

General law and background

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a brief introduction to the United Kingdom's legal system (1.2), contrasting the common law system (1.2.1), which operates in England and Wales, with the civil law system (1.2.2), which is used in most of continental Europe. It then gives a brief overview of the civil and criminal courts (1.3). Sources of law are briefly outlined (1.4), including both primary sources – statutory material and law reports (1.4.2) – and secondary sources. There is an explanation of how laws are made, following the stages through which a government bill goes before it becomes law (1.4.1). There is also a brief listing of key websites for legal information.

The chapter looks at the law of the European Union (1.5), and then concludes with a brief outline of key legal concepts – what is meant by criminal law (1.6.1), civil law (1.6.2), the law of tort (delict in Scotland) (1.6.3) and the law of contract (1.6.4).

1.2 Legal system

The United Kingdom consists of three distinct jurisdictions, each with its own court system and legal profession: England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland.

The UK joined the European Economic Community (now the European Union) in 1973, which means that we are required to incorporate European legislation into UK law, and to recognize the jurisdiction of the European Court of Justice in matters of EU law.

When the Labour Party came to power in 1997, they embarked on a number of constitutional reforms. These included a programme of devolved government. We now have a separate Scottish Parliament and Welsh Assembly. Northern Ireland already had its own Assembly

The Scottish Parliament legislates in areas of domestic policy. But matters

best dealt with at UK level remain reserved to the UK parliament and government. These include defence, foreign affairs, economic and fiscal policy, social security, employment law, and aspects of transport and energy policy.

The Welsh Assembly has powers to legislate in domestic areas, but this excludes foreign affairs and defence, taxation, overall economic policy, social security and broadcasting. They are only able to pass subordinate legislation – Statutory Instruments – not Acts.

The UK is a signatory of the European Convention on Human Rights¹ and this was incorporated into UK law by the Human Rights Act 1998.

There is no written constitution as such in the UK. The constitutional law of the UK consists of statute law and case law. In addition there are international treaties and conventions to which the UK is a signatory which have binding force.

There are two basic systems of law: the common law system, which is used in England and Wales; and the civil law system, which is used by most of continental Europe and parts of Latin America. The legal systems of England, Wales and Northern Ireland are very similar. Scotland has a hybrid system of civil and common law.

1.2.1 Common law system

English law is called common law because it aims to be the same, whichever court made the decision. It began soon after the Norman Conquest of 1066, when the King and court travelled around the country hearing grievances. The common law system is based on the principle of deciding cases by reference to previous judicial decisions (known as ‘precedent’), rather than to written statutes drafted by legislative bodies. For example, the basic concepts of contract law are found in precedent. A body of English law has evolved from the 12th century onwards.

Reported cases present specific problems out of which a point of law is extracted. Formulation of the law is bottom-up from a specific event to a general principle. Judicial decisions accumulate around a particular kind of dispute and general rules or precedents emerge. These precedents are binding on other courts at the same or a lower level in the hierarchy. The same decision must result from another situation in which the material or relevant facts are the same. The law evolves by means of opinion changing as to which facts are relevant; and by novel situations arising.

1.2.2 Civil law system

The civil law system is used by most of continental Europe and parts of Latin America. The law is all written down in statutes in a very logical and organized (codified) way across all the subject areas. In such systems, precedent is not normally recognized as a source of law, although it can be used as a supplementary source. This results in a top-down system of a codified law book, which is based upon broad principles and then broken into legal topics similar to those of the common law countries.

In the civil law system, case law is illustrative, as the court relies more on commentaries from professors and judges published in books and journal articles. The civil law system – which is based on ancient Roman law – arose from many countries being given the Napoleonic code when occupied during the Napoleonic era. Since then national laws have diverged, but remain basically similar.

1.3 Court system

England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own hierarchy of courts, although they are all divided into two sections – criminal and civil.

1.3.1 England and Wales

The lowest criminal courts are the Magistrates Courts, which deal with minor offences. More serious cases are heard in the Crown Court in front of a judge and jury. The Crown Court also hears cases appealed from the Magistrates Courts on factual points. Cases can be appealed on points of law to the High Court (Queen's Bench Division). Appeals against conviction and sentence go to the Court of Appeal (Criminal Division).

Civil cases at first instance are heard in the County Courts for minor claims. More serious cases are dealt with by the High Court, which is divided into three divisions: Queen's Bench, Family and Chancery. Cases may be appealed to the Court of Appeal (Civil Division). The House of Lords is currently the supreme court of appeal, although in June 2003 the Prime Minister announced that a new Supreme Court would be created to replace the existing system of Law Lords operating as a committee of the House of Lords.

Procedure in the civil courts is now governed by the Civil Procedure Rules, which took effect in April 1999, after the Woolf Report 'Access to Justice',

which instigated the most wide-ranging changes to civil litigation since the turn of the 20th century. These were developed from a number of overriding objectives: the Rules sought to change the adversarial nature of litigation and to introduce a fairer, faster and cheaper system of civil justice in which the courts exercised more control over the proceedings. Previous rules regarding civil litigation conduct (the Rules of the Supreme Court, known as ‘The White Book’ and the County Court Rules, known as the ‘Green Book’) were almost completely replaced by the Civil Procedure Rules, which were an entirely new regime for dealing with civil disputes.

1.3.2 Scotland

There are three levels of court procedure in criminal matters in Scotland. The lowest criminal courts are the District Courts, which are presided over by justices of peace and in some cases stipendiary magistrates. These courts deal with minor offences such as breach of the peace and shoplifting, and their powers to sentence are limited.

Next are the Sheriff Courts, which deal with minor offences (where a sheriff presides), while more serious offences, except murder and rape, are dealt with by a sheriff sitting with a jury. A sheriff sitting alone has limited sentencing powers in comparison to a sheriff sitting with a jury.

The most serious offences in Scotland are heard by the High Court of Justiciary. This is also the final appeal court for all criminal matters in Scotland. The principal forms of civil procedure in Scotland are small claims, summary cause and ordinary procedure in the Sheriff Court, and Court of Session procedure.

Small claims is intended to be simple and cheap and is for all claims under £750. Summary cause is for sums between £750 and £1,500. Ordinary cause procedure and Court of Session procedure are more formal with full written pleadings.

The Outer House of the Court of Session can hear most types of civil case. The Inner House of the Court of Session is generally the court of appeal from the Outer House, sheriffs and certain tribunals. Thereafter appeals in civil cases can be made to the House of Lords. The system of Law Lords operating as a committee of the House of Lords is being replaced by a new Supreme Court.

1.3.3 Northern Ireland

The highest court in Northern Ireland is the Supreme Court of Judicature, which consists of the Court of Appeal, the High Court and the Crown Court. There are then the lower courts: the county courts with criminal and civil jurisdiction, and the magistrates courts. Cases which start in either the Crown Court or the High Court can be appealed to the Court of Appeal in Belfast; and, where leave is given, to the House of Lords. Cases which start in either the county courts or the magistrates courts can only be appealed as far as the Court of Appeal in Belfast; and unlike the equivalent in England and Wales, this is not split into a Civil Division and a Criminal Division.

1.3.4 Tribunals

In addition to the courts there are also a number of specialized tribunals, which hear appeals on decisions made by various public bodies and government departments. Tribunals cover areas such as employment, immigration, social security, tax and land. Three tribunals relate to areas of law covered in this book. The Information Tribunal considers appeals arising from decisions and notices issued by the Information Commissioner under powers granted by the Data Protection Act 1998, the Telecommunications (Data Protection and Privacy) Regulations 1999² and the Freedom of Information Act 2000. It was previously called the Data Protection Tribunal, until its name changed as a result of the Freedom of Information Act 2000.

The Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000 (RIPA) provides for an independent tribunal made up of senior members of the legal profession and appointed by the Queen. The role of the Investigatory Powers Tribunal is to consider all complaints against the Intelligence Services (security service, SIS and GCHQ), and those against law enforcement agencies and public authorities in respect of powers granted by RIPA; and to consider proceedings brought under Section 7 of the Human Rights Act 1998 against the Intelligence Services and law enforcement agencies in respect of these powers.

The other tribunal covered in this book is the Copyright Tribunal (see 2.6).

In March 2003 the government announced³ a major shake up to create a unified tribunals service in the light of Sir Andrew Leggatt's 'Review of tribunals: one service, one system'.⁴ A White Paper was to be published during the course of 2003 outlining the changes which intended to increase accessibility to tribunals, raise customer service standards and improve administration.

1.4 Sources of law

Statutory legislation and case law are the primary sources of law, with textbooks, journal articles, encyclopaedias, indices and digests making up a body of secondary sources.

Legislation in the UK can apply to the country as a whole; or, bearing in mind the impact of devolved government, there can also be Scottish legislation, Welsh legislation, and Northern Irish legislation.

United Kingdom primary legislation consists of public and general acts; and local and personal acts – such as ones which are of specific and limited nature – for example, the Land at Palace Avenue, Kensington (Acquisition of Freehold) Act 2002. Acts of parliament typically have a section just before any schedules which is headed ‘short title, commencement, extent’ and which outlines the short title by which the Act is known; the arrangements for the coming into force of the Act; and whether the Act applies to particular countries.

1.4.1 Progress of UK government legislation

UK government bills can start in either the House of Commons or the House of Lords, although bills whose main purpose is taxation or expenditure start in the House of Commons. Some bills may have been preceded by a consultation document (Green Paper) and/or by a statement of policy (White Paper), although this is optional.

Bills are drafted by lawyers in the Parliamentary Counsel Office, which is part of the Cabinet Office. The daily Order Paper contains a Notice of Presentation of the Bill and this is the first reading of the Bill. The Minister or a government whip then names a day for the Bill’s second reading. The Bill is then allocated a Bill number and is printed by The Stationery Office – for example, Legal Deposit Libraries Bill [HC] Bill 26 of Session 2002/03. The text of Bills can also be found on the internet.⁵ Explanatory notes are published to accompany the Bill. These normally include a summary of the main purpose of the Bill and a commentary on individual clauses and schedules – for example, Legal Deposit Libraries Bill Explanatory Notes [HC] Bill 26-EN of Session 2002/03.

The second reading debate is announced by the Leader of the House in a Business Statement. The second reading is the time for the House to consider the principles of the Bill. The debate on second reading is printed in

Hansard.⁶ After the second reading, the Bill has its Committee stage. This would normally take place in a Standing Committee, but it may be taken in a committee of the whole House or a Special Standing Committee depending on the nature of the Bill.

The next stage is the consideration or report stage. The House can make further amendments to the Bill at that stage, but does not consider the clauses and schedules to which no amendments have been tabled. The final Commons stage of the Bill is the third reading. This enables the House to take an overview of the Bill as amended in committee. No amendments can be made at this stage. Once it has passed its third reading in the Commons, the Bill is then sent to the House of Lords.

The legislative process in the House of Lords is broadly similar to that in the House of Commons. However, there are a few important differences:

- 1 After the second reading, bills are usually submitted to a committee of the whole House.
- 2 There is no guillotine, and debate on amendments is unrestricted.
- 3 Amendments can be made at the third reading as well as at committee and consideration stage.

The House of Lords and House of Commons must finally agree a text of each Bill. In practice, in order for this to happen a Bill can travel backwards and forwards between the two houses several times. If the Lords have not amended a Commons Bill, they must inform the Commons of that fact.

Once the text of a Bill has been approved by both houses, the Bill is then submitted for Royal Assent. Some Acts come into force immediately on Royal Assent, whilst others can be brought into force on a date or dates stated in the Act, or on a date or dates appointed by the Minister by means of commencement orders which can activate either all or part of the Act; or the Act could come into force through a combination of these.

The House of Commons Weekly Information Bulletin can be used in order to monitor the progress of Bills through parliament.

Statutory Instruments are regulations made under the authority of an Act of Parliament. They often provide the detail required for the application of the Statute such as what forms to fill in, the level of fees to be paid or provisions for the commencement of an Act (i.e. when it comes into force).

1.4.2 Law reports

Cases in the courts are reported in numerous series of law reports. Until 1865 in England case reporting was undertaken by private court reporters, and the resultant publications are known as the nominate reports, because they are usually known by the name of the reporter. These have been gathered together in a collection called the English Reports. In 1865 the reporting of cases was systematized by the Incorporated Council of Law Reporting, which started publishing series of reports organized according to the court, collectively known as The Law Reports. These are recognized as being the most authoritative in the hierarchy of reports.

The main series of law reports in England and Wales are:

- The Law Reports 1865– (which is in four separate series: Chancery Division (Ch.), Appeal Cases (AC), Family Division (Fam.), Queen’s Bench (QB))
- Weekly Law Reports 1954–
- All England Law Reports 1936– .

In Scotland, the most authoritative reports are produced by a non-profit making body, the Scottish Council of Law Reporting, but most reporting is undertaken by commercial publishing companies.

The main reports are the Session Cases and these commenced in their present form in 1907. Previously, like the English Law Reports, the reports were known by the names of the editor and were collectively referred to as the nominate reports.

The other common reports are:

- Scots Law Times
- Scottish Civil Law Reports 1987–
- Scottish Criminal Case Reports 1981–
- Greens Weekly Digest 1986– .

In Northern Ireland the official law reports are the Northern Ireland Law Reports. There are also the Northern Ireland Judgments Bulletin, the Irish Reports and the Irish Law Times Reports.

In addition, there are many specialized reports covering different areas of

law. The most comprehensive list of citations in the UK is Donald Raistrick's *Index to Legal Citations and Abbreviations*.⁷

The starting point for research on English law is Halsbury's Laws of England, and in Scotland it is Stair's Institutions of the Law of Scotland. When using sources of legal information it is vital to make sure that the books, journal articles or web pages you use are up to date, or that at the very least you are aware of the changes that have taken place since they were written. Bear in mind that the law is changing rapidly in the areas covered by this book. The free web-based sources are not normally annotated, amended or hyper-linked, so it is necessary to use commercial subscription services in order to get the most up-to-date information.

There are a number of guides to law libraries and legal research. These include:

Clinch, P. (2000) *Legal Information: what it is and where to find it*, Europa Publications.

Clinch, P. (2001) *Using a Law Library: a student's guide to legal research skills*, 2nd edn, Blackstone Press.

Holborn, G. (2001) *Butterworths Legal Research Guide*, 2nd edn, Butterworths.

Holmes, N. and Venables, D. (1999) *Researching the Legal Web*, 2nd edn, Butterworths.

McKie, S. (1993) *Legal Research: how to find and understand the law*, Cavendish Publishing.

Pester, D. (2003) *Finding Legal Information: a guide to print and electronic resources*, Chandos Publishing.

Thomas, P. A. and Knowles, J. (2001) *Dane & Thomas: how to use a law library*, 4th edn, Sweet & Maxwell.

1.4.3 Websites

1.4.3.1 Parliamentary websites

United Kingdom Parliament www.parliament.uk

Northern Ireland Assembly www.ni-assembly.gov.uk

National Assembly for Wales www.assembly.wales.gov.uk

Scottish Parliament www.scottish.parliament.uk

Tynwald (Parliament of the Isle of Man) www.tynwald.org.im/

1.4.3.2 Government, legislation and law reports

UK Online www.ukonline.gov.uk is a portal to the websites of central government.

HMSO website www.hmso.gov.uk has the texts of statutes and statutory instruments.

TSO (The Stationery Office) www.tso.co.uk is an online index to TSO publications.

Government News Network www.gnn.gov.uk contains press releases of central government departments.

Parliament website for bills www.parliament.uk/bills/bills.cfm.

POLIS (Parliamentary Online Indexing Service) www.polis.parliament.uk contains parliamentary debates.

BAILII (British and Irish Legal Information Institute) www.bailii.org

House of Lords Judicial Office www.parliament.the-stationery-office.co.uk/pa/ld/ldjudinf.htm

Court Service www.courtservice.gov.uk

Scottish Court Service www.scotscourts.gov.uk

Northern Ireland Court Service www.courtsni.gov.uk/

1.4.3.3 Legal information portals

Legal Resources in the UK and Ireland (Delia Venables) www.venables.co.uk/

Sarah Carter's LawLinks <http://library.kent.ac.uk/library/lawlinks/>

The Statutory Publications Office, an office within the Lord Chancellor's Department (LCD), is producing a Statute Law Database of United Kingdom legislation. The Lord Chancellor's Department is being replaced by the Department for Constitutional Affairs, which will incorporate most of the responsibilities of the former LCD. The database under development currently contains the text of all Acts that were in force on 1 February 1991, and all Acts and printed Statutory Instruments passed since then. It also contains local legislation, both primary and printed secondary. The main task of the SPO editorial team is to apply the effects of amending legislation to primary legislation. The key feature of the central database being maintained by the SPO is that it will provide a historical view of primary legislation for any specific day from the base date of 1 February 1991 and any prospective legislation. However, the database is not yet publicly available, although it has been in the offing for a long time.

1.5 European Union

The European Communities Act 1972 gives European Community legislation ‘direct effect’ in the United Kingdom.

European law consists of four main strands:

- 1 *Treaties* are referred to as the ‘primary’ legislation of the Community as they form the constitution and give the structure of institutions and extent of powers.

The principles of European law derive from the 1957 Treaty of Rome, but this has been amended by a number of other treaties such as the Maastricht Treaty and the Treaty of Amsterdam.

- 2 *Regulations* are the principal means by which the Community legislates. They are binding in their entirety. They are directly applicable and do not need to be transposed into national law by the respective member states in order for them to take effect. An example of a regulation would be Regulation (EC) No 1049/2001 regarding public access to European Parliament, Council and Commission documents.

- 3 *Directives* are the main form of substantive law. They are formulated by the European Commission, where they are subject to extensive consultation and are thereafter passed by a combination of the Parliament and the Council of Ministers. Directives only state the effects to be achieved and many directives leave the practical application to national discretion, so one needs to be aware of the non-harmonized details. Directives only take effect when enacted into national laws, which usually takes several years, although generally a period of implementation is prescribed by each directive.

Taking the copyright directive 2001/29/EC as an example: the directive was published in the Official Journal on 22 June 2001 and Article 13 of the directive states that ‘member states shall bring into force the laws, regulations and administrative provisions necessary to comply with this directive before 22 December 2002.’ In fact, the European Commission was keen for the copyright directive to come into force at roughly the same time as the electronic commerce directive, and they therefore said that the time for implementation was 18 months rather than two years.

With the copyright directive, article 5 on exceptions and limitations is an example of harmonized and non-harmonized details within a directive. Article 5 has one compulsory exception, but then provides for a series of

optional exceptions from which member states can choose the ones that they wish to implement. Where there is a compulsory exception, the law is harmonized throughout the European Union; whereas the remaining exceptions are optional and therefore the law is not harmonized because there is scope for each member state to select a different mix of exceptions to implement within their own countries.

The member states of the European Union are Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In December 2002 the EU agreed to expand to 25 countries by allowing membership for Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

- 4 *Decisions* are from the Commission or the Council of Ministers, not from the European Court of Justice. These are generally of restricted application and importance. Normally these are addressed to member states.

1.6 Legal concepts/terminology

1.6.1 Criminal law

A crime is defined as an offence where the state acts against the individual to defend a collective interest. The punishments are fines, probation, community service (which are seen as alternatives to custody) or a prison sentence. Criminal law is the branch of law which defines crimes and fixes punishments for them. Also included in criminal law are rules and procedures for preventing and investigating crimes and prosecuting criminals, as well as the regulations governing the constitution of courts, the conduct of trials, the organization of police forces and the administration of penal institutions. In general, the criminal law of most modern societies classifies crimes as: offences against the safety of the society; offences against the administration of justice; offences against the public welfare; offences against property; and offences threatening the lives or safety of people.

1.6.2 Civil law

Civil law deals with disputes between individuals or organizations. The state's role is simply to provide the means by which they can be resolved. This is a different meaning to the civil law system used in most of continental

Europe. Punishment usually consists of either damages or restitution – injunction/interdict.

1.6.3 Tort (England, Wales, Northern Ireland) / Delict (Scotland)

When a contract (1.6.4) cannot apply, third-party agreements called torts might apply. These encompass mainly obligations and duties of care. These duties of care are owed to those foreseeably affected by one's actions, balanced by a concern not to extend this to remote and generalized effects. A standard test of reasonableness has to be applied, whereby you must take reasonable care to avoid all acts and omissions which you can reasonably foresee would be likely to injure your neighbour.

Torts are essentially civil wrongs that provide individuals with a cause of action for damages in respect of the breach of a legal duty. They include negligence, and as far as information professionals are concerned, professional negligence covers things like the accuracy of information; and they would also include defamation. In deciding whether an information professional's actions were negligent, they would be judged against the actions of their fellow professionals. (Chapter 8 deals in more detail with professional negligence as it relates to information professionals.)

Basically, rights in tort are civil rights of action which are available for the recovery of unliquidated damages by persons who have sustained injury or loss from acts or statements or omissions of others in breach of duty or contravention of a right imposed or conferred by law, rather than by contract. Damage includes economic as well as physical damage.

1.6.4 Contract law

A contract, in law, is an agreement that creates an obligation binding upon the parties involved. It is a promise or set of promises which the law will enforce. To constitute a valid contract, there must be two or more separate and definite parties to the contract. There must be an offer, acceptance, intention to create legal relations (and capacity to do so) and consideration (although consideration is not required in Scotland) supporting those promises. There has to be a mutual exchange of promises for a contract to arise.

In general, contracts may be either oral or written. Certain classes of contracts, however, in order to be enforceable, must be written and signed. These include contracts involving the sale and transfer of real estate, and

contracts to guarantee or answer for the miscarriage, debt or default of another person.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, the Supply of Goods and Services Act 1982 implies terms into a contract, such as implying that the service must be carried out with reasonable care and skill. Customers in Scotland continue to rely on their common law rights. This Act is particularly relevant to information professionals. However, please note that the parties can agree that the implied rights should not apply to the provision of the service but any exclusion or restriction shall be subject to the terms of the Unfair Contract Terms Act 1977.

Under the Unfair Contract Terms Act 1977 a person cannot exclude or restrict his liability for the death or personal injury resulting from negligence. He can exclude or restrict liability for other loss or damage resulting from negligence only if the exclusion clauses satisfy a test of reasonableness. It would be for the party seeking to impose a contract term to demonstrate to the court that it was reasonable, should they be challenged.

The Unfair Terms in Consumer Contracts Regulations 1999⁸ provide that a term which has not been individually negotiated in a consumer contract is unfair if, contrary to the requirement of good faith, it causes a significant imbalance in the rights and obligations of the parties to the detriment of the consumer.

Chapter 9 considers contracts and licensing in more detail, especially as they relate to the work of information professionals, such as contracts for searching online databases or having access to proprietary information.

1.7 Summary

In this chapter we have looked at the different types of legal system – the common law system and the civil law system, and also the court system. The chapter outlined primary and secondary sources of law (1.4), and the importance of ensuring that the information used is totally up to date. As the United Kingdom is a member of the European Union, the chapter also looked at the role of EU law (1.5), and finally concluded with a brief outline of key legal concepts: criminal law (1.6.1), civil law (1.6.2), the law of tort/delict (1.6.3) and the law of contract (1.6.4).

It is important to recognize that where legal matters are concerned, there are very few clearly right or wrong answers, hence the reason for many

issues having to be resolved in court. Dealing with legal issues is often a matter of risk management. Bearing in mind that it isn't always clear whether something is considered to be legal, how can organizations and individuals minimize the risk of legal action being taken out against them?

Throughout the United Kingdom, the law is uniform in many respects. The laws of England and Wales and Northern Ireland are particularly close, while there are a number of differences with the law of Scotland. This book is based upon the laws of the United Kingdom, and whilst it will be of interest to information professionals working in other parts of the world, the reader should bear in mind that it is written from a UK perspective.

The next chapter deals with the topic of copyright law – an area that is extremely complex, and one which information professionals have to grapple with almost every day.

Notes and references

- 1 Available at www.hri.org/docs/ECHR50.html#C.SecI
- 2 Telecommunications (Data Protection and Privacy) Regulations 1999: SI 1999/2093
- 3 LCD press notice 106/03 of 11 March 2003: 'Government announces modernised tribunal service in the greatest shake-up for forty years.'
- 4 Available at www.tribunals-review.org.uk
- 5 Available at www.parliament.the-stationery-office.co.uk/pa/pabills.htm
- 6 Available at www.parliament.uk/hansard/hansard.cfm
- 7 Raistrick, D. (1994) *Index to Legal Citations and Abbreviations*, 2nd edn, Bowker Saur.
- 8 SI 1999/2083