

Sovereign State of Åland

Code

20 September 2025

Section 1

Chapter 1, Definitions

1.1 § 1 — Words

“Officer” includes any person authorized by law to perform the duties of the office.

“Signature” includes a writing where a person writes their name on a paper.

“Country” includes any political entity with a government which has full control over its territory. “Nation” has the same meaning as “country”.

“Company” or “Corporation” includes any business.

“Vehicle” includes every description of carriage or other artificial contrivance used, or capable of being used, as a means of transportation on land.

“Vessel” includes every description of watercraft or other artificial contrivance used, or capable of being used, as a means of transportation on water.

“Person” includes any human.

“Conflict” includes any form of fighting physically or legally.

“Bank” includes any financial institution that accepts deposits from the public while simultaneously making loans.

“Law”, the word itself, relates to statutes by parliament.

“Government treasury” and “national treasury” are interchangeable.

“Adult” is a person above the age of 18, and “child” is a person under the age 18.

“Civil procedure” is law that governs process in all judicial proceedings involving lawsuits between private parties.

“Contract law” is law that covers obligations established by agreement (express or implied) between private parties.

“Tort law” is law that covers any civil action between private parties arising from wrongful acts that amount to a breach of general obligations imposed by law and not by contract.

“Property law” is law that deals with property.

“Statutes” are written laws passed by parliament.

“Supreme law” is the law in the constitution.

“\$” is interchangeable with “€”, but “U.S. dollar” and “Euro” are not.

1.1 § 2 — Adding new words

The Parliament is allowed to add new words to 1.1 § 1 but not allowed to remove any of them.

Chapter 2, Code lawmaking

Subchapter 1, Lawmaking

1.2 § 3 — Drafting and enacting laws

For the Parliament to draft a law, a member of the Parliament has to present a law. If a majority agrees, the law will be enacted and added to the Sovereign State of Åland Code. Laws should also be as clear as possible.

1.2 § 4 — Repealing laws

For the Parliament to repeal a law, a majority of the Parliament has to agree to vote on repealing a law. Then, if a majority votes to repeal the law, the law is removed from the code and is no longer enforced.

1.2 § 5 — Repealing parts of laws

To repeal a part of a law means that you are only repealing a section of it and keeping the rest. If you repeal the fundamental part of the law, the whole law is repealed.

To repeal a part of a law, a majority of the Parliament has to agree to vote on to repeal a part of the law. If a majority votes yes, then the part of the law will be repealed.

1.2 § 6 — Laws which cannot be repealed

All laws under Chapter 1, General code rules, can not be repealed. Any laws which are described in the constitution can not be repealed.

1.2 § 7 — Supreme law

The code book does not define supreme law (the constitution) unless used as context, definition, or clarification, as the code of the Sovereign State of Åland is the statutory law, not supreme law.

Section 2, National Symbols

Chapter 1, Flag

2.1 § 8 — Flag; the Nordic cross

The flag of the *Sovereign State of Åland* is a yellow or gold Nordic Cross with another red cross inside on a blue background with a vertical bar shifted towards the hoist side. The flag's proportions are 17:26. It is the civil and state flag and ensign.

2.1 § 9 — Flag usage; using the flag

The flag can be used in any way. The flag, in an official setting, it shall not be in the wrong proportions or color. If using the flag in advertising, it shall not be in the wrong proportions or color. The only time its colors can be changed is during black and white printing.

Chapter 2, Coat of arms

2.2 § 10 — Coat of arms

The coat of arms is a golden red deer on a blue field with a comital coronet above the shield.

2.2 § 11 — Coat of Arms usage, using the coat of arms

The coat of arms can be used in any way. In an official setting, it shall not be used in any way that changes its color or proportions. The only time its colors can be changed is during black and white printing.

Chapter 3, The Seal

2.3 § 12 — Seal

The seal of the country is the coat of arms in a circle with a golden border. The inside of the circle is a dark blue.

2.3 § 13 — Seal usage, using the seal

The seal can be used in any way. In an official setting, it shall not be used in any way that changes its color or proportions. The only time its colors can be changed is during black and white printing.

Section 3, Business

Chapter 1, Founding a business

Subchapter 1, Application

3.1 § 14 — Applying

Anyone in the *Sovereign State of Åland* is allowed to found a business. To found a business, you need to send in an application to the Ministry of Labor. The application needs to contain the name, structure (Sole Proprietorship, Partnership, Limited Liability Company (LLC), Nonprofit Organization, Cooperative (Co-op),), if it is Private or Public and who will own the business.

3.1 § 15 — Branding; Logo and name

A business can have any logo so long it's not graphic (murder, gore, nudity, slurs,). A business can also not be named after someone not involved with the business or who does not want to be named after the business. The name can also not contain slurs.

Chapter 2, Owning a business

Subchapter 1, Manufacturing and selling

3.2 § 16 — Producing and selling

A business needs a license(s) to produce and sell products. Products that need licenses to produce and sell are food, drinks, chemicals, weapons (non-military grade firearms), electronics and vehicles. To get a license you need to send an application to the *Ministry of Labor*. Products you are not allowed to produce or sell are military weapons (only state owned business can), drugs, explosives (only state owned business can) and stolen products/items.

3.2 § 17 — Licenses; selling

The *Ministry of Labor* can give out licenses to food (You need to get a license for each product type you want to sell, for example salt. You do not need a license to sell a specific brand), drinks (You need a license for each type of drink, not brand) chemicals (You need a license for each chemical, not brand), weapons (You need a license for each class of weapon you are legally allowed to sell), electronics (You need a license for each electronic type, not brand) and vehicles (You need a license for each type of vehicle such as car, truck, vessel, and aircraft).

3.2 § 18 — Licenses; producing

You can get a license to produce the same things as listed under 3.2 § 17 from the *Ministry of Labor*. For weapons you need a license to which type of weapons you are legally allowed to produce.

Subchapter 2, Employee laws

3.2 § 19 — Employees

Employees are allowed to work for as long as the employer states and work overtime if the employer allows it. Employees get 30 full paid vacation days every year and full pay when they are sick. The minimum wage for working is \$8/h.

3.2 § 20 — Employees; Safety

The conditions at work can not be overly dangerous with no safety measures. Every business with a possibility of injury or death needs safety precautions.

3.2 § 21 — Working hours and days

The max working hours is 8 hours a day. Saturday and Sunday are off days where you don't have to work, unless there is an exception in a job contract that you sign.

Chapter 3, Bankruptcy

3.3 § 22 — Bankruptcy

A business goes bankrupt once it can't pay its debts. Once it has gone bankrupt all of the business's assets go to the government who pays its debts.

Chapter 4, State owned

3.4 § 23 — Founding or owning

A state-owned business is a business where over 50% of it is owned by the government or was founded by the government. State-owned businesses are allowed to make military weapons with a license from the Ministry of Labor.

Section 4, Central registry

Chapter 1, General

4.1 § 24 — Purpose

The *Sovereign State of Åland Central Registry's* purpose is to track and store information.

4.1 § 25 — Tracked data

Related to general economics (exports, imports, GDP, currency in circulation, GDP growth, GDP per capita, Gini, labor force, labor force by occupation, unemployment, average gross salary, inflation, FDI stock, gross external debt, interest rates), businesses (names, structure, founder, status, shareholder information, reports and financial statements), government economics (government debt, foreign reserves, budget balance, revenues, expenses), and population.

Section 5, Banks and banking

Chapter 1, Government treasury

5.1 § 26 — General

The treasury is where the government's money is held. The legislative and executive branches are able to draw funds from this treasury. The treasury is governed by the executive branch, but the legislative branch is allowed to veto funds drawn from the treasury by the executive branch.

5.1 § 27 — Revenue

The treasury receives revenue through different means including taxes, exports, and currency printing. The amount allowed to be printed weekly is 2% of the treasuries held currency one week ago. No more than that is allowed to be printed. All bills need Å written on the back and have one UV ink line on the front.

5.1 § 28 — Spending

As stated at 5.1 § 26, the legislative and executive branches are the only ones allowed to draw funds from the treasury. The money is allowed to be spent on anything*, unless limitations or regulations have been implemented.

Chapter 2, Business banks

Subchapter 1, General

5.2 § 29 — Founding

A business bank founding is defined under 3.1 § 13 and 3.1 § 14. A business bank is a bank founded by a citizen, and not the government.

5.2 § 30 — Depositing and withdrawing

People are allowed to deposit and withdraw money from the bank. The bank is responsible for holding and withdrawing this money.

5.2 § 31 — Interest

Business banks can pay interest for customers for deposits. The bank sets the interest rate so long it is between 0.1% to 10%. The bank then is allowed to lend out a large portion of these deposits to individuals and businesses in the form of mortgages, personal loans, and business loans. These loans can then be issued at higher interest rates so long it is between 0.2% to 20%. The interest stated by the bank, must be given to the customer monthly. Banks may lend money to other banks at interest as well.

Subchapter 2, Government powers

5.2 § 32 — Executive control

Under the constitution, it states that the president is allowed to freeze assets. This includes business banks. If the president signs an executive order freezing assets, all assets under what the executive order defines are frozen. Also under the constitution, it states that the president can block transactions through executive orders. This also includes business banks.

Section 6, Shares and Stocks

Chapter 1, Stocks

Subchapter 1, General

6.1 § 33 — Prices

Prices are set in the stock market by supply and demand. If more people want to buy, the price goes up. If more want to sell, the price drops. There is no set price for stocks. The seller and buyer determine the price.

6.1 § 34 — Ownership rights

As a shareholder, you have the right to receive dividends and sell your shares freely on the market (if it's a publicly traded company).

6.1 § 35 — Capital gains and dividends

Capital gains is the profit you make from selling stock. Capital gains relies on the share price increasing, which is driven by market sentiment, earnings, and general economic conditions. Dividends are when companies pay a portion of their profits to shareholders regularly (e.g., quarterly), but this is not guaranteed, and is decided by the seller. Dividends are usually in cash or additional shares.

Chapter 2, Public and Private companies

6.2 § 36 — Public companies

Public company shares can be bought and sold by anyone on a stock exchange or in over-the-counter markets.

6.2 § 37 — Private companies

Private companies shares are not available to the public. Ownership is limited to private investors or employees. The company's stock is offered, owned, traded or exchanged privately, also known as over-the-counter markets.

Section 7, Taxes and taxation

Chapter 1, Government treasury

7.1 § 38 — Treasury gains

All taxes go directly to the government treasury. The treasury is also responsible for collecting taxes.

Chapter 2, Individual tax

Subchapter 1, Individual income tax

7.2 § 39 — Rate structure

Tax rates increase as the taxable amount (income) increases. Higher earners pay a larger percentage of their income in tax. The tax rate brackets are 10 / 15 / 20 / 25 / 30 / 35.

If taxable income is:	The tax is:
Not over \$10,000.....	10% of taxable income.
Over \$10,000 but not over \$20,000...	15% of taxable income.
Over \$20,000 but not over \$30,000...	20% of taxable income.
Over \$30,000 but not over \$50,000...	25% of taxable income.
Over \$50,000 but not over \$100,000.	30% of taxable income.
Over \$100,000.....	35% of taxable income.

7.2 § 40 — Standard deductions

Standard deductions are to provide tax relief and ensure that a basic level of income is not taxed. When you file a government tax form, you have two options, claim the standard deduction, or itemize your deductions. And you can only choose one. The standard deduction amount varies depending on your taxable income.

Standard deduction is:	If taxable income is:
\$2,000.....	Not over \$10,000.
\$2,500.....	Over \$10,001 but not over \$20,000.
\$3,000.....	Over \$20,001 but not over \$30,000.
\$3,500.....	Over \$30,001 but not over \$50,000.
\$4,000.....	Over \$50,001 but not over \$100,000.
\$4,500.....	Over \$100,001.

When you itemize your deductions, you choose to list individual deductible expenses you incurred.

7.2 § 41 — Itemized deductions

Itemized deductions are specific expenses that taxpayers can claim on their income tax to reduce their taxable income, instead of taking the standard deduction. Itemizing allows taxpayers to deduct certain qualified expenses, which may result in a lower overall tax liability if the total itemized amount exceeds the standard deduction.

7.2 § 42 — Medical deductions

Medical deductions are itemized deductions that taxpayers can claim on their income tax to reduce their taxable income. Medical deductions can be claimed on out-of-pocket expenses for treatments, prescriptions, or surgeries. Gender affirming care does not meet these requirements due to being related to psychology.

Medical deduction is:	If out-of-pocket medical expenses are:
.....
\$2,000.....	\$4,000.
\$2,500.....	\$5,000.
\$3,000.....	\$6,000.
\$3,500.....	\$7,000.
\$4,000.....	\$8,000.
\$4,500.....	\$9,000.
\$5,000.....	Over \$10,000.

Chapter 3, Corporate tax

Subchapter 1, National corporate tax

7.3 § 43 — National corporate tax

The national corporate tax rate is a flat 20% on taxable income.

7.3 § 44 — Corporate taxable income

The net profit from goods sold are taxed meaning that 20% of the net profit you make from selling products is taxed.

Subchapter 2, Other

7.3 § 45 — Capital gains tax

Capital gains and dividends are taxable. 10% of capital gains are taxed. 10% of dividends are taxed.

Chapter 4, Enforcement

Subchapter 1, Government treasury

7.4 § 46 — Collecting

Every business has to monthly send in a government tax form. The government tax form is given by the government treasury to the business, who has to send it in. The government tax form shall state what the businesses cost of goods sold are, if you will take the standard deduction or itemize your deductions, the businesses structure, business name, and your full name. The government treasury then tells the business how much it owes in taxes, and the business has to give the stated amount in a month maximum.

Subchapter 2, Penalties

7.4 § 47 — Fines

If the business does not fill in and send the government tax form within the stated time, it will be fined \$50 per day until sent in. If it continues to fail to fill in and send the government tax form for one month past the stated time, the government will intervene.

Section 8, Postal service

Chapter 1, How the postal office functions

8.1 § 48 — Management

Mail in the *Sovereign State of Åland* will be managed by the *Sovereign State of Åland Postal Service* (SSÅPS). The SSÅPS is led by the National Government.

8.1 § 49 — Sending mail

To send mail in the *State of Åland*, you put a letter into a mailbox. The letter needs to have a postal address on it to who is sending it and where you are sending it.

8.1 § 50 — Collecting mail

Employees working for the SSÅPS are tasked with collecting mail every day to week. This means that mail will take around 1 day at most to arrive and 1 week to arrive and get a reply. The mail is collected and sent to the person who has the postal address.

8.1 § 51 — Postal addresses

A postal address would look like 1-1-1. The first one stands for the region you are in. The second one is the city, town, village or hamlet you are in. And the last one is your personal number. This is every regions included:

- Börkö - 1

This is every city included:

- Börkö - 1

Personal numbers are given in numerical order. The first person to have a postal address will have 1. If you don't live in any settlement and you live alone away from settlements a 0 would be put making it 1-0-1.

Section 9, Crime

Chapter 1, Crimes and crime categories

Subchapter 1, Crimes against persons

9.1 § 52 — Murder

Murder is the unlawful killing of a human being with malice aforethought. Murder leads to 15 years imprisonment and a \$50,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 53 — Manslaughter

Manslaughter is the unlawful killing of a human being without malice. Manslaughter leads to 5 years imprisonment and a \$20,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 54 — Attempt to commit murder

Attempting to commit murder is where a person attempts to murder another person with malice aforethought. Attempted murder leads to 8 years imprisonment and a \$25,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 55 — Conspiracy to murder

If two or more persons conspire to violate section 9.1 § 49 and one or more of such persons do any overt act to effect the object of the conspiracy, each shall be sentenced to 8 years imprisonment and a \$30,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 56 — Assault

Assault is to make a physical attack on any person. Assault leads to a \$25,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 57 — Sexual assault

Sexual assault is to engage in a sexual act by threatening or placing that other person in fear, or engages in a sexual act with another person if that other person is incapable of appraising the nature of the conduct; or physically incapable of declining participation in, or communicating unwillingness to engage in, that sexual act; or engages in a sexual act with another person without that other person's consent, to include doing so through coercion. Sexual assault leads to 20 years imprisonment and \$50,000 fine if the sexual assault is against an adult, and \$100,000 fine if the sexual assault is against a child. The fines have to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 58 — Kidnapping

Whoever unlawfully seizes, confines, inveigles, decoys, kidnaps, abducts, or carries away and holds for any reason will be charged with kidnapping. This leads to 10 years imprisonment and a \$25,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

Subchapter 2, Crimes against property

9.1 § 59 — Arson

Arson is to deliberately set fire to someone else's property or your own property, when it can lead to other crimes. This can lead to a \$5,000 fine and having to pay the property owner for the damages. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 60 — Burglary

Burglary is the illegal entry of a building with intent to commit a crime. Burglary leads to a \$15,000 fine that has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 61 — Robbery

Robbery is the crime of taking property unlawfully from a person or in their presence by force or threat of force. Robbery leads to 1 year imprisonment, a fine of \$15,000, and having to give back or pay back the person that was robbed. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 62 — Theft

Theft is the crime of taking property unlawfully without the presence of the owner of said property. Theft leads to a fine of \$15,000 and having to give back or pay back the person that the property was stolen from. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 63 — Embezzlement

Embezzlement is the theft or misappropriation of funds placed in one's trust or belonging to one's employer. Embezzlement leads to a fine of \$15,000 and having to give back or pay back the person that the property was stolen from. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 64 — Fraud

Fraud is the wrongful or criminal deception intended to result in financial or personal gain. Fraud leads to a fine of \$15,000 and having to give back or pay back the person that the property was stolen from. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 65 — False statements

False statements are when a business submits a false statement that is incorrect. False statements lead to a fine of \$15,000 and having to give back or pay back the person that the property was stolen from. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

Subchapter 3, White collar and financial crimes

9.1 § 66 — Bank fraud

Bank fraud is a type of financial crime where individuals or groups illegally obtain money, assets, or other property from a financial institution or its customers, often using deceptive or fraudulent means. Bank fraud leads to a fine of \$15,000 and having to give back or pay back the person that the property was stolen from. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 67 — Money laundering

Money laundering is the concealment of the origins of illegally obtained money. Money laundering leads to a fine of \$5,000 and having to give back or pay back the person that the property was stolen from. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 68 — Tax evasion

Tax evasion is the illegal non-payment or underpayment of tax such as making a false statement on a government tax form. Tax evasion leads to a fine of \$50,000 and having to give over the amount of taxes that weren't given. The fine and taxes have to be paid to the government treasury.

Subchapter 4, Crimes against the government

9.1 § 69 — Treason

Treason is the crime of betraying one's country, especially by attempting to kill or overthrow the government. Treason leads to 15 years imprisonment and a \$7,500 fine. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 70 — Bribery

Bribery is the offering, giving, soliciting, or receiving of any item of value as a means of influencing the actions of an individual holding a public or legal duty. Bribery leads to 1 year imprisonment and \$500,000 fine. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

Subchapter 5, Other crimes

9.1 § 71 — Animal abuse

Animal abuse are acts or omissions that cause unnecessary pain, suffering, or death to animals. Animal abuse leads to 5 years imprisonment or a \$5,000 fine. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

9.1 § 72 — Copyright infringement

If you commit copyright infringement which is defined in Section 11, Chapter 2, Subchapter 2, you can be fined \$5,000. The fine has to be paid to the government treasury.

Chapter 2, Criminal procedure

Subchapter 1, Criminal law

9.1 § 73 — Wrongful acts

Wrongful acts involve the prosecution by the state of criminal law which are considered to be so serious that they are a breach of the sovereign's peace (and cannot be deterred or remedied by mere lawsuits between private parties). All crimes under Section 9, Chapter 1, Subchapter 1 and Subchapter 3 and Subchapter 4 are considered wrongful acts.

Subchapter 2, Fines

9.1 § 74 — Government

The government treasury collects the fines. If the person is unable to pay the fine they will have to pay it over time under a deal with the government treasury.

Section 10, Judiciary

Chapter 1, Courts

Subchapter 1, Supreme court

10.1 § 75 — General

The judicial branch of government is led by the supreme court. The president gets to choose who is the chief of justice who leads the supreme court. The supreme court's job is to review laws, policies, bills, executive orders and regulations and see if they break the constitution. If they do, the supreme court can veto it. It is the chief of justice's job to review these.

10.1 § 76 — Civil issues

The supreme court also is the highest court in the country and if needed, should settle any smaller court cases, such as civil issues which are legal battles between civilians. The supreme court has the final say basically in any legal conflict.

Subchapter 1, Inferior courts

10.1 § 77 — General

Inferior courts are where plaintiffs file a complaint for a civil case. Inferior courts are also where criminal cases take place.

Chapter 2, Legal actors

10.2 § 78 — Judge

Judges preside over court proceedings, rule on matters of law, instruct the jury, and in bench trials (non-jury trials), also serve as the fact-finder. Bench trials are the base trial that unless a jury trial is requested by both the plaintiff and a defendant. Judges are appointed by the chief of justice.

10.2 § 79 — Juries

The Jury is a body of people sworn to give a verdict in a legal case on the basis of evidence submitted to them in court. Both plaintiffs and defendants are allowed to request a jury trial. If both agree they get a jury trial where the jury gives the verdict instead of the judge. The jury is appointed by the chief of justice.

10.2 § 80 — Attorneys

An attorney is a lawyer hired or appointed to the defendant and plaintiff whose job is to defend the defendant, or represents the plaintiff. In criminal cases, defense attorneys

are either privately hired or appointed if wanted. Their primary role is to advocate for their client's rights and interests (plaintiff) and to defend their client (defendant).

10.2 § 81 — Prosecutor

A prosecutor is a person, especially a public official, who institutes legal proceedings against someone for the government for wrongful acts under 9.1 § 67. The prosecutor is appointed by the president.

10.2 § 82 — Plaintiff

In civil cases, the plaintiff initiates the lawsuit.

10.2 § 83 — Defendant

A defendant is an individual, company, or institution sued or accused in a court of law.

Chapter 3, Procedure

Subchapter 1, Civil cases

10.3 § 84 — General

A federal civil case involves a legal dispute between two or more parties. A civil action begins when a party to a dispute files a complaint, and pays a filing fee required by statute. A plaintiff who is unable to pay the fee may file a request to proceed in forma pauperis. If the request is granted, the fee is waived.

10.3 § 85 — The process

To begin a civil lawsuit in federal court, the plaintiff files a complaint with the court and “serves” a copy of the complaint on the defendant. The complaint describes the plaintiff’s damages or injury, explains how the defendant caused the harm, shows that the court has jurisdiction. A plaintiff may seek money to compensate for the damages, or may ask the court to order the defendant to stop the conduct that is causing the harm.

10.3 § 86 — Case preparation

There may be “discovery,” where the litigants must provide information to each other about the case, such as the identity of witnesses and copies of any documents related to the case. The purpose of discovery is to prepare for trial by requiring the litigants to assemble their evidence and prepare to call witnesses. Each side also may file requests, or “motions,” with the court seeking rulings on the discovery of evidence, or on the procedures to be followed at trial.

10.3 § 87 — Settling differences

To avoid the expense and delay of having a trial, judges encourage the litigants to try to reach an agreement resolving their dispute. The courts encourage the use of mediation, arbitration, and other forms of alternative dispute resolution, designed to produce a resolution of a dispute without the need for trial or other court proceedings. As a result, litigants often agree to a “settlement.” Absent a settlement, the court will schedule a trial. If both parties want a jury, both have to request and agree. If both the parties waive their right to a jury, then a judge without a jury will hear the case.

10.3 § 88 — Trial process

By applying rules of evidence, the judge determines which information may be presented in the courtroom. So that witnesses speak from their own knowledge and do not change their story based on what they hear another witness say, they are kept out of the courtroom until they testify. The trial proceedings are recorded by the central registry. The opposing attorney may object if a question invites the witness to say something that is not based on the witness’s personal knowledge, is unfairly prejudicial, or is irrelevant to the case. Generally, the judge either overrules or sustains – allows – the objection. If the objection is sustained, the witness does not answer the question, and the attorney must move on to their next question. The court reporter records the objections so that a court of appeals can review the arguments later if necessary.

10.3 § 89 — Closing

After evidence is heard, each side gives a closing argument. In a jury trial, the judge will explain the law that is relevant to the case and the decisions the jury needs to make. The jury generally is asked to determine whether the defendant is responsible for harming the plaintiff in some way, and then to determine the amount of damages that the defendant will be required to pay. If the case is tried before a judge without a jury, known as a “bench” trial, the judge will decide these issues or order some kind of relief to the prevailing party. In a civil case, the plaintiff must convince the jury by a “preponderance of the evidence” (i.e., that it is more likely than not) that the defendant is responsible for the harm the plaintiff has suffered.

Subchapter 2, Criminal cases

10.3 § 90 — General

Only the government initiates a criminal case, usually through the U.S. attorney’s office, in coordination with a law enforcement agency. Allegations of criminal behavior should be brought to the police, government, and government agencies.

10.3 § 91 — The judicial process

Criminal cases differ from civil cases. At the beginning of a federal criminal case, the principal actors are the prosecutor and the jury. The prosecutor represents the government in court proceedings, including all criminal prosecutions. The jury reviews evidence presented by the prosecutor and decides whether it is sufficient to require a defendant to stand trial.

10.3 § 92 — Burden of proof

In a criminal trial, the burden of proof is on the government. Defendants do not have to prove their innocence. Instead, the government must provide evidence to convince the jury of the defendant's guilt. The standard of proof in a criminal trial gives the prosecutor a much greater burden than the plaintiff in a civil trial. The defendant must be found guilty "beyond a reasonable doubt," which means the evidence must be so strong that there is no reasonable doubt that the defendant committed the crime.

10.3 § 93 — Pretrial

At an initial appearance, a judge who has reviewed arrest and post-arrest investigation reports, advises the defendant of the charges filed, considers whether the defendant should be held in jail until trial, and determines whether there is probable cause to believe that an offense has been committed and that the defendant has committed it. Defendants who are unable to afford counsel are advised of their right to a court-appointed attorney. The defendant enters a plea to the charges brought by the prosecutor at a court hearing known as arraignment. If a defendant pleads guilty in return for the government agreeing to drop certain charges or to recommend a lenient sentence, the agreement often is called a "plea bargain." If the defendant pleads guilty, the judge may impose a sentence, but more commonly will schedule a later hearing to determine the sentence. In most felony cases the judge waits for the results of a presentence report from the court's probation office before imposing sentence. If the defendant pleads not guilty, the judge will schedule a trial.

10.3 § 94 — Trial

Criminal cases include limited pretrial discovery proceedings, similar to those in civil cases, but with restrictions to protect the identity of government informants and to prevent intimidation of witnesses. The attorneys also may file motions, which are requests for rulings by the court before the trial, such as to suppress evidence that could violate a defendant's constitutional rights. If a defendant is found not guilty, the defendant is released and the government may not appeal. The person may not be charged again for the same offense in a different court.

10.3 § 95 — Sentencing

A sentence may include time in prison, a fine to be paid to the government, and restitution to be paid to crime victims. The court's probation officers enforce conditions imposed by the court part of a criminal sentence. Supervision of offenders may involve services such as substance abuse testing and treatment programs, job counseling, and alternative detention options, such as home confinement or electronic monitoring.

Section 11, Copyright law

Chapter 1, General

Subchapter 1, Protection

11.1 § 96 — What is protected

Original works of authorship are protected. This includes literary, musical, dramatic, pantomimes and choreographic works, pictorial works, graphic works, sculptural works, audio-visual works, sound recordings, compilations, and architectural works.

11.1 § 97 — Six basic rights

There are six basic rights protected by copyright. The owner of a copyright has the exclusive right to do and authorize others to do the following: To reproduce the work in copies or phonorecords; To prepare derivative works based upon the work; To distribute copies or phonorecords of the work to the public by sale or other transfer of ownership, or by rental, lease, or lending; To publicly perform the work, in the case of literary, musical, dramatic, and choreographic works, pantomimes, and motion pictures and other audiovisual works; To publicly display the work, in the case of literary, musical, dramatic, and choreographic works, pantomimes, and pictorial, graphic, or sculptural works, including the individual images of a motion picture or other audiovisual work; and to digitally transmit sound recordings by means of digital audio transmission.

11.1 § 98 — Works for hire

If a work is made "for hire" within the meaning of the Copyright Act, then the *employer* or *commissioning party* is deemed to be the author and will own the copyright as though it were the true author. These circumstances under which a work may be found to be a work for hire are: Work prepared by an *employee* within the scope of their employment. Specially ordered or commissioned works. Works created by independent contractors (rather than employees) can be deemed works for hire only if two conditions are satisfied. First, the work must fit into one of these categories: a contribution to a collective work, part of a motion picture or other audiovisual work, a translation, a supplementary work, a compilation, an instructional text, a test, answer material for a

test, or an atlas. Second, the parties must expressly agree in a written, signed instrument that the work will be considered a work made for hire.

11.1 § 99 — Joint authorship

If a work is not a work for hire, then the author will be the initial copyright owner. The author generally is the person who conceives of the copyrightable expression and "fixes" it in a "tangible medium of expression." Special rules apply when multiple authors are involved: If it is a joint authorship, the authors of a joint work are co-owners of a single copyright in the work. A joint work is "a work prepared by two or more authors with the intention that their contributions be merged into inseparable or independent parts of a unitary whole.

11.1 § 100 — Collective works

If it is a collective work, a collective work is a collection of independent, separately copyrightable works of authorship, such as a newspaper, magazine, or encyclopedia. In the absence of an express assignment of copyright, the author of each individual work in the collection retains copyright in that work. The compiler, or author of the collection, owns copyright in the expression he or she contributed, which is primarily the selection and arrangement of the separate contributions, but may include such things as a preface, advertisements, etc., that the collective author created.

11.1 § 101 — Transfers and licenses

Three types of transfers exist for copyrighted works. There is assignment, exclusive license, and non-exclusive license. The first two, assignment and exclusive licenses, require the transfer to be in writing. Nonexclusive licenses need not be in writing and they may be implied by the circumstances. Transfers of copyright always involve one or more of the exclusive rights of copyright. For instance, a license may provide a right to perform a work, but not to reproduce it or to prepare a derivative work (adaptation right). An author, after transferring a copyright, can terminate the transfer under certain circumstances. This right to terminate the transfer is absolute and cannot be waived.

Subchapter 2, Registration

11.1 § 102 — General

Copyright is automatically granted to the author of an original work (that otherwise meets the basic copyright requirements, discussed above). Registration is not necessary. However, registration amplifies a copyright holder's rights in a number of ways. Registration, or refusal of registration, is required before a lawsuit can be filed, and registration creates the possibility for enhanced statutory damages.

Subchapter 3, Duration of copyright

11.1 § 103 — Duration

Copyright protection lasts for 70 years after the death of the author. If the work was a work for hire, then copyright persists for 120 years after creation.

Chapter 2, Copyright limitations, exceptions, and defenses

Subchapter 1, Fair use

11.2 § 104 — General

Fair use is the use of limited amounts of copyrighted material in such a way as to not be an infringement. There are no bright-line rules regarding fair use and each determination is made on an individualized case-by-case basis.

11.2 § 105 — Purpose and character of the use

Purpose and character of the use, including whether the use is of a commercial nature or is for nonprofit educational purposes: Nonprofit educational and noncommercial uses are more likely to be fair use. This does not mean that all nonprofit education and noncommercial uses are fair use or that all commercial uses are not fair. Instead, courts will balance the purpose and character of the use against the other factors below. Additionally, transformative uses are more likely to be considered fair. Transformative uses are those that add something new, with a further purpose or different character, and do not substitute for the original use of the work.

11.2 § 106 — Nature of the copyrighted work

Using a more creative or imaginative work (such as a novel, movie, or song) is *less* likely to support fair use than using a factual work (such as a technical article or news item). In addition, use of an unpublished work is less likely to be considered fair.

11.2 § 107 — Amount and substantiality of the portion used

Amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole: Courts look at both the quantity and quality of the copyrighted material that was used. Using a large portion of the copyrighted work is less likely to be fair use. However, use of an entire work can be fair use, and in other contexts, using even a small amount of a copyrighted work can be determined not to be fair use because the selection was an important part—or the heart—of the work. Basically it is determined by the courts.

11.2 § 108 — Effect of the use upon the potential market

Effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work: Here, courts review whether, and to what extent, the unlicensed use harms the existing or future market for the copyright owner's original work. In assessing this factor, courts consider whether the use is hurting the current market for the original work (for example, by displacing sales of the original) and/or whether the use could cause substantial harm if it were to become widespread.

11.2 § 109 — Additional information

In addition to these four factors, the statute also allows courts to consider any other factors that may be relevant to the fair use analysis. Courts evaluate fair use claims on a case-by-case basis, and the outcome of any given case depends on the specific facts of that case. There is no formula to ensure that a predetermined percentage or amount of a work—or specific number of words, lines, pages, copies—may be used without permission. The justification of the fair use doctrine turns primarily on whether, and to what extent, the challenged use is transformative. The use must be productive and must employ the quoted matter in a different manner or for a different purpose from the original. A quotation of copyrighted material that merely repackages or republishes the original is unlikely to pass the test. If, on the other hand, the secondary use adds value to the original—if the quoted matter is used as raw material, transformed in the creation of new information, new aesthetics, new insights and understandings—this is the very type of activity that the fair use doctrine intends to protect for the enrichment of society.

Subchapter 2, Infringement

11.2 § 110 — General

Copyright infringement occurs when someone violates one of the exclusive rights listed in Chapter 1, Subchapter 1. Commonly, this involves someone creating or distributing a copy of a protected work that is substantially similar to the original version. Infringement requires copying. If two people happen to write exactly the same story, without knowledge of the other, there is no infringement.

11.2 § 111 — Copyright infringement litigation

A copyright owner may bring a copyright infringement lawsuit in court. Courts have exclusive subject-matter jurisdiction over copyright infringement cases.

11.2 § 112 — Ownership of valid copyright

To bring a copyright infringement lawsuit, a copyright holder must establish ownership of a valid copyright and the copying of constituent elements of the work that are original. The copyright owner must also establish both (a) actual copying and (b) improper

appropriation of the work. The copyright owner, as plaintiff, bears the burden of establishing these three elements of the case for infringement.

A plaintiff establishes ownership by authorship (by the plaintiff itself or by someone who assigned rights to the plaintiff) of (1) an *original* work of authorship that is (2) fixed in a tangible medium (e.g. a book, musical recording, etc.).

Registration is not required to establish copyright protection, but registration is necessary before bringing a lawsuit. Registration is also useful because it creates a presumption of a *valid* copyright, it allows the plaintiff to collect enhanced statutory damages, and to be eligible for an award of attorney fees.

A plaintiff establishes actual copying with direct or indirect evidence. Direct evidence is satisfied either by a defendant's admission to copying or the testimony of witnesses who observed the defendant in the act. More commonly, a plaintiff relies on circumstantial or indirect evidence. A court will infer copying by a showing of a striking similarity between the copyrighted work and the alleged copy, along with a showing of both access and use of that access.

A plaintiff may establish access by proof of distribution over a large geographical area, or by eyewitness testimony that the defendant owned a copy of the protected work.

Access alone is not sufficient to establish infringement. The plaintiff must show a similarity between the two works, and the degree of similarity will affect the probability that illicit copying in fact occurred in the court's eyes.

Even then, the plaintiff must show that the copying amounted to improper appropriation. Indeed, the United States Supreme Court has held that not all copying constitutes infringement and a showing of misappropriation is necessary.

11.2 § 113 — Misappropriation

A copyrighted work may contain elements that are not copyrightable, such as facts, ideas, themes, or content in the public domain. A plaintiff alleging misappropriation must first demonstrate that what the defendant appropriated from the copyrighted work was protectable. Second, a plaintiff must show that the intended audience will recognize substantial similarities between the two works. The intended audience may be the general public, or a specialized field. The degree of similarity necessary for a court to find misappropriation is not easily defined.

11.2 § 114 — Civil remedies

A successful copyright infringement plaintiff may seek both injunctive relief and monetary damages. Courts to grant both preliminary and permanent injunctions against copyright infringement. There are also provisions for impounding allegedly infringing copies and other materials used to infringe, and for their destruction. The copyright owner has a choice of recovering: (1) their actual damages and any additional profits of the defendant; or (2) statutory damages.

Chapter 3, Public domain

11.3 § 115 — General

Works in the public domain are free for anyone to copy and use. Strictly speaking, the term "public domain" means that the work is not covered by any intellectual property rights at all (copyright, trademark, patent, or otherwise). A work may enter the public domain in a number of different ways. For example, (a) the copyright protecting the work may have expired, or (b) the owner may have explicitly donated the work to the public, or (c) the work is not the type of work that copyright can protect.

Section 12, Patent law

Chapter 1, General

12.1 § 116 — What a patent is

A patent is a right granted to the inventor of a (1) process, machine, article of manufacture, or composition of matter, (2) that is new, useful, and non-obvious. A patent is the right to exclude others, for a limited time (20 years) from profiting from a patented technology without the consent of the patent holder. Specifically, it is the right to exclude others from: making, using, selling, offering for sale, importing, and inducing others to infringe. Patents are filed at the Ministry of Labor or executive branch in general

12.1 § 117 — Patentable subject matter

There are four types of anything that can be patented (i.e. of statutory categories of inventions): a process, a machine (usually implies moving parts), (an article of) manufacture (usually implies no moving parts, e.g. textile fabric or a chair), a composition of matter (chemicals, materials), as well as improvements thereof. Not every object falls into a statutory category: for example, electromagnetic waves, and rules for playing games are not patentable (but a new and non-obvious type of dice for playing games *may* be patentable as a manufacture).

12.1 § 118 — Novelty

The novelty requirement prohibits patenting a technology that is already available to the public. A person shall be entitled to a patent unless— the claimed invention was patented, described in a printed publication, or in public use, on sale, or otherwise available to the public before the effective filing date of the claimed invention.

12.1 § 119 — Obviousness

To be patentable, a technology must not only be new but also non-obvious. A patent for a claimed invention may not be obtained, notwithstanding that the claimed invention is not identically disclosed as set forth in section 102, if the differences between the claimed invention and the prior art are such that the claimed invention as a whole would have been obvious before the effective filing date of the claimed invention to a person having ordinary skill in the art to which the claimed invention pertains.

Chapter 2, Patent process

Subchapter 1, Application procedure

12.2 § 120 — Filing

Patent applications can be filed to the Department of Labor or executive office.

Subchapter 2, Infringement and enforcement

12.2 § 121 — General

Following the grant of a patent, possible post-grant proceedings include reissue, ex parte reexamination, inter partes reexamination, inter partes review, post-grant review, supplemental examination, and post-grant validity review of business method patents.

Section 13, Conservation

Chapter 1, General

13.1 § 122 — National monuments

Mining, oil and gas drilling, logging, commercial development, and other extractive uses are typically restricted or banned (decided by president) in national monuments.

Restrictions may be placed on off-road vehicle use, new road construction, camping or recreation,

13.1 § 123 — Presidential powers

The president is allowed through executive order to designate land as national monuments. The executive order states the limitations inside of the national monument as stated in 13.1 § 113.

Section 14, Law enforcement

Chapter 1, General

Subchapter 1, Police functions

14.1 § 124 — General

The police are independent of the executive branch of government, and semi-independent from parliament and judiciary. This means that it functions mostly on its own, but laws by parliament and to some extent executive orders directly influence it.

14.1 § 125 — Order maintenance

This is the broad mandate to keep the peace or otherwise prevent behaviors which might disturb others.

14.1 § 126 — Law enforcement

These powers are typically used only in cases where the law has been violated and a suspect must be identified and apprehended. Most obvious instances include robbery, murder, or burglary.

Section 15, Foreign relations

Chapter 1, General

Subchapter 1, Presidential powers

15.1 § 127 — Executive orders

The president is able to sign executive orders that determine what the Sovereign State of Åland's foreign relations are. This ranges from tariffs, trade deals, defense treaties, other treaties, wars, and international organizations.

15.1 § 128 — Parliamentary oversight

The parliament is able to veto any of the president's foreign relations decisions through a majority vote.

Section 16, Property law

Chapter 1, Acquisition of property

16.1 § 129 — Acquiring property

To acquire property, you file a request to the executive branch. The executive branch determines how much the property you want is worth, and how much to pay. Property can also be acquired by purchasing from other people.

16.1 § 130 — First Possession

The first possessor of a property acquires the property. The first possessor is the first person who intends to assert control over the object and in fact exercises significant control over the object.

16.1 § 131 — Regulatory takings

Regulatory takings refer to a situation where government regulation limits the use of private property to such a degree that it effectively deprives the owner of economically reasonable use or value, even though the property hasn't been formally expropriated or physically seized.

Chapter 2, Types of estates

16.1 § 132 — Estates and future interests

Full ownership of land is known as fee simple, fee simple absolute, or fee. Fee simple refers to a present interest in the land, which continues indefinitely into the future. One other type of ownership is the defeasible fee, which is like fee simple, except that it can end upon some event occurring. The defeasible fee is sometimes seen with property donated to charity for a specific use, where the grantor specifies that the ownership may end if the property is no longer used in a certain way.

Another type of present interest is the life estate, by which the grantor gives the life tenant full rights during the life tenant's life. But after his death, the estate will either go back to the grantor (known as a reversion) or to another person (known as a remainder). Remainders can be vested or conditional, based on conditions of the remainder. Remainders are vested when the condition of the remainder is fulfilled, even if the possession has not yet been transferred. There is also the executory interest, which is a future interest that cuts off a preceding interest when a condition is met.

16.1 § 133 — Co-ownership

Under the common law, real estate can be jointly owned at a given time. Co-tenants each have a theoretical right to possess the whole property. Co-tenants must also share rents received from third-parties, as well as upkeep expenses and taxes. However, if they cannot work out how to divide the use of the property, one co-tenant can prevent another from taking possession, but must be liable to the ousted tenant for the rent.