**HANDOUT 4**

**UNIT 4: THE MAKING OF LAWS**

**4.1) THE MAKING OF LAWS**

**4.1.1) STEPS IN LAW MAKING**

**What are the steps in law making?**

The first stage of the legislative process is **the introduction of a bill**. **A bill either proposes a change in the existing law or makes new proposals; it is the first draft of what will ultimately become a statute.**

From this stage onwards, the legislative monopoly of Parliaments is markedly encroached upon. **The right to introduce bills is usually shared between the government and parliament.**

**Who may initiate legislation?**

It is implicit in the concept of democracy that **the initiative in law making should rest with the elected officials**. At the same time it is understood in fact and in law that law making right is **always shared with the executive**. The function of government here is to supply a given policy. The government being better acquainted than anyone else with the needs of the society and because of the more and more complex nature of the problems that have to be solved, **it is technically better equipped with individual members of parliament to draft laws, which makes able from the legal standpoint.** In most countries, the government has the right to introduce draft laws whether they are members of Parliament or not.

Laws are implemented in the day to day activities of the society. Those who directly involved in the administrative activities have practical knowledge on the problems of existing laws or the activities that need rules to and can propose a draft [Ann, Robert and Nalin; 2001:22].

In countries where there is strict separation of power as in the United States, members of the legislative assembles alone have the right to introduce bills. The president may also initiate drafting of laws in USA.

**In the Western parliamentary democracies the separation of powers is not strict, and the governments have the right to initiate legislation directly**. **While the right to initiate laws is generally exercised only by Parliaments and by governments, it can also be granted to other bodies**. In the Peoples’ Democracies specific parliamentary bodies are so empowered such as the Presidium in Albania, Hungary and the U.S.S.R, the Council of State in Poland and Rumania, and the Presidential Bureau in Czechoslovakia where the right to initiate bills is also accorded to the President of the Republic and the Slovak National Council. In Italy, the national council on the economy and on labour may, if the appropriate majority agrees, submits drafts to Parliament on matters within its competence. **Unusually in the United Kingdom, Finland and Sweden the church has the right to initiate legislation on ecclesiastical matters**.

Apart from the procedure by petition for a private bill in the British Parliament, **the direct initiation of legislation by the people is rare. The peoples’ right to initiate laws arises from the fact that sovereignty resides on them.**

**What is the next step after a bill is initiated?**

When a draft is introduced, **members of Parliament are informed of the variety of ways by posting of notices, by announce in the chamber, by an entry in the minutes of the proceedings report of debates, and in some countries by a purely formal first readings**. If it complies with the rules of order, **the bill then printed and distributed**. It has been noted for in the United Arab Republic bills must first be submitted to the committee whose duty is to prepare proposals and decide goes forward. At this stage before publication, bills will be examined by talented individual members in France to ensure that they have no financial implications. **In Great Britain, it may be withdrawn after it has been presented and printed**. Officials of the government will check to ensure that no contradiction is there to the standing orders of the House. In Yugoslavia before any debate takes place, every bill is considered by the Assembly’s legislative and judicial committee, to check that it conforms to the situation and the existing law and that it is correct.

**Once published or at least distributed to members of the legislature and to the government, a bill follows a procedure the details of which may take a vast variety of forms according to the different countries**. Nevertheless, **in almost all countries there are two essential phases** to be passed. First, **it will be entrusted to committees. The committee may be an ad hoc or standing committee**. Secondly, t**here is the phase of debate and decision, which is generally a matter for the House**. That means the members of the House will debate on the draft and decide.

In some countries, this division of labour is subject to variations of greater or lesser importance, ranging from the exclusive jurisdiction of the House itself to the less orthodox practice of handing over that jurisdiction to committees. The tendency of committees to increase their power has already been noticed, and in some countries such as Italy, this indication has been approved by law.

Article 72 of the Italian Constitution specifies that the two Chambers may entrust to committees not merely the examination of bills, but also their final enactment. In practice, the President of the Chamber designates the bills, which follow the ordinary courses. It is true that even up to the final enactment of the statute the Chamber has the power to recall a bill from a committee, and in practice it must be referred to the Chamber if the government, or one tenth of the members, or one fifth of the members of the committee so request. This is known as automatic return. However, this procedure cannot apply to certain kinds of bills such as bills on constitutional and electoral matters, bills delegating legislative power, bills to ratify treaties, or bills relating to taxation of public expenditure.

In the same spirit the constitution of Senegal authority committees to make law when this power is expressly delegated to them by the Assembly. By contrast, in several countries Parliament may decide to debate a bill in the House without referring it to a committee. This procedure is mostly used to consider bills that are urgently needed. It is used in Albania, Czechoslovakia, and the former U.S.S.R. In Iran and the Lebanon, a bill must be given status of extreme urgency by the Assembly in order to be debated right away. An analogous procedure is found in the Chamber of Deputies in Japan. In the Argentina a decision to debate the bill must be taken by a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast, even so this can only be done if the bill has no financial implications. It has to be remembered that in the Argentine the House cannot resolve itself into committee as is done in Assemblies on the British model. This is what is done in the Congress of the United States where in order to gain time and to evade the formalities of procedure the two Houses deliberate in committee of the whole House.

The importance of the part played by committees can be determined first by the stage at which bills are referred to them and secondly by the extent of the powers conferred on them to consider bills.

The powers of committees vary considerably according to Parliaments, which appoint them. In Great Britain and countries, which have influenced by British institutions committees have relatively little power. The exception is the Committee of the whole House, a body that is only distinguishable from the House itself that is considered as the essential working unit. The task of committees is to consider matters of detail, especially when a bill is complex. Although they can amend a bill, if such a poerw is given to them. However, if the draft has approved by the House on second reading, no amendment contradict with the main purpose of the bill is admissible. Thus, a committee must confine its consideration within these purposes unless it is specially instructed by the House to do otherwise. Would committees perform proper functions? In fact they give invaluable help to Parliament since it relieve the House of all questions of detail, and they fully devote precisely the task entrusted to them, which is the minute of both form and substance of every clause in the bill.

**The power of the committees working in United States Congress is opposite to what we have discussed above. In the first place, they can amend or transform as they wish any bill, including those, which derive from the President**. More important, the fact that they are entirely independent of the House and Senate, which have no way of controlling their activity, means that the future of a bill depends in large measure on their will. In practice, the chairperson of the committee plays the key part. If s/he is personally hostile to the bill and the majority in the committee is favourable, s/he can apply a whole series of delaying tactics to prevent the bill from being considered. What ever its origin the bill has no chance of success unless s/he is personally in favour of it. However, one fact limits that is s/he has to take accounts of the policies and pressure of the two political parties.

As ministers are also members of Parliament, they attend, as required and where necessary, meetings of the standing committees and the special committees. The government is in practice represented at every stage of legislative process without any need for a written rule.

The data sought by committees do not necessarily commend the minister personally. They are often furnished by civil servants on the authorization of the head of the department, which they belong. Therefore, it is possible for the government to obtain information.

**Another means of obtaining information is the hearing of private individuals, whether they are interested parties or the subject matter of the committee’s inquiry or person with knowledge**. As a rule, the object of these hearings is to help the committee to understand the problem.... However, in Parliaments private persons may be heard by committees ..., their function is to explain the draft or to present their arguments against the draft.

The complex nature of certain problems occasionally made the committees highly dependent on experts and the important of the interests touched by some bills frequently give to pressure groups who seek especially at the level of committee to obtain favourable decisions from Parliament.

**Generally, persons and bodies outside Parliament who are interested in the subject matter of a bill are consulted at some stage in order that it may be drafted with full knowledge.**

Extra-parliamentary consultants are also held after a bill has been introduced in the House, they may at times represent a particular concept of the sovereignty of the people. In India and Pakistan a bill may be formally placed ‘in circulation’ in order to elicit further opinion on its merits.

The most elaborate form of extra-parliamentary consultation, which derives from the principle of popular sovereignty as opposed to the strictly representative system, is the consultative referendum.

When extra-parliamentary consultations have been committed, the ordinary procedure for the making of laws is taken in the assemblies. **The contents of the bill are made known by all available means and first and for most the press, so all sections of society are informed. Discussion follows in the basic organizations, industrial and agricultural undertakings, professional, trade organizations of all kind people’s councils, social, scientific and economic institutions and local and regional administrations. Opinions are gathered and suggestions, amendments, and perhaps counter proposals drawn up which are forwarded to Parliament and in particular their appropriate committees.** These committees examine any matter and may if necessary formally take them into consideration. Thus, countrywide discussions takes place, which introduces in greater degree a new form of direct democracy, made possible by the available media of communications. **Nevertheless, the last word rests on the representatives of the people; it is for them to accept or reject the large number of suggestions addressed to them.**

**Promulgation is the last stage in law making. What is promulgation? The passing of a bill by the legislature is generally the stage of the legislative process.** The work done by the two Houses must then be promulgated. Promulgation authenticates a bill as a law and gives it binding force; it also entails publication.

**4.1.2) COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LAW MAKING PROCESS IN ETHIOPIA**

In the above discussion we have learnt about law making in various countries abroad. Under this part we will discuss the law making process in Ethiopia: the past and present.

**4.1.2.1) HAILE SELASSIE’S ERA**

[What is Law, pp. 20 ff] The purpose of this part of the material is to present a systematic description of the Law Making process in Ethiopia in simple, concise and accurate form.

**A) FORMS OF LAW**

**There were four major types of Ethiopian law (Orders, Proclamations, Decrees and Legal Notices) which are the subjects of this monograph, although never so officially prescribed, are in accordance with the divisions of legislative authority set out in the Constitution of 1931 and the Revised Constitution of 1955.**

**The first three (Orders, Proclamations and Decrees) are best known as Primary Legislation**. Thus **under the title of “Order”, the Emperor exercises his prerogative under Article 27 of the Constitution of 1955 to determine “the organization, powers and duties of all ministries, executive departments and the administration of the government”.**

**Substantive legislation passed by Parliament and approved by the Emperor is called a “Proclamation”**. **The Emperor acting alone may promulgate legislation only “in cases of emergency that arise when the Chambers are not sitting**”. This law is known as “**Decree**”.

The fourth term, “**Legal Notice”, is used mainly for the publication of Rules and Regulations, and Municipal Law, authority for which has been delegated to various government officials**. It can best be labelled as subordinate legislation.

The two minor forms of law which were not discussed herein were “General Notice”, which is mainly used to announce Government appointments and awards of honour by the Emperor, and “Notice” which was the vehicle for the announcement of certain matters of public interest, such as Notice No 10 of 1950, dealing with the encouragement of foreign investment.

**B) PUBLICATION OF LAW**

**Negarit is Amharic for drum**. **Gazata is Italian by origin and Amharic by adoption for newspaper**. **Years ago, public announcements and the promulgation of Laws were proclaimed in Ethiopia by the beating of a drum**. The combination of the traditional word Negarit with the imported word Gazata therefore constitutes the designation of the governmental medium of communication of legal information to the public.

**The Negarit Gazata is the official legislative, executive and administrative Law Reporter of Ethiopia**. Written in Amharic and English, **the first issue appeared on March 30, 1942, and it has been published regularly since that date**. Of course, if there is any language conflict, Amharic was the only official language. Occasionally, a law published in the Negarit Gazata contained a specific provision **naming a later date at which time the law will become effective**.

Proclamations, Decrees, Orders and Legal Notices used to appear in the Negarit Gazeta under their generic name, number and year they were so cited (For example, Decree No. 42 of 1962, Legal Notice No 257 of 1962.) Laws were published in the Negarit Gazeta in strict chronological order.

**C) LAW MAKING UNDER THE REPEALED (REVISED) 1955 CONSTITUTION**

The now repealed Constitution of the Empire of Ethiopia, 1955 **used to envisage two types of laws made at two different levels**. **These were primary legislations, which were the result of the legislative activities of the supreme organs of state power of the Empire**, and subordinate legislations, **which were enacted by organs of authority, delegated to them by the supreme organs of state power.**

**The sources of primary legislations under the Repealed 1955 Constitution were the Emperor and Parliament.** The Emperor used to be constitutionally empowered to issue two types of primary laws, i.e., **Orders and Decrees**, while the Parliament has the authority to issue **one type of primary legislation, i.e., Proclamations**. **Orders, which used to be exclusively enacted by the Emperor were primary laws principally related to issues of the creation or dissolution of organs of state and government power or their branches, the chartering of municipalities, the raising and disbanding of units of the army, etc. vis, questions of state and governmental structure**. It should be noted that the Emperor had the power to issue orders without referring to any other organ of state or governmental power.

**It used to be possible to initiate orders in two ways. Firstly, the Emperor himself could unilaterally initiate and subsequently issue them whenever he saw it fit to do so**. Secondly, **their initiation could start at the level of a specific governmental body concerned or interested in their enactment**. Such a governmental body would, as the first step, **submit such legal opinion or draft to the Council of Ministers from where, if approved, it is passed on to the Emperor in the hands of the Prime Minister for enactment or shelving as the case may be**.

Proclamations were capable of being initiated in various ways. Since the Parliament was bicameral, **draft proclamations could be initiated from either of the two Chambers of the Parliament. If such a draft succeeds in gaining majority approval in the Chamber it was initiated in, it would then be transferred to the other chamber where it was again subjected to discussions and a vote.** If it again gains a majority vote in the second Chamber it means that it has won the approval of the whole Parliament and was **then submitted to the Emperor who, as the supreme sovereign, would have to give the go ahead before it is promulgated**. Draft proclamations could also start at the level of any governmental body interested in having a certain law passed. Such a draft was submitted to the council of Ministers from where, presumably after sufficient scrutiny and ironing out, it was submitted to the **Emperor in the hands of the Prime Minister**. Where the Emperor agrees with the proposed law he, in turn, sends it to any of the two Chambers of the Parliament, where it was subjected to debate and finally a vote. If it meets with majority approval of the Chambers, it is forwarded to the Emperor for final approval and promulgation.

**Decrees were the third type of primary legislation in force then and were the second legal prerogative of the Emperor**. Decrees used to deal with the same area of legislation as proclamations and used to be enacted only during the temporary absence of the Parliament, i.e. presumably, **when it was out of session during the summe**r. Theoretically at least, all decrees were subject to a vote of approval when the parliament subsequently reconvened.

Considering the whole law-making process it is often said that all laws in pre-revolution Ethiopia were in effect made by the Emperor.

**4.1.2.2) THE DERG’S ERA**

**The first noticeable change in the law-making process that could be observed was a direct consequence of the deposition of the emperor and the disbandment of the parliament**. The net effect of this was the disappearance of the previous distinctions in names between the various types of primary legislations. **There was only one type of primary legislation under the Derg, i.e, the proclamation that was enacted by its congress**.

**The congress of the PMAC, being the highest organ of state power then, was also the only source of the sole primary legislation of the time, i.e., the proclamation**. It is true to say that usually the authority to enact proclamations is given to an organ of state power by virtue of a constitutional provision. But when it comes to the PMAC, the power to issue proclamations was granted to its congress by another proclamation. **And, at the time, this odd fact was though the Derg has no other alternative, in the absence of a constitution, except to out this legal problem in the manner described above.**

With respect to the initiation of draft proclamations, we firstly see that **the congress of the PMAC itself had this right. Secondly, the law-making process could also be initiated by governmental organs by their submission of the draft to the Council of Ministers**. If the draft meets the approval of the Council of Ministers, **it was submitted to the PMAC’s Congress for deliberation voting and finally, enactment.**

**Subordinate legislations of this period, which generally went under the general name of Legal** **Notice**, **used to be drafted and issued at the level of the governmental body authorized to issue them**, though the fact that most legal notices used to be enacted among with the proclamation enabling that **both the enabling proclamation and the Legal Notice came from the same source.**

**4.1.2.3) UNDER THE PDRE**

**The process of law making under the PDRE day Ethiopia was radically different from the previous two legislative regimes discussed above**. The law-making process in Haile Selassie’s Ethiopia, though it formally paid lip service to the Doctrine of the Separation of Powers, was, in reality, **a highly autocratic were concentrated in the person of the Emperor**. **The law-making process under the Derg, on the other hand, can best be described as a provisional stop-gap process wherein the only top of primary legislation, i.e., the proclamation**, was often strengthened, amended and elaborated upon by innumerable directives which had a de facto force of law (though not in the formal sense) and were justified as binding because they **most often had the same source of the proclamations.**

Two types of laws, i.e., **primary and subordinate legislation were envisaged under the Constitution of the PDRE. T**his was similar with the previous forms of law making steps.

Under this set-up, there exist **five types of primary legislations**. **Proclamations are enacted by the National Shengo, which was the supreme organ of state power in the PDRE** (Art. 63 sub Art 1).

**The Council of State had the power to enact Decrees to facilitate the implementation of the powers and duties entrusted to it by the Constitution** (Art. 82/3/). **The Council of State also had the authority to issue special Decrees when necessary and compelling circumstances arise.** This power to issue special Decrees was, however, **qualified by the fact that the Council of State may exercise it only between the sessions of the National Shengo, i.e., when it was not meeting.**

**Finally, president of the Council of State, which in turn was, the standing body the National Shengo, was entitled with the right to issue the final two types of primary legislation**. Primarily, **he had the authority to enact presidential Decrees, for the purposes of facilitating the implementation of the powers and duties entrusted upon him/her by the Constitution** (Art. 86/4). He was also entitled to issue, under compelling circumstances, special Presidential decrees during periods **when the National Shengo was not in session**. However, such special presidential Decrees were also **subject to submission and approval by the National Shengo at its next session, again leading us to conclude the special Presidential decrees also related to situation normally regulated or governed by the proclamations issued from the National Shengo** (Art. 87).

**With respect to the initiation of legislation, i.e. proclamations, Article 71 of the Constitution states that the Council of State, the President of the Republic, Commissions of the National Shengo, members of the National Shengo, the Council of Ministers, the Supreme Court, the Procurator General, Shengos of higher administrative and autonomous regions, and mass organizations through their national organs, had this right.**

We found, in the PDRE, various and hierarchical distinguishable depositories of state power in the forms of Autonomous Region Shenogos, Administrative Region Shengos, Special Administrative Shengos and Awraja Shengos which were declared by the Constitution and the subsequently enacted administrative proclamations as the highest organs of state power at their respective levels (the Constitution. Art .95, Proclamation No. 15/1988, Arts 3/1, 18/1 and 32/1, Proclamation No. 16/1988, Arts 3/1/and 18/1 and Proclamation No. 17/1988. Arts 3/1 and 18/1).

**The primary legislation of the PDRE were laws issued by the highest organ of state power of PDRE, namely the National Shengo as well as these issued by its standing body, i.e., the Council of State and the President of the Republic**. Attempts to make a superficial distinction between the National Shengo, on the one hand, and the Council of State and the President of the Republic, on the other, and then proceed to call only the Naion Shengo the supreme organ of state power there by indirectly giving a secondary status to the latter two is erroneous. **This is because these two specialized organs of state power were firstly, part and parcel of the National Shengo and secondly, the ones entrusted with the task of representing and carrying out the National Shegno’s tasks of legal sovereignty on a day-to-day basis.**

Thus, the PDRE’s subordinate legislation were all the enactments issued by all the other organs of both state and administrative power outside the above-mentioned supreme organs of state power on the basis of delegated authority flowing from the National Shengo.

**All subordinate legislations in the PDRE went by two names Directives and Regulations, with a certain exception.** In general, we have seen thus that **the supreme source of law, the National Shengo, was in firm control**, directly and indirectly, over the nature and scope of all laws enacted by subordinate organs of power and state administration.

**4.1.2.4) LAW MAKING IN THE PRESENT DAY OF ETHIOPIA**

**In the present day of Ethiopia, the sovereign, i.e. the legislature has the power to make laws** [Art. 55 of the FDRE Constitution]. Thus, **the House of Peoples’ Representatives has the power to enact laws in the form of proclamation, for the Federal State, in the following sectors** [Art. 55 of the FDRE Const]:

* **􏰀  Natural resources of the Federal State;**
* **􏰀  Inter-region and foreign trade law;**
* **􏰀  Federal transportation laws;**
* **􏰀  Electoral laws and other laws with regard to the enforcement of political rights;**
* **􏰀  Nationality and other laws;**
* **􏰀  Standard and calendar;**
* **􏰀  Patent and copyright laws.**
* **The House of People’s Representatives is also empowered to enact laws in the form of codes on** [Art. 55(3), (4) and (5), (6) of FDRE Constitution].
* **􏰀  Labour Code;**
* **􏰀  Commercial Code;**
* **􏰀  Criminal Code;**
* **􏰀  Civil laws necessary to establish and sustain one economic community.**
* **As per Article 62(8) of the Constitution, the House of Federation has the power to determine civil matters on which the House of Peoples’ Representatives makes laws**. But  what are the detailed points to be taken to determine a given matter as essential to establish one economic community?

We observe that legislative power is given to the House of Peoples’ Representatives because it is the highest authority of the Federal Government. **In addition to the House of Peoples’ Representatives, executive organs have also given the power to enact regulations and directives.** The provision of Article 77(3) of the FDRE Constitution states that **the Council of Ministers shall enact regulations pursuant to powers vested in it by the House of Peoples’ Representatives.** Here, the provision makes clear that legislative power vested to the Council of Ministers is legislative power delegated from the legislature (i.e. the House of Peoples’ Representative).

According to Article 74(5) of the Constitution, **the Prime Minister has the power to supervise the implementation of regulations and directives adopted by the Council of Ministers**. The provision of Art. 74(5) of the same implies that the Council of Ministers has the power to enact directives in addition to regulations.

Ministries are also given the power to enact directives to implement the powers given under proclamations. **For example, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs was given the power to issue directives concerning the registration of employers’ and workers’ union** [Proc. No 4/95 Art. 20(3)].

We have seen that the executive bodies have the power to enact regulations and directives. These are non-sovereign law making bodies. Bodies other than the legislature are non-sovereign law making bodies.

What are the characteristics of non-sovereign law making bodies? They are subordinate legislatives because:

* A)  there are laws such bodies must obey and cannot change;
* B)  there is a distinction between fundamental law and ordinary laws;
* C)  there must be a body having authority to pronounce upon the validity or  constitutionality of laws passed by such law making body [Dicey;

The regulations and the directives made by the non-legislative bodies should not contradict with the Constitution [Art. 9(1) of the FDRE Constitution]. This principle applies to all laws irrespective of who made it. In addition, the House of Federation is empowered to interpret the Constitution [Art. 62(1) of the same]. Therefore, the House of Federation could ensure that all laws are in line with the Constitution.

The other essential characteristic of non-legislatures is that they have given the power to make laws by delegation of power [Dicey; 1961: 91].

Who does initiate laws? The Constitution clearly provides that **the Council of Ministers “shall submit draft laws to the House of Peoples’ Representatives on any matter falling within its competence, including draft laws on a declaration of war**” [Art. 77(11) of the Constitution]. We understand that the Council of Ministers has the power to initiate draft laws on matters that fall under the jurisdiction of the federal Government. In addition, it has the power to initiate and submit draft on a declaration of war to the House of Peoples’ Representative, and the latter may declare state of war [Art. 55(9) of the Constitution].

Further, **each ministry has the power to initiate policies and laws** [Proc. No. 471/2005, Art. 10]. According to Art. 4 of Proc. No 470/2005, **the Government; the House of Federation; the Speaker; and the Federal Supreme Court; members of the House; Committees of the House; and other governmental institutions directly accountable to the House have the power to initiate and submit draft bills to the House on matters within their jurisdictions**. However, **it is only the Government empowered to initiate draft financial law** [Art 6(4) of Proc. No. 470/2005].

**Any draft must be made in writing and be submitted to the Speaker to its presentation to the House.**

**Then the Speaker must present the summary of the draft law and deliberation on the content in** general must be held [Proc. No. 470/2005, Art. 7(a)]. **Then, the Speaker will refer it to the concerned standing committee** [Proc. No 470/2005; Art. 7(b)]. **The House shall have the following Standing Committees** [Proc. No. 470/2005; Art. 18]:

* 1)  the Capacity Building Affairs;
* 2)  the Trade and Industry Affairs;
* 3)  the Rural Development Affairs;
* 4)  the Natural Resources and Environmental protection Affairs;
* 5)  the Infrastructure Development Affairs;
* 6)  the Budget and Finance Affairs;
* 7)  the Legal and Administrative Affairs;
* 8)  the Foreign, Defence and Security Affairs;
* 9)  the Women’s Affairs;
* 10)  the Information and Cultural Affairs;
* 11)  the Social Affairs; and
* 12)  the Pastoralists Affairs.

**The committee which took the assignment will present it to the House with its proposal after 20 working days** [Pro. No 470/2005; Art. 8]. Thus, **second reading will be held in the House** [Proc. No 470/2005; Art 9]. **If the deliberation can not be exhausted, the bill shall be referred for further scrutiny to the pertinent committee** [Art. 9(c) of the same]. The committee who received **for the second time shall read out the amended version and its final decision to the House**. [Proc. No 470/2005; Art. 10(a)].

**Then the House shall pass the bill (draft law) after a through discussion on the final proposal** (Art. 10(b)]. **Then, the Speaker shall send the draft to the president for signature (Art 11(a)]. The President is required to sign the bill within 15 days other wise the bill will be effective after 15 days if the President fails to sign it** [Proc. No 470/2005; Art. 11(b)]. What is more, **the ratified law must be numbered by the Speaker and thereby published in the Federal Negarit Gazeta** [Art. 11(c)].