# UNLOCKING THE ENGLISH LEGAL SYSTEM

Rebecca Huxley-Binns and Jacqueline Martin



4<sup>th</sup> edition



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### Contents

Guia Pref List Tabi	nowledgements de to the book äace of figures le of cases le of statutes and other instruments	xii xiii xv xvi xvii xxiii
1	THE SOURCES OF LAW	1
1.1	The English Legal System	1
1.2	The sources of law	2
1.3	The courts 1.3.1 The Supreme Court of the UK	3 3
1.4	The common law 1.4.1 Problems of the common law 1.4.2 Development of equity	5 5 6
1.5	Parliament 1.5.1 Legislation 1.5.2 The enactment process	9 9 9
1.6	<ul> <li>Delegated legislation</li> <li>1.6.1 Statutory instruments</li> <li>1.6.2 By-laws</li> <li>1.6.3 Orders of the Legislative Committee of the Privy Council</li> <li>1.6.4 Parliamentary control of secondary legislation</li> <li>1.6.5 Judicial control of secondary legislation</li> </ul>	12 12 14 14 15 16
1.7	<ul> <li>The European Union</li> <li>1.7.1 A brief history of the European Union</li> <li>1.7.2 UK membership of the EU</li> <li>1.7.3 The role of the Court of Justice of the European Union</li> <li>1.7.4 Effect on parliamentary sovereignty</li> </ul>	18 18 19 20 21
1.8	European Convention on Human Rights 1.8.1 The Human Rights Act 1998	22 23
1.9	Law reform 1.9.1 Judges 1.9.2 Parliament 1.9.3 The law reform agencies 1.9.4 Royal Commissions 1.9.5 Academics 1.9.6 Pressure groups 1.9.7 Media pressure 1.9.8 Europe	26 26 27 28 29 29 29 29 30 30
Sam	ple essay question	30
Furt	her reading	32

2	THE DOCTRINE OF JUDICIAL PRECEDENT	35
2.1	What is the doctrine of precedent?	36
2.2	How does the doctrine of precedent operate?	37
	2.2.1 The court hierarchy	37
	2.2.2 Ratio decidendi and obiter dicta	38
	2.2.3 Persuasive precedent	41
2.3	The doctrine as applied in individual courts	43
	2.3.1 The Supreme Court	43
	2.3.2 The Court of Appeal (Civil Division)	47
	2.3.3 The Court of Appeal (Criminal Division)	51
	2.3.4 The Divisional Courts of the High Court	52
	2.3.5 The High Court	53
	2.3.6 The Crown Court	53
	<ul><li>2.3.7 County Courts and Magistrates' Courts</li><li>2.3.8 Other courts</li></ul>	53 53
2.4	The Human Rights Act 1998	54
2.5		57
	The declaratory theory	
2.6	Avoiding precedents 2.6.1 Distinguishing	60 60
	<ul><li>2.6.1 Distinguishing</li><li>2.6.2 Reversing</li></ul>	62
	2.6.3 Overruling	62
2.7	Pros and cons of precedent	63
	aple essay question	64
		66
run	ther reading	00
3	STATUTORY INTERPRETATION	67
3.1	Introduction	67
	3.1.1 The need for statutory interpretation	67
	3.1.2 Applying the law	70
	3.1.3 Judicial law-making	71
	3.1.4 Interpretation or construction?	72
	3.1.5 Parliamentary definitions	73
3.2	The three 'rules'	73
	3.2.1 The literal rule	74
	3.2.2 The golden rule	76
	3.2.3 The mischief rule	78
3.3	The purposive approach	81
	3.3.1 European influence	85
3.4	Literal approach versus purposive approach	87
3.5	Rules of language	94
	3.5.1 The <i>ejusdem generis</i> rule	94
	3.5.2 <i>Expressio unius est exclusio alterius</i> (the express mention of one thing	<u> </u>
	excludes others)	95
	3.5.3 <i>Noscitur a sociis</i> (a word is known by the company it keeps)	95

iv

3.6	Presu	nptions	96
3.7	Intrins	ic and extrinsic aids	98
	3.7.1	Intrinsic aids	98
	3.7.2	Extrinsic aids	98
	3.7.3	The use of Hansard	99
	3.7.4	Law reform reports	103
	3.7.5	International conventions	104
3.8	The ef	fect of the Human Rights Act 1998	106
Samp	ole essa	y question	108
Furth	ner read	ing	110

v

CONTENTS

4	CIVI	L COURTS	111
4.1	Intro	duction to the courts system	111
	4.1.1	Civil and criminal cases	111
	4.1.2	Superior courts and inferior courts	114
	4.1.3	Appellate courts and trial courts	115
	4.1.4	Courts and tribunals	115
4.2	Civil	courts of trial	116
	4.2.1	Queen's Bench Division	116
	4.2.2	Chancery Division	117
	4.2.3	Family Division	117
	4.2.4	County Court	117
	4.2.5	Small claims	118
	4.2.6	The track system	118
	4.2.7	Transfer of cases between the County Court and the High Court	119
4.3	Probl	ems in the civil justice system	121
	4.3.1	The Civil Justice Review	121
	4.3.2	The Heilbron-Hodge Committee	122
4.4	The V	Voolf Report	123
	4.4.1	The track system	124
	4.4.2	Civil procedure	124
	4.4.3	Case management	125
	4.4.4	Pre-action protocols	125
	4.4.5	Encouraging ADR	126
	4.4.6	Strict timetables	128
	4.4.7	Judgment in default and summary judgment	129
	4.4.8	Part 36 offers to settle	129
	4.4.9	Are the Woolf reforms a success?	129
4.5	Enfor	cement of judgment	135
4.6	Tribu	nals	137
	4.6.1	Administrative tribunals	137
	4.6.2	Tribunals, Courts and Enforcement Act 2007	138
	4.6.3	Composition and procedure	140
	4.6.4	Advantages and disadvantages of tribunals	140
	4.6.5	Domestic tribunals	142

4.7	ADR	142
	4.7.1 Negotiation	143
	4.7.2 Mediation	143
	4.7.3 Conciliation	144
	4.7.4 Dispute resolution services	144
	4.7.5 Arbitration	145
	4.7.6 Encouraging the use of ADR	148
Sam	ple essay question	151
Furt	her reading	153
5	CRIMINAL COURTS AND PROCEDURE	155
5.1	Introduction	155
5.2	The Criminal Procedure Rules	157
5.3	The Crown Prosecution Service	157
	5.3.1 Code for Crown Prosecutors	158
	5.3.2 The Glidewell Report	160
	5.3.3 Victims' Right to Review	160
5.4	Advance sentence indication	161
	5.4.1 Advance indication of sentence <i>not</i> plea-bargaining	161
	5.4.2 The <i>Goodyear</i> rules	162
5.5	Courts exercising criminal jurisdiction	162
5.6	Appellate courts	162
	5.6.1 The Court of Justice of the European Union	163
	5.6.2 The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council	163
	5.6.3 The Supreme Court	164
	5.6.4 The Court of Appeal (Criminal Division)	164
	5.6.5 The High Court of Justice	164
	5.6.6 The Crown Court – appellate jurisdiction	164
5.7	Criminal courts of first instance	164
	<ul><li>5.7.1 Adversarial system</li><li>5.7.2 The Crown Court</li></ul>	164 165
	5.7.2 The Crown Court 5.7.3 The Magistrates' Court	165
5.8	Classification of criminal offences	166
5.8	5.8.1 Indictable only offences	166
	5.8.2 Summary offences	160
	5.8.3 Offences triable either way	167
	5.8.4 The choice: Magistrates' Court or Crown Court?	170
5.9	The 'right' to trial by jury	170
	5.9.1 The Mode of Trial Bills	170
	5.9.2 The Auld Report	172
	5.9.3 The Criminal Justice Act 2003	172
	5.9.4 Do we have the 'right' to elect jury trial?	173
Sam	ple essay question	176
Furt	her reading	177

CONTENTS

vi

#### APPEALS 6

6	APPEALS	<u>179</u>
6.1	<ul> <li>Appeals in civil proceedings</li> <li>6.1.1 The Access to Justice Act 1999</li> <li>6.1.2 The Court of Appeal (Civil Division)</li> <li>6.1.3 The Supreme Court of the UK</li> <li>6.1.4 Other appeals in civil cases</li> </ul>	180 180 182 182 183
6.2	Appeals in criminal proceedings	183
6.3	<ul> <li>Prosecution appeals</li> <li>6.3.1 Section 36 Criminal Justice Act 1972</li> <li>6.3.2 Section 36 Criminal Justice Act 1988</li> <li>6.3.3 Sections 54 and 55 Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act 1996</li> <li>6.3.4 Appeals against a judge's erroneous decision – Criminal Justice Act 2003</li> <li>6.3.5 Abolition of the rule against double jeopardy – Criminal Justice Act 2002</li> </ul>	183 183 184 184 185
6.4	Act 2003	185 187
6.4	<ul><li>Defence appeals</li><li>6.4.1 Appeal following summary trial</li><li>6.4.2 Appeal following trial on indictment</li></ul>	187 187 188
6.5	The Supreme Court	192
6.6	Other courts	192
6.7	The Criminal Cases Review Commission	192
Samp	ble essay question	197
Furth	ner reading	198
7	FUNDING	201
7.1	Access to justice	201
7.2	Public funding7.2.1History7.2.2The Access to Justice Act 1999	202 202 203
7.3	<ul> <li>The Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012</li> <li>7.3.1 Service providers</li> <li>7.3.2 Criteria for civil legal aid services</li> <li>7.3.3 Availability of legal aid</li> </ul>	204 204 204 204
7.4	Government funding in civil cases7.4.1Means testing7.4.2Problems with funding of civil cases	205 205 206
7.5	Private funding7.5.1Conditional fee agreements7.5.2How conditional fees work7.5.3Success fee7.5.4Insurance premiums7.5.5Are conditional fees working?	208 208 209 209 210 210
7.6	Advice in civil cases 7.6.1 Community Legal Advice Centres	211 211

vii

CONTENTS

	7.6.2 Service providers	211
	7.6.3 Other advice agencies	211
	7.6.4 Citizens Advice Bureaux	212
	7.6.5 Law centres	212
	7.6.6 Schemes run by lawyers	212
	7.6.7 Insurance	213
7.7	Legal aid in criminal cases	213
	7.7.1 Merits test	214
	7.7.2 Means test	214
	7.7.3 Advice and assistance for individuals in custody	215
	7.7.4 The Public Defender Service	215
Sam	ple essay question	216
Furt	ther reading	218
8	JURIES	219
8.1	Introduction	219
0.1	8.1.1 The independence of the jury	219
	8.1.2 Modern-day use of the jury	220
8.2	J ) J	220
0.2	Jury qualifications 8.2.1 Basic qualifications	220
	8.2.2 Disqualification from jury service	220
	8.2.3 Excusal from jury service	222
	8.2.4 Discretionary excusals	223
	8.2.5 Make-up of jury panels	224
	8.2.6 Police and prosecutors on jury service	225
8.3	Selection at court	228
	8.3.1 Lack of capacity	229
	8.3.2 Vetting	229
	8.3.3 At court	230
	8.3.4 Challenging	230
	8.3.5 Aids for the jury	231
8.4	Juries in civil cases	231
	8.4.1 Defamation cases	232
	8.4.2 Damages in defamation cases	235
	8.4.3 Juries in personal injury cases	236
8.5	Juries in Coroners' Courts	238
8.6	Juries in criminal cases	238
	8.6.1 Verdicts	239
8.7	Secrecy of the jury room	240
	8.7.1 Common law rule	241
	8.7.2 Human rights and jury secrecy	243
	8.7.3 Practice Direction	244
8.8	Research into juries	245
8.9	Advantages of trial by jury	247
	8.9.1 Public confidence	247
	8.9.2 Jury equity	248
	8.9.3 Panel of 12	248

viii

8.10.1 8.10.2 8.10.3 8.10.4 8.10.5	vantages of trial by jury Racial composition and bias Media influence Perverse verdicts Fraud trials High acquittal rates Other disadvantages	248 248 251 251 252 254 255	
8.11 Altern	natives to trial by jury	256	
Sample essa	y question	257	
Further read	ling	259	
9 LAY	MAGISTRATES	261	
9.1 Introc 9.1.1 9.1.2	luction Lay magistrates District Judges	261 261 262	ix
9.2 Histor	ry of the magistracy	262	
<ul> <li>9.3 Quali</li> <li>9.3.1</li> <li>9.3.2</li> <li>9.3.3</li> <li>9.3.4</li> <li>9.3.5</li> <li>9.3.6</li> </ul>	fications for lay magistrates Age Limitations Six key personal qualities Area Commitment Allowances	262 263 263 263 264 264 264	CONTENTS
9.4 Select 9.4.1 9.4.2	ion and appointment of lay magistrates Recruitment Advisory committees	264 264 265	
9.5 Traini 9.5.1	ing of lay magistrates Training for new magistrates	266 267	
9.6 Resig 9.6.1 9.6.2	nation and removal of lay justices Retirement Removal	269 269 269	
9.7 Magis 9.7.1 9.7.2 9.7.3 9.7.4 9.7.5	strates' duties Criminal cases Civil cases Youth Court Family Proceedings Court Immunity from suit	270 270 271 271 272 273	
9.8 The m	nagistrates' clerk	273	
9.9 Adva 9.9.1 9.9.2 9.9.3 9.9.4 9.9.5	ntages of using lay magistrates Cross-section of society Local knowledge Cost Legal adviser Few appeals	275 275 276 277 277 277	

9.10	Disadvantages of lay magistrates	277
	9.10.1 Middle-aged, middle-class 9.10.2 Prosecution bias	277 277
	9.10.3 Inconsistency in sentencing	278
	9.10.4 Reliance on the clerk	278
Samp	ple essay question	280
Furtł	ner reading	282
10	THE LEGAL PROFESSIONS	283
10.1	Paralegals and legal executives	284
	10.1.1 Training routes to become a solicitor	286
10.2	Solicitors	287
	<ul><li>10.2.1 Organisation</li><li>10.2.2 Education and training</li></ul>	287 288
	10.2.3 Work	290
	10.2.4 Complaints	294
10.3	Barristers	296
	10.3.1 Organisation	297
	10.3.2 Training	297
	10.3.3 Work	299
	10.3.4 Complaints	301
10.4	The legal profession – the future?	303
Samp	ple essay question	305
Furth	ner reading	306
11	THE JUDICIARY	309
11.1	Introduction	309
	11.1.1 The Lord Chancellor	310
	11.1.2 The Constitutional Reform Act 2005	311
	11.1.3 The Supreme Court	312
	The judicial hierarchy	313
11.3	Training	313
11.4	A note about judicial appointments	314
11.5	The inferior judges	315
	11.5.1 District Judge (Magistrates' Court)	315
	<ul><li>11.5.2 District Judge (Civil Court)</li><li>11.5.3 Recorder</li></ul>	315 316
	11.5.4 Circuit Judge	316
11.6	The senior judges	316
	11.6.1 High Court Judge	316
	11.6.2 Lord Justice of Appeal	317
	11.6.3 Head of Division	318
	11.6.4 Justice of the Supreme Court	318

х

11.7	The composition of the judiciary	319	
11.8	Dismissal and judicial independence	322	
Sam	ple essay question	325	
Furtl	her reading	326	
12	SENTENCING	327	
12.1	Introduction 12.1.1 Maximum sentences 12.1.2 Minimum sentences 12.1.3 Dangerous offenders 12.1.4 Young offenders	327 327 328 328 329	
12.2	<ul> <li>Purposes of sentencing</li> <li>12.2.1 Punishment</li> <li>12.2.2 Deterrence</li> <li>12.2.3 Reform and rehabilitation</li> <li>12.2.4 Protection of the public</li> <li>12.2.5 Reparation</li> <li>12.2.6 Denunciation</li> </ul>	329 330 332 333 333 333 334 335	X CONTENTS
12.3	Custodial sentences 12.3.1 Life sentences 12.3.2 Fixed-term sentence 12.3.3 Suspended sentences	336 336 337 337	.S.
12.4	Community orders 12.4.1 Unpaid work requirement 12.4.2 Activity requirement 12.4.3 Curfew requirement 12.4.4 Exclusion order 12.4.5 Supervision requirement	338 339 339 339 340 340	
12.5	Young offenders 12.5.1 Custodial sentences 12.5.2 Youth Rehabilitation Orders	340 340 341	
12.6	Fines and discharges	341	
12.7	Sentencing practice 12.7.1 Seriousness 12.7.2 Reduction for a guilty plea 12.7.3 Thresholds 12.7.4 Pre-sentence reports	342 342 344 344 345	
12.8	Prison statistics	346	
Sam	ple essay question	348	
Furtl	her reading	349	
Appe Inde:	endix x	351 355	

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#### SUMMARY

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xiv

Preface

The Unlocking the Law series is an entirely new style of undergraduate law textbook. Many student texts are very prose dense and have little in the way of interactive materials to help a student feel his or her way through the course of study on a given module.

The purpose of this series, then, is to try to make learning each subject area more accessible by focusing on actual learning needs, and by providing a range of different supporting materials and features.

All topic areas are broken up into 'bite-size' sections, with a logical progression and extensive use of headings and numerous sub-headings. Each book in the series will also contain a variety of charts, diagrams and key facts summaries to reinforce the information in the body of the text. Diagrams and flow charts are particularly useful because they can provide a quick and easy understanding of the key points, especially when revising for examinations. Key facts charts not only provide a quick visual guide through the subject but are useful for revision purposes also.

The books have a number of common features in the style of text layout. Important cases are separated out for easy access and have full citation in the text as well as in the table of cases, for ease of reference. The emphasis of the series is on depth of understanding much more than breadth. For this reason, each text also includes key extracts from judgments, where appropriate. Extracts from academic comment from journal articles and leading texts are also included to give some insight into the academic debate on complex or controversial areas.

Finally, the books also include much formative 'self-testing', with a variety of activities ranging through subject-specific comprehension, application of the law and a range of other activities to help the student gain a good idea of his or her progress in the course.

Note also that for all incidental references to 'he', 'him', 'his', we invoke the Interpretation Act 1978 and its provisions that 'he' includes 'she' etc.

English legal method and the English legal system are important as they underpin understanding of the development and practice of all substantive areas of law. This book starts with an outline of the sources of law, followed by detailed consideration of the operation of judicial precedent and statutory interpretation. There are also additional exercises on these topics. The court structure in England and Wales is then explained, together with how cases are funded. Chapters 8–11 concentrate on the personnel, both professional and lay, in the legal system. Finally, there is a chapter on sentencing. The book should provide students with a clear understanding of our legal system.

This fourth edition has been updated throughout to include developments in the law since the publication of the last edition. In particular it includes the changes to the legal aid system under the Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012 and also changes to sentencing under the same Act.

The book is designed to cover all of the main topic areas on undergraduate and professional syllabuses and help provide a full understanding of each.

The law is stated as we believe it to be on 1 August 2013.

Rebecca Huxley-Binns and Jacqueline Martin

# List of figures

1.1	The court hierarchy	4
1.2	Uses of the term 'common law'	5
1.3	Equitable remedies	8
1.4	Passage of a Bill	10
1.5	Advantages and disadvantages of legislation and the legislative	10
110	process	12
1.6	The types of delegated legislation	13
1.7	Advantages and disadvantages of secondary legislation	17
1.8	The member states of the European Union	19
1.9	The European Convention on Human Rights: key provisions	24
1.10		27
1.11	Essay map on delegated legislation	30
1.12		31
2.1	Precedent and the court hierarchy	37
2.2	Precedent and the House of Lords	47
2.3	Precedent and the Court of Appeal	52
2.4	Essay map on precedent	64
3.1	The literal and golden rules	77
3.2	Presumptions in statutory interpretation	98
3.3	Essay map on statutory interpretation	108
4.1	First instance civil courts	118
4.2	Starting and trying cases in the civil courts	120
4.3	Number of claims commenced in the Queen's Bench Division and the	
	County Court	131
4.4	Structure of the tribunal system	139
4.5	Different methods of ADR	145
4.6	Essay map on civil courts	151
5.1	The criminal prosecution process	156
5.2	Criminal court hierarchy	163
5.3	Factors influencing a defendant's decision to elect trial by jury in an	
	either way offence	170
5.4	Criminal procedure	171
5.5	The Auld recommendations and the CJA	172
5.6	Essay map on the 'right' to trial by jury	176
6.1	Appeals in civil proceedings	180
6.2	Appeals in criminal proceedings	184
6.3	Appeals following summary trial	188
6.4	Appeals following trial on indictment	189
6.5	Essay map on appeals	197
7.1	Minimum and maximum limits for legal aid	206
7.2	Illustration of conditional fees	209
7.3	Essay map on funding	216
8.1	The use of juries	221
8.2	Qualifications for jury service	225
8.3	Conviction and acquittal rates of juries	255
8.4	Essay map on juries	257

9.1	New magistrates' training and appraisal pathway	268
9.2	Role of magistrates	271
9.3	Essay map on lay magistrates	280
10.1	The eight regulated legal services professions	284
10.2	Solicitors' qualification routes: graduates and CILEx	286
10.3	Location of solicitors and number of solicitors per 1,000 population in	
	2010	288
10.4	Categories of work undertaken by solicitors, 2010	291
10.5	Essay map on the legal profession	305
11.1	The historic roles of the Lord Chancellor	310
11.2	The changing roles of the Lord Chancellor	311
11.3	Inferior judges	313
11.4	Senior judges	313
11.5	Appointments process for judges up to and including the High Court	317
11.6	Appointments process for senior judges	318
11.7	Extract from the Annual Judicial Statistics, as at 1 April 2001	320
11.8	2011 Judicial Diversity statistics – gender, ethnicity and profession	321
11.9	Essay map on the role of the Lord Chancellor	325
12.1	Sentences given at Magistrates' Courts and the Crown Court in the	
	12 months to September 2012	328
12.2	Extracts from the Sentencing Council's guidelines on assault causing	
	actual bodily harm	331
12.3	Reduction for guilty plea	344
12.4	Average daily prison population for England and Wales, 1951–2012	347
12.5	Essay map on sentencing	348
A.1	Dealing with hybrid crimes	352

xvii

LIST OF FIGURES

# Table of cases

#### Key:

CA – Court of Appeal; EAT – Employment Appeal Tribunal; HL – House of Lords; PC – Privy Council; SC – Supreme Court; SCS – Scottish Court of Session

A (children) (conjoined twins: surgical separation), Re [2000] 4 All ER 961	
Addie & Sons v Dumbreck [1929] AC 358, HL	
Adler v George [1964] 2 QB 7	77 <i>,</i> 89
Allen v Emmerson [1944] KB 362	
Anderton v Ryan [1985] 2 All ER 355	
Anns v Merton Borough Council [1978] AC 728	44, 45
Arthur J S Hall v Simons [2000] 3 All ER 673	
Arthur J S Hall v Simons [2000] 3 All ER 673	
Attorney General for Jersey v Holley [2005] UKPC 23 Attorney General v Associated Newspapers Ltd [1994] 1 All ER 556	
Attorney General v Associated Newspapers Ltd [1994] 1 All EK 556	
Attorney General v Brush Broadcasting Corporation [1980] 5 All EK 101	
Austin v Southwark London Borough Council [2011] 1 AC 355	
Austin v Southwark Eondon Borough Council [2011] 1 AC 555	
B (a minor) v DPP [2000] 1 All ER 833	97
Beta Construction Ltd v Channel Four TV Co Ltd [1990] 2 All ER 1012	
Black-Clawson International Ltd v Papierwerke etc AG [1975] 1 All ER 810	. 103, 104, 106
Boardman v Sanderson [1964] 1 WLR 1317	
Brock v DPP, The Times, 23 July 1993	
Bromley London Borough Council v Greater London Council [1982] 1 All ER 129	
Broome v Cassell & Co Ltd [1971] 1 All ER 801; [1972] AC 1136	
Bulmer (HP) v J Bollinger SA [1974] 2 All ER 1226	
Bushell's Case, Re [1670] Vaugh 135	219–20, 239
C v DPP [1995] 2 All ER 43	
Cable & Wireless plc v IBM United Kingdom Ltd [2002] EWHC 2059 (Comm)	
Carlill v Carbolic Smoke Ball Co [1892] All ER Rep 127	
Carlisle and Cumberland Banking Co v Bragg [1911] 1 KB 489	
Chalkley, Re [1998] 2 All ER 155 Cheeseman v DPP, <i>The Times</i> , 2 November 1990	
Conway v Rimmer [1968] AC 910 Costa v ENEL [1964] CMLR 425, ECJ	
Cranfield v Bridgegrove Ltd [2003] EWCA Civ 656; [2003] 3 All ER 129	
Cunningham, Re [1957] 2 QB 396	
Cutter v Eagle Star Insurance Co Ltd [1998] 4 All ER 417	88
D & C Builders v Rees [1966] 2 QB 617, CA	
Davis v Johnson [1978] 1 All ER 1132	
Donoghue v Stevenson [1932] AC 562	
Dowling, Re [1967] 1 AC 725	45
DPP for Northern Ireland v Lynch [1975] 2 WLR 641	45
DPP v Bull [1994] 4 All ER 411	70, 72, 73, 101
DPP v Gomez [1993] 96 Cr App R 359	61, 62
Duncan v Cammell Laird & Co [1942] AC 624	44
Dunn v R [2010] EWCA Crim 1823	189
Dunnett v Railtrack plc (in administration) [2002] EWCA Civ 303; [2002] 2 All ER 85	0 126, 149
Earl of Malmesbury v Strutt and Parker [2008] EWHC 424 (QB)	107
Earl of Oxford's Case [1616] 1 Rep Ch 1	12/ o
Eastbourne Borough Council v Stirling, <i>The Times</i> , 16 November 2000	
Easibourne borough Council v Surning, The Times, 10 November 2000	

Elder Dempster v Paterson Zochonis [1924] AC 522 Elliott v C [1983] 1 WLR 939	41 46
Ellis v Deheer [1922] 2 KB 113	
Fisher v Bell [1960] 3 All ER 731	, 79, 89, 109
Fitzpatrick v Sterling Housing Association [1999] 4 All ER 705; [2001] 1 AC 27; [2004] UKHL 30	58 0 71 72
Fothergill v Monarch Airlines Ltd [1980] 2 All ER 696	
Franklin v Attorney General [1973] 1 All ER 879	
General Medical Council v British Broadcasting Corporation [1998] 3 All ER 426	116
Godwin v Swindon Borough Council [2001] EWCA Civ 1478; [2001] 4 All ER 641	
Goldsmith v Pressdram Ltd [1987] 3 All ER 485	
Grant v Southwestern and County Properties Ltd [1975] Ch 185	
Great Peace Shipping v Tsavliris Salvage [2002] 4 All ER 689	
Gregory v United Kingdom [1997] 25 EHRR 577	243-4,249
Grey v Pearson [1857] 6 HL Cas 61	
H v Ministry of Defence [1991] 2 All ER 834	237
Halsey v Milton Keynes General NHS Trust and Steel v Joy and another [2004] EWCA Civ 576	
Harrow London Borough Council v Shah and Shah [1999] 3 All ER 302	
Hedley Byrne v Heller [1963] 2 All ER 575	
Herrington v British Railways Board [1972] 1 All ER 749	44 47
Heydon's Case, Re [1584] Co Rep 7a	
Hill v East and West India Dock Co [1884] 9 App Cas 448	
Hobbs v CG Robertson Ltd [1970] 2 All ER 347	
Hodges v Harlad and Wolff Ltd [1965] 1 All ER 1086	
Horncastle, Re [2010] 2 AC 373	
Horicasac, Re [2010] 2 Re 0/0	
Inco Europe v First Choice Distribution [2000] 1 LR 586	
Inland Revenue Commissioners (IRC) v Frere [1964] 3 All ER 796; [1965] AC 402	
James, Re [2006] EWCA Crim 14	
John v Mirror Group of Newspapers [1996] 2 All ER 35	
Jones v DPP [1962] AC 635; [1962] 2 WLR 575; [1962] 1 All ER 569	
Jones v Secretary of State for Social Services [1972] 1 All ER 145	45, 47
Jones v Tower Boot Co Ltd [1997] IRLR 168	83, 89
(Jury: Stand By; Jury Checks) [1988] 3 All ER 1086 (Practice Note)	230
	(D) (A
King v Philips [1953] 1 QB 429	
Kleinwort Benson v Lincoln City Council [1998] 4 All ER 513	
Laroche v Spirit of Adventure (UK) Ltd [2009] EWCA Civ 12	
Leach v R [1912] AC 305 Locabail Ltd v Bayfield Properties [2000] WLR 870; [2000] 1 All ER 65; [2000] IRLR 96	
London & North Eastern Railway Co v Berriman [1946] 1 All ER 255	68, 76, 89
London Tramways Co Ltd v London County Council [1898] AC 375	
Lord Advocate v Dumbarton District Council [1990] 1 All ER 1 Luc Thiet Thuan v R [1996] 2 All ER 1033	
	01.0
Magor and St Mellons v Newport Corporation [1950] 2 All ER 1226	
Marshall v Southampton Health Authority [1986] 2 All ER 584, ECJ	
Mattison v Hart [1854] 14 CB 357	
McDonald's Corporation v Steel and Morris, <i>The Times</i> , 20 June 1997	
McWhinney, Re [1999] Woolwich Crown Court, unreported	
Mendoza v Ghaidan [2004] UKHL 30; [2002] EWCA Civ 1533; [2003] 2 WLR 478	
	71, 72, 107

### xix

TABLE OF CASES

Metropolitan Police Commissioner v Caldwell [1981] 1 All ER 961	
Miliangos v George Frank (Textiles) Ltd [1975] 1 All ER 1076	45, 47
Morelle v Wakeling [1955] 1 All ER 708	
MPC v Caldwell [1982] AC 341	45–6
Murphy v Brentwood Borough Council [1991] 1 AC 398	44–5, 47
Northern Regional Health Authority v Derek Crouch Construction Co Ltd [1984] 1 QB	644 145
Notham v London Borough of Barnet [1978] 1 All ER 1243	
Olivery Calderdale Matronalitan Council The Times 7 Inter 1000	225
Oliver v Calderdale Metropolitan Council, <i>The Times</i> , 7 July 1999 Orme v Associated Newspapers Group Ltd, 31 March 1981, unreported	
Office v Associated Newspapers Group Ltd, 51 March 1961, unreported	
Pepper (Inspector of Taxes) v Hart [1993] 1 All ER 42 87–8, 99, 100, 101	. 102. 103. 106
Petrovic v Austria [2001] 33 ECHR 14	
Pickstone v Freemans plc [1988] 2 All ER 803	
Ponting's Case, Re [1984], unreported	
Poplar Housing Association and Regeneration Community Association Ltd v Donog	ghue
[2001] 3 WLR 183	107
Powell v Kempton Park [1897] 2 QB 242	106
	10/
R (Cowl and others) v Plymouth City Council [2001] EWCA Civ 1935	
R (Crown Prosecution Service) v Guildford Crown Court [2007] EWHC 1798 (Admin	
R (Quintavalle) v Secretary of State for Health [2003] UKHL 13 R (Ullah) v Secretary of State for the Home Department [2004] 2 AC 323	
R (W a minor) v Leeds Crown Court [2011] EWHC 2326 (Admin)	
R v A [2001] 2 WLR 1546; UKHL 25	
R v A [2001] 2 WER 1946, UKHL 25 R v A [2008] EWCA Crim 2908	
R v Abroikof; R v Green; R v Williamson [2007] UKHL 37	
R v Allen [1872] LR 1 CCR 367	
R v Bow Street Metropolitan Stipendiary Magistrate and Others, ex parte Pinochet	
(No 2) [1999] 2 WLR 272	
R v Bristol Betting and Gaming Licensing Committee, ex parte O'Callaghan	
[2000] QB 451	
R v Connor and Rollock; R v Mirza (Conjoined appeals) [2004] UKHL 4	243, 244
R v Crown Court at Sheffiedl, ex parte Brownlow [1980] 2 All ER 444	229
R v Cunningham [1957] 2 QB 396	
R v Curl [1727] 2 Stra 788	
R v Danvers [1982] Crim LR 680	
R v Davies, Rowe and Johnson [2001] 1 Cr App R 115	
R v Eccles Justices, ex parte Fitzpatrick [1989] 89 CR App R 324	
R v Field [2003] 1 WLR 882	
R v Ford [1989] 3 All ER 445 R v G [2003] UKHL 50	
R v G [2005] UKHL 50 R v Gilderdale [2010], unreported	
R v Godyear [2005] EWCA Crim 888	
R v Governor of Brockhill Prison, ex parte Evans (No 2) [2001] 2 AC 19	
R v Green [2007] UKHL 37 see R v Abroikof; R v Green; R v Williamson [2007] UKHL 37	7
R v Howard [2012] EWCA Crim 890	
R v Howe [1987] AC 417	
R v Ireland and Burstow [1997] 3 WLR 534	
R v JTB [2009] UKHL 20	102
R v Judge of the City of London Court [1892] 1 QB 273	
R v Karakaya [2005] EWCA Crim 346	
R v Kelly [2000] QB 198	
R v Kendrick and Hopkins [1997] 2 Cr App R 524	
R v Khan [2008] EWCA Crim 531	
R v Kronlid and others [1996], <i>The Times</i> , 31 July	
R v KS [2010] EWCA Crim 1756	
R v Maginnis [1987] 1 All ER 907 R v Magro [2010] EWC A Crim 1575	
R v Magro [2010] EWCA Crim 1575	

хх

R v Mason [1980] 3 All ER 777	
R v Matten, The Times, 5 March 1998	194
R v Mazo [1997] 2 Cr App R 518	61, 62
R v McFarlane [1994] 2 All ER 283	
R v McKenna [1960] 2 All ER 326	220
R v Mullen [1999] 2 Cr App R 143 190-	-1, 192, 353
R v Offen [2000] 1 WLR 253	106
R v Pigg [1983] 1 All ER 56	
R v Pratt [1993] 4 All ER 769	163, 164
R v R (Marital Exemption) [1992] 1 AC 599	62, 63
R v Randle and Pottle, Independent, 26 March 1991	251–2
R v Registrar General, ex parte Smith [1991] 2 All ER 88	2–3, 89, 109
R v Secretary of State for Education and Employment, ex parte National Union of Teac The Times, 8 August 2000	
R v Secretary of State for Health (Respondent), ex parte Qintavalle (on behalf of Pro-Li Alliance) (Appellant) [2003] UKHL 13; [2001] 4 All ER 1013; [2001] Admin 918; [2002 EWCA Civ 29	fe 2]
R v Secretary of State for the Home Department, ex parte Lichniak and others [2001] 3 WLR 933	
R v Secretary of State for Transport, ex parte Factortame (No 2) [1991] 1 All ER 70,	
HL/ECJ	
R v Secretary of State for Transport, ex parte Factortame (No 3) [1991] 3 All ER 769, ECJ	
R v Shivpuri [1986] 2 All ER 334	
R v Simpson [2003] EWCA Crim 1499	
R v Smith [2003] EWCA Crim 283	
R v Sussex Justices, ex parte McCarthy [1924] 1 KB 256	
R v T and others [2009] EWCA Crim 1035	
R v Taylor [1950] 2 All ER 170	
R v Taylor and Taylor [1994] 98 Cr App R 361	251
R v Thompson [1962] 1 All ER 65	
R v Togher [2001] 3 All ER 463; [2001] 1 Cr App R 33	161
R v Twomey and others [2009] EWCA Crim	
R v West [1996] 2 Cr App R 374	
R v Williams, The Times, 30 March 2001	354
R v Williamson [2007] UKHL 37 see R v Abroikof; R v Green; R v Williamson [2007] UKHI	_ 37
R v Wilson and R v Sprason, The Times, 24 February 1995	
R v Young [1995] 2 WLR 430	
Rantzen v Mirror Group Newspapers [1993] 4 All ER 975	235–6, 237
Rondel v Worsley [1967] 3 All ER 993	
Rookes v Barnard [1964] 1 All ER 367	
Royal College of Nursing v DHSS [1981] 1 All ER 545 69, 79, 8	1, 84, 89, 93
Saif Ali [1978] 3 All ER 1033	
Salomon v Commissioners of Customs and Excise [1967] 2 QB 116	
Sander v United Kingdom [2000] 31 EHRR 1003	
Saunders (Executrix of Estate of Gallie) v Anglia Building Society [1970] 3 All ER 961	
Scruttons v Midlands Silicones [1962] AC 446	
Shaw v DPP [1962] AC 220	
Sigsworth, Re [1935] Ch 89	
Singh v London Underground [1990], unreported	
Smith (Morgan) [2000] 4 All ER 289	
Smith v Hughes [1960] 1 WLR 830; [1960] 2 All ER 859	78, 79, 89
Sweet v Parsley [1970] AC 132	
Tanfern Ltd v Gregor Cameron-Macdonald [2000] 2 All ER 801	180, 181
Tempest v Kilner [1846] 3 CB 249	
Three Rivers District Council v Bank of England (No 2) [1996] 2 All ER 363	
Timmins v Gormley [2000] QB 451	

## ххі

TABLE OF CASES

United Railways of Havana & Regla Warehouses Ltd, Re [1960] 2 All ER 332	45
Vaise v Delaval [1785] 1 TR 11; 99 ER 944, KB	241
Vinos v Marks and Spencer plc [2001] 3 All ER 784	
von Colson v Land Nordrhein-Westfalen (Case 14/83) [1984] ECR 1891;	
[1986] 2 CMLR 430	86
Walkley v Precision Forgings [1979] 2 All ER 548	47
Ward v James [1965] 1 All ER 563	6–7,237
Webb v EMO Air Cargo [1994] 4 All ER 115	
Whiteley v Chappell [1868] 4 LR QB 147	
Williams v Fawcett [1985] 1 All ER 787	
Williams v HM Inspector of Taxes [2000] WLR 870; [2000] 1 All ER 65; [2000] IRLR 96	324
Wilson v First County Trust (No 2) [2003] UKHL 40	102
Wood v Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis [1986] 2 All ER 570	95
Young v Bristol Aeroplane Co Ltd [1944] 2 All ER 293 48, 49, 50, 51, 52	2, 56, 65

# *Tables of statutes and other instruments*

#### **STATUTES**

STATULES
Abortion Act 1967 69, 79, 80
Access to Justice Act 1999 165, 180–181,
182, 203, 204, 205, 209, 215
s 54 180
Act of Settlement 1701 322
Administration of Justice Act 1925
Administration of Justice Act 1929
s 1
Administration of Justice Act 1969
s 12 182
s 13 182
s 14
s 15 182
Administration of Justice Act 1985
Part II
Administration of Justice Act 1999 294
Administration of Justice (Miscellaneous
<b>Provisions) Act 1933</b> 231
Adoption Act 1976
s 51(1)
s 51(4)
s 51(6)
Appellate Jurisdiction Act 1876 318
Arbitration Act 1996 147
s 1 145
s 2
s 15 146
s 33
Attachment of Earnings Act 1971 136
Bill of Rights 1688
Art 9(s1) 100
Child Abduction and Custody Act 1985 117
Children Act 1989 117, 271, 272
Children and Young Persons Act 1933
s 44 329
s 53
Civil Partnership Act 2004
s 210 15
s 210(6)
s 240
s 241 15
s 244 15
Civil Procedure Act 1997
s 1(3) 124
Constitutional Reform Act (CRA) 2005 310,
314, 318, 323, 325
011,010,020,020

Part 3 312
s 3 311–312
s 3(7) 312
s 23 312
s 24 312
ss 67–75
ss 76–84
ss 85–93 316, 317 Contempt of Court Act 1981
s 8 240, 243, 244, 245
s 8(1)
s 8(2)
s 19 116
Coroners and Justice Act 2009 238
Countryside Alliance against the Parliament
Act 1949 11
<b>County Courts Act 1846</b> 116
County Courts Act 1984
s 5(3) 316
s 40 119
s 66 233
Courts Act 2003 124, 165, 266, 272, 276
s 10 264
s 11 269, 273
s 11(2)
s 11(2)(b) 270
s 11(2)(c) 270
s 19(3)
s 63 317
s 98 136
Courts and Legal Services Act 1990 (CLSA
<b>1990)</b> 122, 130, 165, 235, 273, 294, 305
s 17(1)
s 27 292
s 37 292
s 58 209, 210
s 58(6)
s 62
Crime (Sentences) Act 1997 106
Crime and Courts Act 2013 116, 118
Crime and Disorder Act 1998 175, 274
s 34
s 49(3)
s 51
s 51(1)
s 51B
s 51D
Criminal Appeal Act 1968 188, 352
s 2 191

s 4		190
s 17 192, 193, 1		
s 33 1		
Criminal Appeal Act 1995 1		
s 2		
s 8 1		
s 9 1		
s 10 1	,	
s 11 1		
s 12 1		
Criminal Attempts Act 1981		
Criminal Damage Act 1971		
0		
s 5 Criminal Evidence Act 1898		
Criminal Justice Act 1972		
s 36 1	.83-	184
Criminal Justice Act 1988		104
s 36		
Criminal Justice Act 1991		
Criminal Justice Act 2003 (CJA 2003)		
168, 172–173, 175, 183, 198, 2		
223, 224, 225, 226, 253–254, 2		
330, 333, 337, 3		
s 28		
s 29		
s 30		160
s 31		160
s 43 1		
s 44 172, 173, 176, 2		
s 57		185
s 58 1		
s 59		185
s 60		185
s 61		185
s 75 1	.86,	354
s 75(6)		186
s 76 1	.86,	354
s 76(3)		198
s 77		186
s 78 1	.98,	354
s 142 329, 3	335,	348
s 142A 3	329,	348
s 143(1) 3	342-	343
s 143(2)		
s 144		
s 145		343
s 146		343
s 151		
s 156		345
s 170		169
s 177		338
s 177(1)		
s 205		
s 203		
s 269		336
5 209	•••••	550

Sch 1, para 1 232
Sch 3, para 7 168–169
Sch 21 336
Criminal Justice and Court Services Act 2000
s 28
Criminal Justice and Immigration Act
2008 329
Criminal Justice and Public Order Act 1994
s 41 229
Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act
<b>1996</b> 255
s 54 184–185
s 55 184–185
Cyprus Act 1960 73
Demonstration Development A =1 1001
Dangerous Dogs Act 1991 68
Domestic Violence and Matrimonial
Proceedings Act 1976
Domestic Violence, Crime and Victims
Act 2004 239
s 17 176, 254
s 17(2) 174
s 18 176, 254
s 19 176, 254
s 19(1) 173
s 20 254
Emergency Powers Act 1920 13
Equal Pay Act 1970 97
s 1(2)(c)
European Communities Act 1972 23, 26, 32
s 2 19, 22
s 2(1)
s 2(2) 13, 19
s 2(4)
5 <u>-(1)</u> <u></u>
Finance Act
s 63 100
Fraud Act 2006
s 6 105
50
Government of Wales Act 2006 2
Government of Wales Act 2000
Health and Safety at Work etc Act 1974 97
Homicide Act 1957
s 2 3,9
s 3 3, 54 Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act
<b>1990</b> 69, 89, 94
s 1
s 1(1)
s 1(1)(a)
s 1(2)
s 1(3)
s 1(4)

s 3 90	)
s 3(1) 91	L
s 3(2)	L
s 3(3)	L
s 3(3)(a)	L
s 3(3)(b)	
s 3(3)(c)	
s 3(3)(d)	
s 3(4)	
Human Rights Act 1998 (HRA 1998) 3, 23	
32, 54–57, 64, 132, 191, 24	
s 2 54–55, 56, 65	
s 2 (1) 55	
s 3 25, 26, 72, 106, 107	
s 4 23, 26, 107	
s 4(2) 107	
s 19(1)	
Sch 1	
Hunting Act 2004 11	L
	_
Interpretation Act 1978 73	3
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Judicature Act 1873 8–9, 182	
s 25	
Judicature Act 1874 8–9	
Judicature Act 1875 8–9, 182	
Judicial Pensions Act 1959 319	)
Judicial Pensions and Retirement Act	
<b>1993</b>	<u>)</u>
Juries Act 1974	
s 1 232, 249	)
s 1(1) 221	
s 5 230, 232	2
s 9B(2) 229	)
s 17(3) 239	)
Sch 1 221, 222	2
Justices of the Peace Act 1979	
s 16(3) 262	
s 28(3) 273	3
Latent Damage Act 1986 28	3
Law Commissions Act 1965	
s 3 28	
Legal Advice and Assistance Act 1972 203	3
Legal Aid Act 1988 203	3
Legal Aid and Advice Act 1949 203	3
Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of	
Offenders Act 2012 203, 209, 210	,
217, 32	
s 10(3) 204	ł
Sch 1 204–205	
Part 2 205	5
Legal Services Act 1990 305	
Legal Services Act 2007	
296, 297, 30	
s 1	
	/

s 1(1)
s 1(2)
Legislative and Regulatory Reform
Act 2006
Licensing Act 2003 271
Local Government Act 1972 13
Magistrates' Court Act 1980
s 17A 167, 351
s 19 168, 169
s 20 168
s 21 168–169
s 29(2) 85
Magna Carta 1215 219
Mental Health Act 1983
Part 7 222
s 7 222, 232
Merchant Shipping Act 1988 20
Misuse of Drugs Act 1971
s 5
5.5
National Lottery Act 1993
s 13(1)(a)
s 13(1)(c) 95
Occupiers' Liability Act 1957 28, 97
Offences Against the Person Act
<b>1861</b> 27, 332
s 57
Official Secrets Act 1911
s 2
Official Secrets Act 1920 77
Parliament Act 1911 172
Parliament Acts 1911–49 11
Parliament Act 1949 11
Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984
(PACE 1984)
s 60(1)(a) 15
s 60A(1)(a)
s 66(1)(a)–(d) 15
s 67(7B)
s 80
Poor Prisoners' Defence Act 1903 202
Poor Prisoners' Defence Act 1930
Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing)
_
s 3 171
s 3A
s 91
s 100
s 130(2) 334
s 148(1) 345
s 152 344
s 152(2) 344

#### .

xxv

# TABLES OF STATUTES AND OTHER INSTRUMENTS

Buser and in a CO ((an and A of 1005 177
Prosecution of Offences Act 1985 175
s 3(2)
s 10 158
Protection of Freedoms Act 2012
s 133 254
Public Health Act 1875 13
Public Health Amendment Act 1902
s 81
Race Relations Act 1976 83–84
s 32
s 32(1)
Rent Act 1977 72, 107
s 2(1) 71
s 2(2)
s 3(1) 71
Sch 1
para 2 71
para 3 71
Restriction of Offensive Weapons Act 1959
s 1(1)
Road Traffic Act 1988
s 41(1)
s 41(2) 13
School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act 1991
s 2 17
Senior Courts Act 1981 322
s 2(3) 312
s 2(3) 317 s 29(3) 114
s 2(3)
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s} 2(3) \hdots 29(3) $
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s} 2(3) \hdots 29(3) $
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \ \ldots \ 317 \\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \ \ldots \ 317 \\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \ \ldots \ 317 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \ \ldots \ 323 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \ \ldots \ 323 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \ \ldots \ 334 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \ \ldots \ 335 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \ \ldots \ 337 \\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \ \ldots \ 20,\ 21,\ 835 \\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \\ {\rm s\ 14} \ \ldots \ 346 \\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \ \ldots \ 346 \\ {\rm s\ 13(1)} \ \ldots \ 102 \\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ (Amendment)\ Act\ 2000} \ \ldots \ 175 \\ {\rm Solicitors\ Act\ 1974} \ \ldots \ 296 \\ {\rm Statute\ of\ Frauds\ 1677} \ \ldots \ 95 \\ {\rm s\ 1677} \ \ldots \ 175 \ 175 \ \ldots \ 175 \ 175 \ \ldots \ 175 \ $
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \ \ldots \ 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \ \ldots \ 317\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \ \ldots \ 317\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \ \ldots \ 317\\ {\rm s}\ 69\ \ldots \ 323\\ {\rm s}\ 69\ \ldots \ 323\\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \ \ldots \ 324, 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \ \ldots \ 323\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \ \ldots \ 323\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \ \ldots \ 323\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \ \ldots \ 20, 21, 83\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \ {\rm s}\ 14\ \ldots \ 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003\ \ldots \ 186}\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \ \ldots \ 102\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ (Amendment)\ Act\ 2000\ \ldots \ 17}\\ {\rm Solicitors\ Act\ 1974\ \ldots \ 296}\\ {\rm Statute\ of\ Frauds\ 1677\ \ldots \ 95}\\ {\rm Street\ Offences\ Act\ 1959} \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s} 2(3) \hdots 29(3) $
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \hdots 317 \\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \hdots 114 \\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 66 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 69 \hdots 233 \hdots 233 \\ {\rm s}\ 69 \hdots 233 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \hdots 234 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \hdots 200 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 107 \\ {\rm s}\ 107 \\ {\rm s}\ 1(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 1(2) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm $
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \qquad \qquad 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \qquad \qquad 114\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \qquad \qquad 9\\ {\rm s}\ 66 \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \qquad \qquad 234, 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \qquad \qquad 20, 21, 85\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956}\\ {\rm s}\ 14 \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad 186\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 102\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad 186\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 102\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad 186\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 102\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1974} \qquad \qquad 296\\ {\rm Statut\ o\ Frauds\ 1677} \qquad \qquad 95\\ {\rm Street\ Offences\ Act\ 1959}\\ {\rm s}\ 1(1) \qquad \qquad 70, 71, 78, 103\\ {\rm s}\ 1(2) \qquad \qquad 76\\ {\rm s}\ 1(3) \qquad \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1(3) \ \ 1($
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \hdots 317 \\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \hdots 114 \\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 66 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 69 \hdots 233 \hdots 233 \\ {\rm s}\ 69 \hdots 233 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \hdots 234 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \hdots 200 \hdots 237 \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 107 \\ {\rm s}\ 107 \\ {\rm s}\ 1(1) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm s}\ 1(2) \hdots 201 \\ {\rm $
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \qquad \qquad 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \qquad \qquad 114\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \qquad \qquad 9\\ {\rm s}\ 66 \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \qquad \qquad 234, 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \qquad \qquad 20, 21, 85\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \qquad \qquad 20, 21, 85\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad 186\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 107\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1974} \qquad \qquad 296\\ {\rm Statute\ of\ Frauds\ 1677} \qquad \qquad 95\\ {\rm Street\ Offences\ Act\ 1959} \\ {\rm s}\ 1(1) \qquad \qquad 70, 71, 78, 103\\ {\rm s}\ 1(2) \qquad \qquad 76\\ {\rm s}\ 1(3) \qquad \qquad 76\\ {\rm s}\ 2(1) \qquad \qquad 76\\ {\rm s}$
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \qquad \qquad 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \qquad \qquad 114\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \qquad \qquad 9\\ {\rm s}\ 66 \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \qquad \qquad 234, 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \qquad \qquad 20, 21, 85\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 107\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 107\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1974} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1974} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1979} \qquad \\ {\rm s}\ 1(1) \qquad \qquad 70, 71, 78, 103\\ {\rm s}\ 1(2) \qquad \qquad 70\\ {\rm s}\ 1(3) \qquad \qquad 70\\ {\rm s}\ 2(1) \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm Theft\ Act\ 1968} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm 28,\ 61,\ 62,\ 98,\ 166\\ \end{array}}$
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \qquad \qquad 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \qquad \qquad 114\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \qquad \qquad$
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \qquad \qquad 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \qquad \qquad 114\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \qquad \qquad 6\\ {\rm s}\ 66 \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69 \qquad \qquad 233, 235\\ {\rm s}\ 69(1) \qquad \qquad 234, 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm s}\ 69(3) \qquad \qquad 237\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1975} \qquad \qquad 20, 21, 85\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1976} \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1956} \qquad \qquad \\ {\rm s}\ 14 \qquad \qquad 346\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad 186\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 107\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 2003} \qquad \qquad 186\\ {\rm s}\ 13(1) \qquad \qquad 107\\ {\rm Sexual\ Offences\ Act\ 1974} \qquad \qquad 296\\ {\rm Statute\ of\ Frauds\ 1677} \qquad \qquad 95\\ {\rm Street\ Offences\ Act\ 1959} \qquad {\rm s}\ 1(1) \qquad \qquad 70, 71, 78, 103\\ {\rm s}\ 1(2) \qquad \qquad 70\\ {\rm s}\ 1(3) \qquad \qquad 70\\ {\rm s}\ 2(1) \qquad \qquad 70\\ {\rm Theft\ Act\ 1968} \qquad \qquad 28, 61, 62, 98, 166\\ {\rm s}\ 1 \qquad \qquad 73\\ {\rm s}\ 2 \qquad \qquad 73\\ \end{array}}$
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm s}\ 2(3) \qquad \qquad 317\\ {\rm s}\ 29(3) \qquad \qquad 114\\ {\rm s}\ 49(1) \qquad \qquad$

s 6		
s 9(4)		
s 25 105		
Town Police Clauses Act 1847		
s 28		
Tribunals, Courts and Enforcement Act		
<b>2007</b> 136, 138–140, 153, 315		
s 2(3)(d) 140		
32(3)(u)		
Vagrancy Act 1824		
s 4		
54		
War Crimes A at 1001 11 07		
War Crimes Act 1991 11, 97		
War Damage Act 1965		
Welsh Church Act 1914 11		
Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act		
1999		
s 41 25		
s 41(3) 25		
s 41(5) 25		
Statutory Instruments		
<b>Air Navigation Order 2000</b> 105		
Civil Partnership (Registration Abroad		
and Certificates) (Amendment) Order		
<b>2012</b> 14–15		
Art 2 15		
11112		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124,		
<b>Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)</b> 124, 133, 134, 157, 198		
<b>Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)</b> 124, 133, 134, 157, 198 Part 24 129		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)         124,           133, 134, 157, 198           Part 24         129           Part 29         120		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)         124,           133, 134, 157, 198         133, 134, 157, 198           Part 24         129           Part 29         120           Part 36         129           Part 52         180		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)         124,           133, 134, 157, 198         133, 134, 157, 198           Part 24         129           Part 29         120           Part 36         129           Part 52         180           r 1.1         125		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)         124,           133, 134, 157, 198         133, 134, 157, 198           Part 24         129           Part 29         120           Part 36         129           Part 52         180           r 1.1         125           r 1.2         125		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)         124,           133, 134, 157, 198         133, 134, 157, 198           Part 24         129           Part 29         120           Part 36         129           Part 52         180           r 1.1         125           r 1.4(1)         125		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)       124,         133, 134, 157, 198       133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24       129         Part 29       120         Part 36       129         Part 52       180         r 1.1       125         r 1.2       125         r 1.4(1)       125         r 1.4(2)(e)       126, 148		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198Part 24		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198Part 24		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)124,133, 134, 157, 198Part 24129Part 29120Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.2125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.9128-129r 30.3119-120		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)124,133, 134, 157, 198Part 24129Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.2125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.9128-129r 30.3119-120r 44.3(5)135		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)124,133, 134, 157, 198Part 24120Part 29120Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.7(1)128r 30.3119–120r 44.3(5)135Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)124,133, 134, 157, 198Part 24120Part 29120Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.7(1)128r 30.3119–120r 44.3(5)135Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations1995 (SI 1995 No 1674)209		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)124,133, 134, 157, 198Part 24120Part 29120Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.7(1)128r 30.3119–120r 44.3(5)135Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations1995 (SI 1995 No 1674)209Criminal Procedure Rules 2005		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198Part 24129Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.2125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.7(1)128r 6.9128–129r 30.3119–120r 44.3(5)135Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations1995 (SI 1995 No 1674)209Criminal Procedure Rules 2005157, 164, 198		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198Part 24129Part 29120Part 36129Part 52180r 1.1125r 1.2125r 1.4(1)125r 1.4(2)(e)126, 148r 6.7(1)128r 6.9128–129r 30.3119–120r 44.3(5)135Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations1995 (SI 1995 No 1674)209Criminal Procedure Rules 2005157, 164, 198Education (School Teachers' Pay and		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)       124,         133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24       129         Part 29       120         Part 36       129         Part 52       180         r 1.1       125         r 1.2       125         r 1.4(1)       125         r 1.4(2)(e)       126, 148         r 6.7(1)       128         r 6.9       128–129         r 30.3       119–120         r 44.3(5)       135         Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations         1995 (SI 1995 No 1674)       209         Criminal Procedure Rules 2005       157, 164, 198         Education (School Teachers' Pay and       Conditions) (No 2) Order 2000       17		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)       124,         133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24       129         Part 29       120         Part 29       120         Part 29       120         Part 36       129         Part 52       180         r 1.1       125         r 1.4       125         r 1.4(1)       125         r 1.4(2)(e)       126, 148         r 6.9       126, 148         r 6.9       128         r 30.3       119–120         r 44.3(5)       135         Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations         1995 No 1674)       209         Criminal Procedure Rules 2005         (CrimPRs)       157, 164, 198         Education (School Teachers' Pay and         Conditions) (No 2) Order 2000       17         Justices' Clerks Rules 1999		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998)       124,         133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24       129         Part 29       120         Part 26       129         Part 36       129         Part 52       180         r 1.1       125         r 1.2       125         r 1.4(1)       125         r 1.4(2)(e)       126, 148         r 6.7(1)       128         r 6.9       128-129         r 30.3       119-120         r 44.3(5)       135         Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations         1995 (SI 1995 No 1674)       209         Criminal Procedure Rules 2005         (CrimPRs)       157, 164, 198         Education (School Teachers' Pay and       Conditions) (No 2) Order 2000       17         Justices' Clerks Rules 1999       275		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24		
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24         Part 29         Part 29         Part 29         Part 36         Part 52         T 12         Part 52         T 12         Part 52         T 12         T 12         T 12         T 126         T 14(1)         T 126, 148         T 126, 148         T 128         T 128         T 128         T 128         T 120         T 44.3(5)         T 135         Conditional Fee Agreements Regulations <td c<="" th=""><th></th></td>	<th></th>	
Civil Procedure Rules 1998 (CPR 1998) 124, 133, 134, 157, 198         Part 24		

#### xxvi

TABLES OF STATUTES AND OTHER INSTRUMENTS

European and International LegislationEqual Pay Directive (75/117/EEC)	
European Convention on the Protection of	
Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms	
<b>1950 (ECHR 1950)</b> 22–26, 48	
Art 2 24	
Art 3 24, 106	
Art 4 24	
Art 5 24, 106	
Art 6 23, 24, 25, 126, 191, 213, 226, 228,	
243, 244, 249	
Art 6(1) 25, 191, 228, 353	
Art 6(3) 213	
Art 6(3)(c) 214	
Art 6(3)(d)	
Art 7 24, 59	
Art 8 24, 55	
Art 9	
Art 10 24	
Art 11	
Art 12	

Art 14 24, 55, 56, 71
Art 26 55
Art 27(2) 55
Art 31 55
Lisbon Treaty 2009 18
Maasticht Treaty (Treaty on European Union,
EC Treaty) 1993
Art 234 18, 20
<b>Single European Act 1986 (SEA 1986)</b> 18
Treaty of European Union 2009
(TEU 2009)
<b>Treaty of Paris 1951</b> 18
Treaty of Rome (EEC Treaty) 1957
Art 177 18, 20, 21
Art 234
Art 267 163, 183
Art 345 22
Treaty on the Functioning of the European
Union 2009 (TFEU 2009)
Art 267 18, 20, 20–21
Warsaw Convention 1929 (Convention for the
Unification of Certain Rules Relating
to International Carriage by Air) 105

#### xxvii

# TABLES OF STATUTES AND OTHER INSTRUMENTS

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# The sources of law

#### AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

- Identify the main sources of English law
- Distinguish common law and equity, and common law and legislation
- Distinguish primary and secondary legislation and understand what controls exist on the latter
- Recognise the difference between the European Union and the Council of Europe
- Explain the difference between the Human Rights Act 1998 and the European Convention on Human Rights
- Form an opinion concerning how laws are reformed

#### 1.1 The English Legal System

What is the English Legal System? Well, it isn't so much a system as an amalgamation of various agencies, processes and institutions, and the term often includes the personnel involved in the resolution (formal or informal) of legal disputes too. It is certainly more about procedure than the substantive law of, say, contract law or land law, although there is a degree of overlap, as Cownie and Bradney point out:

#### QUOTATION

'Legal systems are there to determine what will happen when people have disputes. Legal rules are also there so people can order their lives in such a way as to avoid such disputes.' *F Cownie and A Bradney, English Legal System in Context* 

.....

(2nd edn, Butterworths, 2000), p 6

There is no agreed definition for the term 'English Legal System' (ELS) or for the required content of the subject taught on an undergraduate law course, but, as Smith, Bailey and Gunn warn:

#### QUOTATION

'Some [students] even have the misguided belief that the study of the institutions and processes of our law does not carry the intellectual challenge of other legal subjects. Yet a failure to understand the English legal system will make much of what the student learns of those other subjects either incomprehensible or misleading.'

> SH Bailey, M Gunn, D Ormerod and J Ching, Smith, Bailey and Gunn on the Modern English Legal System (4th edn, Sweet & Maxwell, 2002), p 1

The subject is dealt with differently in the numerous texts available all called *English Legal System*, or *English Legal Process*, and the module is taught and assessed differently in university law schools, because the schools have the freedom to choose the subject content of the modules. However, all texts and courses do, to some extent, cover aspects of the personnel, the law-making machinery and the rules governing each of them, which we proceed to do throughout this text.

There is also an important historical perspective to the study of the ELS, because we can understand how the system operates today only by having a sense of how it developed. Hence, we start by looking at the sources of English law.

First, a note on the terminology. When we refer to the 'English Legal System', we are usually deliberately not referring to Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, which have separate legal systems; but to England and, on the whole, Wales. According to context, however, we might use the terms 'Great Britain' or the 'United Kingdom' where relevant, especially when considering the broader sources of law, such as the European Union and the European Convention on Human Rights, each of which has affected the UK as a whole.

Second, a brief note on Welsh law. Under the Government of Wales Act 2006, the National Assembly for Wales may pass primary and secondary legislation under devolved responsibility (these laws are known as Assembly Measures) on areas including agriculture, education, food, housing and town planning. English laws continue to apply to Wales, unless Welsh law has been passed which conflicts, so some commentators regard Welsh law as a branch of English law. That said, some laws which apply in England do not apply in Wales, and some laws apply in Wales which do not apply or even exist in English law.

#### **1.2** The sources of law

Where does the law come from? The obvious answer is the law-makers. The key law-makers in the ELS are:

Parliament	Parliament is the principal law-maker in the ELS because of the doctrine of <b>parliamentary sovereignty</b> .
The courts	Historically vital as law-makers because we had judges before we had a Parliament, the courts continue to be integral to the constitutional framework of the ELS under the <b>Rule of Law</b> and the <b>Separation of Powers doctrine</b> .

The words in bold in the explanations above are important key terms which you need to understand. They are defined below.

Parliamentary sovereignty	Parliament is able to pass laws on any subject; these laws can regulate the activities of anyone, anywhere; Parliament cannot bind its successors as to the content of subsequent legislation; and laws passed by Parliament cannot be declared void by the courts.
The Rule of Law	Individuals' liberties can be ensured only by regulating behaviour <b>by</b> the law (not arbitrarily), punishing only <b>according</b> to law and making all citizens <b>subject</b> to the law.
The Separation of Powers doctrine	Abuse of state power can be prevented only by sharing the power of the state among the Executive (the government), the Legislature (Parliament) and the Judiciary (the courts). In this way, checks and balances are in place to reduce the risk of abuse.

The key law-makers from outside the ELS but which affect the citizens governed by English law are:

The European Union	The UK's membership of the EU dictates an obligation to incorporate into UK law the laws of the institutions established by the EU treaties (see section 1.7 below).	
The Council of Europe	As you will see at section 1.8, the European Convention on Human Rights is the work of the Council of Europe (not the EU) and is fundamental to the operation of UK law – whether made by Parliaments or the courts – because of the Human Rights Act 1998.	

There are some other sources of law which are considered later in this chapter (for example, law reform agencies and academics).

#### **1.3 The courts**

There is no legislative or express democratic authority for the courts to be law-makers but, nevertheless, it is clear that judges do make the law (see section 2.5 for more information). How do the judges make the law? In two key ways:

- developing the common law;
- interpreting Acts of Parliament.

We will consider each of these roles below. First, you need to understand that there is a court hierarchy. The structure you will see in Figure 1.1 does not merely indicate which courts hear which cases (the basic jurisdiction of each court is shown, but note that this is not detailed and you must refer to Chapters 4, 5 and 6 for more detail), but also that because there is a clear hierarchy, courts at the top of the diagram have more seniority and authority than the courts below. This is one of the reasons the courts at the top of the hierarchy hear appeals. Appeals are almost always on points of **law**, so this is where the law made by the judges stems from.

#### 1.3.1 The Supreme Court of the UK

Until 2009, when lawyers referred to 'the House of Lords', they meant either:

the House of Lords in its legislative capacity, as part of Parliament; or

1.3 THE COURTS

3

the House of Lords as the most superior of the courts in England and Wales (and, for civil cases, Scotland too) which was its judicial or appellate capacity. The court was housed in the Houses of Parliament building, and the Law Lords could, in theory, also sit in the legislative chamber of the House of Lords and enter into the debates (something they rarely did in practice).

In July 2009, the House of Lords *as a court* ceased to exist and was replaced in October 2009 by a Supreme Court of the UK. You will find more information on the Supreme Court in Chapters 6 (Appeals) and 11 (The judiciary).

#### **PRIVY COUNCIL**

Devolution issues (esp. Wales and Scotland).

Appeals from the Commonwealth on civil and criminal law.

#### THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UK (ex HOUSE OF LORDS)

Appeals on civil and criminal law from English courts and Northern Ireland. Appeals on civil law from Scotland.

#### COURT OF JUSTICE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

References from any court on a question of EU law and disputes between member states and institutions of the EU.

#### COURT OF APPEAL

CRIMINAL DIVISION Appeals in criminal cases from the Crown Court. CIVIL DIVISION Appeals in civil cases from

the High and County Courts.

#### THE HIGH COURT

ADMINISTRATIVE COURT (ex QUEEN'S BENCH DIVISIONAL COURT) Judicial review and appeals in some criminal cases.		CHANCERY DIVISIONAL COURT Appeals in land and tax cases from the County Courts.
QUEEN'S BENCH DIVISION	FAMILY DIVISION	CHANCERY DIVISION
Hearings in civil cases according to value of claim.	Hearings in family and child law cases.	Hearings in land, trusts and tax cases.

#### **CROWN COURT**

Criminal trials on indictment and appeals in criminal cases from the Magistrates' Court.

#### MAGISTRATES'

Criminal trials. Family cases. Non-payments of bills.

#### COUNTY COURT

Hearings in civil cases according to value of claim and family matters.

4

THE SOURCES OF LAW



#### 1.4 The common law

As stated above, one of the ways in which the judges make the law is by developing the common law. However, the phrase 'common law' is not a particularly easy one to get to grips with because it can have up to five different meanings, according to the context in which it is used.

	Meaning	Example
1.	The term 'common law' can be taken to refer to the system of law which is common to the whole country.	Murder is an offence under the common law of England; however, walking on the grass in a local park may be an offence under a local by-law, but is not part of the common law of England.
2.	The term may also be used to distinguish that law which is not equity (see further below).	Damages (a monetary award; compensation) are common law remedies, whereas the injunction is an equitable remedy.
3.	It might be used to mean case law: that is law developed by judges through cases. This is the context in which the term was used at section 1.3 above.	The common law principle that a manufacturer is liable in negligence to the ultimate consumer of its products derives from the case of <i>Donoghue v Stevenson</i> [1932] AC 562.
4.	It could be used to indicate law which has not been made by Parliament (the law made by Parliament is called a statute or legislation).	Murder is a common law offence, but the defences of diminished responsibility and provocation are statutory under ss2 and 3 Homicide Act 1957.
5.	The term may also be used to describe those legal systems that developed from the English system. In this final sense, a common law system is distinguished from a civil law system. Civil law developed from the Romano–Germanic legal system and is the dominant legal system in continental Europe including the European Union itself.	France does not have a common law system because it developed from the Roman tradition with a civil law system. On the other hand, England, Australia and New Zealand are common law jurisdictions.

Figure 1.2 Uses of the term 'common law'

An understanding of the historical development of the common law of England will assist you in using the term correctly; but to understand this, you also need to have a grasp of the development of equity.

#### 1.4.1 Problems of the common law

The story starts before William the Conqueror conquered England in 1066. Before this date, there was no national legal system. Local laws were enforced by local lords or sheriffs. When William took the throne in 1066, he was a shrewd leader and he recognised that he would have to establish a system of central or national government and, with that, a centralised system of justice over which he would have control. Only in this way would he attain real power and control over his new subjects.

William travelled throughout the land, listening to people's grievances. He and his most powerful advisers would judge the merits of the complaints and deliver judgments.

5

This travelling court system became known as the *Curia Regis* (King's Court) and it is from this court that we see the development of the common law. Subsequent kings appointed judges to the *Curia Regis* and over time a national and uniform system of laws was put in place. In this way many local customary laws were replaced by new national laws. As these national laws would apply to everyone, they would be common to all. These laws therefore became known as the common law. However, there were a number of problems with the operation of the common law.

#### stare decisis

Stand by what is decided; it means that judges are bound by previous decisions. See Chapter 2 for more detail First, the common law operated on the basis of *stare decisis*; that means binding precedent. One of the main criticisms of this doctrine is that a court is bound to follow a previous decision even if the judge disagrees with that previous decision. Mechanisms do exist in the modern ELS for a judge to avoid this process today, but such mechanisms did not exist, or were rarely used, in the more antiquated system. This meant that the common law did not develop and parties could not persuade a judge to change the law, even when it was obviously in need of change.

- Second, cases in the common law courts were started by means of a writ. A writ is a document used by a party to commence a legal action. Documents are still used today, but in a different form (for example, in order to start a civil action, the claimant must issue a 'claim form'). Under the old common law system, the bureaucracy of the rules dictated that if the wrong writ had been chosen or a mistake had been made on the writ, that writ was void and could not be amended as happens today. Instead the plaintiff (the old term for 'claimant') had to go to the expense and trouble of starting all over again. Additionally, the common law rules required that certain civil actions (this was in the days before a formal legal system for the resolution of respass had to involve an allegation that violence had been used against the plaintiff. Therefore, in theory, if no violence had been used, the action could not succeed. In practice, some common law judges were prepared to imply that violence had occurred when they knew very well that none had.
- Third, the only remedy available at common law was damages. This is a monetary award (compensation). In many cases, for example a breach of contract, this remedy was perfectly adequate, but if we continue with the trespass example above, the successful plaintiff would not have found money to be an adequate remedy he wanted the trespasser to stop (but the order we now call an injunction did not exist).

#### **1.4.2 Development of equity**

Many people felt let down by the common law system because it was unable to remedy these defects for itself so, as had been the practice before the *Curia Regis*, they petitioned the king directly for a remedy. Initially, kings would consider these petitions themselves but at some time during the fifteenth century this work was handed over to the Lord High Chancellor, known subsequently just as the Lord Chancellor. The number of petitions rose dramatically, so the Lord Chancellor established a court to hear the petitions. This court was called the Court of Chancery. The rules which the Lord Chancellor adopted in this court were not the rules from the common law courts. Actions were started by a petition rather than a writ, and the Lord Chancellor was not bound by precedent. Instead, rules were established to ensure that justice was obtained in those cases where the parties were able to show that the common law courts were not able or prepared to provide a suitable remedy. These rules became known as the **rules of equity**, 'equity' meaning even-handedness and fairness. It was never intended that the principles of equity would replace the common law rules, simply that they would fill the gaps in it and make up for its defects.

6

# 1.4 THE COMMON LAW

7

#### Maxims of equity

One of the ways in which equity was able to plug the gaps of the common law was by using guidelines called **maxims of equity**. One of the better-known maxims is 'He who comes to equity must come with clean hands.' This means that equity will not assist a party who has acted in bad conscience.

#### CASE EXAMPLE



#### D & C Builders v Rees [1966] 2 QB 617, CA

The plaintiff company sued Mr and Mrs Rees for failure to pay a bill in full for building work done to their home. The plaintiffs had sent three bills and the defendants had paid only one-third 'on account'. The defendants then made complaints about the quality of the work and, knowing that the plaintiff company was in severe financial difficulty, offered to pay a further third, but 'in full settlement'. The plaintiff company agreed, only because without the money the company would have gone bankrupt. The company later sued the defendants for the outstanding amount.

Lord Denning MR (denoting that he was, at the time of the judgment, the Master of the Rolls) held at the Court of Appeal:

#### JUDGMENT

'The creditor [the plaintiff] is only barred from his legal rights when it would be *inequitable* for him to insist upon them. Where there has been a *true accord*, under which the creditor voluntarily agrees to accept a lesser sum in satisfaction, and the debtor *acts upon* that accord by paying the lesser sum and the creditor accepts it, then it is inequitable for the creditor afterwards to insist on the balance. But he is not bound unless there has been truly an accord between them.

... In the present case, on the facts as found by the judge, it seems to me that there was no true accord. The debtor's wife held the creditor to ransom. The creditor was in need of money to meet his own commitments, and she knew it. When the creditor asked for payment of the £480 due to him, she said to him in effect: "We cannot pay you the £480. But we will pay you £300 if you will accept it in settlement. If you do not accept it on those terms, you will get nothing. £300 is better than nothing." She had no right to say any such thing ... There is also no equity in the defendant to warrant any departure from the due course of law. No person can insist on a settlement procured by intimidation.'

As you can see, Lord Denning was scathing of the conduct of Mr and Mrs Rees. The other Lord Justice, Danckwerts LJ, found that the Reeses 'really behaved very badly'. A person who behaves 'very badly' is unlikely to benefit from equity's protection, as the Reeses found to their cost. As equity would not intervene on behalf of the couple to protect them from having to pay the full amount, the common law rules prevailed. One of these rules is that part-payment of a debt does not satisfy (fulfil) the debt. They had to pay up.

The 'clean hands' maxim is one of many maxims of equity. Others include:

- 'equity is equality' (unless there is clear evidence one way or another, property should be divided in equal shares);
- 'equity looks to the intention and not the form' (equity looks at what the parties meant to do, not necessarily what they did do);

- 'equity acts in personam' (equitable remedies take effect against the person, not their property, so in the days of the development of equity, a defendant could go to prison for failure to honour an equitable remedy made against him);
- 'equity will not suffer a wrong without a remedy' (if equity considers that a person has a good claim, equity will ensure that that person has the right to bring a legal action).

#### The trust

What is a trust? The distinction between law (i.e. the common law) and equity is most apparent if you consider that **different** people can own the **same** piece of property in **different** ways, at the same time. This is called a trust and is recognised only in equity.

#### Example

Sidney (S, the settlor) is writing his will. He has 10,000 shares in BT and he wants to leave these shares to Betty, his nine-year-old granddaughter. In his will (and in accordance with the common law rules), S appoints Trevor (T) to be the trustee of the will. When S dies, T, as trustee, is the **legal** owner of the shares. He, and only he, can exercise the legal rights over the shares. However, B, as beneficiary of the will, also has rights in the shares; she is entitled to the dividends on the shares because she is the **equitable** owner of them, but she cannot sell them because T is the legal owner. Despite T's legal ownership, B has the benefit of the equitable interests in the property. It may be that when B attains the age of 18 (or at some other specified age or on some specified event, such as marriage), B will become the legal owner of the shares and T's rights will be extinguished.

#### Equitable remedies

Equity created not only new rights, such as the trust above, but also new remedies. As stated above, the only common law remedy was damages. Equity recognised the limits of the usefulness of money as an award and developed, among others, the following additional remedies:

Injunction	This is an order of the court compelling or restraining the performance of some act.
Specific performance	This is an order compelling a party to perform his part of an agreement that he had promised to fulfil.
Rescission	This is an order restoring parties to a contract to their pre-contractual positions, releasing them entirely from their contractual obligations.

Figure 1.3 Equitable remedies

#### *Conflict with the common law*

The common law judges came to view the Court of Chancery as a rival to their authority. This rivalry came to a head in the *Earl of Oxford's Case* [1616] 1 Rep Ch 1 where the common law judges refused to recognise the interest of a beneficial owner of a trust; yet the Chancery judges threatened to imprison the trustees (the legal owners) unless they recognised that same interest. James I was required to intervene and he settled the situation: where the common law and equity conflict, equity was to prevail. Had James I not decided the matter in this way, the purpose of equity would have been fundamentally undermined.

Having a dual system of courts administering different remedies did cause other problems, however, and by the passing of the Judicature Acts of 1873–75, the court system was

8

reformed. The result was that the administration of the common law courts and the Court of Chancery was merged, to create a unified system of courts and procedures. Thus, all courts in the modern legal system can use both common law and equitable principles and give either type of remedy. In the event of a conflict, s25 of the Judicature Act 1873 provided that equity should prevail and s49(1) of the Senior Courts Act 1981 is the modern embodiment of that rule. Common law rules and equitable 'rules' have not merged into one source of law, however. For example, common law rules have a strong influence in contract, tort and criminal law, and common law remedies such as monetary damages are frequently used in the first two mentioned areas. By contrast, the Chancery Division of the High Court (the modern Court of Chancery) deals with matters of company law, partnership, convey-ancing (the legal transfer of property involved in the buying and selling of land and buildings), wills and probates (administration of the property of persons who have died) and patent and copyright law where the rules of equity are used frequently. Another important aspect of Chancery work is the administration of trusts.

#### ACTIVITY



#### Self-test questions

- 1. The first national court system was evolved by the Judicature Acts 1873–75. True/False
- 2. The main defects in the common law system of the Curia Regis were
  - (a) rigidity,
  - (b) the writ system and
  - (c) the limited remedies available.
- 3. Equity will not intervene to protect a defendant unless he has 'clean hands'. True/False
- 4. A trust is an invention of the common law rather than of equity.
- 5. If the common law and equity conflict, the common law prevails.

#### 1.5 Parliament

#### 1.5.1 Legislation

You should be aware that lawyers often use the terms 'Act', 'statute' and 'legislation' interchangeably. A statute is a document containing the laws made by Parliament. Parliament consists of the Queen, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Parliament is the originator of all legislation. All Acts of Parliament (note that we use an upper-case 'A' for Act of Parliament; we never use a lower-case 'a' when we mean legislation) consist of formally enacted rules dealing with a particular subject-matter and are broken down into sections for ease of reference (for example, s2 of the Homicide Act 1957). An Act of Parliament must begin life in draft form as a Bill, but a Bill may begin life as consultation paper, sometimes called a Green Paper; or a White Paper which is a document containing the government's proposals for legislative changes. A Bill must be debated by both Houses of Parliament and must undergo set procedures, until it is finally given the Royal Assent by the monarch, at which stage it becomes an Act (it is **enacted**) and enters into force on the day the Bill receives the Royal Assent, unless the Act provides for other dates.

#### 1.5.2 The enactment process

First Reading: this not a reading of the full Bill. Its purpose is to point out to MPs the existence of the Bill so that they can read it. The Speaker of the House (Commons or Lords) reads out the short title and sets the date for the Second Reading.

True/False

True/False True/False 9