

11) Performing official duties in civilian clothes. As a general rule, a police officer performing official duties in civilian clothes is obliged to wear a special badge at all times. A police officer is prohibited from removing or hiding a special badge from his/her uniform.

12) Collection of biometric data. The police are allowed to collect biometric data of individuals, including by means of fingerprinting, in cases stipulated by the Criminal Procedure Code.

Also, during martial law, police officers are not certified. Police officers of conscription age receive a deferral from conscription for the entire period of their service in the police. Police officers are guaranteed free medical care in healthcare facilities of any form of ownership. It's crucial to note that the role of the police during martial law should be carried out within the bounds of the law, respecting human rights and the principles of a just and democratic society. The extent of police powers and the limitations on those powers are typically defined by the legal framework established during the declaration of martial law.

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SCANDINAVIAN LAW: PAST AND PRESENT

Term "Scandinavian Law" was chosen by Folke Schmidt when founding Scandinavian Studies in Law and I will stick to that term. However, internationally the term Scandinavian law is most commonly used. In medieval times, a separate and independent branch of early Germanic law, and, in modern times, in the form of codifications, the basis of the legal systems of Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Iceland, and Finland [1].

The legal systems in the Scandinavian countries have long histories. Before the 9th century, Scandinavian regions were largely autonomous administratively and legally, with diverse legal systems. Written laws didn't exist initially; instead, customary law was upheld through popular assemblies. Between the 11th and 13th centuries, these regional customs were documented in vernacular writings, often compiled privately or by royal decree. Prominent laws from this era include Gulathing's law (Norwegian, 11th century), Jutland

law (Danish, 1241), and laws of Uppland (1296) and Götaland (early 13th century, both Swedish).

These early laws covered various aspects, including private law, constitutional, administrative, and criminal law. They didn't resemble modern civil codes. Influences from abroad were minimal, except for traces of canon law. While provincial laws regulated blood feuds, some codes, like King Magnus' Swedish code (1350), abolished private vengeance, initiated criminal proceedings by royal officials, and introduced provisions to aid the vulnerable and poor. Unique rules regarding landed property were also included.

In 1380, Norway and Denmark united under King Olaf IV but maintained separate laws. Over the next 300 years, supplementary laws were issued by kings and nobles. During Christian V's reign, a comprehensive codification effort replaced older laws with Christian V's Danish Law (1683) and Norwegian Law (1687). These new codes were based on existing national laws, with limited influence from German, Roman, and canon laws. They encompassed public and private law, aimed to comprehensively address legal rules and institutions, and were known for their simplicity and respect for individual rights and equality before the law. Compared to other European legislation, the criminal law provisions were relatively humane.

In Sweden, a revised code from King Christopher (1442) was reaffirmed by Charles IX (1608). Later, the need for modern legislation led to the creation of a new code, known as "the Law of 1734," promulgated by Frederick I, following the Danish-Norwegian example.

Finland, under Swedish rule since the 13th century, adopted the Swedish code of 1734, translated into Finnish as "Law of the Realm of Finland" [2].

The legal rights of people in the Nordic countries are clearly guaranteed by their constitutions, and certain fundamental principles underlie all of today's Nordic legal systems, including full equality before the law, guaranteed access to due process and professional representation, and the innocence (and, in criminal cases, even the anonymity) of the accused until proved guilty.

Modern Nordic legal systems are founded on core principles, such as equal rights, access to due process, professional representation, and the presumption of innocence until proven guilty, even with anonymity in criminal cases. Court procedures, while less formal than some European counterparts, are meticulously observed. Notably, first-instance court hearings involve panels of professional judges and

lay judges who make decisions, rather than juries. This practice extends to appellate levels, where panels of judges handle appeals.

The court systems in the region have a similar structure. First-instance courts operate at the district or communal level, handling both criminal and civil cases, with variations based on the case type. These first-instance courts are the most numerous, though specific counts vary between countries. For example, Iceland has the fewest with eight, while Denmark and Norway have the most, with 84 and 94, respectively [3].

In most cases, decisions can be appealed to second-tier courts, with rare appeals to national supreme courts. Iceland's parliament (Alþingi) acted as a supreme court until 1800 when a new high court was established. Denmark's first supreme court was founded in 1732, Finland's in 1919, Norway's in 1815, and Sweden's in 1614 (functionally in 1789).

Apart from civil and criminal courts, special administrative courts handle citizen-government disputes. Each country has "special" courts for labor, economic, land, rent, insurance, water, maritime, and environmental cases. The Nordic countries have various connections to the EU legal system and the International Court in The Hague.

The Nordic countries are known for their humane penal codes, with comparatively milder punishments and shorter sentences. For example, Norway's maximum imprisonment term is 21 years. The death penalty was abolished early in these countries.

In conclusion Scandinavian law is characterized by a commitment to fundamental legal principles, including equality, due process, and the presumption of innocence.

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