recognition» of the existence of this functional link between crime and terror.

Fortunately, in the most recent practice, there have been very significant cases of use of the Palermo Convention for the purposes of international cooperation against international terrorism, for example, in the South American and North African context. In this context, the contrasting of assets and the recovery of the proceeds of crime should be a primary objective for all countries that intend not only to «contain» but to defeat criminal organizations. To this end, it is not enough to arrest those responsible without confiscating their assets and sending them to social reuse. However, the cross-border dimension of mafia organizations requires effective and rapid forms of judicial and police cooperation, strongly favoring the moment of international coordination aimed at collecting evidence and identifying personal and property objectives. Moreover, it would be completely illusory to think that the dimension of transnational organized crime, which is increasingly active in criminal trafficking involving other continents in a structured and intense way, can be countered with the singular action of European countries without establishing enhanced cooperation with a wide range of countries located outside the European Union. A clear sign of the lack of a shared strategy is provided by the different approaches in defining threats and risks: a fragmentation that considerably restricts the possibility of exercising effective contrast. Sometimes, it is a question of strategic myopia that weakens the force of supranational legislative and operational action.

The Council adopted priorities for the fight against serious and organised crime through the European multi-disciplinary platform against criminal threats (EMPACT). Within the EMPACT framework, EU member states, agencies and other actors will work closely together to address these key criminal threats, using tools such as law enforcement training and joint operational actions to dismantle criminal networks, their structures and business models.

EU serious and organised crime threat assessment, presented by Europol, member states have identified 10 crime priorities:

- **High-risk criminal networks:** To identify and disrupt high risk criminal networks active in the EU, with special emphasis on those using corruption, acts of violence, firearms and money laundering through parallel underground financial systems.
- **Cyber-attacks:** To target criminal offenders orchestrating cyber-attacks, particularly those offering specialised criminal services online.

• **Trafficking in human beings:** To disrupt criminal networks engaged in trafficking in human beings, with special focus on those who exploit minors, those who use or threaten with violence against victims and their families and those who recruit and advertise victims online.

• **Child sexual exploitation:** To combat child abuse online and offline, including the production and dissemination of child abuse material as well as online child sexual exploitation.

• **Migrant smuggling:** To fight against criminal networks involved in migrant smuggling, in particular those providing facilitation services along the main migratory routes.

• **Drugs trafficking :**To identify and target the criminal networks involved in drug trafficking, including trafficking and distribution of cannabis, cocaine, heroin, synthetic drugs and new psychoactive substances.

• **Fraud, economic and financial crimes:** To target criminals orchestrating fraud, economic and financial crimes, including online fraud schemes, excise fraud, missing trader intra community fraud (MTIC fraud), intellectual property crime, counterfeiting of goods and currencies, criminal finances and money laundering.

• **Organised property crime:** To disrupt criminal networks involved in organised property crime, with particular focus on organised burglaries, theft and robberies, motor vehicle crime and illegal trade in cultural goods.

• **Environmental crime:** To combat criminal networks involved in all forms of environmental crime and in particular those with a capability to infiltrate legal business structures or set up own companies to facilitate their crimes.

• **Firearms trafficking:** To target criminals involved in the illicit trafficking, distribution and use of firearms. In addition to these priorities, the production and provision of fraudulent and false documents will be addressed as a common horizontal strategic goal, since it is a key enabler for many crimes.

The European strategy launches and updates the instruments of the Palermo Convention that the countries of the European Union have (to varying degrees) developed over the past 20 years, offering new ideas for ever closer cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union. The first point of the new strategy is the facilitation of the exchange of information and timely access to it through the expansion of Europol's powers, including in cooperation with third countries, the interoperability of databases, and a new dedicated platform for the exchange of information and electronic evidence between investigators and magistrates, increasingly crucial in the digital age.

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FEATURES OF NON-CONTRACTUAL OBLIGATIONS IN NON-PROPERTY DAMAGE

Non-contractual obligations cover both tortious obligations and obligations which arise from unjust enrichment and analogous doctrines. Until relatively recently, choice of law rules formulated by the courts held sway in relation to both torts and restitution [1].

However, «non-contractual obligations» may also be understood in a more meaningful sense. Such a concept presupposes by implication first that the law of non-contractual obligations can plausibly be separated from contract law, and second that the law of non-contractual obligations can be explained as an internally coherent part of the law of obligations. In other words: non-contractual obligations may be presumed to be fundamentally different from contractual obligations on the one hand, and to be based, at least in part, on a coherent set of overarching principles on the other.

The law applicable to non-contractual obligations governs in particular:

- the basis and extent of liability, including determining who may be held liable;
- the grounds for exemption from liability and the limitation or division of liability;
- the existence, nature and assessment of damage and the remedy claimed;
- the measures the court may take to prevent or terminate injury or damage and ensure compensation;
- the manner in which an obligation may be extinguished and the rules relating to prescription or limitation;
- the question as to whether the right to seek compensation can be transferred to someone else, including by inheritance;
- persons entitled to compensation for damage they have sustained;
- liability for the acts of another person [2].

Today, a common source for such a meaningful concept of non-contractual obligations can be found on the basis of ideas that were once developed, by early natural lawyers, as a comprehensive theory of non-contractual obligations. Within the concept of restitution (*restitutio*), this theory comprised large parts of modern tort law and unjustified

enrichment. Here, it is not necessary to give a complete presentation of this overarching conception of non-contractual obligations. It suffices to understand the three fundamental ideas, or basic theoretical elements, underlying this theory of restitutio.

The first one was of genuinely Christian, theological origin: it was the Augustinian principle that a sin cannot be forgiven unless the sinner has given back what had been taken away.

The second fundamental element within the theory of restitutio was of philosophical nature. It was the Aristotelian concept of corrective justice, which was introduced into the medieval discourse on restitutio by Albertus Magnus and Aquinas. These philosophers re-interpreted the duty to make restitutio from the point of view of corrective justice.

The final fundamental element underlying the theory of restitutio transformed this still rather abstract conception of justice into a body of juridically applicable rules. It was the idea, authoritatively established by the leading early natural lawyer Francisco de Vitoria, that all restitution is based on the infringement [3].

There are specific rules for specific non-contractual obligations, for example product liability and intellectual property. Certain non-contractual obligations are excluded from the scope of the regulation. These include:

- revenue, customs and administrative matters;
- state liability;
- specific non-contractual obligations arising out of, for example, matrimonial property regimes and family relationships, nuclear damage or violations of privacy and rights relating to personality, including defamation [2].

The article proposes the concept of «non-contractual obligations» as a fundamental legal category of European private law. Non-contractual obligations are an internally agreed part of the obligation law and are fundamentally different from contractual obligations. In Ukraine it takes place in personal injury as «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [5].

Thus, unjust enrichment and tort law should not be seen as independent or opposite kinds of obligations. A fundamental aspect of this concept is that «unjust enrichment» should not be misunderstood as a separate legal category; rather, it is a basis for liability that is functionally and structurally comparable to concepts such as fault or individual responsibility that apply throughout the legal system as a whole.

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FUNCTIONING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE WORK OF THE POLICE

Learning English by employees of the National Police of Ukraine is currently a very urgent task, because with the political views of our country, which is on the path of European integration, one of the conditions for Ukraine's accession to the European Union will be to provide the executive authorities with employees who speak English. This is all due to the fact that all units and employees of the National Police of Ukraine will be tested for compliance with European standards, but after Ukraine's accession to the European Union, all police officers must be proficient in English, this condition is associated with the citizens of the European Union, who, having the citizenship of one of the member states, have full right to freedom of movement and residence anywhere in the territory of the Union, and the police is the first authority that will provide assistance to victims of offenses. But such a problem is not so easy to eliminate, because no one can force a police officer to learn English who is simply not interested in it, and in the educational institutions of the internal affairs system there are very few hours for learning English.

In Ukraine, English is the absolute leader (66.8 % of users from Ukraine study it on Duolingo), followed by German (8.77 %), Spanish (5.6 %) and French (5.15 %).

With the beginning of the full-scale invasion of russia on the territory of Ukraine, knowledge of English has become even more important than before, and now I will tell you why Firstly, now English has

become an integral part of not only the police, but also the military, as the equipment that comes from the West does not come with a manual in Ukrainian, and then men and women of the military who know English help a lot. Secondly, now fighters who came from other countries are fighting for Ukraine, and in order to accurately give them orders and keep in touch with them, it is necessary to know English.

And finally, I want to note that English is very necessary for employees of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, especially police officers, because with the beginning of Ukraine's accession to the EU, the number of foreigners in Ukraine will increase and, accordingly, people who come to our extraordinary country for the first time will need a lot of help from law enforcement agencies, and in order not to tarnish the dignity of such an important position as a police officer, all employees of the Ministry of Internal Affairs must know English at least at the level of «B2-B2+».

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**INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE FIGHT AGAINST CRIME
IN FINLAND AND SWEDEN**

Fighting crime is an important function of the state, which means the activities of competent state bodies to respond to crime as a social phenomenon, eliminate and prevent negative consequences for society.

Modern crime is becoming more mobile and active, which is facilitated by the intensification of migration processes, liberalization of the regime of crossing state borders, the use by offenders of the latest telecommunication, information, transport, banking and other technologies that allow encroaching on objects protected by law «remotely» (being outside the state on the territory of which criminal activity is committed). The number of organized transnational criminal associations is growing. An increasing number of criminal practices (trafficking in human beings, illegal actions in the field of transplantation, illegal trafficking in psychoactive substances, smuggling, sale of weapons and ammunition, domestic and international terrorism, crimes in the field of information technology and intellectual property, international corruption, legalization of criminally acquired property, movement of environmentally hazardous substances from one state to another, theft of vehicles with their sale outside the country, theft of art objects and international illegal trade in them, etc.) are characterized as the «international component».

Interest in studying foreign experience in combating crime is constantly growing, which indicates an attempt to study the best preventive

practices of individual countries and introduce them in Ukraine. However, as for their direct study of crime prevention programming in foreign countries, there is a lack of such studies today, which increases the relevance of the chosen direction of research and gives prospects for identifying effective practices in the application of the program-targeted approach to combating crime.

In the future, taking into account Ukraine's course towards European and Euro-Atlantic integration, it is necessary to consider modern approaches to crime prevention programming in some foreign countries, namely, I propose to consider the experience of Sweden and Finland, and to determine some prospects for Ukraine in this area.

First of all, it should be noted that the choice of an appropriate strategy and the formation of an appropriate preventive or anti-crime program by a particular country is determined not only by the current crime situation in these countries and the world, but also by the relevant historical and cultural traditions. In most cases, when considering the peculiarities of crime prevention programming in foreign countries, it is necessary to take into account the fact that a particular country belongs to the relevant criminological system. Below we consider the existing criminological systems of combating crime.

Now in criminology there are Anglo-American, Western European, East Asian, socialist, Muslim and mixed criminological systems.

Sweden and Finland belong to the Nordic model of ensuring criminological security, which is based on the optimal combination of democracy, social policy and public trust. Historical, legal and social peculiarities determine the specifics of combating crime in the Scandinavian countries, where criminological thought and approaches are strongly influenced by sociological and socio-psychological concepts, and the practice of combating combines the use of severe punishment along with measures of general social prevention.

Crime prevention encompasses the implementation of large-scale social measures to improve the standard of living and quality of life, create equal opportunities for education, medical care and other services and support of socially vulnerable categories of the population.

Thus, in Finland, a separate National Crime Prevention Program has been developed and is being implemented crime prevention program (2016–2020) «Working together for security and a safer society» of November 24 2016, which is aimed at improving crime prevention measures at the local level and stimulating the participation of residents in local activities. It also lays down approaches to social crime prevention and situational prevention.

Crime prevention measures are planned and implemented by the National Crime Prevention Council, which operates under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice. The main priorities of the Council are to promote cooperation in crime prevention and to disseminate information on effective crime prevention methods.

The Crime Prevention Programme has five main objectives and includes 29 activities objectives and includes 29 activities to be implemented by the participants in different sectors participants in different sectors.

The main objectives are:

- 1) foreseeing crime prevention in other municipal plans;
- 2) improving cooperation and interaction in the field of crime prevention between public authorities, businesses, organizations and citizens;
- 3) raising qualifications in the field of crime prevention for national and local levels;
- 4) consulting local residents and non-governmental organizations in planning crime prevention activities;
- 5) improving the ability of citizens to influence and participate in crime prevention and increase the sense of security in their communities.

Based on the approved program, NCPC develops a separate Action Plan for the implementation of the Program.

By its structure, the Program has a typical character and consists of four sections, namely: 1) vision of the program; 2) crime prevention work and conditions of its implementation; 3) goals and measures of the program (3.1 – role of crime prevention in other municipal plans; 3.2 – improvement of cooperation and interaction with public authorities, business, organizations and citizens; 3.3 – professional development in crime prevention; 3.4 – consulting local residents and public organizations in planning crime prevention activities; 3.5 – opportunities for citizens to influence and participate in crime prevention and increase the feeling of safety and security).

In Sweden, as in Finland, there is also the Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention, which has a coordinating and supervisory role. Since 2016, at all levels.

The National Prevention Program «Fighting Crime Together» has been implemented at all levels.

It should also be noted that in Sweden and Finland, as well as in most countries of the European Union, the emphasis in combating crime in modern conditions is shifting from punitive policy (special prevention) to social and situational prevention with the intensification of the processes of broad public involvement in prevention. In fact, today we can observe a certain symbiosis of the implementation in these countries of the classical model (primary, secondary and tertiary prevention) of crime prevention and the neoclassical model, which includes: prevention through the development of the environment (Development Prevention), crime prevention with the involvement of the public (Community Prevention), situational prevention (Situative Prevention).

At the same time, the process of forming preventive programs to counteract crime is mostly carried out using the «top-down» approach (when the relevant security strategy/strategies are adopted at the state level strategy/strategies or program/programs are adopted at the state level and

they are mandatory for implementation at all levels). This approach ensures a more effective and faster process of coordination in combating crime, but at the same time does not create full opportunities for a variety of measures that can be applied by local authorities.

National Councils (centers, committees, commissions) for crime prevention (or public safety) continue to play a coordinating role in the process of preparation and implementation of preventive programs at various levels in most foreign countries, in Finland and Sweden. In most countries, a well-coordinated network of actors has been formed to formulate and implement crime prevention policy (governmental, non-governmental organizations, coordination groups, prevention councils, academic institutions, civil society, etc.).

Financing of programs in Sweden and Finland, as in most foreign countries, includes expenditures from the state and local budgets, special funds for crime prevention. International and private donors are also actively involved. In this direction, a policy is being implemented to increase investments aimed at real crime prevention (early prevention) to reduce the «price of crime» in the future.

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ENSURING THE PRINCIPLE OF THE RULE OF LAW DURING THE PRE-JUDICIAL INVESTIGATION UNDER THE CONDITIONS OF MARTIAL STATE

Pretrial investigation is an important part (form) of criminal proceedings. At this stage, the evidence base is created and organized, on the basis of which the court administers justice. The Institute of Investigative (Investigative) Actions is the main component of the pre-trial investigation, which actually is the basis of the criminal proceedings. Investigative (search) actions, in turn, are aimed at obtaining, collecting or checking already received evidence in criminal proceedings.

The rule of law during the planning, organization, conduct and recording of investigative actions obliges the authorized subjects to ensure and not violate the rights and freedoms of the participants in the criminal proceedings. Establishing and regulating the procedure for the implementation of investigative actions, the legislator allows restrictions on the rights and freedoms of participants in criminal proceedings.

An important point is the changes in the criminal procedural legislation of Ukraine regarding the pre-trial investigation in the conditions of martial law. It is worth noting that Art. 615 of the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine was supplemented with new provisions, in particular, on the initiation of a pre-trial investigation, recording of the results of a pre-trial investigation, features of conducting a search or inspection of a dwelling, the impossibility of exercising the powers of an investigating judge and choosing a preventive measure, detaining a person and the term of his detention without a decision of the investigating judge, the participation of a defense attorney, special features completion of pre-trial investigation and recovery of lost materials of criminal proceedings.

I would like to pay special attention to the peculiarities of conducting a search or inspection of housing under martial law. In accordance with Clause 1, Part 1, Art. 615 of the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine "a search or inspection of a dwelling may be carried out without the involvement of witnesses in case of potential danger to their life or health. However, in such a case, continuous video recording should be carried out with the help of available technical means."

The rights of individuals become the most vulnerable and unprotected in the process of carrying out this investigative action, because during its conduct there is a direct interference with them.

Obtaining evidentiary information in the process of conducting such investigative actions can be a means of gross violation of human rights and freedoms. The evidence that was obtained as a result of human rights

violations has a significant impact on the process of proving, their research and evaluation by the court during the trial. Such evidence is considered inadmissible. Therefore, compliance with the rule of law in this aspect is an important point.

I also want to draw attention to the participation of the defense counsel, in accordance with Part 12 of Article 615 of the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine In case of impossibility of the direct participation of the defense counsel during a separate procedural action in accordance with Art. 53 of the Criminal Procedure Code, the investigator or inquirer must ensure its conduct through the remote participation of the defender by means of audio and video communication.

The rule of law provides for the proper implementation of the defense function at each stage of criminal proceedings. It is very important that even in the conditions of martial law, this moment is fully thought out and legislated.

The lack of national legal remedies violates the procedural aspect of human rights, since the rights of victims and public interests remain unprotected, which violates a number of provisions of the Constitution of Ukraine, the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine, the Resolution of the Supreme Administrative Court of Ukraine «On the Application of Legislation that Ensures the Right to Defense in Criminal Proceedings» № 8 of 24.10.2003 and international legislation, in particular Art. 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights.

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**PLACE OF THE CRIME – UKRAINE.
DOCUMENTATION AND INVESTIGATION OF WAR CRIMES:
INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE**

On February 24, 2022, a large-scale invasion of the Russian Federation into Ukraine began. All nine months of hostilities, the occupiers robbed, raped, tortured and killed thousands of civilians. Residential buildings, cultural monuments, educational institutions, hospitals, power supply systems are being destroyed. All these are war crimes in the sense of Ukrainian legislation and international humanitarian law.

According to the Office of the Prosecutor General, from the beginning of the full-scale invasion of Russia 315n February 24, 2022 and until August 2, law enforcement agencies registered more than 38,714 criminal proceedings regarding crimes related to Russian aggression, of which more than 25,323 were related to war crimes [1].

However, 315 n 315 n very important to properly document the crimes committed by the aggressor. After all, the documented evidence will be used for criminal prosecution of those involved in accordance with Ukrainian and international legislation. And 315 n foreign colleagues already have the relevant practice, then for the Ukrainian law enforcement system war crimes 315n a large scale are a completely new direction of work.

Currently, one of the main issues in the harmonization of Ukrainian and international legislation 315n the ratification of the Rome Statute, a treaty that gives the right to the International Criminal Court, i.e. 315n international tribunal, to consider such crimes as genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes and crimes of aggression [2].

On October 18, the UN's independent international commission to investigate violations in Ukraine presented a detailed written report to the UN General Assembly. The document records a large number of war crimes, violations of human rights and international humanitarian law committed by Russian troops during the aggression against Ukraine [3]. Among the crimes recorded in the preliminary report of the Commission are:

– **indiscriminate attacks with explosive weapons in populated areas**, that is, precautionary measures to reduce harm to the civilian population were not taken;

– **creating threats to the civilian population**, which means the Russian armed forces deliberately deploying their troops or equipment in residential areas or near civilians;

– **attacks on the civilian population**, when the Russian armed forces shot at civilians who were trying to escape to a safe place and get food or other necessary things, which led to the killing or wounding of people;

– **extrajudicial executions**, which are a violation of the right to life and war crimes;

– **illegal detention, inhumane treatment and forced displacement**, as evidenced by numerous cases of detention of large numbers of civilians in temporary facilities, without informing the victims of the reasons for their detention, without access to food, water and medical care, and illegal detention often was preceded by executions, sexual violence, torture and ill-treatment;

– **torture and ill-treatment**, which is a violation of the prohibition of torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, as well as a war crime;

– **sexual and gender-based violence**, i.e. cases of rape committed by some soldiers of the Russian armed forces in settlements under their control [3].

Four main groups of sources of significant information about war crimes can be identified: personal sources (testimony of witnesses, victims, suspects (prisoners) about the circumstances of the event); material sources (material situation, places of destruction, abandoned equipment, things, weapons, ammunition, explosive objects that did not detonate, fragments of ammunition, corpses with signs of violent death; traces of biological origin in cases of torture, rape; materials and substances (soils, water, etc.), testifying to the facts of the use of prohibited weapons, the facts of contamination of the ecosystem with dangerous substances, etc.); digital sources (materials of photo and video recording of events, data of electronic, computer and telecommunication networks, geolocation data of vehicles equipped with GPS beacons, data from open sources of digital information, etc.); documentary sources (protocols, orders, orders, orders, plans for military operations, supply orders, personal documents of combatants, financial documents, etc.) [4].

The war will certainly end with the victory of the Ukrainian people over the Russian invaders and full compensation for the harm caused. The issues of documenting and investigating international crimes in Ukraine are fundamental and extremely important. How to collect evidence so that it is acceptable not only in national law enforcement and judicial bodies, but also in international institutions, in fact, accepted as evidence by the International Criminal Court [5].

Summing up, it should be noted that currently Ukrainian law enforcement officers have faced a new phenomenon for Ukraine, when in the field of war crimes investigation, virtually new subjects have appeared, and according to experts [1, 2, 5] there are issues that require immediate attention solution, namely:

– recording and transfer of evidence collected by representatives of civil society, journalists, volunteers;

– a detailed explanation of the new section of the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine regarding cooperation with the International Criminal Court and the participation of foreigners in investigations.

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COMBATING CRIME IN THE SPHERE OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN UKRAINE

Nowadays human trafficking is one of the greatest human right violation. In Ukraine, it is also an urgent problem. It is constantly being studied and analyzed theoretically and practically. In fact, human trafficking is the form of slavery related to kidnapping linked, violence and ruthless exploitation of human beings. However, in analyzing the publications and statements devoted to this problem, it becomes clear that the term «human trafficking» relates to a narrower category, namely, trafficking in women and children with the aim of sexual exploitation or use of forced labor. Therefore, first the interpretation of this term is limited to women and children trafficking with the aim of slavery, prostitution, porn industry. However, any person may be a victim of this crime despite of gender, age, nationality and religion.

According to statistics, rural people and citizens of small towns with limited opportunities for job search are the victims of this crime. These people are easy to be misled, they agree to forced labor or sexual exploitation because of large debt or threat of violence. Also on the territory of Ukraine the victims of such crime predominantly, become people from Moldova, Uzbekistan, Pakistan, Cameroon and Azerbaijan [1].

Furthermore, the term «human trafficking» is often confused with the term «illegal migration», because of usage of a border crossing without

required documents by criminals. The main difference lies in criminal's aim and in victim's awareness about the conditions and character of work. If it is «smuggling of illegal migrants», the aim of a criminal is a remuneration from a migrant for the illegal border crossing. That's where his interest ends. As for «human trafficking», the aim of a trafficker is getting remuneration not from a migrant but from his recipient.

To respond to this problem adequately our country with all the international community, should contribute to dissemination of common terms and notions for other countries and international organizations for fighting and elimination of this type of crime.

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THE PROBLEM OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING IN THE ARMED CONFLICTS: PREVENTION AND COMBATING

The problem of increasing global phenomenon of human trafficking is one of the most serious human rights violation that we face in the 21st century. Human trafficking affects the lives of millions of people of different age, gender, nationality, race, economic and demographic inequalities all around the world. According to the escalation of the amount of armed conflicts, such as Syrian war, Armenia–Azerbaijan border crisis, Iraq conflict, Kurdish–Turkish conflict, russia's invasion in Ukraine, etc., the most vulnerable groups of people who may become the victims of human trafficking are refugees and other forcibly displaced people. So that, it is critically important to eradicate all forms of human trafficking and prevent the new ones.

Human trafficking is the trade of people which includes recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring through force, fraud or deception, with the aim of exploiting them for profit. The international legal framework for addressing the issue of human trafficking cuts across a spectrum of areas of international law including human rights, transnational and international criminal law, humanitarian law, and international labour law. Recently, the

Security Council Resolution 2331 (2016) condemned all instances of human trafficking in areas affected by armed conflicts [4].

Conflict situations greatly increase the risks of trafficking in persons. People in fear are supposed to flee, leaving behind more than just their homes. Being away from their familiar surroundings, they often lose their community support networks and end up being socially and culturally isolated. The vast majority of those are women and children, who cross the borders without resources and places to go that makes them vulnerable to human trafficking. Since Russia's massive invasion in Ukraine on February 24 more than 10 million people have fled Ukraine. As the war continues, this amount of people desperate from income, employment, or the promise of safety and security has been growing [5]. For the millions of people who are forced to flee their country because of armed conflict, their way of escape has become increasingly expensive and hazardous - and the risk of trafficking-related exploitation has risen sharply. Refugees fleeing the East and the South of Ukraine are compelled to pass through Russia, that has arranged the war. Throughout their way and at their destination, refugees are highly vulnerable to physical violence, sexual assault, extortion, trafficking and detention by national authorities.

Armed conflicts fuel the impunity, the breakdown of law and order, the destruction of institutions and communities that foster the conditions in which trafficking will flourish, often well past the point at which hostilities cease [6]. In many armed conflicts there is reported a forced military recruitment, typically of young adult men. It should be noted that several States have amended their anti-trafficking laws to include recruitment into military service as a form of «exploitation», which, when combined with means such as fraud, coercion or abuse of a position of vulnerability may constitute human trafficking. Many of those children are abducted for use as combatants. There have been reports of children being forcibly recruited or kidnapped for use by armed militias in the ongoing conflicts in Ukraine and Syria. The additional reports mention children being used as suicide bombers and human shields in Afghanistan and Iraq. Male and female children in these situations are often sexually abused and may also be forced to take drugs [2]. Consequently, they face a range of serious physical and psychological problems.

So that it is important to consider the ways in which the international community, states and civil society can work together to raise awareness about trafficking during the conflicts, work to prevent such trafficking, and respond quickly, appropriately and effectively when it does occur. International law requires States to criminalize and penalise a range of conduct related to trafficking. The obligation to criminalize trafficking when committed intentionally is set out in Article 5 of the Trafficking Protocol. Most States are party to the Protocol and thereby bound by this obligation [3].

It is necessary to determine the ways of combating and preventing human trafficking in armed conflicts. First of all, refugees should be

informed by central level to enable accuracy and consistency of information, avoiding the fragmentation. Secondly, to ensure sufficient protection for children, especially unaccompanied and separated children. To reduce the risks of human trafficking, there is a clear need for effective temporary guardianship mechanisms to be in place and for alternative housing for children, outside institutional care. Furthermore, the lack of financial means puts refugees at risk of trafficking – especially those who (due to non-registration) have no access to financial support or income [1].

Ukraine cooperates with Europol in investigation of serious crimes, including human trafficking. Europol set up a dedicated Virtual Command Post for human trafficking to facilitate real-time operational exchange between Ukraine and some other countries. They coordinated online joint action day targeted criminal networks grooming Ukrainian refugees for sexual and labour exploitation via websites and social media platforms. Law enforcement authorities from 14 EU Member States took part in it. The investigators monitored different online platforms to detect criminal networks attempting to recruit vulnerable Ukrainian refugees. The online investigations focused on the monitoring of posts offering help to refugees for transportation, accommodation and work. During the action day, investigators identified suspicious advertisements, looked into tips received from citizens, reviewed indicators of potential trafficking of human beings for sexual and labour exploitation and updated their situational awareness on existing online platforms linked to trafficking activities.

Unfortunately, Ukraine currently has no national action plan or strategy on combating trafficking. Preventing human trafficking of refugees governments need to step up the establishment of policies and action plans, and ensure adequate resources for their implementation. Conversely, developments that seek to curtail and limit refugee protection will likely negatively impact trafficked persons' access to and enjoyment of such protection. For today it is extremely important to make such researches in order to analyze problematic aspects of combating and prevention of human trafficking during the armed conflicts. Moreover, we have to concentrate attention on close cooperation between law enforcement agencies throughout the including both national and international. And the criminal justice response to human trafficking during the armed conflicts needs to be enhanced.

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ORGANIZED CRIME AND CORRUPTION

Organized crime and endemic corruption threaten the stability of Ukraine and undermine its transition to a market economy. The indigenous crime problem of Ukraine is significant, but the problems are exacerbated by the criminalization of the Russian state and most of the successor states of the former USSR. Ukraine's very independence is threatened by its inability to satisfy its citizens' financial needs, a problem severely exacerbated by the endemic corruption and the hijacking of the privatization process by former members of the nomenklatura (party elite). Nationalism, a potent force for state construction in Ukraine, cannot alone counteract the corrosive impacts of crony capitalism and organized crime.

Corruption in Ukraine is strongly linked to organized crime. It is clear that the fusion of money and power since independence in 1991 transformed the role of Ukraine's law enforcement institutions, so that their original task of protecting the Soviet system from within became one of supporting criminal activity by the new economic and political elites. Organized crime became synonymous with the functioning of the state.

Present day organized crime and corruption in Ukraine, complex in both content and structure, are a direct result of the profound economic, cultural, and political changes brought about during Ukraine's transition as a Newly Independent State. According to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, in 1990, the number of recorded economic crimes in Ukraine was 35, 723; by 1999, this figure had risen to 65,724. Hidden figures and underreporting, however, ensure that these numbers are a gross underestimate. The highest levels of criminal activity occur in the credit and financial system; the fuel and energy sector, the area of taxation; mining and metals industries; foreign economic activity; and the area of privatization. Money is laundered through real estate, insurance, financial and non-financial institutions, shell companies, and bulk cashsmuggling schemes. Criminals use aliases to register as [ultimate beneficial owners] UBOs of companies to comeingle licit and illicit funds. Transnational organized crime syndicates use Ukraine as a transit country for money and drugs. Transactions are routed through offshore tax havens to obscure ownership, evade taxes, or mask illicit profits.

The concept of «mafia», widely used to describe rackets, the most pervasive element of low-level organized crime, is not the most disturbing element of the crime problem. The criminal-political nexus – the alliance of the former party elite, members of the law enforcement and security apparatuses, and the gangs of organized criminals who together penetrate the licit and illicit sectors – is the most pernicious element of the crime phenomenon in Ukraine.

Criminalization of the banking sector and the exploitation of the privatization process have been major impediments to the development of a free market and an equitable distribution of property. The extent of these problems distinguishes organized crime and corruption in the successor states from those of other coun – tries with serious crime problems. Organized crime associated with banking and financial markets is more destabilizing than the more conventional elements of organized crime activity such as extortion, prostitution, and gambling rackets.

Realistically, organized economic crime cannot exist without the cooperation of government entities. It is no coincidence that the term «oligarchy» has become firmly entrenched in the Ukrainian political lexicon. It is testimony to the symbiosis of the criminal, business and political worlds in Ukraine. In Ukraine, 364 of 450 national deputies have ties to the economic activities of 3,100 businesses that were responsible for 23.5 % of the country's exports and 10 % of the country's imports. Taken together, these businesses had a 4.1 billion hryvnia debt to the state budget.

In the past ten years, economic reform in Ukraine has not served to deter economic crime, but rather has encouraged the conditions under which it can thrive. Failed economic reform resulted in many undesirable activities and outcomes, including the unequal allocation of areas of the economy that yield super profits. For example, public officials are gaining access to financing and crediting privileges in super-profitable economic areas – areas that possess the highest level of liquidity and recoupment of capital investment such as distillery and tobacco production, foodstuff and oil-processing industry and etc. Other undesirable activities and outcomes include: the creation of monopoly associations and privileges; illegal redistribution of state resources to criminal businesses; granting of privileges to corporate and bureaucratic entities; fluctuations in pricing; and a significant decline in production in areas with low concentrations of resources. The resulting economic crisis opened the door for illegal exportation of goods to foreign countries, theft of currency and fraud. As a result, Ukraine was plunged into an economic crisis with all its negative consequences: a decline in production, economic imbalance, a decline in the standard of living, inflation and hyperinflation, a decrease in the productivity of labor and so on. This then created ideal conditions for rampant organized economic crime and corruption including: smuggling, exporting of unlicensed raw materials and rare-earth metals, massive tax evasion, counterfeiting, price manipulation, monetary resources fraud, engaging in forbidden trades, the establishment of fictitious enterprises,

lending operations using counterfeit notes, murder-for-hire, contract killings, and so on.

In Ukraine, individuals pursue a parliamentary career because it gives them an immunity from prosecution. Politicians are very reluctant to lift their colleagues' immunity, even when confronted with overwhelming evidence of their criminality. The impunity of politicians raises questions among the citizens concerning the integrity of the legislative process. Compounding their cynicism is that election to parliament often allows members to rapidly acquire wealth. A hole in the law permits members of parliament to obtain consultancies from foreign governments, foreign and Ukrainian institutions, and other organizations. Despite the rapid turnover in these high offices, individuals use their short terms in office for rapid enrichment.

The common belief in Ukraine is that Ukrainian organized crime is as equally powerful as the state; it is running the economy; and it is immune from criminal prosecution. Its presence undermines Ukrainian attempts to normalize market relations and combat economic criminal activity. Ukrainian law enforcement agencies and supervisory bodies require restructuring aimed at increasing the qualitative effectiveness of law enforcement activities. The need for the NBI or a similar agency responsible for pretrial investigation, removing the sources of corruption and economic crime, and forecasting the dynamics of crime in Ukraine is urgent. Reforming law enforcement agencies and supervisory bodies before new legislation and directives are developed must be a prerequisite to help state agencies battle and overcome organized economic crime.

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LINGUISTICS AND LAW IN THE SECURITY SPHERE

The security sphere of Ukraine is characterized by a high level of uncertainty, a significant influence of global processes and development trends, the presence of a number of unsolved problems in the system of public administration and the system of ensuring national security.

International cooperation is important both for an individual country and for the global community.

As we know, the word is the main means of communication, it can save and take life, to establish and withdraw laws, to call for both humanity and violence.

Language and law as forms of social consciousness form a unique legal phenomenon - the language of law.

Scientific research in recent decades is characterized by activation the interest of linguists in studying the language of law.

The dramatic events currently taking place in the world, first of all, the war waged by the Russian Federation, a state that possesses nuclear weapons and is still a permanent member of the UN Security Council, against Ukraine, which at one time gave up nuclear weapons in exchange for international security guarantees, test the strength and viability of existing mechanisms for ensuring peace and security, test the effectiveness of international organizations and alliances in practice, intensify the search for new mechanisms for ensuring global, regional and national security [1].

In Art. 10 of the Constitution of Ukraine says: «In the state language Ukrainian is the language in Ukraine. The state provides comprehensive development and functioning of the Ukrainian language in all spheres social life throughout the territory of Ukraine. The state contributes the study of languages of international communication».

The history of each of the languages is studied in an inextricable connection with the history of the people who are the speakers of this language, its creator. So, periodization of the Ukrainian literary language is closely related to periodization of the history of the Ukrainian people.

The desire of Ukrainians to build their own statehood was always associated with the struggle for the rights of the native language (native consider the language of their nation, their ancestors, which connects a person with theirs people, previous generations). World experience proves that that the basis of the spiritual unity of people in a certain community is first of all, language.

The national language is not only a cultural heritage, but also one of foundations of the state's protection of its right to exist.

An example of that is language politics of Israel. The state language in Israel is Hebrew, or whatever more often it is called the Israeli language.

In the case of Hebrew, the linguist is dealing almost with a biblical one the legend of the resurrection of Lazarus: when Eliezer Ben-Yehuda, who or not contributed the most to the development of Hebrew at the end of the 19th century came to Palestine, Hebrew was practically a dead language.

The revival of its spoken version, which began at the end XIX century and gained momentum from the middle of the 20th century. (when it was announced independence of Israel), preceded by centuries of purely written existence.

The efforts of a small group of Hebrew language enthusiasts were training manuals were created, dictionaries were compiled, developed educational programs and implemented in schools, open periodic edition. A lot of effort and money was invested in this case, and by mistake it would be considered that the language policy of the government has just been announced of a state that was just seeking recognition and was in a state

permanent conflict with Palestine, did not encounter resistance from the side own citizens, for whom this language was foreign at that time.

The Israelis were not going to think of themselves as bearers of values that they had learned under the pressure of foreign cultures, or the continuation of a way of thinking, imposed on them under foreign rule, and therefore by speakers of a language that is not reflects their uniqueness. This would indicate the second nature of the nation.

So through a system of thought-out cultural and educational and quite the government of the newly created state took tough political and legal measures a language that has long since ceased to be spoken and which supposedly has ceased to exist «native» for Jews, the language of daily communication among millions. And this is for half a century of the existence of the state.

Measures and methods of introducing Hebrew to young people at that time the state of Israel should not even be compared with the language politics of Ukraine, they are not equal [2, p. 54].

Therefore, the state politics in the language sphere should contribute spread of the Ukrainian language to all spheres of broadcasting and promotion the prestige of everything Ukrainian.

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THE PROBLEM OF PUNISHMENT IN THE FORM OF PENAL POINTS FOR ROAD TRAFFIC VIOLATION AND ITS PREVENTION

Due to the reforming of the Ukrainian society in all spheres of legal relationship, it was decided to go way of liberalization and humanity, availability and clarity.

Reforms concern also road safety. In this regard some changes were made to the Code of Ukraine on Administrative Offenses, namely now according to Article 24 part one of Paragraph 21 of the Code of Ukraine on Administrative Offenses for commission of offenses it can be applied collecting in the form of penalty points.

The problem of our work consists in expediency and validity of a newly introduced system of penal points and its ensuring with means automatic video fixing.

In addition, Article 27 informs that penal points are the collecting imposed on citizens for offenses in the sphere of road traffic, recorded in the automatic mode, established by the present Code [1].

Each citizen, who has the right to drive the vehicle annually since the beginning of year (from the date of obtaining the right of driving) and until the end of the year, receive 150 points.

In case of fixing of offense in the sphere of safety of traffic in the automatic mode the number of the penal points provided by the relevant article of the Special part of the present Code calculates from total number of points of the citizen who committed offense.

In case if the amount of collecting in the form of penal points exceeds the rest of points of the citizen, penal points are imposed according to the rest irrespective of the size of the penal points specified in the relevant article of the Special part of this Code.

In addition, it is necessary get to know Article 122 of Code of Ukraine on Administrative Offenses excess of the set restrictions of speed of the movement, thoroughfare on the forbidding signal of regulation of traffic and violation of other traffic regulations [2].

Excess of the set restrictions of speed of the movement of vehicles more than on twenty kilometers per hour, violation of requirements of road signs and marking of the carriageway of roads, rules of transportation of freight, towage of vehicles, stops, parking place, thoroughfare of pedestrian crossing, not giving preference to pedestrians on unregulated pedestrian crossings and also violation established for vehicles, the ban to move on sidewalks or foot-paths, involve to imposing of a penalty of fifteen thousand non-taxable minimum incomes of citizens or 50 penal points.

In our opinion, the use of a system of penal points is expedient for several reasons.

At first, it is a type of collecting which is precautionary and allows the driver to analyze the behavior on the road, to follow the number of penal points. Also this action is fair and equal for all participants of traffic, annually the counting of penalty points begin from fixed grade - 150 penalty points. It makes impossible the "congestion" of penalty points for next year. Consequently, principle of equality of all citizens before the law is providing.

Secondly, penal points discharge the disciplining function; drivers will keep their points every year. If to adapt the theory of "the broken windows" for realities of road traffic safety, so that less offenders in the sphere of traffic safety will be careless to operate on roads, and other participants of the movement will not accept an illegal example from them and consequently the movement on roads will be safer.

Thirdly, penal points are the least retaliatory by all types of responsibility. Therefore it confirms the ideas of humanity which modern Ukrainian society adheres and the policy of the state in the sphere of regulation of legal relationship is carried out.

Fourthly, fixings of the movement of a stream of motor transport means of automatic video fixing with demonstration of the corresponding road signs is a preventive measure, possible violators will behave less aggressively if they know that for traffic offenses the corresponding collecting not only in the form of penal points, but also itself a penalty will be applied to them (after use of 150 penal points).

In such a way, the use of a system of penal points is expedient collecting which is based on the principles of prevention of offense, but not punishment for its commission and consequently is in the motivational and disciplining way of safety of traffic by drivers.

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CURRENT CHALLENGES FACING THE EFFECTIVE ENFORCEMENT OF INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW

The changing nature of warfare in the 21st century poses a multitude of challenges to the perceived applicability of International Humanitarian Law for both State and non-State actors in contemporary conflicts. These issues, including but not limited to: ambiguity in the distinction of violent conflict, the changing type of actors involved, issues of asymmetric warfare, challenges of negative reciprocity, and an inhibited ability to engage with all parties to conflict, are detrimental to the overriding purpose of IHL. Still, the oftentimes inefficient nature of the international system, as well as lack of consensus regarding new legislation means that formal changes in IHL to more flexibly reflect the reality of situations will not be developed anytime in the near future. Therefore, it is in the best interest of all parties to non-international conflicts to aspire to better respect the existing norms of IHL, which can only be attained if States recognize the dire need for inclusive engagement with all types of non-State actors. In addition, practices of positive reciprocity must be carried out by all parties, in order to better serve the ultimate goal of International Humanitarian Law: the reduction of human suffering, and the preservation of human dignity in times of violent armed conflict.

Most articulately stated, International Humanitarian Law (IHL), also known as the Law of Armed Conflict or the Law of War, «is the body of rules that, in wartime, protects persons who are not or are no longer participating in the hostilities»; and seeks to limit the methods and means of

warfare while preventing human suffering in times of armed conflict [1]. The principle instruments of IHL are the four universally ratified Geneva Conventions of 1949 as well as the three Additional Protocols of 1977 and 2005, as they stipulate that civilians and wounded or captured combatants must be treated in a humane manner. While the term *jus ad bellum* refers to the set of lawful criteria considered before engagement in war, *jus in bello* (IHL) is the law that governs the way in which warfare is conducted, irrespective of whether or not the cause of war is just. It works to humanize war, and protect civilians by creating distinctions between who and what may be targeted in conflicts, how this targeting is executed, weapons allowed, and the rights and obligations of combatant forces [2]. In the laws of war, principles of distinction, proportionality, and necessary precaution for minimal effects on civilians are essential to the way in which armed forces may participate in combat [3]. Accordingly, IHL focuses on governing how military operations may take place, instead of the legality for the reason of why they take place. In addition to formally adopted legislation of IHL, the rules of customary international humanitarian law are norms based on human rights that are considered to be binding even for states who have not officially ratified the Additional Protocols [4]. Furthermore, IHL distinguishes between two types of armed conflict – international armed conflicts (IACs) fought between at least two States, and noninternational armed conflicts (NIACs) that do not involve two States as opposing parties to the fighting—in order to extend its jurisdiction to as many instances as possible, so it may reduce humanitarian violations at all levels of armed conflict.

Yet, in light of the changing conditions characterizing armed conflict in the 21st century, there exist many challenges to the proper application of IHL in the world today. Arguably, the perception of its irrelevance in contemporary conflicts for both State and non-State actors is the most significant obstacle to preserving its original objectives, and the subsequent lack of compliance – in any form – is undeniably detrimental to its overriding purpose. It is argued that recent developments in warfare, which change the nature of violent conflict, have led many to perceive IHL as non-applicable in the modern era. Issues concerning challenges to humanitarian intervention, while essential for providing relief to victims of war and natural disaster, are outside the scope of this paper. Instead, non-compliance by parties to the actual armed conflict due to perceived irrelevance, and subsequent practices of negative reciprocity are the most significant challenges for International Humanitarian Law and the *jus in bello* doctrine in contemporary warfare – representing a vicious cycle that is most detrimental to its underlying purpose of reducing human suffering. Finally, because of the lack of consensus in the international system regarding if, and/or how IHL should be revised to better reflect 21st century conflict, this challenge can only be overcome by 1) an increased awareness of the beneficial incentives for abiding by existing IHL on the part of non-State actors 2) the realization of the benefits of positive reciprocity by both States

and non-State actors, and 3) increased willingness of States to engage in nonexclusive dialogue on behalf of all parties involved.

It is perhaps readily apparent that one of the most prominent challenges to the effectiveness of International Humanitarian Law is the issue of non-compliance by the multitude of non-state actors formerly mentioned. But analogous to this problem is the fact that non-State actors are not autonomously or voluntarily Party to the treaties and conventions under which they are legally bound. Instead, IHL as ratified by States around the world includes the definitions of, and stipulations for NSAs in times of armed conflict simply because they are de facto parties to the conflict. The theory referred to as the 'principle of legislative jurisdiction' is a majority view of the international community, holding that non-state actors are bound under IHL by reason of their being active on the territory of a Contracting Party (a State Party to the Geneva Conventions and/or its Additional Protocols). But without their participation in the creation of these laws, and even oftentimes without their knowledge of them, it is difficult to expect comprehensive compliance, and ironically, «there are no groups that feel less represented by the State than armed opposition groups». Aside from a contradiction regarding the treatment of NSAs in domestic law versus IHL, the mere fact that non-State actors are not privy to the international laws governing them does little to ensure that they will abide by their standards. Thus, arguably at the heart of this issue is the denial of consent and participation in rule making. In addition, the argument of IHL's inherent «legitimacy» has little substance from the perspective of non-State actors, and «willingness to comply on the part of an actor is crucially dependent on the perception of its having consented to, or at least having participated in the formation of the law one is bound by». As such, in a period when violent non-State actors increasingly exert influence in modern warfare, the reality that only States are party to the treaties of IHL is a negative factor hindering effective compliance.

For as long as non-state armed groups are a reality of war, their existence and influence must not be ignored; nor should the paradigm that some are inherently 'bad' restrict productive dialogue aiming to advance the effectiveness of International Humanitarian Law in armed conflicts. There is now, an overtly apparent and inherent necessity for IHL to become more flexible in the context of contemporary conflicts, as they are only becoming more complicated. It is undisputed that non-State groups will continue to exert influence. The lack of political will by powerful government and military representatives is not an excuse for the continued human suffering that still takes place as a result of indifference toward internationally binding laws and treaties; and it is absolutely imperative that the State and its armed forces act in a way that exemplifies correct behavior in times of armed conflict, in order to encourage behaviors of positive reciprocity, if there is any hope of achieving compliance by violent non-state actors in the increasingly complex reality of contemporary warfare.

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JUVENILE DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

The most effective way to prevent juvenile delinquency is undoubtedly to help children and their families at an early stage. Numerous state programs focus on early intervention, and federal funding for community initiatives has allowed independent groups to tackle the problem in new ways.

We are confronted with distressing headlines of recent acts of violence caused by adolescents all the time. Given this fact, we might easily forget that these shocking articles about criminal teenagers are actually rather rare. Thus, the hundreds of cases involving minors who have committed a petty crime vanish throughout the mass media coverage as they are far less shocking and, consequently, far less lucrative. The public discourse on the problem of juvenile delinquency often tries to make us believe that criminality among underage persons is uncontrollable. The aforementioned fear of the unknown combined with overplayed newspaper depiction of violence contribute to a public misconception about juvenile offending and develop a distorted and pessimistic view of perpetrators who are mostly victims themselves as one will find out in the course of the research paper.

Juvenile Delinquency in the U.S. – Causes and Prevention.

Before one talks about juvenile delinquency it is indispensable to first explain this term. Finding a short definition to clearly describe that phenomenon is not easy, because there are hundreds of them already in existence. In general, a delinquent child is a child aged seven to 17 who refuses to obey a law or order made by a government or somebody in a position of authority. However, the age at which children can be declared criminally responsible differs from state to state. There are always minimum and maximum ages of criminal responsibility, the so-called demarcation ages that are determined by the state government [1, p. 26].

The idea behind establishing a separate system of justice is the general view that a youth's culpability below some particular age should not be judged on the basis of grown-up jurisdiction due to the still missing mental and emotional maturity as well as the lacking criminal intent of minors. These demarcation ages are open to question, because there is no clear and coherent explanation why a child at the age of seven born in Arizona is unable to make thought-out decisions when acting unlawfully, even though a minor of the same age who lives in Maryland is capable of doing so and, thus, cannot shirk his/her responsibility meaning that the youth can be declared delinquent.

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act (JJDP A) provides for:

A nationwide juvenile justice planning and advisory system spanning all states, territories, and the District of Columbia;

Federal funding for delinquency prevention and improvements in state and local juvenile justice programs and practices; and

The operation of a federal agency, the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, which is dedicated to training, technical assistance, model programs, and research and evaluation, to support state and local efforts [2, p. 7].

Juveniles, who during the period of growing up run away, play truant from school or buy alcohol are not dangerous delinquents, even though they have acted against the law. That means that it is always to be distinguished between criminal behaviour on the one hand and childish misconduct, which cannot be deemed "truly" delinquent, on the other hand. Such acts are not illegal when committed by adults, but are prohibited for underage persons. These acts which are illegal when committed by juveniles due to the offender's age and which are considered legal committed by adults, are known as status offenses.

The quantity of criminal charges increased almost continuously between 1985 and 2002; starting off with approximately 340,000 cases of juvenile delinquency in 1985 and reaching a number of about 630,000 charges 17 years later in 2002.

These above-mentioned figures, which are probably even higher when taking into consideration that not all committed offenses are reported to the police, make one aware of the still existing delinquency rate among American youths.

Risk Factors in General.

A variety of individual, familial and community risk factors are associated with youth violence. To some extent, it has already been proven that a lot of these hypothetical predictors of juvenile delinquency as will be mentioned on the following pages, actually contribute at least partly to a criminal lifestyle. However, one has to be careful not to come to the wrong conclusion which is that every juvenile delinquent is influenced by every single risk factor which is presented in this research paper. Before considering different ways of handling these people and before focusing on

how to prevent juveniles from being convicted of violent offenses, it is necessary to understand a few of the innumerable peril variables that presumably make youths susceptible towards delinquent behavior [3, p. 13].

Since a few years the impact of first person shooter-games (FPS) and other violent computer games, as one possible reason, has been controversially discussed just as much as the connection of SVJ with mental health problems, for example hyperactivity and depression. Because further research in these scientific fields is needed, these predictors will not be mentioned in the additional course of this paper. Even though it is important to emphasize that the causes of criminal behaviour is not only restricted to the ones itemized in the following. Criminology findings on various spheres of influence are rather limited; the outcomes definitely state that there has to be some causal relationship between certain social and individual conditions and violent offending. This research paper will direct the reader's attention to the most important of all referred risk factors.

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COMPENSATION FOR NON-MATERIAL DAMAGE IN THE WEST-EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

For the first, non-material damage means damage, loss or destruction to any portion of the Real Property, the loss of which is not a Material Loss.

Who is responsible for damage that has occurred through human error and how, in particular, reparation can be provided for the consequences of bodily injury or the death of a person are questions that are answered differently in every country, even within Europe. There is widespread agreement on the principle that whoever is culpable of causing damage to another party is obliged to compensate. The stage of development of the society, economics and technology, as well as the traditions and aspirations of national law, are the decisive factors here. Increased efforts have nevertheless been made recently by international organisations, and in particular by the European Community (EC), to bring about legal approximations, in the tort law sectors also, of the European countries: Germany and Netherlands [1].

One of the strongest impacts of the GDPR (General Data Protection Regulation) in Germany is that data subjects now can claim compensation

for non-material damages (Article 82(1) GDPR). A legal basis for such claims had (arguably) not existed in German law before. With a small change – just by putting the word «non-material» into Article 82(1) – the GDPR has changed this fundamentally. Practitioners dealing with damage claims in Germany have to handle law that is completely new. There are, however, now first court decisions indicating that bringing such claims might not be as easy as it seems.

The meaning of the term «non-material damage» is not defined in the GDPR, but Recital 85 mentions a number of scenarios that it regards as «damages». Recital 85 does not divide these scenarios into the groups of «material» or «non-material». The rationale of this Recital is that all issues mentioned in it should be regarded as damages, irrespective of whether they are «material» or «non-material», where «the characteristic features of obligations of compensation for damage caused i.e., by mutilation are that they arise when the absolute rights of the injured are violated, despite the fact that compensation for damage is of a property nature, all obligations are non-negotiable, since its subjects before causing the damage did not were related to the terms of the contract, and the most significant, in our opinion, is that the obligation to compensate for damage can be imposed not only on the person who caused the damage but also on other persons» [4].

Recital 85 lists the following scenarios as potential cases of damages:

- loss of control over personal data,
- limitation of rights,
- discrimination,
- identity theft or fraud,
- financial loss,
- unauthorized reversal of pseudonymization,
- damage to reputation,
- loss of confidentiality of personal data protected by professional secrecy,
- or any other significant economic or social disadvantage to the natural person concerned.

This broad understanding of “damages” can lead to a substantial risk to organisations that have to manage the consequences of potential GDPR infringements – in particular in scenarios where a large number of data subjects might have been affected.

There are already organizations active in Germany that specialize in organising mass claims for damages, in particular after large-scale data breaches. Most importantly, the «European Society for Data Protection» (Europäische Gesellschaft für Datenschutz mbH) and the law firm Franz LLP (Limited Liability Partnership) have been organising such claims [2].

Traditionally, the Dutch courts have been strict in awarding non-material damages. In the so-called EBI (Extra Beveiligde Inrichting) judgment from 2019 (in Dutch), the Dutch Supreme Court considered that a

claimant must substantiate with sufficiently concrete information (i.e. evidence) that they have been harmed, meaning that they will have to substantiate the violation of a norm and the detrimental consequences thereof. Transposed into a GDPR context: arguing a violation of the norm (e.g. processing without a lawful basis) should be doable. However, it will be more difficult for a claimant (or class) to substantiate that the breach has detrimental consequences.

As with most rules, certain exceptions apply. A claimant does not have to provide concrete information on the detrimental consequences if the severity and nature of the breach itself makes those consequences 'so obvious' that the impairment can be assumed. Based on Dutch case law, it can be carefully assumed that this exception only applies in very severe cases (e.g. a case referred to by the Supreme Court is where an obstetrician missed a severe birth defect during a check-up). The fact that data protection is a fundamental right is not sufficient – it is all about the severity of the breach.

Therefore, if the breach is severe, an award may well be on its way. However, if the breach is more neutral/trivial, substantiating the damages will be required (and for non-material damages, this is often difficult to do). Unfortunately, there is no one-size-fits-all answer, and the outcome will likely be based on all the relevant facts [3].

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