MGIMO University
School of Government and International Affairs

Syllabus approved
Dean, The MGIMO School of Government and International Affairs
Mikhail Troitskiy
« » 2019

International Law

Undergraduate Course Syllabus

Instructor
Prof. Tim Potier

This syllabus is designed in accordance with the MGIMO Educational Standard for the Bachelor Program in International Affairs.

Author_____ Prof. Tim Potier

Director MGIMO Library_____M.V. Reshetnikova

PART 1:
INSTRUCTOR INFORMATION, COURSE DESCRIPTION AND TEACHING METHODS

1.1 General information

- Full course title: International Law
- Type of course: Compulsory
- Level of course B.A. (double diploma programme)
- Year of study: 2nd
- Number of ECTS credits allocated: 3
- Name of lecturer(s) and office hours:

Professor Tim Potier,
Department of International Law
Moscow State Institute of International Relations (MGIMO)
Office hours: to be confirmed to the class, office: 305
E-mail: t.potier@inno.mgimo.ru

1.2. Course aims, thematic structure and learning outcomes

Aims

Relations between States may have become more formalised during the past two centuries, but the vast majority of international legal rules are ancient in origin. Treaties are as old as history and ancient history provides many accounts of envoys representing their people. This course aims to give students the necessary introductory knowledge to what has blossomed into a vast field of legal standards during the 20th century. Thus, the course shall set out (*inter alia*) how international law is created and enforced. The United Nations, the principal institution in international affairs, shall be considered. Then it shall be the job of the instructor to introduce the main other features of the discipline. These are many and varied: from the immunities enjoyed by diplomatic agents to the responsibility that States bear for their actions or inactions. There is not sufficient time to make the students experts in the subject, but, by the end of the course, they will have a good and sufficient knowledge of all the important themes and the core principles and standards.

The course pursues the following **objectives:**
1. To provide a basic grounding in the field of international law.
2. To outline the core norms and standards in international law.
3. To elucidate the function of international law in the international arena.
4. To identify the sources and subjects of international law.
5. To explain how international law is made, redress is provided for breach of its rules and how these are upheld and enforced.
6. To explain the challenges that international law faces in a competitive international environment and how some of these may be remedied during the coming decades.

Thematic/area coverage and structure

The course is a general course on International Law. In the limited time available, it shall describe the main topics in the field (beginning with the Sources of International Law and concluding with the Use of Force by States). Students are not expected to have any prior knowledge of International Law, or the law more generally.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this course students should be able to:

1. Demonstrate a sound knowledge of international law, able to apply its principle standards in a future professional environment.
2. Appreciate the essential role that international law plays in the international arena, as a common rule-book for all international legal subjects, and of the consequences for all in the event that such standards are not given due attention and upheld.
3. Apply more than one aspect of international law in a given setting, as legal norms do not arise in isolation.
4. Discuss the positions taken by States on a given issue and evaluate whether they are in compliance (or not) with international legal rules.
5. Navigate the discipline, knowing when one topic predominates over others (not necessarily to the exclusion of others).
6. Appreciate international law, its uses and rules, in the other courses they study, both for their current degree and during any future learning that may follow it.

1.3. Course methods, requirements and guidelines

Teaching Methodology

The main characteristic of the course's learning process and teaching methods is that they are constructed:

– to balance lectures with students' activities;

– to require students to work with primary international legal documents;

– to develop and explicitly support the ability to think in an original, inquisitive manner, demonstrating good comprehension, as well as the ability to interpret and discuss.

A combination of these intellectual and practical skills does not exclude, but is given preference over memorization, conceptual fluency or abstract theorizing.

■ The one hour and 20 minute sessions shall comprise a mixture of lectures and in-class tests. Time shall be allotted, at the end of each lecture for questions and discussion. Nevertheless, enquiry shall be encouraged whilst the lecture material is being delivered by the instructor.

■ Lectures and readings are complementary, the one not substituting the other;

■ The students are expected to attend lectures, complete the readings assigned for each topic and participate in all discussions.

■ Three in-class tests shall be conducted during the course, in order to make sure that the students have acquired a sound command of the material addressed.

■ Assessment of the students' course performance is reflected in an unseen written examination of one and a half hours.

<u>In-class</u>:

There shall be three in-class tests. All three in-class tests shall be 30 minutes in length.

Guidelines for self-study

In addition to attending lectures, the students are expected to engage in active self-study along the following suggested lines:

■ To have completed the readings assigned for each lecture and formulate questions based on the readings;

■ To have gained an appreciation of the methods to be used when consulting and reviewing primary materials;

■ To remain engaged with the material both prior to the relevant lecture on a given theme and subsequently. To this end, to make sure that the reading is undertaken and to develop the confidence to research more widely on the subject;

■ To prepare for the three in-class tests, in accordance with the guidelines and advice tendered by the instructor;

■ To do research for, be prepared for and attend the final course examination.

Assessment criteria for final exam:

Strength and clarity of argument: the exam answers should present an argument in an organized and coherent manner and follow it through. Summarizing someone else's ideas or reiteration of primary material is insufficient. The answer must address the question asked.

Conceptual clarity: the exam answers should demonstrate a clear understanding of the applicable rules of International Law. Such rules should be used consistently throughout the answers. Alertness to conceptual issues is encouraged.

Relevance: the exam answers should only present material that is relevant to the question asked. Failure to answer the question will lead to a lower mark.

Critical analysis: the exam answers should be based on analysis of all applicable rules of International Law, rather than reproduction of the relevant literature. The phenomena and processes outlined in the answers should be *explained,* rather than simply *described.*

1.4. Grading plan

The final grade will be calculated on the basis of performance in the final exam. The three in-class tests are designed to ensure that the students keep up with the material and as a more informal practice in advance of the final exam. Attendance is mandatory. A student's performance in the in-class tests will be taken into account when evaluating students in the final exam if they find themselves on the borderline of two given classifications.

PART 2:

WEEKLY SCHEDULE & READINGS

2.1 Types of work

Types of work	**Academic hours**
Lectures and Seminars	34 hours
Self-guided work	50
Preparation for the exam	42

TOTAL	**126**

2.2. Course content and readings by topic

Key textbooks on International Law (written by European authors):

(in no particular order: latest edition indicated)

Shaw M. N., International Law, 8th edition, Cambridge, 2017.

Crawford J., Brownlie's Principles of Public International Law, 9th edition, Oxford, 2019.

Evans M. D., International Law, 5th edition, Oxford, 2018.

Dixon M. (et al.), Cases & Materials on International Law, 6th edition, Oxford, 2016.

Kaczorowska-Ireland A., Public International Law, 5th edition, Routledge, 2015.

Klabbers J., International Law, 2nd edition, Cambridge, 2017.

Hernández G., International Law, Oxford, 2019.

Harris D. and Sivakumaran S., Cases and Materials on International Law, 8th edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 2015.

Orakhelashvili A., Akehurst's Modern Introduction to International Law, 8th edition, Routledge, 2018.

Tunkin G. I., International Law: A Textbook, Progress Publishers, 1986.

Tunkin G. I., Theory of International Law, Harper Collins, 1975.

Topic 1. Introduction to the course.

The session shall begin with the instructor introducing himself to the students. The students shall also introduce themselves. This facilitates interaction during the course. The instructor shall then give an overview both of the course as a whole and the individual topics to be studied; explaining, in a few short sentences, the place and importance of each topic within the subject. The instructor shall then explain the assessment strategy and criteria for the course, noting the importance of class attendance for success and what the students should seek to avoid. Naturally, as with each of the sessions, time shall be allowed (at the end of the class) for the students to ask any questions.

Recommended reading.

None.

Internet resources.

None.

Topic 2. Sources of International Law.

Any system of law has its sources. International law is no different. The sources of international law are set out in the Statute of the International Court of Justice; essentially the constitution of the World Court, the International Court of Justice. There are two main sources of international law: international conventions (i.e. treaties) and international custom. General principles of law are also a principle source, but aim to provide answers and remedies where the normative framework is in some way lacking. Judicial decisions and the writings of the "most highly qualified publicists" act as subsidiary sources; tendering solutions to particular problems and guidance where the law is unclear or in the process of development. Soft law shall be compared with hard law and the instructor shall explain *ius cogens*; that is, peremptory norms of international law, from which no derogation is permitted.

Recommended reading.

Boyle A. and Chinkin C., The Making of International Law, Oxford, 2007.
Cheng B., General Principles of Law as Applied by International Courts and Tribunals, London, 1953.
Pellet A., 'Article 38', in The Statute of the International Court of Justice: A Commentary (ed. Zimmermann A., Tomuschat C. and Oellers-Frahm K.), 2nd edn, Oxford, 2012, p.731.
Thirlway H., The Sources of International Law, Oxford, 2014.

Internet resources.

Statute of the International Court of Justice: https://www.icj-cij.org/en/statute
International Law Commission: http://legal.un.org/ilc/
Declaration on Principles of International Law concerning Friendly Relations and Co-operation among States in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations (1970): https://www.un.org/ruleoflaw/files/3dda1f104.pdf

Topic 3. International Law and Municipal Law.

International law is a separate system of law, but it inevitably comes into contact with municipal law (i.e. the domestic law of any State). A State cannot rely on its municipal law in order to avoid fulfilment of an international legal obligation. International law prevails over inconsistent municipal law, but this is not to suggest that the former is superior. Naturally, a third State cannot interfere in the affairs of another without the latter's authorisation. Thus, the content of the municipal law of a State is generally a matter for the State concerned. International legal rules provide a certain level of oversight, to ensure the maintenance of a minimum standard (most obviously in the field of human rights law), but it remains within the competence of any given State as to the extent to which it wishes to satisfy that minimum or not.

Recommended reading.

Fatima S., Using International Law in Domestic Courts, Oxford, 2005.
Feldman D., 'Monism, Dualism and Constitutional Legitimacy, 20 Australian YIL, 1999, p.105.
International Law and Domestic Legal Systems (ed. D. Shelton), Oxford, 2011.
McLachlan C., Foreign Relations Law, Cambridge, 2014.
Shany Y., Regulating Jurisdictional Relations Between National and International Courts, Oxford, 2007.

Internet resources.

None.

Topic 4. The Subjects of International Law.

Historically the sole subjects of international law were States. During the past two centuries other actors have been accepted as having at least a certain level of international legal personality. Legal personality, including in municipal law, determines the extent to which any legal person has rights and obligations under international law. Only a State has full capacity under international law. Nevertheless, international organisations (such as the United Nations) have their own capacities (they sign international agreements, for example), even if they cannot have responsibility for the actions / inactions of their citizens, as States alone can have. During the 20th century, individuals have come to bear liability for certain defined international crimes. Familiar crimes such as murder or rape remain within the purview of municipal law, but certain other grave crimes have given rise to universal jurisdiction (under international law). These crimes include: genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity. In this topic: the criteria of statehood and the different types of state shall be considered, and the status of insurgents and belligerents.

Recommended reading.

Cassese A., Self-Determination of Peoples, Cambridge, 1995.
Crawford J., The Creation of States in International Law, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2006.
Higgins R., Problems and Process, Oxford, 1994.
Non-State Actors in International Law (ed. Noortmann M., Reinisch A. and Ryngaert C.), Oxford, 2015.
Portmann R., Legal Personality in International Law, Cambridge, 2010.

Internet resources.

Rome Statute (establishing the International Criminal Court): https://www.icc-cpi.int/resource-library/Documents/RS-Eng.pdf

Topic 5. United Nations.

The United Nations is, without question, the principal international organisation on the international stage. The successor to the League of Nations, the United Nations has, since 1945, had principal responsibility (among all international organisations) for the maintenance of international peace and security. Today there is hardly a corner of the globe which is not represented in the United Nations, now that the processes of decolonisation are almost complete. The executive organ of the UN is the Security Council, which includes five permanent members. The legislative organ (although the terms executive and legislative cannot be neatly demarcated as far as the UN is concerned) is the General Assembly, being the plenary body for all (State) members of the organisation and principal among its functions being the adoption of multilateral treaties on a wide range of subjects. The work of the organisation as a whole is supported by its permanent staff, as members of its Secretariat. Some of the specialist work of the United Nations, including correspondence with the UN's specialised agencies, is undertaken by the Economic and Social Council. The final, currently operational, organ of the United Nations is the International Court of Justice (which shall be considered in a later topic).

Recommended reading.

Chesterman S., Johnstone I. and Malone D. M., Law and Practice of the United Nations, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2016.
Cot J. P., Pellet A. and Forteau M., La Charte des Nations Unies: Commentaire, Article par Article, 3rd edn, Paris, 2005.

Merrills J. G., International Dispute Settlement, 5th edn, Cambridge, 2011, chapter 10.

Internet resources.

United Nations website: https://www.un.org/
United Nations Charter (1945): https://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/

Topic 6. Territory.

One of the criteria for Statehood is territory. The territorial extent of a State may sometimes be disputed. This acts as no bar to recognition as a State on the international stage. Nevertheless, where dispute arises, any given State may be required to confirm, demonstrate or prove title over any territory it claims. In such instances, certain factors may be relied on to assert title over territory. The manner in which the State acquired the territory may be important, under circumstances which, although not legitimate today, were not unlawful at the time. A State may be required to indicate that it has effective control over certain territory. Furthermore, a State may come to acquire title over territory by means which, at the outset, were doubtful, but owing, perhaps, to the conduct of another entitle the former to claim prescriptive title to it. International law has drawn a very high proportion of its principles from Roman law. This topic provides a fine example of this. In certain instances of state succession, the ancient Roman law interdict of *uti possidetis* has been adapted to settle territorial boundaries, for example where a federation has been dissolved. Attention shall also be drawn to the common heritage of mankind and the unique status afforded to Antarctica under the Antarctic Treaty of 1959.

Recommended reading.

Crawford J., The Creation of States in International Law, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2006.
Jennings R. Y., The Acquisition of Territory in International Law, Manchester, 1963.
Prescott V. and Triggs G., International Frontiers and Boundaries, Leiden, 2008
Shaw M. N., Title to Territory in Africa, Oxford, 1986.
Territoriality and International Law (ed. Kohen M.), Cheltenham, 2016.

Internet resources.

Antarctic Treaty (1959):
https://documents.ats.aq/keydocs/vol_1/vol1_2_AT_Antarctic_Treaty_e.pdf

Topic 7. Air Space and Outer Space.

International law consists of four different territorial spaces. Land territory, as considered in the previous topic. Seas and oceans, to be considered towards the end of the course. Also, air space and outer space. A State has sovereign rights over its airspace, upon analogy with the sole right of use and enjoyment of the airspace above a person's real estate. A State is able to regulate the use of its airspace, establish zones over which non-authorised persons (not only other States) are prohibited from flying and respond to illegal use of its airspace, in violation of any such type of regulations. The international law relating to air space deals essentially with the use of civilian and military aircraft, the manner in which aircraft should be operated, and the expectations of a State when its air space is being utilised by such. The State whose air space is being used may have rights of intervention under certain circumstances, but any response must always be necessary and proportional to any harm, damage or prejudice sustained. By contrast, no State has sovereign rights over any part of outer space. Outer space is *res communis*, a space incapable of ownership. Nevertheless, the law that has developed, in recent decades, to manage the exploration and perhaps (one day) exploitation of outer space has been mindful both of the need for States to be able to take

advantage of their technological capacities, while sharing the fruits of any commercial benefit acquired with those other States not able to develop a space programme.

Recommended reading.

Cheng B., Studies in International Space Law, Oxford, 1997.
Lyall F. and Larsen P. B., Space Law, Aldershot, 2009.

Internet resources.

International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO): https://www.icao.int/Pages/default.aspx
Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation (1944): https://www.icao.int/publications/pages/doc7300.aspx
Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies (1967): https://treaties.un.org/doc/Publication/UNTS/Volume%20610/volume-610-I-8843-English.pdf
Agreement Governing the Activities of States on the Moon and other Celestial Bodies (1979): https://treaties.un.org/doc/Treaties/1984/07/19840711%2001-51%20AM/Ch_XXIV_02.pdf

Topic 8. Recognition of States and Governments.

For an entity to become an international actor on the international stage; most usually, in this context, as a State; such entity needs to secure both the attention and then the confidence of others. Statehood is not a right in itself, but in large part the product of acknowledgement and acceptance. For a State to be able to exercise its capacities, assert its status and demonstrate its personality to the fullest it needs to be able to establish relations (usually diplomatic) with other States. For such to occur, other States are required, whether directly or indirectly, to recognise the existence of such an entity and, by virtue of this, indicate their willingness at least to admit the right of others to establish relations with it. Of course, usually there will be little cause to question, delay or limit such recognition. However, on occasions, such withholding of recognition may continue for many decades. No State has the right to prevent another or others from recognising a given entity as a State, but (ultimately) no State or group of States can require any State to recognise another. Such type of contorted approach and therefore discourse has inspired many States, in recent decades, to avoid the conscious and automatic recognition of other governments. On occasions, a new government may be installed in a State under doubtful (in international legal terms) circumstances. Other States may have little alternative than to have some, even low-level, dealings with such new authority, but they may wish to avoid making themselves vulnerable to international criticism by publicly endorsing such an authority or adverting their dealings with it.

Recommended reading.

Crawford J., The Creation of States in International Law, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2006.
Dugard J., Recognition and the United Nations, Cambridge, 1987.
Lauterpacht H., Recognition in International Law, Cambridge, 1947.
Recognition in International Relations (ed. Daase C., Fehl C., Geis A. and Kolliarkis G.), Basingstoke, 2015.
Talmon S., Recognition of Governments in International Law, Oxford, 1998.

Internet resources.

EC Declaration on the Guidelines on the Recognition of New States in Eastern Europe and in the Soviet Union (16th December 1991): https://www.dipublico.org/100636/declaration-on-the-

guidelines-on-the-recognition-of-new-states-in-eastern-europe-and-in-the-soviet-union-16-december-1991/
EC Declaration on Yugoslavia (16th December 1991):
https://www.dipublico.org/100637/declaration-on-yugoslavia-extraordinary-epc-ministerial-meeting-brussels-16-december-1991/

Topic 9. Jurisdiction.

One of the criteria of statehood is having a government. There may be occasions, usually brief, when disturbance within a State means that it has either no government or different groupings who claim to be acting as the lawful government. However, such is uncommon. International relations depends upon the existence of States and their ability to manage their internal affairs, including those of its citizens. Nevertheless, there may be occasions in which a State may wish to exercise jurisdiction over one of its citizens, perhaps following their committing of a serious criminal offence abroad. This will normally require the existence of an extradition treaty between the State where the crime was committed and the State of nationality of the accused. The latter State may not in every circumstance be successful in its request (for extradition). It is normal for a State, therefore, to exercise both civil and criminal jurisdiction over civil wrongs or crimes committed by non-nationals. In more extreme cases, a State may seek to assert the exercise of jurisdiction (again nearly always criminal) over a foreign national who has caused substantial prejudice, harm or damage either to the given State itself or its citizens. Such exercise of jurisdiction is not without controversy, as recent years (by way of exercise of extraordinary rendition) has shown. There are also a residual category of (international) crimes which are subject to universal jurisdiction, for which any State, however closely related to the offence (or not) may assert juridical competence. Some of these (such as piracy and engagement in the slave trade) are more historically established, others (for example, crimes against humanity) are of relatively more recent origin.

Recommended reading.

Akehurst M., 'Jurisdiction in International Law', 46 BYIL, 1972-3, p.145.
Mann F. A., 'The Doctrine of Jurisdiction in International Law Revisited After Twenty Years', 186 HR, 1984, p.3.
Reydams L., Universal Jurisdiction: International and Municipal Legal Perspectives, Oxford, 2002.
Ryngaert C., Jurisdiction in International Law, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2015.
Shany Y., Regulating Jurisdictional Relations between National and International Courts, Oxford, 2007.

Internet resources.

None.

Topic 10. The Law of Treaties.

States facilitate their relations with other States by concluding agreements. These are commonly known as international treaties or conventions. They are a much grander version of a contract concluded between two private persons and, in very much the same way, give rise to rights and obligations. Essentially, there are two types of treaties: bilateral and multilateral. While the media tends to focus its attention much more on multilateral treaties, bilateral treaties predominate. Many of the most important multilateral treaties are the product of years of discussion and negotiation, at a scholarly, diplomatic and governmental level, prior to their adoption by the United Nations General Assembly. The technical rules concerning the law of treaties has now been codified into the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties. In considerable detail it sets out the circumstances in which a state may express its consent to be bound by a particular instrument, how the State may

cease to be bound by it, how the treaty itself may be suspended (in whole or in part) or even terminated (perhaps where it is replaced by another). Every State must be politically independent (at least to a minimum extent) in order to be classified or continue to be classified as a State. Therefore, there may be circumstances in which a State's consent to be bound by a treaty may be void, perhaps due to the conduct of another or a state of affairs arising which had not been anticipated at the time of its conclusion. Of course, a State may limit its consent to be bound by a treaty by issuing a reservation to at least some part of it. This may result in a given part of the treaty not applying to that State or the reserving State insisting upon a particular application of a given provision. Such a right is not unilateral, the reserving State cannot defeat the object and purpose of the instrument, and another State party or others may object. The law of treaties, as can be seen, by way of these few examples, is therefore a highly technical and sometimes complex topic, but essential for one's understanding of international law more generally.

Recommended reading.

Aust A., Modern Treaty Law and Practice, 3rd edn, Cambridge, 2013.
Klabbers J., The Concept of Treaty in International Law, The Hague, 2013.
Kolb R., The Law of Treaties: An Introduction, Cheltenham, 2016.
The Oxford Guide to Treaties (ed. Hollis D.), Oxford, 2012.
The Vienna Conventions on the Law of Treaties (ed. Corten O. and Klein P.), Oxford, 2 vols., 2011.
Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties: A Commentary (ed. Dörr O. and Schmalenbach K.), Heidelberg, 2011.

Internet resources.

Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties (1969): https://treaties.un.org/doc/Publication/UNTS/Volume%201155/volume-1155-I-18232-English.pdf
ILC Draft Articles on the Law of Treaties between States and International Organisations or between International Organisations (1982): http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/commentaries/1_2_1982.pdf
Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties between States and International Organisations (1986): http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/conventions/1_2_1986.pdf

Topic 11. The Settlement of Disputes by Peaceful Means.

Private parties may enter into contracts, come into conflict and then need to resolve their disputes. States are no different. International law provides a range of mechanisms for the resolution of disputes: some are diplomatic, others judicial and some others quasi-judicial. No mechanism of dispute settlement in international law has priority. The nature of the given situation will often indicate the mechanism which, at least at first, best suits the disputing parties. The well-established principle that judicial means should normally be a last resort need not always be followed, particularly if it soon becomes evident that one of the parties is not interested in resolving the situation out-of-court. However, as in municipal law, more than one mechanism may be being utilised simultaneously, perhaps in the hope (for example) that further negotiation may, in the end, avoid any judicial determination. Inspired by its prevalence in the commercial (including international commercial) field, States may prefer, even *ad hoc*, to resolve a dispute on a more consensual basis, by way of arbitration. The assumption is that the findings of an appointed or agreed third party will usually be acted upon, but this does not have to be the case (necessarily) if the disputants have recourse to conciliation. International courts and tribunals, many of them specialist, have proliferated in recent decades. However, the principal tribunal on the international stage remains the International Court of Justice; being one of the organs of the United Nations. In this topic, the composition and competences of the Court shall be considered. The latter can be asymmetrical, as demonstrated in the Court's ability to give Advisory Opinions on matters of

international law when requested to do so, either by another organ of the United Nations or one of its specialised agencies.

Recommended reading.

Collier J. and Lowe V., The Settlement of Disputes in International Law, Cambridge, 1999.
Diplomatic and Judicial Means of Dispute Settlement (ed. Boisson de Charzournes L., Kohen M. and Viñuales J.), Leiden, 2012.
International Law and Dispute Settlement: New Problems and Techniques (ed. French D., Saul M. and White N.), Oxford, 2010.
Merrills J. G., International Dispute Settlement, 5th edn, Cambridge, 2011.
Orrego Vicuña F., International Dispute Settlement in an Evolving Global Society: Constitutionalization, Accessibility, Privatization, Cambridge, 2004.

Internet resources.

United Nations Charter (1945): https://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/
Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of Disputes (1899): https://www.loc.gov/law/help/us-treaties/bevans/m-ust000001-0230.pdf
General Act for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes (1928, as revised in 1949): https://treaties.un.org/doc/Treaties/1950/09/19500920%2010-17%20PM/Ch_II_1p.pdf
Statute of the International Court of Justice: https://www.icj-cij.org/en/statute

Topic 12. State Responsibility.

A State in the conducting of its business may cause harm, damage or prejudice to another State or its citizens for which it bears responsibility under international law. The harm (etc.) caused may be direct (for example, where a missile goes astray, causing damage to public or private property of the claimant State). Alternatively, the harm caused may be indirect (for example, where a State's government policy renders the safety of foreign nationals so insecure that the latter are forced to flee the defendant State, leaving their property behind). State responsibility law is not burdened by definition. The circumstances in which a State may or may not be held liable are limitless. The event or occasion shall, ultimately, determine whether it is of a magnitude to render the defendant State liable. Naturally, there may be circumstances in which the State accused is able to excuse itself owing to the situation prevailing at the time of the harm (such being unavoidable, perhaps following a natural disaster or emergency). As individuals lack full international personality on the international stage, the claims of private citizens will be taken up by their government. Their government may, for whatever reason, in the end, decide not to pursue the matter. Even if it does, international law requires that the affected national have exhausted local remedies before seeking to pursue his claim at an international level. Occasionally, perhaps owing to some previous rupture in diplomatic relations / official contacts between the two disputing States, the States concerned may submit their own respective claims which may be settled reciprocally and mutually by way of a lump-sum agreement. From the settlement, each State shall then elect to divide up what has been secured, as it wishes, to those who have suffered harm.

Recommended reading.

Brownlie I., System of the Law of Nations: State Responsibility, Part I, Oxford, 1983.
Crawford J., The International Law Commission's Articles on State Responsibility, Cambridge, 2002.
Crawford J., State Responsibility: The General Part, Cambridge, 2013.
International Responsibility Today: Essays in Memory of Oscar Schachter (ed. Ragazzi M.), The Hague, 2005.

The Law of International Responsibility (ed. Crawford J., Pellet A. and Olleson S.), Oxford, 2010.
'Symposium: The ILC's State Responsibility Articles', 96 AJIL, 2002, p.773.

Internet resources.

ILC Draft Articles on State Responsibility:
http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/draft_articles/9_6_2001.pdf

Topic 13. Diplomatic Immunity.

For any State to have an effective presence on the international stage, it shall need to establish relations with others, in order perhaps to enhance its trading opportunities, as well as to protect the well-being of its nationals abroad. This is why a State seeks to establish diplomatic relations with another and usually, to the extent of its abilities, open a permanent diplomatic presence (an embassy, for example) in the host third country. Diplomatic law is one of the more ancient areas of international law. Some of its rules almost certainly pre-date recorded history. Historically, less emphasis is likely to have been placed on the well-being of a State's nationals, but certainly communication between States would have needed to have been facilitated securely via the appointment and safe passage of (diplomatic) envoys and legates. The immunities today enjoyed by persons and property under diplomatic law would have been especially important when relations between at least two given States were strained, even during times of armed conflict, for the purpose of maintaining channels of communication, engaging in negotiations and eventually concluding peaces. Thankfully, modern times have meant that such type of work by diplomatic agents (etc.) is hidden behind the increasingly secured buildings, visited by most only when future employment or a vacation requires the completion of the necessary procedures at the relevant consular section of the given State. In this topic, the wide range of immunities enjoyed by persons and property shall be set out, with a particular emphasis on the immunities enjoyed by diplomatic agents and also their resident family members. The key differences between diplomatic and consular staff shall be noted, and attention shall be drawn (albeit in brief) to a residual set of instruments dealing with special missions and internationally protected persons.

Recommended reading.

Denza E., Diplomatic Law, 4th edn, Oxford, 2016.
Lee L. T. and Quigley J., Consular Law and Practice, 3rd edn, Oxford, 2008.
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Vienna Convention on Consular Relations (1963):
http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/conventions/9_2_1963.pdf
Convention on Special Missions (1969):
http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/conventions/9_3_1969.pdf
Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents (1973):
http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/conventions/9_4_1973.pdf

Topic 14. Sovereign Immunity.

If a diplomatic agent in a receiving State enjoys immunity from criminal prosecution or civil suit (in nearly all instances) before the local courts of the receiving State, by extension, it should come as

no surprise that a State enjoys immunity from civil suit before the receiving State's same courts. Until the turn of the 20th century, such immunity of a foreign State was absolute. However, the past century has seen a gradual (and almost global) re-evaluation of the extent of such immunity enjoyed, in light of the enhanced functions undertaken by States in the modern world. Thus, a restrictive approach is now generally taken, in which a foreign State has retained its immunity from acts undertaken in the exercise of its official public functions, whilst immunity has been removed where the State is conducting itself usually on a level commercial level in activities equivalent to those undertaken by legal persons in private law, for which the latter do not enjoy any immunity (*per se*) and for it which it has been concluded that, in order to avoid a (foreign) State being placed at an unfair juridical (and therefore commercial) advantage, such State should no longer enjoy immunity. In recent years, the international law relating to this subject has been boosted by the adoption of a UN Convention on Jurisdictional Immunities. However, this Convention is not yet in force and, no doubt, even when it enters into force, at least for the foreseeable future, this shall remain an area of international law in which the capacity of States to set their own expectations, requirements and rules (individually) shall ultimately prevail. In teaching this topic, therefore, occasional reference to the approach taken by the United States and the United Kingdom shall be tendered.

Recommended reading.

Fox H. and Webb P., The Law of State Immunity, 3rd revised and updated edn, Oxford, 2015.
The United Nations Convention on Jurisdictional Immunities of States and Their Property (ed. O'Keefe R. and Tams C.), Oxford, 2013.
Watts A., 'The Legal Position in International Law of Heads of State, Heads of Government and Foreign Ministers', 247 HR, 1994, III, p.13.
Yang X., State Immunity in International Law, Cambridge, 2012.

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Convention on Jurisdictional Immunities of States and Their Property (2004): https://treaties.un.org/doc/source/RecentTexts/English_3_13.pdf

Topic 15. The Law of the Sea.

The complexity of the law relating to the sea is demonstrated by the length of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea and the breadth of its terminology. To some extent, this area of international law is a slight misnomer touching as it does on a State's internal waters, as well as the opportunities, rights and entitlements of landlocked States. Nevertheless, the bulk of attention remains devoted to the territorial waters of a coastal State, the additional zones it can (now) claim over which a degree of jurisdiction can be exercised (as defined), the relatively newly formulated right of a coastal State to claim sovereignty over its continental shelf, and, of course, the high seas. From this point the technical detail commences. A layman may not appreciate the difference between an island, a rock and a low-tide elevation and the consequences thereof. Nature has required legal draftsmen to resolve at what juncture (if at all, in a given case) the waters of a bay are rendered into internal ones. Shipping (both merchant and military) has to be regulated when a given vessel enters the territorial waters of another State; while, at the same time, the coastal State devolves a certain level of jurisdictional competence to the State whose flag the vessel is flying. The history of the law of the sea, therefore, continues to be a struggle between those who wish to reduce the world's seas and oceans to the sovereignty of States and those who wish to keep them, to the greatest extent possible, free and open. This is a struggle which is far from reaching its completion. Technology continues to expand the opportunities for commercial harvesting of fish stocks and, increasingly, the rich minerals and metals which remain on the seabed of the high seas. Limited time means that the subject can only be introduced to a cursory degree.

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Anderson D., Modern Law of the Sea: Selected Essays, The Hague, 2014.
Churchill R. and Lowe A. V., The Law of the Sea, 3rd edn, Manchester, 1999.
The Oxford Handbook on the Law of the Sea (ed. Rothwell D. R., Oude Elferink A. G., Scott K. N. and Stephens T.), Oxford, 2015.
Rothwell D. R. and Stephens T., The International Law of the Sea, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2016.
Tanaka Y., The International Law of the Sea, 2nd edn, Cambridge, 2015.

Internet resources.

Convention on the Law of the Sea (1982): https://www.un.org/Depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/unclos_e.pdf
Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone (1958): https://www.gc.noaa.gov/documents/8_1_1958_territorial_sea.pdf
Convention on Fishing and Conservation of Living Resources (1958): https://www.gc.noaa.gov/documents/8_1_1958_fishing.pdf
Convention on the Continental Shelf (1958): http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/conventions/8_1_1958_continental_shelf.pdf
Convention on the High Seas (1958): https://www.gc.noaa.gov/documents/8_1_1958_high_seas.pdf
Montreux Convention (1936): http://sam.baskent.edu.tr/belge/Montreux_ENG.pdf
Straddling Stocks Agreement (1995): https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N95/274/67/PDF/N9527467.pdf?OpenElement
Agreement on Implementation of the Seabed Provisions of the Convention on the Law of the Sea (1994): https://www.un.org/Depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/closindxAgree.htm

Topic 16. The Use of Force by States.

Today, textbooks on international law devote less space to the laws relating to armed conflict than previously. This is reflected in international law courses, also. This must represent progress of a sort. The laws of war are vast and diffuse ranging from the rights of prisoners of war to the level of force that a State can employ in exercise of its (inherent) right of self-defence. In this course time allows focus only to be directed on a small part of this subject. Under the UN Charter, a State must not use or threaten to use force against another. If a State undertakes unfriendly measures against another, the latter has the right to respond, by taking measures which are permitted under international law (such may include, for example, the limiting of its diplomatic presence and relationship with the offending State). If a State, however, engages in conduct which is not permitted under international law, the recipient State has the right to reply by taking measures which in normal circumstances would be unlawful. It requires little explanation to note that a State cannot interfere in the internal affairs of another. Nevertheless, international lawyers continue to discuss whether there may be circumstances in which a State has the right of intervention, either to protect its nationals (who may be in danger) or where grave violations of human rights (even against the offending State's own nationals), can be taken. In some cases, States may wish to come together to establish collective security arrangements, to provide an umbrella particularly (but not exclusively) for the assistance of some members unable, in normal circumstances, to defend themselves alone. Such are not a modern invention, but date far back to the Ancient world, the time of Thucydides and the Peloponnesian War.

Recommended reading.

Brownlie I., International Law and the Use of Force by States, Oxford, 1963.
Dinstein Y., War, Aggression and Self-Defence, 5th edn, Cambridge, 2011.

Franck T. M., Recourse to Force, Cambridge, 2002.
Gray C., International Law and the Use of Force, 3rd edn, Oxford, 2008.
The Oxford Handbook on the Use of Force (ed. M. Weller), Oxford, 2015.

Internet resources.

United Nations Charter (1945): https://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/
Declaration on the Inadmissibility of Intervention in the Domestic Affairs of States (GA resolution 2131 (XX)) (1965): https://www.ilsa.org/Jessup/Jessup15/Declaration%20on%20the%20Inadmissibility%20of%20Intervention%20in%20the%20Domestic%20Affairs%20of%20States%20and%20the%20Protection%20of%20Their%20Independence%20and%20Sovereignty.pdf

Disclaimer
Instructor could modify schedule of the classes as necessary.

2.3. Exam timing

- Final exam – January 2020 (date to be announced)

2.4. Consolidated reading list (in alphabetic order)

Recommended reading.

1. Akehurst M., 'Jurisdiction in International Law', 46 BYIL, 1972-3, p.145.
2. Anderson D., Modern Law of the Sea: Selected Essays, The Hague, 2014.
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9. Cheng B., Studies in International Space Law, Oxford, 1997.
10. Chesterman S., Johnstone I. and Malone D. M., Law and Practice of the United Nations, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2016.
11. Churchill R. and Lowe A. V., The Law of the Sea, 3rd edn, Manchester, 1999.
12. Collier J. and Lowe V., The Settlement of Disputes in International Law, Cambridge, 1999.
13. Cot J. P., Pellet A. and Forteau M., La Charte des Nations Unies: Commentaire, Article par Article, 3rd edn, Paris, 2005.
14. Crawford J., Brownlie's Principles of Public International Law, 9th edition, Oxford, 2019.
15. Crawford J., State Responsibility: The General Part, Cambridge, 2013.
16. Crawford J., The Creation of States in International Law, 2nd edn, Oxford, 2006.
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18. Denza E., Diplomatic Law, 4th edn, Oxford, 2016.
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22. Dugard J., Recognition and the United Nations, Cambridge, 1987.
23. Evans M. D., International Law, 5th edition, Oxford, 2018.
24. Fatima S., Using International Law in Domestic Courts, Oxford, 2005.
25. Feldman D., 'Monism, Dualism and Constitutional Legitimacy, 20 Australian YIL, 1999, p.105.
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34. International Responsibility Today: Essays in Memory of Oscar Schachter (ed. Ragazzi M.), The Hague, 2005.
35. Jennings R. Y., The Acquisition of Territory in International Law, Manchester, 1963.
36. Kaczorowska-Ireland A., Public International Law, 5th edition, Routledge, 2015.
37. Klabbers J., International Law, 2nd edition, Cambridge, 2017.
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39. Kolb R., The Law of Treaties: An Introduction, Cheltenham, 2016.
40. Lauterpacht H., Recognition in International Law, Cambridge, 1947.
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74. Watts A., 'The Legal Position in International Law of Heads of State, Heads of Government and Foreign Ministers', 247 HR, 1994, III, p.13.
75. Yang X., State Immunity in International Law, Cambridge, 2012.

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2. Agreement on Implementation of the Seabed Provisions of the Convention on the Law of the Sea (1994): https://www.un.org/Depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/closindxAgree.htm
3. Antarctic Treaty (1959):
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4. Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation (1944):
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5. Convention on Fishing and Conservation of Living Resources (1958):
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12. Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone (1958):
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https://www.un.org/ruleoflaw/files/3dda1f104.pdf
14. Declaration on the Inadmissibility of Intervention in the Domestic Affairs of States (GA resolution 2131 (XX)) (1965):
https://www.ilsa.org/Jessup/Jessup15/Declaration%20on%20the%20Inadmissibility%20of%20Inter

vention%20in%20the%20Domestic%20Affairs%20of%20States%20and%20the%20Protection%20of%20Their%20Independence%20and%20Sovereignty.pdf
15. EC Declaration on the Guidelines on the Recognition of New States in Eastern Europe and in the Soviet Union (16th December 1991): https://www.dipublico.org/100636/declaration-on-the-guidelines-on-the-recognition-of-new-states-in-eastern-europe-and-in-the-soviet-union-16-december-1991/
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19. ILC Draft Articles on State Responsibility: http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/draft_articles/9_6_2001.pdf
20. ILC Draft Articles on the Law of Treaties between States and International Organisations or between International Organisations (1982): http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/commentaries/1_2_1982.pdf
21. International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO): https://www.icao.int/Pages/default.aspx
22. International Law Commission: http://legal.un.org/ilc/
23. Montreux Convention (1936): http://sam.baskent.edu.tr/belge/Montreux_ENG.pdf
24. Rome Statute (establishing the International Criminal Court): https://www.icc-cpi.int/resource-library/Documents/RS-Eng.pdf
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PART 3. FINAL REMARK

- Plagiarism is considered a severe violation and an indication of incompetence in the course. Plagiarism is understood as making of one's text using compilation method for other people's publications, even connected with own phrases and sentences. Collective performance of individual tasks is unacceptable. Proven plagiarism will receive an F-mark regardless of the fulfillment of all other requirements.