

European Commission
Directorate-General for Translation

English Style Guide

A handbook for authors and translators in the European Commission

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Companion volume:

[Country Compendium](#)

Introduction

This Style Guide is intended primarily for English-language authors and translators, both in-house and freelance, working for the European Commission. But now that so many texts in and around the EU institutions are drafted in English by native and non-native speakers alike, its rules, reminders and handy references aim to serve a wider readership as well.

In this Guide, ‘style’ is synonymous with a set of accepted linguistic conventions; it therefore refers to recommended in-house usage, not to literary style. Excellent advice on how to improve writing style is given in *The Plain English Guide* by Martin Cutts (Oxford University Press, 1999) and *Style: Toward Clarity and Grace* by Joseph M. Williams (University of Chicago Press, 1995), and the European Commission’s own [*How to write clearly*](#), all of which encourage the use of good plain English. See also [*Clear English - Tips for Translators*](#), [*Tips on translating from Slovak into English*](#) and [*Misused English words and expressions in EU publications*](#).

For reasons of stylistic consistency, the variety of English on which this Guide bases its instructions and advice is the standard usage of Britain and Ireland (for the sake of convenience, called ‘British usage’ or ‘British English’ in this Guide).

The Guide is divided into two clearly distinct parts, the first dealing with linguistic conventions applicable in all contexts and the second with the workings of the European Union — and with how those workings are expressed and reflected in English. This should not be taken to imply that ‘EU English’ is different from ‘real English’; it is simply a reflection of the fact that the European Union as a unique body has had to invent a terminology to describe itself. However, the overriding aim in both parts of the Guide is to facilitate and encourage the writing of clear and reader-friendly English.

Writing in clear language can be difficult at the Commission, since much of the subject matter is complex and more and more is written in English by (and for) non-native speakers, or by native speakers who are beginning to lose touch with their language after years of working in a multilingual environment. We must nevertheless try to set an example by using language that is as clear, simple and accessible as possible, out of courtesy to our readers and consideration for the image of the Commission.

In legislative texts, accuracy and clarity are of course paramount. But legal or bureaucratic language that we might regard as pompous elsewhere has its place in both legislation and preparatory drafting, though the specialist terms must be embedded in rock-solid, straightforward English syntax. In some cases — departmental memos or papers for specialist committees — we may regard ‘Eurospeak’ as acceptable professional shorthand; searching here for ‘plain English’ periphrases wastes time and simply irritates readers.

By contrast, in-house jargon is not appropriate in documents addressing the general public, such as leaflets or web pages. Information of practical use, e.g. on rights, applying for jobs or accessing funding, must be immediately understandable even to those unfamiliar with the workings and vocabulary of the EU. This also means, for

example, using short paragraphs, simple syntax and highlighting devices such as bullets. For more information on writing web pages in particular, see the '[Writing for the web](#)' section of the Commission's [Information Provider's Guide](#).

So 'style' is a matter of everyday concern to both authors and translators, for whom we hope this Guide will be a practical source of information and an aid to consistency. We have tried to bring together much that is available disparately in publications such as the [Interinstitutional style guide](#) published by the EU Publications Office, the Commission's Legislative Drafting Manual and the interinstitutionally produced [Joint Practical Guide](#) for the drafting of EU legislation. Needless to say, our Guide does not in any way aim to replace these publications, which are well worth consulting in their own right.

The English Style Guide's current Editorial Committee is:

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Fiona Harris

Fiona Herdman-Smith

Patrick McCarthy

Mark Osborne

Rebecca Watts

Philip Waywell

All work for the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation.

Many others have contributed their time and expertise over the years, and even though they remain nameless here, they are not forgotten.

The current edition of the Guide is the eighth. The first was published back in 1982. The seventh edition was slimmed down considerably, since nearly all the annexes were removed. Most of the information they contained is now set out more clearly and logically by country in an accompanying document called the '[Country Compendium: A companion to the English Style Guide](#)'.

While we have done our best to ensure that the information set out in this Guide is relevant, correct and up to date, errors and omissions are inevitable. If you have any comments on the content of the Guide, please send them by email to DGT-EN-TERM@ec.europa.eu.

Part I

Writing English

1 GENERAL

- 1.1 *Language usage.* The language used should be understandable to speakers of British English (defined in the introduction to this Guide as the standard usage of Britain and Ireland). As a general rule, British English should be preferred, and Americanisms that are liable not to be understood by speakers of British English should be avoided. However, bearing in mind that a considerable proportion of the target readership may be made up of non-native speakers, very colloquial British usage should also be avoided.
- 1.2 *Quoting text.* When directly quoting a piece of text or citing the title of a document, you should reproduce the original rather than following the conventions set out below. However, you should make it clear you are quoting text by putting it in quotation marks or italics or setting it off in some other way. If necessary, you may mark errors with '[sic]' or insert missing text in square brackets.

2 PUNCTUATION

- 2.1 The punctuation in an English text must follow the rules and conventions for English, which often differ from those applying to other languages. Note in particular that:
- ◆ punctuation marks in English are always — apart from dashes (see 2.16) and ellipsis points (see 2.3) — closed up to the preceding word, letter or number;
 - ◆ stops (. ? ! : ;) are always followed by only a single (not a double) space.

FULL STOP

- 2.2 A full stop marks the end of a sentence. All footnotes end with a full stop, except those consisting solely of an internet or email address. Do not use a full stop at the end of a heading.

No further full stop is required if a sentence ends with an ellipsis (...), with an abbreviation that takes a point (e.g. 'etc.') or with a quotation complete in itself that ends in a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark before the closing quote:

Winston Churchill said: 'A pessimist sees the difficulty in every opportunity; an optimist sees the opportunity in every difficulty.'

Truncations (in which the end of the word is deleted) are followed by a point (for example *Co.*, *Art.*, *Chap.*), but contractions (in which the middle of the word is removed) are not (for example *Dr*, *Ms*, *Ltd*). See also 7.2.

- 2.3 *Ellipsis.* An ellipsis¹ is three points indicating an omission in the text. If an ellipsis falls at the end of a sentence, there is no final full stop. However, if followed by another punctuation mark (e.g. question mark, colon, semicolon or quotation mark), the punctuation mark should be closed up to the ellipsis.

When placed at the beginning of the text, it is followed by a normal space.

When replacing one or more words in the middle of a sentence, it is preceded by a hard space² and followed by a normal space.

When replacing one or more words at the end of a sentence, it is preceded by a hard space.²

The points are not enclosed in brackets:

‘The objectives of the Union shall be achieved ... while respecting the principle of subsidiarity.’

However, where a line or paragraph is omitted and replaced by an ellipsis, the ellipsis should be placed within square brackets on a separate line.

Do not use an ellipsis to replace or reinforce the word ‘etc.’

- 2.4 *Run-in side heads (you are looking at one).* These are followed by a full stop not a colon.

COLON

- 2.5 A colon is most often used to indicate that an expansion, qualification, quotation or explanation is about to follow (e.g. a list of items in running text). The part before the colon must be a full sentence in its own right, but the second need not be.

See also Chapter 11 for [lists](#).

- 2.6 Do not use colons at the end of headings.
- 2.7 In British usage, colons do not require the next word to start with a capital. (However, see Chapter 11 for an [exception](#).)
- 2.8 Colons should be closed up to the preceding word, letter or number.

SEMICOLON

- 2.9 Use a semicolon rather than a comma to combine two sentences into one without a linking conjunction:

¹ In Word: Alt + Ctrl + (full stop).

² In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text; the issue of semicolons was not considered.

When items in a series are long and complex or involve internal punctuation, they should be separated by semicolons for the sake of clarity:

The membership of the international commission was as follows: France: 4, which had 3 members until 2010; Germany: 5, whose membership remained stable; and Italy: 3, whose membership increased from 1 in 2001.

See also Chapter 11 for the use of [semicolons in lists](#).

2.10 Semicolons should be closed up to the preceding word, letter or number.

COMMA

2.11 *Items in a series.* In a list of two items, these are separated by ‘and’ or ‘or’:

The committee identified two errors in the document: the date of implementation and the regulation number.

In a list of three or more items, a comma is used to separate them, except for the final two, which are separated by ‘and’ or ‘or’:

Robin mowed the lawn, Sam did the cooking and Kim lazed around.

The committee considered sugar, beef and milk products.

An additional comma before the final item is sometimes essential to help clarify the sense. Compare the examples below:

X may not be added to beef, ham or processed meat and milk products *[unclear]*

The use of X is forbidden in beef, ham or processed meat, and milk products

A comma also comes before ‘etc.’ in a series:

sugar, beef, milk products, etc.

but not if no series is involved:

They discussed milk products etc., then moved on to sugar.

Commas also divide adjectives in series:

moderate, stable prices

but not if the adjectives do not form a series:

stable agricultural prices

In the second example, ‘stable’ modifies ‘agricultural prices’, i.e. the phrase cannot be read as ‘stable and agricultural prices’.

2.12 *Linked sentences.* Use a comma to separate two sentences linked by a conjunction such as ‘but’, ‘yet’, ‘while’ or ‘so’ to form a single sentence:

The committee on commas agreed a final text, but the issue of semicolons was not considered.

If the subject of the second sentence is omitted, or if the conjunction is ‘and’, ‘or’ or ‘but’, the comma is not obligatory:

The committee on commas agreed a final text but did not consider the issue of semicolons.

The committee on commas agreed a final text and the Council approved it.

Where there is no conjunction, use a semicolon (see 2.9):

The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text; the issue of semicolons was not considered.

- 2.13 *Setting off phrases and clauses.* When a phrase introducing or adding to the information in a sentence has a separate emphasis of its own, it is set off by a comma:

Mindful of the need to fudge the issue, the committee on commas decided to take no action.

The committee on commas is composed of old fogeys, as we all know.

If the phrase is placed in the middle of the sentence, it is set off by a pair of commas — or possibly dashes (see 2.16) or brackets (see 2.17):

The committee on commas, discussing the issue for the tenth time, was still unable to reach agreement.

The sentence must remain a complete sentence even if the introductory or inserted phrase is omitted.

Short introductory phrases (typically two to three words) may be run into the rest of the sentence:

In 2015 the committee took three decisions.

No comma is required between a main clause and a subordinate clause when the main clause comes first:

Phrases must not be set off by commas if this changes the intended meaning of the sentence.

Nevertheless a comma is often possible, especially when the subordinate clause expresses a contrast:

The committee on commas was in favour of the revised wording, whereas the committee on semicolons was firmly against it.

However, a comma is required if the subordinate clause comes first:

If this changes the intended meaning of the sentence, phrases must not be set off by commas.

- 2.14 *Commas in relative clauses.* Commas are used to make an important distinction between two types of relative construction, often known as ‘defining’ and ‘non-defining’ relative clauses. Compare the following sentences:

The auditors were not able to count the cows which were on the mountain pasture at the time of the audit.

The auditors were not able to count the cows, which were on the mountain pasture at the time of the audit.

In the first example — without a comma — the relative clause (which were on the mountain ...) tells us which cows we are talking about. This is called a defining relative clause. The auditors were presumably able to count other cows (the ones at the farm); it was just the ones on the mountain that couldn't be counted.

In the second example — with a comma — the relative clause is non-defining. It merely adds extra information about the cows, but does not identify which ones are being talked about. In this case, the auditors were not able to count any cows at all, because they were all on the mountain.

Relative clauses are also used parenthetically. Compare the following:

My uncle, who lives in America, is rich.

My uncle who lives in America is rich; my uncle who lives in Cuba is poor.

In the first example, I have only one uncle (he lives in America, by the way) and he is rich. In the second, I have more than one uncle, and the one in America is rich, while the one in Cuba is poor; we know which uncle is being referred to in each case because he is defined by the relative clause.

Note that the relative pronoun 'that' can be used (instead of 'which' or 'who') in defining relative clauses, but not in non-defining relative clauses. Therefore we can have:

The auditors were not able to count the cows **that** were on the mountain pasture at the time of the audit

but **not**:

The auditors were not able to count the cows, **that** were on the mountain pasture at the time of the audit.

NB: The use of 'that' in defining relative clauses often reads more naturally than 'which', which tends to be confined to more formal contexts. Using 'that' also makes it quite clear that the relative clause is defining. Unlike 'which', however, 'that' needs to be close to the noun to which it refers.

- 2.15 *Avoiding commas.* Avoid using too many commas. You can do this by constructing sentences so as to minimise the number required. For example, phrases inserted in the middle of a sentence can often be moved to the beginning or the end, and a complex sentence can be divided by a semicolon (see 2.9 and 2.12) or even split into two or more sentences.

DASHES

- 2.16 *Dashes.* Long (or 'em') dashes may be used to punctuate a sentence instead of commas (see 2.13) or round brackets (see 2.17). They increase the contrast or emphasis of the text thus set off. However, use sparingly; use no more than one

in a sentence, or — if used with inserted phrases — one set of paired dashes. Avoid using dashes in legislation.

When citing titles of publications or documents, use a dash to separate the title from the subtitle (see also 4.10 on titles of publications).

The dash can also be used as a bullet point in lists (see 11).

To avoid errors if your dashes subsequently turn into hyphens as a result of document conversion, do not follow the typesetting practice of omitting the spaces around the ‘em’ dashes. In Microsoft Word, the keyboard shortcut for the ‘em’ dash is Alt + Ctrl + - (on the numeric keypad).

BRACKETS

- 2.17 *Round brackets.* Also known as parentheses, round brackets are used much like commas in 2.13 above, except that the text they contain has a lower emphasis. They are often used to expand on or explain the preceding item in the text:

ARZOD (an employment service) is based in Ruritania.

Never put a comma before the opening bracket. If a whole sentence is in brackets, the full stop must be placed before the closing bracket. Do not forget the full stop at the end of the preceding sentence as well.

A second set of round brackets (**not** square brackets) can be used to set off text that itself contains text in brackets:

The conclusions of the analysis (in particular regarding fair trade, the environment and transport (including green cars)) highlighted the following:

However, to avoid confusion, it may be better to use dashes (see 2.16):

The conclusions of the analysis — in particular regarding fair trade, the environment and transport (including green cars) — highlighted the following:

- 2.18 *Round brackets in citations.* When citing numbered paragraphs from legislation, use a pair of brackets closed up to the article number:

Article 3(1), Article 3(1)(a), Article 3a(1), etc.

- 2.19 *Square brackets.* These are used to make editorial insertions in quoted material.

‘They [the members of the committee] voted in favour of the proposal.’

They may also be used in administrative drafting to indicate optional passages or those still open to discussion.

In mathematical formulae (but not in text), square brackets are used to enclose round brackets:

$$7[4ab - (2nm \times 6bm) \times nm] + 7a = 1240$$

When translating, also use square brackets to insert translations or explanations after names or titles left in the original language.

QUESTION MARK

- 2.20 Every question which expects a separate answer should be followed by a question mark. The next word should begin with a capital letter. There should be no space between the question mark and the preceding word, letter or number.
- 2.21 A question mark is used at the end of a direct question:
How will this affect EU trade?
- 2.22 Question marks are not used in indirect speech:
We should ask ourselves how this policy will affect EU trade.
- 2.23 Do not use a question mark after a request or instruction disguised as a question out of courtesy:
Would you please sign and return the attached form.

EXCLAMATION MARK

- 2.24 An exclamation mark is used after an exclamatory word, phrase or sentence such as ‘*Look!*’ or ‘*How we laughed!*’ Such exclamatory expressions are appropriate in texts that directly address the reader or audience, such as speeches or informal instructions, but are usually out of place in formal texts. There should be no space between the exclamation mark and the preceding word, letter or number.
- 2.25 The imperative does not require an exclamation mark, but one may be used to add exclamatory force to a statement, e.g. ‘*Two million cows had to die!*’, or a command, e.g. ‘*Please read this paragraph!*’
- 2.26 *Factorials*. In mathematical and statistical texts, the exclamation mark identifies a factorial. Here too, there should be no space between the exclamation mark and the preceding number:
$$6! = 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

QUOTATION MARKS

- 2.27 *Smart vs straight quotation marks*. Quotation marks should preferably be smart (‘...’) rather than straight ('...'), but not both in the same text.
- 2.28 *Double vs single quotation marks*. Use single quotation marks to signal direct speech and verbatim quotes, and double quotation marks for quotations within these. If there should be yet another quotation within the second quotation, revert to single quotation marks. You may also use single quotation marks to

identify words and phrases that are not themselves quotes but to which you wish to draw attention as lexical items.

- 2.29 *Placing of quotation marks.* Quotation marks at the end of a sentence normally precede the concluding full stop, question mark or exclamation mark:

The American Government favours ‘a two-way street in arms procurement’.

Has the Commission published ‘A European Strategy for Encouraging Local Development and Employment Initiatives’?

However, if the quotation itself contains a concluding mark, no full stop is required after the quotation mark.

Walther Rathenau once said ‘We stand or fall on our economic performance.’

This section is entitled ‘A new culture of entrepreneurship in the EU: What to do?’

See also [4.21](#).

- 2.30 *Short quotations.* Short quotes of up to four lines or thereabouts are normally run into the surrounding text. They are set off by opening and closing quotation marks only.

- 2.31 *Block quotations.* Extended (block) quotations should be indented and separated from the surrounding text by paragraph spacing before and after. No quotation marks are required with this distinctive layout.

- 2.32 *English text in source documents.* An English text quoted in a foreign language text keeps the quotation marks in the English target text. But if a single English word or phrase is put in quotation marks simply to show that it is a foreign element, the quotation marks should be removed.

- 2.33 *Back-translating of quotes.* Avoid if possible. However, if you cannot find the original English version, turn the passage into indirect speech without quotation marks. The same applies where the author has applied quotation marks to a non-verbatim reference.

- 2.34 *So-called.* Do not place the word or phrase qualified by ‘so-called’ in quotation marks. Altogether it is best to avoid using ‘so-called’ because it is ambiguous in English: very often it has negative connotations, suggesting that the writer regards the term in question with anything ranging from mild disapproval to downright contempt. Use ‘so-called’ only where this is indeed the intended meaning:

These are challenges that so-called primitive peoples often manage better than us.

The so-called science of poll-taking is not a science at all but mere necromancy.

Some say the so-called European Parliament is a travesty of democracy ...

Foreign-language expressions such as *sogenannt*, *takzvaný* or *cosiddetto* usually simply mean ‘this is what we call it’. In that case they can be left

untranslated. If the term in question is unusual or likely to be unfamiliar to the reader, you may place it in quotation marks or use a phrase such as ‘what is known as’:

The resulting waste or ‘tailings’ often contaminate the groundwater.

The resulting waste, known as tailings, is often a source of water contamination.

- 2.35 *Other uses.* Generally, use quotation marks as sparingly as possible for purposes other than actual quotation.

Do not enclose titles of printed or electronic publications or foreign expressions in quotation marks as they should usually be given in italics, but titles of articles within such publications should be cited in roman type inside single quotation marks (see also 4.10 on titles of publications). It is not necessary to use quotation marks as well as bold or italics.

Some languages make frequent use of quotation marks for nouns in apposition (often programme or committee names etc.), as in *le Conseil «Agriculture»* or *Komitee „Menschliche Faktoren“*. It is usually preferable to omit the quotation marks in English and reverse the order:

the Agriculture Council, the Human Factors Committee, etc.

FORWARD SLASH

- 2.36 The forward slash may be used to mean ‘per’ (km/h) and in fractions (19/100).

Marketing years, financial years, and any other twelve-month periods that do not coincide with calendar years are also denoted by a forward slash, e.g. 2012/2013, which is 12 months, rather than by a hyphen, e.g. 2015-2016, which means 2 years (see also 6.19).

APOSTROPHE

- 2.37 *Possessive of nouns.* The possessive form of any singular noun and of plural nouns not ending in the letter ‘s’ is marked by an apostrophe followed by the letter ‘s’:

an actress’s role

the owner’s car

women’s rights

the MEP’s expenses

After a plural ending in the letter ‘s’, however, the possessive ‘s’ is omitted:

footballers’ earnings

the MEPs’ expenses

There is no apostrophe in possessive pronouns:

its (*as distinct from it’s = ‘it is’*), ours, theirs, yours

Some place names containing a possessive omit the apostrophe (*Earls Court*, *Kings Cross*), while others retain it (*St John's Wood*, *King's Lynn*). Possessives of proper names in titles (e.g. *Chambers Dictionary*) sometimes omit the apostrophe as well. There is no apostrophe in *Achilles tendon*. See the *New Oxford Dictionary for Writers and Editors* for individual cases.

Note that it is *one month's* / *four months' holiday* but *a one/four-month stay*.

- 2.38 *Nouns ending in -s*, including proper names and abbreviations, form their singular possessive with -'s, just like nouns ending in other letters.

an actress's pay; Mr Jones's paper;

Helios's future is uncertain; AWACS's success

The -s after terminal s' used to be omitted in written English, but this is now done only in classical and biblical names, e.g. *Socrates' philosophy*, *Xerxes' fleet*.

- 2.39 *Contractions*. Apostrophes are also used to indicate contractions, i.e. where one or more letters have been omitted in a word or where two words have been joined together. Contractions are common in informal texts, but not in formal texts. Examples:

don't = do not

it's = it is (*as distinct from the possessive 'its'*)

who's = who is (*as distinct from 'whose'*)

you're = you are (*as distinct from 'your'*)

- 2.40 *Plurals of abbreviations*. Plurals of abbreviations (*MEPs*, *OCTs*, *SMEs*, *UFOs*, *CPUs*) do not take an apostrophe (see also 7.8).

- 2.41 *Plurals of figures*. Plurals of figures do not take an apostrophe:

Pilots of 747s undergo special training.

- 2.42 *Plurals of single letters*. The plurals of single lower-case letters take an apostrophe to avoid misunderstanding:

Dot your i's.

Mind your p's and q's.

3 SPELLING

CONVENTIONS

- 3.1 *British spelling*. Follow standard British usage, but remember that influences are crossing the Atlantic all the time (for example, the spellings *program* and *disk* have become normal British usage in information technology, while *sulfur* has replaced *sulphur* in scientific and technical usage). Note, however, that the

names of bodies in other English-speaking countries retain the original spellings, e.g. *Department of Defense*; *Australian Labor Party*.

Do use a spellchecker, set to UK English, as an aid. Remember, though, to use your judgement and in case of doubt check in this Guide or a dictionary. As a general rule, the first spelling given on the [Oxford Dictionaries](#) website should be followed. An exception to this rule is the spelling of *-is-/-iz-* words (see below).

- 3.2 *-is-/-iz- spelling.* Use the *-is-* spelling. Both spellings are correct, but this rule is to be followed for the sake of consistency in EU texts.

The spelling *organisation* should thus be used for all international organisations, even if they more commonly use the *-iz-* spelling, e.g. *International Labour Organisation* (its [website](#) uses *International Labour Organization*, while Americans will write *International Labor Organization*). However, following the rule in 3.1 above, the spellings of bodies native to the USA and other countries that use the *-iz-* spelling may be retained.

- 3.3 *The -yse form* is the only correct spelling for words such as *paralyse* and *analyse*.

- 3.4 When adding *-able*, drop a final silent *-e* at the end of the stem (*debate* — *debatable*, *conceive* — *conceivable*) unless it would change the pronunciation of the preceding consonant (*changeable*, *traceable*); the only common exceptions are *sizeable* and *saleable* (*sizable* and *salable* are US spellings).

- 3.5 *Digraphs.* Keep the digraph in *aetiology*, *caesium*, *oenology*, *oestrogen*, etc. (*etiology* etc. are US usage), but note that a number of such words (e.g. *medieval* and *fetus*) are now normally spelled without the digraph in British English. *Foetus* is still common in Britain in non-technical use.

- 3.6 *Double consonants.* Follow the convention of doubling a final *-l* after a short vowel on adding *-ing* or *-ed* to verbs (sole exception: *parallel*, *paralleled*) and adding *-er* to make nouns from verbs:

level, levelling, levelled, leveller

travel, travelling, travelled, traveller

Other consonants double only if the last syllable of the root verb is stressed or carries a strong secondary stress:

admit, admitting, admitted

format, formatting, formatted

refer, referring, referred

but

benefit, benefiting, benefited

combat, combating, combated

focus, focusing, focused

target, targeting, targeted

Exception: a few verbs in *-p* (e.g. *handicapped*, *kidnapped*, *worshipped*, but not *developed*).

- 3.7 *Carcass/carcase*. Prefer *carcass(es)* to *carcase(s)*, except when citing official texts that use the latter.
- 3.8 Use *-ct-* not *-x-* in *connection*, *reflection*, etc. But note *complexion* and *flexion*.
- 3.9 Write *gram*, *kilogram* (not *gramme*, *kilogramme*). However, use *tonne* not *ton* ('ton' refers to the non-metric measure).
- 3.10 Write *metre* for the unit of length, *meter* for measuring instruments.
- 3.11 *A(n) historical*. The use of *an* rather than *a* before words such as *historical* or *hotel* dates back to a time when the 'h' was never pronounced in these words. While you should now write *a hotel*, *an historical event* is still regarded as acceptable, presumably because the 'h' is still frequently dropped in even careful speech, so you may choose which form you prefer.
- 3.12 *Judg[e]ment*. *Judgment* is used in legal contexts, *judgement* in all other contexts.
- 3.13 *Data-processing usage*. Avoid the forms *input[t]ed* and *output[t]ed*. Instead use *input* and *output*: e.g. *70 000 items of data were input last month*. However, note the verb *to format*, which takes the forms *formatted* and *formatting*.
- 3.14 *Tricky plurals*. Follow the list below.

abscissa	abscissae
addendum	addenda
appendix	appendices (<i>books</i>), appendixes (<i>anatomy</i>)
bacterium	bacteria
bureau	bureaux
consortium	consortia
corrigendum	corrigenda
criterion	criteria
curriculum	curricula
embargo	embargoes
focus	foci (<i>mathematics, science</i>) focuses (<i>other contexts</i>)
formula	formulas (<i>politics</i>) formulae (<i>science</i>)
forum	forums <i>or</i> fora
genus	genera
index	indexes (<i>books</i>), indices (<i>science, economics</i>)

maximum	maxima (<i>mathematics, science</i>) maximums (<i>other contexts</i>)
medium	media (<i>press, communications, IT</i>), mediums (<i>life sciences, art</i>)
memorandum	memorandums <i>or</i> memoranda
moratorium	moratoriums <i>or</i> moratoria
papyrus	papyri <i>or</i> papyruses
phenomenon	phenomena
plus	pluses
premium	premiums
referendum	referendums <i>or</i> referenda
spectrum	spectra (<i>science</i>), spectrums (<i>politics</i>)
symposium	symposiums <i>or</i> symposia
vortex	vortices

INTERFERENCE EFFECTS

- 3.15 *Confusion between English words.* Look out for errors involving the pairs below.

dependent (adj. or noun)	dependant (noun only)
license (verb)	licence (noun)
practise (verb)	practice (noun)
principal (adj. or noun)	principle (noun)
stationary (adj.)	stationery (noun)

Note also: all together (*in a body*), altogether (*entirely*); premises (*both buildings and propositions*), premisses (*propositions only*); discreet (*careful and circumspect*), discrete (*separate*).

- 3.16 *Confusion between English and French.* Beware of interference effects when switching from one language to the other:

FRENCH	ENGLISH
adresse	address
appartement	apartment
compétitivité	competitiveness
correspondance	correspondence
exemple	example
existant	existent
environnement	environment
indépendance	independence
médecine	medicine
messenger	messenger
négligeable	negligible
négociation	negotiation
offense	offence
recommandation	recommendation
réflexion	reflection
représentativité	representativeness
responsable	responsible
tarif	tariff

See also [How to Write Clearly](#), [Claire's Clear Writing Tips](#) and the section on [interference effects](#) in the Interinstitutional style guide (Section [10.3.3](#)).

COMPOUND WORDS AND HYPHENS

- 3.17 *General.* Compounds may be written as two or more separate words, with hyphen(s), or as a single word. There is a tendency for compounds to develop into single words when they come to be used more frequently: *data base*, *data-base*, *database*.

Use hyphens sparingly but to good purpose: in the phrase *crude oil production statistics* a hyphen (*crude-oil*) can tell the reader that 'crude' applies to the oil rather than the statistics.

Sometimes hyphens are absolutely necessary to clarify the sense:

re-cover — recover; re-creation — recreation; re-form — reform;
re-count — recount

The following are examples of well-used hyphens:

user-friendly software;
two-day meeting; four-month stay (*but* four months' holiday);
tonne-kilometre; person-day

- 3.18 In adverb-adjective modifiers, there is no hyphen when the adverb ends in -ly:
occupationally exposed worker; a beautifully phrased sentence

With other adverbs, however, a hyphen is usually required:

well-known problem; above-mentioned report; hot-rolled strip (*but* a hotly disputed election); broad-based programme (*but* a broadly based programme)

- 3.19 An adjective formed out of a noun and a participle should be hyphenated:

drug-related crime, crime-fighting unit; oil-bearing rock

- 3.20 Many phrases are treated as compounds, and thus need a hyphen, only when used as modifiers:

policy for the long term, *but* long-term effects
production on a large scale, *but* large-scale redundancies
balance of payments, *but* balance-of-payments policy
cost of living, *but* cost-of-living index
loans with low interest, *but* low-interest loans
measures for flood control, *but* flood-control measures

- 3.21 *Chemical terms.* Note that open compounds designating chemical substances do not take a hyphen in attributive position: *boric acid solution, sodium chloride powder.*

- 3.22 *Prefixes* are usually hyphenated in recent or ad hoc coinages:

anti-smoking campaign, co-sponsor, ex-army, non-resident, non-flammable, pre-school, quasi-autonomous

If they are of Latin or Greek origin, however, they tend to drop the hyphen as they become established:

antibody, codetermination, cooperation, subcommittee, subparagraph

Others are more resistant to losing the hyphen:

end-user, end-phase, end-product, all-embracing, all-metal, off-market operations, off-duty

but note

endgame, nonsense, overalls, email

- 3.23 *Nouns from phrasal verbs.* These are often hyphenated or written as single words. The situation is fluid: *handout, takeover, comeback* but *follow-up, run-up, spin-off.*

- 3.24 *Present participles of phrasal verbs.* When used as attributes they are generally hyphenated:

cooling-off period

- 3.25 *Avoiding double consonants and vowels.* Hyphens are often used to avoid juxtaposing two consonants or two vowels:

aero-elastic, anti-intellectual, part-time, re-election, re-entry, re-examine

However, the hyphen is often omitted in commonly used words:

bookkeeping, coeducation, cooperation, coordinate, macroeconomic, microeconomic, radioactive

- 3.26 *Numbers and fractions.* Numbers take hyphens when they are spelled out. Fractions take hyphens when used attributively, but not when used as nouns:

twenty-eight, two-thirds completed

BUT

an increase of two thirds

- 3.27 *Prefixes before proper names.* Prefixes before proper names are hyphenated: *pro-American, intra-EU, mid-Atlantic, pan-European, trans-European*. Note, however, that *transatlantic* is written solid.

- 3.28 *Coordination of compounds.* Hyphenated compounds may be coordinated as follows:

gamma- and beta-emitters, acid- and heat-resistant, hot- and cold-rolled products

Where compounds are not hyphenated (closed compounds), or should you choose to write them so, they should not be coordinated but written out in full:

macrostructural and microstructural changes, minicomputers and microcomputers, prenatal and postnatal effects, agricultural inputs and outputs

NOT

macro- and microstructural changes, mini- and microcomputers, pre- and postnatal effects, agricultural in- and outputs

(BUT of course

macro- and micro-structural changes, pre- and post-natal effects)

- 3.29 *Coordinate or contrasting pairs.* Hyphens are used to join coordinate or contrasting pairs:

the Brussels-Paris route

a current-voltage graph

the height-depth ratio

- 3.30 *Ranges.* Hyphens can be used to replace ‘to’ in a range, e.g. 2015-2019.

- 3.31 *Closed compounds in technical texts.* Some expressions that are written as separate words in everyday language become closed compounds in more specialist contexts, e.g. *pigmeat, longwall*. This reflects the fact that in a particular field such expressions have the status of precise terms.

4 CAPITALISATION

- 4.1 *General.* The basic rule is that proper nouns have an initial capital but common nouns do not. Initial capitals are often employed to excess in commercial and administrative circles, but they can be visually distracting and are often unnecessary, so should be used sparingly. When in doubt use lower case.

- 4.2 *Proper names and titles.* Use initial capitals for proper nouns:

Mr Goldsmith is a baker but Mr Baker is a goldsmith

Sir Francis Drake

the Archbishop of Canterbury

Dame Judi Dench

honourable Member (of the European Parliament)

See also Chapter 5 on [Names and titles](#).

- 4.3 *Programmes, policies, agendas, strategies, action plans, etc.* These are in lower case:

the programme on research and development in advanced communications technologies in Europe

common agricultural policy

EU action plan on urban mobility

Europe 2020 strategy

energy union

- 4.4 *Acronyms/initialisms.* The existence of an acronym or initialism does not mean that initial capitals must be used when the corresponding expression is written out in full:

common agricultural policy (CAP)

non-governmental organisation (NGO)

but

European Central Bank (ECB) (as this is the official name of the institution)

- 4.5 *Titles of organisations, institutions, directorates, units, sections, office holders, committees, delegations, etc.* Use initial capitals on all nouns and adjectives when writing out titles in full:

Publications and Dissemination Directorate

Business Development and Support Unit

Editorial Partnerships Section

Future Policies Working Group

President of the Council

Director-General for Agriculture

Council of Europe

European Development Fund

Commission

Markets in Crop Products Directorate

President of the French Republic

Vice-Chair of the Committee on International Relations (but referring back, you should write ‘the vice-chair noted that ...’)

Use lower case when referring generally to unnamed directorates-general, sections or units, or to ‘the EU institutions’ collectively.

Permanent bodies require initial capitals (e.g. the Delegation of the European Union to the United States), while ad hoc groups (e.g. the Polish delegation to a meeting) do not.

Use a lower case ‘p’ for the Council presidency (being general), but an initial capital for individual presidencies, e.g. ‘the Latvian Presidency’.

However, for long names that read more like a description than a real title use an initial capital for the head word and lower case for the rest:

Committee for the adaptation to technical progress of the directive on the introduction of recording equipment in road transport (tachograph)

Joint FAO/EC working party on forest and forest product statistics

- 4.6 *Full titles of international agreements, conferences, conventions, etc.* Nouns and adjectives have an initial capital when using the full title:

International Coffee Agreement

Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade

but use lower case when referring back to the agreement, the conference, etc.

- 4.7 *Translations of names.* Use initial capitals for official or literal translations but lower case for descriptive translations:

The Federal Constitutional Court is the German supreme court.

- 4.8 *References to EU legislation.* Write *Regulation*, *Decision*, *Directive*, *Annex* and *Article* (followed by a number) with capitals if they refer to specific acts; use lower case for references to regulations, directives, etc. in a generalised sense and when referring to proposed legislation (i.e. draft regulation, a possible new directive on ...).

- 4.9 *Draft legislation.* Note that the words *draft* and *proposal* should be written in lower case even in the titles of draft legislation.

- 4.10 *Publications.* The titles of printed and electronic publications normally take a capital on each main word and are written in italics:

It was reported in the *Daily Mail* but not in *The Times* (‘The’ is part of the title.)

the *Cambridge Journal of Economics*

European Economy

although the shortened title of the *Official Journal of the European Union* is written in roman:

the Official Journal

Note, too, that most EU publications take a capital only on the first word and on any proper nouns (and often on adjectives formed from proper nouns):

Interinstitutional style guide

Synopsis of the work of the Court of Justice of the European Communities

4.11 *Periods, events, festivals, seasons.* Use initial capitals for periods such as:

Second World War

Dark Ages

and events such as:

International Year of the Child

European Job Day

Second UN Development Decade

Edinburgh Festival

Use capitals for days of the week, months and feast days:

Tuesday, August, Ascension Day, pre-Christmas business

Do not use capitals for *the 2015/2016 marketing year, the 2015 budget year*, and so on.

Do not use capitals for *spring, summer, autumn* or *winter*.

4.12 *Graphics, tables and cross references.* *Figure (Fig.)*, *Number (No)*, *Volume (Vol.)*, *Part*, *Chapter (Chap.)*, *Section (Sect.)*, *Article (Art.)* and *Table* should always have an initial capital when followed by a numeral; conversely, *page*, *paragraph*, *footnote*, *point* and *line* should not be capitalised. In running text the abbreviations shown above should be spelt out:

page 250

as shown in Figure 5

refer to footnote 6

see also the following chapter/section

For references to parts of documents or legal acts, see also [13.7](#).

4.13 *Party denominations and organisations.* Use capitals for their names:

Socialist Group, Fianna Fáil Party

but liberal, socialist, etc. otherwise.

For political groups in the European Parliament, see the [European Parliament website](#).

4.14 *State or state?* Generally use lower case, e.g.:

state-owned

reasons of state

nation states
the Arab states

except in an abstract or legal sense, e.g.:

the separation of Church and State

and in the following instances, which are rooted in the Treaties:

Member States (*when referring to EU Member States*)

State aid

Heads of State or Government (*when referring to the heads of state or government of all the Member States as a group*)

4.15 *Geographical names and political divisions.* Use initial capitals for proper nouns:

North Pole
River Plate
Trafalgar Square
Third World
North Rhine-Westphalia
East Midlands
the North-West Frontier

but lower case when describing a geographical area:

northern England
western, central and eastern Europe
central European countries

NUTS (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics) region names do not follow these rules as they refer to the name of the authority for each region — see [Annex A10](#) to the Interinstitutional style guide.

The South East is an administrative region of England, but do not use capitals in the general expression ‘Rain is forecast for London and the south-east’.

For compass points see [5.29](#).

4.16 *Proprietary names and generic terms.* Proprietary names (or trade names) are normally capitalised, e.g.:

Airbus
Land Rover
Disprin
Polaroid

unless they have become generic terms, such as:

aspirin
gramophone
linoleum
nylon
celluloid

Note:

internet
the web

- 4.17 *Celestial bodies and objects.* Since they are proper nouns, the names of planets, moons, stars and artificial satellites are capitalised (*Venus*, *Rigel*, *LISA Pathfinder*). However, the earth, the moon and the sun do not normally take an initial capital unless they are specifically referred to as celestial bodies.

The Starship Enterprise returned to Earth.

but

The sun was warm and Alice daydreamed until she was brought back to earth by a loud noise.

- 4.18 *Botanical names.* See [16.1](#).

- 4.19 *Derivations from proper nouns.* Not all adjectives derived from proper nouns take a capital:

Bunsen burner

Faraday cage

but

french (chalk, polish, windows)

morocco (leather)

roman (type)

Consult a reliable dictionary, as practice varies.

- 4.20 *All capitals.* Using all capitals for words in running text has the effect of emphasising them, often excessively so, so should generally be avoided. Writing entire passages in block capitals has a similar over-emphatic ‘telegram’ effect. Use bolding or other devices instead to convey emphasis.

Upper case may also be employed for names used as codes or in a different way from usual, e.g. *VENUS* as a cover name for a person or for a computer server rather than the planet. Where confusion is unlikely, however, use just an initial capital, e.g. prefer *Europa* to *EUROPA* for the web server of the European institutions, since it is unlikely to be confused with the moon of the same name. For this use, see also Chapter [7](#) on [abbreviations](#).

- 4.21 *Initial capitals in quotations.* Start with a capital in running text only if the quotation is a complete sentence in itself:

Walther Rathenau once said ‘We stand or fall on our economic performance.’

The American Government favours ‘a two-way street in arms procurement’.

5 NAMES AND TITLES

PERSONAL NAMES AND TITLES

- 5.1 *General.* Surnames are not normally uppercased in running text (thus Mr Juncker not Mr JUNCKER), unless the aim is to highlight the names (e.g. in minutes).

At the end of EU legislation, the surname of the signatory appears in upper case.

Avoid the non-English practice of using the initial for the first name in running text. Wherever possible spell out the first name the first time round and contract thereafter. Thus:

Federica Mogherini (*first mention*), Ms Mogherini (*thereafter*)

Tony Blair (*first mention*), Mr Blair (*thereafter*)

If it is impossible to track down the first name, then drop the initial. See also [7.5](#) for the abbreviation of first names.

- 5.2 *Ms — Mme — Frau.* As a matter of courtesy use *Ms* in English unless you know that the person concerned prefers otherwise. Note that the French *Mme* and German *Frau* are likewise courtesy titles: a *Mme* or *Frau* is not necessarily a *Mrs* (i.e. married).
- 5.3 *Foreign-language titles.* Avoid titles not customary in English, but note that if you use Mr or Ms, you must obviously be sure of the gender of the person in question.

For:	write:
Prof. Dr. H. Schmidt	Prof. H. Schmidt
Dipl.-Ing. W. Braun	Mr W. Braun
Drs. A. Baerdemaeker	Ms A. Baerdemaeker
Ir. B. De Bruyn	Ms B. De Bruyn
Me Reuter	Mr Reuter

- 5.4 *Doctor.* The title *Dr* should be given when it appears in the original (except in combined titles, as above), regardless of whether the holder is a doctor of medicine or not.
- 5.5 *Government ministers and senior officials.* When translating into English, write ‘Minister for...’ but ‘Ministry of...’. In formal texts, use the translations given in [EUWhoiswho](#) for representatives of the governments of EU Member States

who regularly take part in Council meetings. Abbreviated forms may be used in informal texts (e.g. ‘Foreign Minister’ for ‘Minister for Foreign Affairs’).

NAMES OF BODIES

- 5.6 If a body, for example an international organisation, has an *official name in English*, always use that:

World Organisation for Animal Health (*rather than* Organisation Mondiale de la Santé Animale)

If it does not, follow the tips below.

- 5.7 In *legal acts* (i.e. any text where the English will have legal force), always use a body’s original name:

This Decision is addressed to Federazione Dottori Commercialisti.

Logistik GmbH and CargoCo s.à.r.l. have infringed Article 101 TFEU.

- 5.8 Elsewhere, if a body’s name is essentially a *description* of what it does, for example the name of a ministry, you should translate it, preferably with a commonly accepted or previously used term (see, for example, [EU Whoiswho](#)). The following solutions are all possible, depending on the type of document and/or the importance of the body in the document:

the Bundesministerium für Gesundheit [Federal Ministry of Health]
[e.g. in certain formal documents, where specifically instructed to leave the body’s name in its original source-language form, with or without a translation]

the Federal Ministry of Health [Bundesministerium für Gesundheit]
[e.g. where this body plays a significant role in the document]

the Federal Ministry of Health
[e.g. when part of a long list of ministries or mentioned just in passing]

the German health ministry
[informal, e.g. web text]

After the first mention, the name given in brackets may be dropped. The full name may also be shortened if there is no risk of confusion, e.g. *the Bundesministerium/Ministry replied that ...*

For judicial bodies, see the suggested translations in the [Country Compendium](#).

- 5.9 In contrast, if the name is essentially a *proper name*, such as a company name, leave it in the original form. However, at the first mention it may sometimes be useful to include an ad hoc or previously used translation or to give an explanation:

The company’s name had by now been changed from Pfaffenhofener Würstli [Pfaffenhofen Sausages] to Bayrische Spezialitäten [Bavarian Specialities].

The Delflandse Wandelvrienden [a local Dutch hiking association] wrote to the President direct.

Note that company abbreviations may be omitted after the first mention:

The firms in question are Rheinische Heizungsfabrik GmbH, Calorifica Italia SpA, SIA Ekobriketes, and Kamna Dvořák sro. In the meantime, Ekobriketes and Kamna Dvořák have gone out of business.

- 5.10 *Familiar foreign names.* If a body's original-language name is familiar to the intended readership, or the body uses it in its own English texts, use that rather than a translation:

The Bundesbank has issued a new policy directive.

Médecins Sans Frontières has long been active in this region.

- 5.11 *Abbreviations.* Where a body is referred to in the original language by an abbreviation, do not translate it with an improvised English one. Instead, give the English name followed by the original abbreviation (transliterating if necessary) in brackets (or vice versa) upon first mention, and include the original name as well if it is given:

the German Social Democratic Party (SPD)

SKAT (the Danish Central Customs and Tax Administration)

the Czech General Health Insurance Fund (Všeobecná zdravotní pojišťovna České Republiky — VZP)

the Regional Public Health Inspectorate in Bulgaria (RIOKOZ)

In the rest of the text, you may use just the abbreviation (but see 7.1).

- 5.12 *Back-transliteration of names.* Where a name written in a non-Latin alphabet is obviously a rendering of a word or phrase normally written in the Latin alphabet, e.g. an English expression, use that rather than a transliteration:

Orange Juice AE *not* Orantz Tzous AE

Bulgaria Air *not* Bulgaria Er

NAMES OF SHIPS, AIRCRAFT AND VEHICLES

- 5.13 *Names of ships, aircraft and vehicles* are written in italics:

the *Cutty Sark*

HMS Beagle

the *SS Normandie*

The Spirit of St Louis

The Flying Scotsman

GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

- 5.14 *General.* Many place names have an anglicised form, but as people become more familiar with these names in the language of the country concerned, so foreign spellings will gain wider currency in written English. As a rule of thumb, therefore, use the native form for geographical names (retaining any accents) except where an anglicised form is overwhelmingly common. If in

doubt as to whether an anglicised form is in widespread use, use only those given in the following sections and in the [Country Compendium](#).

- 5.15 *Orthography*. Recommended spellings of countries (full names and short forms), country adjectives, capital cities, currencies and abbreviations are given in [Annex A5](#) to the Interinstitutional style guide. Geographical names frequently contain pitfalls for the unwary, particularly in texts dealing with current events. Check carefully that you have used the appropriate form in English. Examples: *Belén/Bethlehem*; *Hong-Kong/Hong Kong*; *Irak/Iraq*; *Mogadiscio/Mogadishu*; *Karlsbad/Karlovy Vary*; *Naplouse/Nablus*; *Saïda/Sidon*.

- 5.16 *Countries/cities*. Watch out for the definite article when translating place names from French, as in the following table.

Country/territory	City/town
(<i>au</i>) <i>Gaza</i> — the Gaza Strip	(<i>à</i>) <i>Gaza</i> — Gaza
(<i>au</i>) <i>Guatemala</i> — Guatemala	(<i>à</i>) <i>Guatemala</i> — Guatemala City
(<i>au</i>) <i>Mexique</i> — Mexico	(<i>à</i>) <i>Mexico</i> — Mexico City
and NB in Spanish:	
<i>México</i> — Mexico	<i>México D.F.</i> — Mexico City

- 5.17 *Scandinavian/Nordic*. When referring to the countries of the Nordic Council, i.e. Denmark (including the Faeroes and Greenland), Finland (including Åland), Iceland, Norway and Sweden, use ‘Nordic’ rather than ‘Scandinavian’ in terms such as ‘Nordic countries’ or ‘Nordic cooperation’.

However, you may use ‘Scandinavia(n)’ if you do not need to be specific, though bear in mind the following points. In its narrow geographical interpretation, ‘Scandinavia’ refers to the two countries of the Scandinavian peninsula, i.e. Norway and Sweden. In practice, however, it includes Denmark and is often stretched to cover Finland. As a cultural term, ‘Scandinavian’ also embraces Iceland and the Faeroes. Note that ‘Scandinavian languages’ refers to the northern Germanic languages, i.e. Danish, Faeroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish, but not of course Finnish.

- 5.18 *Names of regions*. Regional names fall into three types.

- ◆ *Administrative units*. Anglicise only those names with translations in the [Country Compendium](#). Other names should be left in the native spelling, without inverted commas.

- ◆ *Traditional geographical names.* Anglicise if the English has wide currency, e.g. *the Black Forest*, *the Ruhr*. Otherwise retain original spelling and accents. Regional products are a frequent example:

a Rheinhessen wine, the eastern Périgord area, the Ardèche region (*NB: it is useful to add 'region' or 'area' in such cases*), Lüneburger Heide

- ◆ *Officially designated development areas.* Designated development areas are mostly derived from names of administrative units or from traditional geographical names, often with a defining adjective. Follow the appropriate rule above, e.g.:

Lower Bavaria; the Charentes development area

The name of the cross-border region *Euregio* is written with an initial capital only.

- 5.19 *Rivers.* Use the forms *Meuse* (*Maas* only if the context is solely Flanders or the Netherlands) and *Moselle* (*Mosel* only if the context is solely Germany). Write *Rhine* for *Rhein*, *Rhin*, and *Rijn*, and *Rhineland* for *Rheinland*. Also: *Oder* for *Odra* (*Polish and Czech*); *Tiber* for *Tevere*; *Tagus* for *Tajo/Tejo*. Note that the river called the *Labe* in Czech is known as the *Elbe* in English.

If included at all, the word 'river' normally precedes the proper name (*the River Thames*), unless it is regarded as an integral part of the name (*the Yellow River*). In either case, it takes a capital letter.

- 5.20 *Seas.* Anglicise seas (e.g. *the Adriatic*, *the North Sea*, *the Baltic*); *Greenland waters* implies official sea limits; use '*waters off Greenland*' if something else is meant.
- 5.21 *Lakes.* Use the English names *Lake Constance* (for *Bodensee*), *Lake Geneva* (for *Lac Léman*), *Lake Maggiore* (for *Lago Maggiore*) and *Lake Balaton* (for *Balaton*).
- 5.22 *Strait/straits.* The singular is the form commonly used in official names, for example: *Strait of Dover* or *Strait of Gibraltar*.
- 5.23 *Other bodies of water.* Write *IJsselmeer* (not *Ij-* or *Y-*), *Wattenmeer*, *Kattegat* (Danish), *Kattegatt* (Swedish), *Great/Little Belt*.
- 5.24 *Islands.* Islands are often administrative units in their own right, so leave in original spelling, except *Corsica*, *Sicily*, *Sardinia*, *the Canary Islands*, *the Azores* and Greek islands with accepted English spellings, such as *Crete*, *Corfu*, *Lesbos*.

Use *Fyn* rather than *Füinen* in English texts and use *West Friesian Islands* for *Waddeneilanden*.

- 5.25 *Mountains.* Anglicise the *Alps*, *Apennines* (one *p*), *Dolomites*, *Pindus Mountains*, and *Pyrenees* (no accents).

Do not anglicise *Massif Central* (except for capital *C*), *Alpes Maritimes* (capital *M*) or *Schwäbische Alb*.

Alpenvorland should be translated as the foothills of the Alps.

- 5.26 *Valleys.* Words for *valley* should be translated unless referring to an official region or local produce: the *Po valley*, *the Valle d'Aosta*, *Remstal wine*.
- 5.27 *Cities.* See the sections on individual countries in the [Country Compendium](#).
- 5.28 *Non-literal geographical names.* Geographical names used in lexicalised compounds tend to be lowercased, as they are no longer considered proper adjectives: *gum arabic*, *prussic acid*. Consult an up-to-date reliable dictionary in cases of doubt.
- 5.29 *Compass points.* Adjectival forms are not capitalised unless they form part of a proper name, e.g. an administrative or political unit or a distinct regional entity. Hence *southern Africa*, *northern France*, *eastern Europe* but *South Africa*, *Northern Ireland*, *East Indies*. Noun forms are capitalised when they refer to geopolitical concepts (*the West*, *the East*) or geographical concepts (*the North of England*, *the South of France*), but not otherwise (*the sun rises in the east and sets in the west*). Compass bearings are abbreviated without a point (*54° E*).

Compound compass points follow the same rule and are hyphenated, hence *south-eastern Europe* but *the North-West Passage*, *the North-East [of England, for instance]*; they are always abbreviated as capitals without points (*NW France*).

6 NUMBERS

WRITING OUT NUMBERS

- 6.1 *Figures or words?* Spell out the numbers *one* to *nine*, use digits thereafter; however, where numbers in a range fall above and below this limit use figures for both: '9 to 11', not 'nine to 11'.

Note that you should always use figures for statistics (3 new officials were appointed in 2015, 6 in 2016 and ...), for votes (12 delegations were in favour, 7 against, and 6 abstained), for ranges denoted by a hyphen (see [Ranges, 6.13-6.14](#)), and for serial numbers (Chapter 5, Article 9, Item 4) unless you are quoting a source that does otherwise (Part One of the EEC Treaty).

Always use figures with units of measurement that are denoted by symbols or abbreviations:

EUR 50, 250 kW, 205 µg, 5 °C

The converse does not hold. If the units of measurement are spelled out, the numbers do not also have to be spelled out but may be written with figures:

250 kilowatts, 500 metres.

With *hundred* and *thousand* there is a choice of using figures or words:

300 *or* three hundred **but not** 3 hundred

EUR 3 000 *or* three thousand euros **but not** EUR 3 thousand

Million, *billion* and *trillion*, however, may be combined with figures:

2.5 million, 3 million, 31 billion, 47 trillion

Figures must be used in a series of stated quantities:

6 kg, 11 metres, 28 000 tonnes

Note that the numbers 1 to 9 are not spelled out in the following cases: seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months, years, but *two decades*, *three centuries*.

As a rule, avoid combining single-digit figures and words using hyphens (a 2-hour journey) but write out instead:

a three-year period; the four-minute mile

But note set phrases such as:

40-hour week, 24-hour clock

When two numbers are adjacent, spell out one of them:

90 fifty-gram weights, seventy 25-cent stamps

- 6.2 A sentence starting with a figure will often look out of place. Consider writing it out in full or inverting the word order: ‘During 1992 ...’, ‘Altogether 92 cases were found ...’, ‘Of the total, EUR 55 million was spent on ...’ However, a sentence beginning with a percentage may start with a figure: ‘32 % of the funds ...’
- 6.3 *Grouping of thousands*. Do not use either commas or points but insert hard spaces¹ (4 000 000). Note that serial numbers are not grouped in thousands (p. 1452).
- 6.4 *Billion* is used to designate a thousand million (and not a million million) and *trillion* a million million. Note that the words *million*, *billion* and *trillion* can be combined with figures: 3 000 million.
- 6.5 *Abbreviating ‘million’ and ‘billion’*. Do not use abbreviations like *mio*, *bio*, *k*, *mill*. The letters *m* and *bn* can be used for sums of money to avoid frequent repetitions of *million*, *billion*; this applies particularly in tables where space is limited. The abbreviation is preceded by a hard space³ (examples: €230 000 *m*, \$370 000 *bn*, £490 *bn*). See also 8.2.

¹ In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

SERIAL NUMBERS

6.6 When the following styles of serial numbering are used in the original text, they should be retained in the translation:

- ◆ Roman numerals: I, II, III, IV, etc.
- ◆ capital letters: A, B, C, D, etc.
- ◆ Arabic numerals: 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.
- ◆ lower-case letters: (a), (b), (c), (d), etc.
- ◆ lower-case Roman numerals: (i), (ii), (iii), (iv), etc.

Punctuation conventions (e.g. a pair of brackets, just a closing bracket, or no brackets) vary between languages. For EU publications, the punctuation should be adapted according to the rules set out in the Interinstitutional style guide: see '[Subdivision of acts](#)' (for legal acts) and '[Divisions of the text](#)' (for general publications). For example, 'point a)' in French becomes 'point (a)' in English. When translating other documents, you may make the same adaptations or follow the conventions of the original, as long as you are consistent.

In texts written in other alphabets, upper- and lower-case letters used as serial numbers should be replaced in the translation by the equivalent upper- and lower-case Latin serial numbers. Note, however, that numbering conventions vary from language to language and place to place.

In EU texts, where the lower-case letters from a to z are used for the first 26 points, the next 26 points are labelled from aa to zz, then aaa to zzz and so on.

Bulgarian likewise uses the first 26 letters of its alphabet, from a to ш, followed by aa to шш, then aaa to шшш and so on. The last four letters of the alphabet (ѣ, ъ, ю, я) are ignored.

Greek, however, uses a decimal system.

- ◆ α), β), γ), δ), ε), στ), ζ), η), θ) represent units (from 1 to 9), translated as (a) to (i)
- ◆ ι), κ), λ), μ), ν), ξ), ο), π), ς) represent tens (from 10 to 90), translated as (j) to (lll)
- ◆ ρ), σ), τ), υ), φ), χ), ψ), ω), ρ) represent hundreds (from 100 to 900), so ρ is translated as (vvvv) and φ as (ffffffffffffffff), but such large serial numbers are rarely encountered.

The letters for hundreds, tens and units are combined, so ια) represents the 11th item and is translated as (k), and ρα) represents the 101st item and is translated as (www).

To find the equivalent lower-case letters to use in English, see the conversion tables in [Annex 2](#) (Greek numbering) and [Annex 4](#) (Bulgarian numbering).

FRACTIONS AND PERCENTAGES

- 6.7 *Fractions.* Insert hyphens when used as an adverb or adjective (*two-thirds complete, a two-thirds increase*) but not when used as a noun (*an increase of two thirds*).

Avoid combining figures and words:

two-thirds completed, **not** 2/3 completed

When using figures for a fraction, use the fraction symbol where possible and close it up to any previous figure, e.g. 1½ years.

- 6.8 *Decimal separator.* In English, the integral part of a number is separated from its fractional part by a point, not a comma as in other European languages. For technical reasons, however, the EU Publications Office will replace points with commas in English documents that are to appear in the *Official Journal of the European Union*.
- 6.9 *Percentages.* Note that *per cent* is normally written as two words in British English. Use *per cent* where the number is also spelled out in words: *twenty per cent*. With figures, use the per cent sign (%) preceded by a hard space,¹ e.g. 25 %. See also Section [6.4](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.
- 6.10 In statistics each decimal place, even if zero, adds to accuracy: 3.5 % is not the same as 3.50 % or 3½ %. The fraction is more approximate.
- 6.11 Make the distinction between % and the arithmetic difference between two percentages, i.e. percentage point(s): an increase from 5 % to 7 % is an increase of two percentage points (or an increase of 40 %), not an increase of 2 %.
- 6.12 Express percentage relationships in running text economically, especially when translating: *un taux de 65 % par rapport à la totalité des exportations en dehors de l'Union européenne* translates simply as 65 % of EU exports.

RANGES

- 6.13 *Written out.* When a range is written out, repeat symbols and multiples (i.e. thousand, million, etc.):
- from EUR 20 million to EUR 30 million
between 10 °C and 70 °C
- 6.14 *Abbreviated form.* When a range is indicated by a hyphen, do not repeat the symbol or multiple if they do not change and close up the hyphen between the figures:

¹ In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

€20-30 million, 10-70 °C

If the symbol or multiple changes, however, leave a blank space on either side of the hyphen:

100 kW - 40 MW

DATES AND TIMES

- 6.15 *Dates* in running text should always be given in their full form (6 June 2016¹), except for references to the OJ, which always take the short form (6.6.2016). For the short form, do not use leading zeros and write out the year in full. In footnotes, be consistent.

If the day of the week is included, e.g. Wednesday 15 May 2016, there is no comma after the day.

When translating a document that follows another convention and that is wanted for information purposes only, use your discretion but be consistent.

Note that in American usage, 23 July 2016 is 7.23.2016 and in the international dating system it is 2016-07-23.

- 6.16 *Avoiding redundancy.* If the year in question is absolutely clear from the context, the year number may be left out: *on 23 July 2016, the Committee adopted ... but subsequently on 2 August, it decided ...*

- 6.17 *Decades.* When referring to decades write *the 1990s* (no apostrophe; never use ‘the nineties’, etc.).

- 6.18 *Systems of chronology.* The letters *AD* come before the year number (*AD 2000*), whereas *BC* follows it (*347 BC*).

CE (Common Era), *BCE* (Before Common Era) and *BP* (Before Present) also follow the year number.

- 6.19 *Time spans.* Use a closed-up hyphen (see 3.30) for year ranges:

1939-1945, 2015-2021

but in legislative texts, use ‘to’ rather than a hyphen (2015 to 2021).

Remember, too, that 2015/2016 = one year: marketing year, financial year, academic year (see 2.36).

Note:

from 2015 to 2016 (*not*: from 2015-2016)

between 2015 and 2020 (*not*: between 2015-2020)

¹ Insert a hard space between the day and the month; Windows: Alt+0160; Word: Ctrl+Shift+Space.

2016 to 2021 inclusive (**not**: 2016-2021 inclusive)

6.20 *Dates as qualifiers.* Dates and time spans precede the expression they qualify:

the 2015-2019 work programme (**not**: the work programme 2015-2019)

the 2016/2017 financial year (**not**: the financial year 2016/2017)

the 2018 action plan (**not**: the action plan 2018)

the 2014 annual report (**not**: the annual report 2014)

However, note the following:

Investments in ***the period*** 2006-2010 amounted to over €20 million.

Here, the date range is not being used adjectivally to qualify the word ‘period’ because 2006-2010 *is* the period. The above sentence could just as well have been written as follows:

Investments in the period from 2006 to 2010 amounted to over €20 million.

Investments in the period between 2006 and 2010 amounted to over €20 million.

Investments from 2006 to 2010 amounted to over €20 million.

The date range could be placed first if the intention is to emphasise that the reference is to a particular period as opposed to another. For example:

Investments amounted to over €20 million in the 2006-2010 period but fell to just under €10 million in the 2011-2015 period.

6.21 *Time.* Use the 24-hour system (or 12-hour system with a.m. and p.m.).

Write 17.30 without h or hrs (or 5.30 p.m.) (always use a point).

Avoid leading zeros (e.g. 9.00 **not** 09.00).

The full hour is written with zero minutes: 12.00 (midday), 14.00, 24.00 (midnight). When using the 12-hour system, write 2 p.m., 2 o’clock or 2.30 p.m., but not 2.00 p.m.

6.22 For duration use *h*:

The time allowed for the test is 2½ h.

6.23 Distinguish *summertime* (the season) from *summer time*, e.g. *British Summer Time (BST)*.

7 ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS AND UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

ABBREVIATIONS

7.1 *General.* The prime consideration when using abbreviations should be to help the reader. First, then, they should be easily understood. So when an

abbreviation that may not be familiar to readers first occurs, it is best to write out the full term followed by the abbreviation in brackets:

The emissions trading scheme (ETS) should enable the EU to meet its Kyoto target.

If your document contains a lot of abbreviations, consider including a list of them and their meanings at the beginning or end of the document.

Secondly, they should not be used needlessly. If an abbreviation occurs only once or twice, it is best to dispense with it altogether and use the full form. In repeated references, it is also often possible to use a short form instead of an abbreviation:

The emissions trading scheme is now in operation throughout the EU ... The scheme will involve constant monitoring of emissions trading activities.

Lastly, an abbreviation in an original for translation should not be rendered by an improvised one in English (e.g. repeated references to ‘*VM*’ in an Estonian text should be spelled out as ‘*the Foreign Ministry*’ or just ‘*the Ministry*’ rather than something like ‘*FM*’).

- 7.2 *Definitions.* Abbreviations in the broad sense can be classed into two main categories, each in turn divided into two sub-categories:

Acronyms and initialisms

- ◆ **Acronyms** are words formed from the first (or first few) letters of a series of words, and are pronounced as words (examples include: *Benelux*, *NATO*). They never take points.
- ◆ **Initialisms** are formed from the initial letters of a series of words, usually written without points, and each separate letter is pronounced (examples include: *BBC*, *MEP*, *USA*).

Contractions and truncations

- ◆ **Contractions** omit the middle of a word (examples include: *Mr*, *Dr*, *contd*, *Ltd*) and, in British usage, are not followed by a point.
- ◆ **Truncations** omit the end of a word (examples include: *vol.*, *co.*, *inc.*) and sometimes other letters as well (*cf.*), and end in a point.

- 7.3 *Writing acronyms.*

Acronyms with **up to five letters** are uppercased:

AIDS, COST, ECHO, EFTA, NASA, NATO, SHAPE, TRIPS

Exceptions: *Tacis* and *Phare*, which are no longer considered acronyms

Acronyms with **six letters or more** should normally be written with an initial capital followed by lower case. Thus:

Benelux, Esprit, Helios, Interreg, Resider

Exceptions: organisations that themselves use upper case (such as UNESCO and UNCTAD) and other acronyms conventionally written in upper case (such as WYSIWYG)

Some acronyms can be written in mixed case to emphasise the words of which they are composed:

EuroVoc, RegioStars

Note, however, that some acronyms eventually become common nouns, losing even the initial capital, e.g. *laser*, *radar* or *sonar*.

7.4 *Writing initialisms.*

Initialisms are usually written in capitals, whatever their length, and usually take no points:

EEA, EAGGF, EMCDDA, UNHCR, WTO, also AD for *Anno Domini* and NB for *Nota Bene*

If the full expressions are lower-case or mixed-case, however, the initialisms may follow suit:

n/a, aka, BAe (British Aerospace), cif, fob, MoD, PhD, TfL (Transport for London)

To ensure clarity, initialisms written in lower case may take points or be italicised:

f.o.b. or *fob*, c.i.f. or *cif*

Note that ‘e.g.’ and ‘i.e.’ are never capitalised (even at the beginning of footnotes) and always take points. In contrast, ‘plc’ (public limited company) is usually without points even if written in lower case.

7.5 *Writing truncations.*

Truncations take a point at the end:

Jan., Sun., Co., fig., etc., cf., chap., dict., *ibid*.

Note also: St. (= Street; as distinguished from the contraction St = Saint) *and* p. = page (*plural:* pp.); l. = line (*plural:* ll.); f. = following page (*plural:* ff.).

Note that any plural forms are regarded as truncations rather than contractions, so also take a point:

chs. 7 to 9, figs. 1 to 3

However, truncated forms used as codes or symbols, e.g. *EN*, *kg*, do not take points (see also 7.19 and 7.28). Further, no point is used after the *v* in the names of court cases (*Smith v Jones*) and sporting contests. The abbreviation *No* for ‘number’ (*plural Nos*) also has no final point, as it is in fact a **contraction** of the Latin *numero*.

Note that first names should be abbreviated with a single letter only, followed by a point (*Philippe: P., Theodor: T.*). Multiple initials should normally be written with points and separated by a hard space¹ (*J. S. Bach*). For compound first names, use both initials (*Jean-Marie: J.-M.*). See, however, 5.1.

As in the case of *e.g.* and *i.e.*, some common truncations are traditionally never written in upper case — even at the beginning of a footnote (*c. [=circa], p., pp., l., ll. [= line/s]*).

- 7.6 *Indefinite article.* Apply the rule ‘*a* before a consonant, *an* before a vowel’ as if the abbreviation following the article were being spoken:

a UN resolution, a WTO representative, a NATO decision, *but* an NGO

- 7.7 *Definite/indefinite article.*

Acronyms constituting proper names do not take the definite article even if the full names do (*Cenelec, NATO, UNESCO*). Where used as common nouns, however, they take a definite (or indefinite) article as necessary (*a/the BLOB, WASP*).

Initialisms generally take the definite article if the expression they stand for does (*the OECD, the WTO, but TNT*). However, established usage may be different, particularly for the names of companies (ICI, IBM, etc.) and universities (UEA, UCL, etc.).

- 7.8 *Plurals.* Plurals of abbreviations are formed in the usual way by adding a lower-case ‘s’. They do not take an apostrophe unless they are in the possessive:

MEPs, DGs, ICTs, OCTs, PhDs, SMEs, UFOs

but

MEPs’ salaries

While an abbreviation ending in ‘S’ should also take an ‘s’ for the plural form, e.g. *SOSs*, this may look clumsy if used frequently within the same text. In such cases, one possibility is to allow the abbreviation to stand for both the singular and the plural form, e.g. *PES* (public employment service(s)) or *RES* (renewable energy source(s)), though care should always be taken to avoid ambiguity and the full plural term may be preferable.

- 7.9 *Foreign-language abbreviations.* Untranslated foreign-language abbreviations should retain the capitalisation conventions of the original (e.g. GmbH).

- 7.10 *Use of e.g. and i.e.* Like all Latin abbreviations (see 9.4), these should be written in roman:

e.g., i.e.

¹ In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

Use a comma, colon, or dash before *e.g.* and *i.e.*, but no comma after them. If a footnote begins with them, they nevertheless remain in lower case. If a list begins with *e.g.* do not end it with *etc.*

- 7.11 *Specific recommendations.* Do not use the abbreviation *viz.*, but use *namely* instead. The abbreviation *cf.*, however, is acceptable and need not be changed to *see*.

Article may be abbreviated to *Art.* and *Member State* to *MS* in footnotes or tables, but this should be avoided in running text.

MATHEMATICAL SYMBOLS

- 7.12 *Foreign-language conventions.* Remember that languages may have different conventions as regards their use of mathematical symbols, especially those for multiplication, division, and subtraction.

Many mathematical symbols also have several different meanings according to the context.

- 7.13 *Multiplication sign.* Change a point or a raised dot used as a multiplication sign to \times or $*$, e.g. $2.6 \cdot 10^{18}$ becomes 2.6×10^{18} or $2.6 * 10^{18}$. A point used in an algebraic expression can be omitted, e.g. $2.A = 2.\pi.r^2$ can be written $2A = 2\pi r^2$.

Note, however, that a raised dot can have other meanings too (see [Wikipedia](#)).

- 7.14 *Division sign.* In the English-speaking world, the commonest symbols for division are \div , $/$, and $/$ (obelus,¹ slash, and solidus or division slash²). In other countries $:$ (colon) is very widely used to denote division.

Note that in some countries (Norway, for one) \div can denote subtraction (!), and in Italy it can also denote a range (e.g. $40 \% \div 50 \%$ means 40 to 50 per cent).

- 7.15 *Open dashes.* Use a hyphen, not a dash, to signify a range (e.g. $10\text{--}12 \%$). Note the remark concerning Italian usage in 7.14. See also 2.16 on dashes.

- 7.16 *Technical tolerances.* Do not use \pm (ASCII 241) to mean ‘about’ or ‘approximately’. Use it only for technical tolerances.

SCIENTIFIC SYMBOLS AND UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

- 7.17 *General.* Most scientific symbols in current use are interlingual forms and do not require any adaptation when writing in English. In the specific case of weights and measures, the International System of Units (SI – *Système International*) has now been adopted almost universally for science and

¹ You will find it in the Latin-1 character set after the letter ö, using *Insert > Symbol ...* in Word.

² In the Mathematical Operators character set, using *Insert > Symbol ...* in Word.

technology, as well as generally for trade and industry in the EU. For further guidance, see the UK Metric Association's '[Measurement units style guide](#)'.

- 7.18 *Names of measurement units.* Names of basic and derived units of measurement are always lowercased even if they are derived from a personal name, e.g. *ampere*, *kelvin*, *hertz*, *newton*, *pascal*, *watt*, *siemens*, *becquerel*. They have normal plurals in -s: *250 volts*, *50 watts*, etc.

Note that proper names used adjectivally retain their initial capital: Richter scale, Mach number, degree Celsius.

- 7.19 *Symbols for units of measurement.* These are normally abridged forms of the names of these units. They are written without points, do not have plurals, and are separated from preceding figures by a hard space¹ (*4 ha*, *9 m*, *60 km*, *50 km/h*, *200 g*, *5 kg*, *40 t*, *20 bar*, *55 dB (A)*, *2 000 kc/s*).

- 7.20 *Capitalisation/lowercasing of symbols.* The initial letter of symbols for SI units derived from personal names is always capitalised: *Hz* (*hertz*), *Bq* (*becquerel*), *N* (*newton*), *K* (*kelvin*), *A* (*ampere/amp*), *Ω* (*ohm*), etc. Symbols for units derived from common nouns are always lowercased: *g* (*gram*), *kg* (*kilogram*), *lm* (*lumen*), *lx* (*lux*), *mol* (*mole*), *cd* (*candela*), etc. In both cases the symbols are the same for singular and plural.

- 7.21 *Internal capitals.* Symbols for units of measurement that start with a capital letter keep the capital internally when used with a prefix: *kHz*, *MHz*, *eV*, etc.

- 7.22 *Use of prefixes.* When adding prefixes to units, you should normally link either symbols only or full-forms only: thus *kilohertz* or *kHz* but not *kiloHz* or *khertz*. Exceptions are made for some frequently used terms: *ktonnes/Mtonnes*, *kbits/Mbytes*.

- 7.23 *Non-SI units of measurement.* Some non-metric units of measurement are still permitted for certain purposes, e.g. the *pint* in Ireland and the UK and *miles* and *yards* in the UK. Greece uses the *stremma* (1 000 square metres), plural *stremmata*, for land measurement. Aircraft altitudes are often expressed in *feet* (ft). Do not convert quantities, although an explanatory footnote may be inserted if appropriate.

- 7.24 *Degree sign.* The degree sign in temperatures should be preceded by a hard space,² e.g. *25 °C*. In other cases, the degree sign is closed up with the preceding number (e.g. *65°NE*). See also [Section 6.4](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.

- 7.25 *Ohm.* The ohm symbol is capital omega (Ω). All other SI symbols for units of measurement are formed from unaccented Latin characters.

¹ In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

² In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

- 7.26 *Computing.* Where computers are concerned, *K (kilo)*, *M (mega)* and *G (giga)* often stand for binary thousands ($1\,024=2^{10}$), millions ($1\,048\,576=2^{20}$) and billions ($1\,073\,741\,824=2^{30}$), respectively. Note the capital K in this usage.
- 7.27 *Electric power.* *Kilowatt (kW)* and *megawatt (MW)* are used for generating capacity, *kWh* and *MWh* for output over a given period.
- 7.28 *Chemical elements.* The [names of the chemical elements](#) start with a lowercase letter, including elements whose designations are derived from proper names: *californium*, *einsteinium*, *nobelium*, etc. Their symbols (which are interlingual) consist of either a single capital or a capital and small letter (*N*, *Sn*, *U*, *Pb*, *Mg*, *Z*) without a point.
- 7.29 In shipping, *grt* stands for gross register tonnage (not *registered*) and *gt* for gross tonnage.

8 CURRENCIES

- 8.1 *Currency abbreviations.* The main currency codes are set out in [Annex A7](#) to the Interinstitutional style guide. An exhaustive list of codes can be found in ISO 4217.
- 8.2 The currency abbreviation precedes the amount and is followed by a hard space:¹⁰
- EUR 2 400; USD 2 billion
- The symbol also precedes the amount but is closed up to the figure (see also [6.5](#)):
- €120 000; £78 000; \$100 m
- 8.3 *Units and subunits.* Use a point to separate units from subunits:
- €7.20; \$50.75; EUR 2.4 billion; USD 1.8 billion
- 8.4 *The euro.* Like ‘pound’, ‘dollar’ or any other currency name in English, the word ‘euro’ is written in lower case with no initial capital. Where appropriate, it takes the plural ‘s’ (as does ‘cent’):
- This book costs ten euros and fifty cents
- However, in documents and tables where monetary amounts figure largely, make maximum use of the € symbol or the abbreviation EUR.

9 FOREIGN IMPORTS

FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES IN ENGLISH TEXT

- 9.1 Foreign words and phrases used in an English text should be italicised (no inverted commas) and should have the appropriate accents:

acquis, carte blanche, Länder, raison d'être

Not all foreign words are italicised, however; a number have been assimilated into current English and are written in roman:

alias, démarche, detour, ad hoc, per capita, per se, vis-à-vis, etc.

Italics should not be used for proper names, names of persons, institutions, places, etc.

- 9.2 Personal names should retain their original accents, e.g. Cañete, Malmström, Šefčovič.

- 9.3 *Quotations.* Place verbatim quotations in foreign languages in quotation marks without italicising the text.

- 9.4 *Latin abbreviations and phrases.* Latin should be used sparingly as even common phrases are often misused or misunderstood. When faced with such phrases as a translator, check whether they have the same currency and meaning when used in English.

Write all Latin abbreviations in roman:

e.g., et al., et seq., ibid., i.e., NB, op. cit.

Latin words should usually be printed in italics (e.g. *ex ante*), but certain common Latin phrases take roman (refer to the *New Oxford Dictionary for Writers and Editors* for italic or roman style).

Examples of roman:

ad hoc, ad infinitum, per capita, pro forma, status quo

Latin phrases are not hyphenated when used adjectivally, e.g. ad hoc meeting.

The expression 'per diem' ('daily allowance') and many others have English equivalents, which should be preferred e.g. 'a year' or '/year' rather than 'per annum'.

ROMANISATION SYSTEMS

- 9.5 *Greek.* Use the ELOT phonetic standard for transliteration, except where a classical rendering is more familiar or appropriate in English. Both the ELOT standard and the classical transliteration conventions, along with further

recommendations and notes, are reproduced in [Annex 1 — Transliteration Table for Greek](#).

- 9.6 *Cyrillic*. When transliterating for EU documents, use the scheme set out in [Annex 3 — Transliteration Table for Cyrillic](#). (Note that the ‘soft sign’ and ‘hard sign’ should be omitted.) Remember that the EU languages have different transliteration systems (DE: *Boschurischte*, *Tschernobyl*; FR: *Bojourichté*, *Tchernobyl*; EN: *Bozhurishte*, *Chernobyl*). An internet search will normally reveal whether there is a more commonly used English transliteration which is acceptable for particular proper names. For other languages, see e.g. the [Wikipedia entry on Cyrillic](#).

- 9.7 *Arabic*. There are many different transliteration systems, but an internet search will normally reveal the most commonly used English spelling convention. When translating, do not always rely on the form used in the source text. For example, French, German or Dutch writers may use *j* where *y* is needed in English or French (e.g. DE: *Scheich Jamani* = EN: *Sheikh Yamani*). Note spellings of *Maghreb* and *Mashreq*.

The article *Al* and variants should be capitalised at the beginning of names but not internally: *Dhu al Faqar*, *Abd ar Rahman*. Do not use hyphens to connect parts of a name

- 9.8 *Chinese*. The pinyin romanisation system introduced by the People’s Republic in the 1950s has now become the internationally accepted standard. Important new spellings to note are:

Beijing	(Peking)
Guangzhou	(Canton)
Nanjing	(Nanking)
Xinjiang	(Sinkiang)

The spelling of *Shanghai* remains the same.

Add the old form in parentheses if you think it necessary.

10 PARTS OF SPEECH

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

- 10.1 *Biannual/biennial*. ‘Biannual’ means twice a year and ‘biennial’ means every two years, but the terms are often confused. If the meaning is not clear from the context, use alternatives such as ‘twice-yearly’ or ‘two-yearly’ or clarify what you mean, e.g. ‘the biannual/biennial report (i.e. published every six months / two years)’.

- 10.2 *Here-/there- adverbs.* *Herewith, thereto*, etc. are archaic or extremely formal variants of *with this, to that*, etc. and should normally be avoided. If you feel you must use such forms, however, bear the following points in mind: *here-*adverbs should preferably be used only where they specifically refer to ‘the present text’, as for example in *hereto attached* or *herein described*; *hereinafter* is more precise than *hereafter* if what you mean is ‘from this point onwards within this text’; *therefor* without a final ‘e’ is how you write ‘for that (purpose)’.

NOUNS: SINGULAR OR PLURAL

- 10.3 *Collective nouns* take the singular when the emphasis is on the whole entity:

The government is considering the matter.

The Commission was not informed.

Use the plural when the emphasis is on individual members:

The police have failed to trace the goods.

A majority of the Committee were in favour.

- 10.4 *Sums of money* can take a singular or plural verb:

EUR 2 million were/was made available.

- 10.5 *Percentages and fractions* of countable nouns take a plural verb:

Three quarters of the flowers were used.

75 % of the flowers were used.

but uncountable nouns take a singular verb:

Three quarters of the flour was used.

75 % of the flour was used.

- 10.6 *Decimal fractions and zero.* When referring to countable items, they take the plural:

Ruritanian households have on average 0 / 0.5 / 1.0 (!) / 1.5 televisions (*but* 1 television)

- 10.7 *Countries and organisations* with a plural name take the singular:

The Netherlands is reconsidering its position.

The United Nations was unable to reach agreement.

- 10.8 *Words ending in -ics* are singular when used to denote a scientific discipline or body of knowledge (mathematics, statistics, economics) but plural in all other contexts:

Economics is commonly regarded as a soft science.

The economics of the new process were studied in depth.

- 10.9 *A statistic.* The singular *statistic* is a back-formation from the plural and means an individual item of data from a set of statistics.
- 10.10 *Data* can be used as a plural or a singular noun.
- 10.11 *The media* (in the sense of ‘radio, TV and the press collectively’) can be construed as either singular or plural. In other senses *media* should be construed as plural.
- 10.12 *None and one.* The word *none* may take either a singular or plural verb when it refers to a plural countable noun:

None of the products meets/meet the requirements.

If *none* refers to a singular or uncountable noun, it takes a singular verb:

None of the information was correct.

Although the subject *one in X* (e.g. *one in five*, *one in ten*) is singular, the construction may take a plural verb if the notional agreement (i.e. the sense that the subject should be interpreted as plural) is stronger than the grammatical agreement:

One in ten people do not have basic maths skills.

One person in ten does not have basic maths skills.

One in five schools in England and Wales is/are struggling to recruit a headteacher.

- 10.13 *Multiple subject.* Use a singular verb when a multiple subject clearly forms a whole:

Checking and stamping the forms is the job of the customs authorities.

VERBS: PRESENT PERFECT/SIMPLE PAST

- 10.14 When writing from the standpoint of the present moment in time, the present perfect is used to refer to events or situations in the period leading up to that time:

The Commission is meeting to consider the proposal. It has (already) discussed this several times in the past.

Where the starting point of this period is indicated, the present perfect is often used in its continuous form to emphasise the ongoing nature of the process:

The Commission is meeting to consider the proposal. It has been discussing this since 2015.

If the reference is not to a period up to the present but to a time that ended before the present, the simple past is used:

The Commission is meeting to consider the proposal. It discussed this last week.

VERBS: TENSES IN MINUTES

- 10.15 *Sequence of tenses.* Unlike in some other languages, minutes and the like in English are written as reported speech, with the past tense replacing the present and the other tenses shifting accordingly. For example:

Dutch spokesman: ‘We *are* concerned by the number of exceptions which *have been* included.’

Chairman: ‘The legal experts *will be* looking into this question.’

In reported speech, this becomes:

The Dutch delegation *was* concerned by the number of exceptions that *had been* included. The Chairman said the legal experts *would be* looking into the question.

Similarly, the simple past is normally replaced by past perfect (pluperfect):

Dr Nolde said the tests *had been* a failure.

- 10.16 *Avoiding clumsy repetition.* To avoid a clumsy string of past perfects where a speaker is reporting on another meeting or event, start with *At that meeting* or *On that occasion* and continue with the simple past. Note that indications of time may have to be converted as well as verbs:

Chair: ‘*Last year*, if you remember, we referred this problem to the subcommittee because we felt that legislation was inappropriate. It looks now, however, as if tougher measures may be needed, and I propose that we discuss these at *tomorrow’s* session.’

This could become, for example:

The Chair reminded delegates that the problem had been referred to the subcommittee *the previous year/in 2014*, since at the time legislation was felt to be inappropriate. Now, however, she thought tougher measures might be needed and proposed that the committee discuss them at *the following day’s* session.’

- 10.17 *Auxiliaries.* The auxiliaries *would, should, could, must, might* are often unchanged, but sometimes various transpositions are possible or required (e.g. *must => had to; could => would be able to; should => was to*).
- 10.18 *Streamlining.* Lengthy passages of reported speech can be made more reader-friendly by avoiding unnecessary repetition of ‘he said/explained/pointed out’, provided the argument is followed through and it is clear from the context that the same speaker is continuing.

VERBS: USAGE IN LEGAL TEXTS

- 10.19 The use of verbs in legislation, contracts, and the like often gives rise to problems, especially when it comes to the verb *shall*, since it is not used in this way in everyday speech. Some guidance is given below, which we hope will be helpful, even if the need to be reasonably brief means that it cannot be exhaustive.

- 10.20 *Verbs in enacting terms.* The enacting terms of EU legislation (articles) can be divided broadly into three categories: imperative, permissive, and declarative. Imperative and permissive provisions can be positive or negative. They require or oblige (imperative) or allow (permissive) someone to do or not to do something. Declarative provisions are those that are implemented directly by virtue of being declared, for example definitions or amendments.

Important: the explanations in points 10.21-10.25 apply only to **main clauses** in enacting terms. Where **subordinate clauses** are concerned, see 10.26 (Non-enacting terms and subordinate clauses).

- 10.21 *Positive imperative.* To impose an obligation or a requirement, EU legislation uses *shall*.

The T2 declaration form shall be used for all such consignments.

The following products shall be clearly labelled, indicating ...

Here, *shall* means the same as *must*. In contrast with EU usage, most English-speaking countries now generally use *must* instead of *shall*. So you may do the same when translating non-EU legislation as long as you do so consistently.

- 10.22 *Negative imperative.* To impose a prohibition, EU legislation uses *shall not*.

The President of the European Council shall not hold a national office.

Assessors shall not engage in any activity that may prejudice their independence.

Food shall not be placed on the market if it is unsafe.

By analogy, the same remark as in 10.21 applies with respect to *shall not* and *must not*.

Do not use *may not* for a prohibition, despite the many occurrences that can be found, since it could be interpreted as expressing possibility.

- 10.23 *Positive permission.* To give permission to do something, EU legislation uses *may*:

This additive may be used ...

This is equivalent to saying *use of this additive is permitted*.

- 10.24 *Negative permission.* To give permission not to do something, EU legislation uses *need not*:

This test need not be performed in the following cases:

- 10.25 *Declarative provisions.* EU legislation uses the simple present for definitions and where the provision constitutes direct implementation (possibly adding ‘hereby’, as in the examples below):

For the purpose of this Regulation, ‘abnormal loads’ means ... [definition]

A committee ... is (hereby) established.

Article 3 of Regulation ... is (hereby) amended as follows:

This Regulation applies to aid granted to enterprises in the fisheries sector.

However, where a provision applies to the future or is contingent on a future event, the verb used is *shall*:

This Regulation shall enter into force on ...

The provisions of the Charter shall not extend in any way the competences of the Union as defined in the Treaties.

Should the Member States so decide, this requirement shall no longer apply.

This agreement shall not enter into force until it has been ratified by at least six of the parties.

- 10.26 *Non-enacting terms, subordinate clauses and indirect quotations.* Do not use *shall* in non-enacting terms such as recitals or annexes (but see 10.27 below) or in subordinate clauses in enacting terms. The same also applies to indirect quotations or paraphrases of provisions. Use an appropriate alternative such as *must*, *has/have to*, *is/are required to*.

The requirement may be waived if the agent **has to** register with the national certifying authority ... [recital]

Any items that do not meet these standards **must** be destroyed. [annex]

Applicants who **are required to** register under paragraph 1 shall do so within 10 days. [subordinate clause in an article]

Article 114(5) clearly states that a Member State **must** notify the Commission if it deems it necessary to introduce national provisions ... [indirect quotation/paraphrase]

Do not use *may not* for a prohibition in non-enacting terms, as it could be taken to mean a negative possibility. Use an alternative such as *must not* instead.

- 10.27 *Instructions in annexes.* Use a simple imperative rather than *shall* for commands:

Place a sample in a round-bottomed flask ...

Use *must* to express objective necessity:

The sample must be chemically pure ... (i.e. if it isn't, the procedure won't work properly)

VERBS: SPLIT INFINITIVE

- 10.28 A split infinitive is where one or more adverbs etc. are inserted between 'to' and the verb, as in 'to boldly go where no man has gone before'. It is not grammatically wrong to do this, despite what many people think. Nevertheless, a sentence will usually read better if the adverb is placed before or after the infinitive:

He told me he wanted to give up his business completely.

(rather than: ... he wanted to completely give up his business)

Take care, however, *not* to qualify the wrong verb or create ambiguity, as in:

We persuaded her legally to halt the practice.

Altogether, it is usually better to rephrase the sentence in these and similar cases:

We persuaded her to take legal action to halt the practice.

VERBS: THE -ING FORM AND THE POSSESSIVE

- 10.29 Where the -ing form of a verb is used with a subject of its own, that subject ('the printer' in the examples below) can be in the object case¹ or in the possessive (genitive):

The printer/printer's going bankrupt delayed publication.

Publication was delayed by the printer/printer's going bankrupt.

Publication could be delayed by him/his/her going bankrupt.

The modern tendency, perhaps, is to favour the object case. However, in certain instances only the one or the other is possible. There can also be a subtle difference in meaning between the two possibilities. All in all, usage with this kind of construction is too complex to cover in detail here. If necessary, consult a reputable modern grammar² for guidance.

To avoid any difficulty or ambiguity it is often better to rephrase the sentence:

Publication was delayed because the printer went bankrupt.

Publication could be delayed if he/she were to go bankrupt.

Publication could be delayed because he/she has gone bankrupt.

11 LISTS

- 11.1 Use automatic numbering wherever possible, since it is much easier to amend a list if the numbers are automatically adjusted.

For the list items themselves, take care that each is a grammatically correct continuation of the introduction to the list. Do not change syntactical horses in midstream, for example by switching from noun to verb. Avoid running the sentence on after the list of points, either by incorporating the final phrase in the introductory sentence or by starting a new sentence.

When translating lists, always use the same type of numbering as in the original, e.g. Arabic numerals, small letters or Roman numerals. If the original has bullets or dashes, use these. However, you need not use the same punctuation (points, brackets, etc.) for list numbers, and indeed should not do

¹ Commonly known as the accusative. Only some of the pronouns have a distinctive form: me, him, her, us, them.

² Such as the *Oxford Modern English Grammar* or the *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*.

so if they would otherwise look the same as numbered headings elsewhere in the text.

The four basic types of list are illustrated below. In multi-level lists, follow the same rules for each level.

- 11.2 *Lists of short items* (without main verbs) should be introduced by a full sentence and have the following features:
- ◆ introductory colon
 - ◆ no initial capitals
 - ◆ no punctuation (very short items) or comma after each item
 - ◆ a full stop at the end.
- 11.3 *Where each item completes* the introductory sentence, you should:
- begin with the introductory colon;
 - label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
 - end each item with a semicolon;
 - close with a full stop.
- 11.4 *If all items are complete statements* without a grammatical link to the introductory sentence, proceed as follows:
- a. introduce the list with a colon;
 - b. label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
 - c. start each item with a lowercase letter;
 - d. end each one with a semicolon;
 - e. put a full stop at the end.
- 11.5 If any one item consists of several complete sentences, announce the list with a complete sentence and continue as indicated below:
- 1) Introduce the list with a colon.
 - 2) Label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter.
 - 3) Begin each item with a capital letter.
 - 4) End each statement with a full stop. This allows several sentences to be included under a single item without throwing punctuation into confusion.

12 LEGAL LANGUAGE

- 12.1 *References to legal provisions.* For references to legal provisions such as the French ‘selon l’article X’, English uses a more targeted set of formulas than most languages. To find the appropriate one, you need to know what the

provision does. Bear in mind that there is no single right way. Still, these tips should save you some time and effort.

If the provision cited...	use
lays down a procedure or a requirement	in accordance with in compliance with in line with on the basis of under the terms of as required by under
lays down an objective	pursuant to
enables or empowers	by virtue of on the basis of
provides the grounds of an argument	on the grounds of
mentions a term, but does not define it	within the meaning of as referred to in as used in
defines a term	within the meaning of as defined in
does anything else	under

Because you cannot use ‘shall’ (in the sense of ‘must’ or ‘be required to’) outside enacting terms of legislation, you cannot write: ‘Under Article X, A shall do B’. Instead, use: ‘Under Article X, A must/has to do B’ or ‘Article X requires A to do B’.

For the use of ‘shall’ in legislation, see [10.19-10.27](#).

13 FOOTNOTES, CITATIONS AND REFERENCES

- 13.1 *Footnote and endnote references.* To achieve uniformity across language versions, the Publications Office places footnote references in brackets before punctuation (see [Section 8.1](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide). Follow this practice when drafting, editing or translating texts destined for the Publications Office. However, when translating a document which follows a different convention and is not destined for the Publications Office, there is no need to change the style or position of references merely to comply with this convention. In English documents, footnote/endnote references are often given as superscript numerals without brackets following punctuation.
- 13.2 *Positioning of footnote/endnote numbers referring to legislation.* Put the footnote number immediately after the title of the instrument.

- 13.3 *Punctuation in footnotes.* In footnotes themselves, begin the text with a capital letter (exceptions being e.g., i.e. and p.) and end it with a full stop (whether the footnote is a single word, a phrase or one or more complete sentences), except where the footnote consists solely of an internet or email address.
- 13.4 *Bibliographical citations.* If authoring for an EU institution, see [Section 5.5.4](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide. If translating, follow the source document conventions. See also [Citation of cases of the Court of Justice of the European Union](#).
- 13.5 *Citations.* Put titles of free-standing publications (books, periodicals, newspapers, etc.) in italics but cite titles of chapters and articles within such publications in single quotation marks. Use the English titles of publications where an official English version exists but do not translate titles of works that have appeared only in a foreign language.

Use quotation marks to cite quotations from periodicals, books and newspapers rather than italics. The simultaneous use of italics and quotation marks must be avoided.

- 13.6 *Citing EU documents.* Italicise the titles of white and green papers. Separate the main title and the subtitle, if any, with an *em* dash. Use initial capitals on the first and all significant words in the main title and on the first word in the subtitle. Launch straight into the italicised title: do not introduce it with ‘on’, ‘concerning’, ‘entitled’, etc.

In the white paper *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment — The challenges and ways forward into the twenty-first century*, the Commission set out a strategy ...

The white paper *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment* was the first ...

In *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment*, on the other hand, the Commission set in motion ... [*this form might work where the white paper had already been mentioned, for example, or in an enumeration*]

The green paper *Towards Fair and Efficient Pricing in Transport — Policy options for internalising the external costs of transport in the European Union*

The *Green Paper on Innovation* [*‘Green Paper on’ is part of its title*]

Do the same with the titles of other policy statements and the like that are published in their own right:

the communication *An Industrial Competitiveness Policy for the European Union* [published as Bull. Suppl. 3/94]

the communication *Agenda 2000: For a stronger and wider Union* [*when the reference is to the title of the document, which was published in Bull. Suppl. 5/97; but of course we would probably say ‘an Agenda 2000 priority’ for example*]

If a policy statement has a title, but has not as far as you know been published, put the title in inverted commas:

the communication ‘A European Strategy for Encouraging Local Development and Employment Initiatives’ [*this appeared in OJ C 265 of 12 October 1995,*

and its title is cast like the title of a book, but it does not seem to have been published in its own right]

‘Communications’ that are not policy statements, such as the announcements which regularly appear in the Official Journal (OJ), get no italics, inverted commas, or special capitalisation:

the Commission communication in the framework of the implementation of Council Directive 89/686/EEC of 21 December 1989 in relation to personal protective equipment, as amended by Council Directives 93/68/EEC, 93/95/EEC and 96/58/EC [OJ C 180 of 14 June 1997]

- 13.7 *Referring to parts of documents.* When referring to parts of documents which only have a number or title, use an appropriate term, e.g. part, section or point, to refer to them or simply use the number or title, for example:

See [point] 6.4 below

See [the section on] *The sexual life of the camel* on page 21

See [Section] 4.2.1

For the use of initial capitals, see [4.12](#).

Do not use a symbol such as a section mark (§, plural §§) unless the section referred to is itself marked by such a symbol (see also [19.30](#)).

14 CORRESPONDENCE

- 14.1 *Translating incoming letters.* If a letter is in an editable electronic format, simply overtype the original, though you need not translate irrelevant detail. However, if the letter cannot be overtyped, use a simple layout such as follows:

Letter from:

(name and, where necessary, address on one line)

Date:

To:

Subject:

Ref.:

Text of the letter *(no opening or closing formula)*

- 14.2 *Drafting and translating outgoing letters.* Remember the basic pairs for opening and closing letters:

Dear Sir/Madam ... Yours faithfully

Dear Mr/Ms/Dr Bloggs ... Yours sincerely

The tendency is towards greater use of the second, less formal, pair when the correspondent's name is known. It should certainly be used in letters of reply to individuals.

Note that commas should be placed either after both opening **and** closing formula, or after **neither**.

14.3 *Agreements in the form of an exchange of letters*

Letter 1

Start:

Sir/Your Excellency,
I have the honour ...

Close:

I should be obliged if you would inform me whether/confirm that your Government is in agreement with the above.
Please accept, Sir/Your Excellency, the assurance of my highest consideration.

Letter 2

Start:

Sir/Your Excellency,
I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of your letter of today's date, which reads as follows:

(Insert text of letter 1)

Close:

I am able to inform you/confirm that my Government is in agreement with the contents of your letter/I have the honour to confirm that the above is acceptable to my Government and that your letter and this letter constitute an agreement in accordance with your proposal.
Please accept, Sir/Your Excellency, the assurance of my highest consideration.

14.4 *Exchanges of Notes (Notes Verbales).*

Start:

(*Mission No 1*) presents its compliments to (*Mission No 2*) and has the honour to refer to ...

Close:

(*Mission No 1*) avails itself of this opportunity to renew to (*Mission No 2*) the assurance of its highest consideration.

14.5 *Forms of address.* For more information, see [Annex 6 — Forms of Address](#).

15 GENDER-NEUTRAL LANGUAGE

- 15.1 Much existing EU legislation is not gender neutral and the masculine pronouns ‘he’ etc. are used generically to include women. However, gender-neutral language is nowadays preferred wherever possible.

In practice, gender-neutral drafting means two things:

- ◆ avoiding nouns that appear to assume that a man rather than a woman will perform a particular role: ‘chairman’ is the most obvious example;
- ◆ avoiding gender-specific pronouns for people who may be either male or female.

- 15.2 *Noun forms.* Gender-neutral noun forms (*chair, spokesperson, etc.*) are preferred.

For certain occupations a substitute for a gender-specific term is now commonly used to refer to persons working in those occupations, e.g. we now write *firefighters* instead of *firemen* and *police officer* instead of *policeman* or *policewoman*. Note that the terms *tradesperson* and *craftsperson* are commonly used instead of *tradesman* and *craftsman* by local government authorities advertising jobs to both men and women.

- 15.3 *Pronouns.* If the text clearly refers to a specific individual on a particular occasion, and you know the gender of the person concerned, use a gender-specific pronoun:

The High Representative (Baroness Ashton) voiced her objections.

The President of the Commission (Mr Delors) said that he welcomed the common position reached at the Council.

Otherwise, depending on the circumstances, consider the following alternatives:

- ◆ Where possible draft in the plural; this is very common in English to render general concepts:

Researchers must be objective about their findings.

This does not apply when passengers miss connecting flights for which they have reservations.

- ◆ Omit the pronoun altogether:

The chair expressed ~~his/her/its~~ dissent.

The spokesperson voiced ~~his/her~~ opposition to the amendment.

- ◆ Substitute ‘the’ or ‘that’ for the possessive pronoun:

A member of the Court of Auditors may be deprived of the right to a pension.

[instead of ‘his’ right]

- ◆ Use ‘he or she’:

This does not apply when a passenger misses a connecting flight for which he or she has a reservation.

This becomes clumsy if repeated too frequently and should be used with caution. If its use is really necessary, prefer 'he or she' to 'he/she', '(s)he' or 's/he', which should be avoided.

◆ Repeat the noun:

This does not apply when a passenger misses a connecting flight for which that passenger has a reservation.

This can be cumbersome and look excessively formal, but may be a useful technique in a longer sentence.

◆ In instructions, use the second person or the imperative:

You should first turn on your computer.

or

First turn on your computer.

instead of

The user should first turn on his/her computer.

In current usage, third person plural pronouns (they/them/their/theirs) are often used to refer back to singular nouns:

This does not apply when a passenger misses a connecting flight for which they have a reservation.

Identify the person responsible and take their advice.

However, in order to avoid confusion and possible translation problems, this device should be used only when the reference is absolutely clear. It should also be borne in mind that it is still perceived as grammatically incorrect by many speakers, making the other constructions mentioned above preferable wherever possible.

16 SCIENCE GUIDE

- 16.1 *Biological sciences.* As the binomial system for classifying living organisms is used in all languages, it is normally sufficient to reproduce the original terms. Note that the initial letter of the scientific name is capitalised, while species epithets are always lowercased, even if derived from proper names (e.g. *Martes americana*, *Pusa sibirica*). The names of genera and species are always italicised. Practice varies for the names of higher taxonomic ranks, but the trend is towards italicising them too:

ORDER:	<i>Rosales</i>	<i>Carnivora</i>
FAMILY:	<i>Rosaceae</i>	<i>Felidae</i>
GENUS:	<i>Rosa</i>	<i>Felis</i>
SPECIES:	<i>Rosa moschata</i>	<i>Felis catus</i>

In zoology, the names of subspecies are also italicised: *Felis silvestris bieti*. In botany, the names of taxons below the rank of species are also italicised, but the rank itself is indicated by an unitalicised abbreviation: *Acanthocalycium klimpelianum* var. *macranthum*. The recommended abbreviations are ‘subsp.’ (rather than ‘ssp.’) for subspecies, ‘var.’ for ‘variety’, ‘subvar.’ for subvariety, ‘f.’ for ‘form’, and ‘subf.’ for ‘subform’. The name of a cultivar is placed in single quotation marks without italics, and the first letter of each word is capitalised: *Camellia japonica* ‘Ballet Dancer’.

- 16.2 Most text references are to genus or species (i.e. the name of the genus followed by an epithet). The genus name should be spelled out in full on first occurrence and subsequently abbreviated: *Escherichia coli*, abbreviated *E. coli*.
- 16.3 *Non-technical usage*. Some scientific plant names are identical with the vernacular name and of course should not be capitalised or italicised when used non-technically (e.g. ‘rhododendron growers’ but *Rhododendron canadense*).
- 16.4 *Geology*. Use initial capitals for formations (*Old Red Sandstone*; *Eldon formation*) and geological time units (*Cenozoic*; *Tertiary period*; *Holocene*) but not for the words era, period, etc.
- 16.5 *Chemical compounds*. Like chemical elements, the symbols for chemical compounds (i.e. chemical formulae) are interlingual: *NaCl*, *H₂O*, *C₁₈H₂₅NO*, etc.
- 16.6 *Sulphur/sulfur*. Note that the spelling *sulfur* is preferred by the [International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry](#) (IUPAC), but the Harmonised System and Combined Nomenclature (customs tariff nomenclatures) retain the *sulph*-forms. The correct spelling will therefore depend on the context.
- 16.7 *Avoiding hyphenation*. Current practice is to avoid hyphenation altogether, except between letters and numbers (see below). This applies both to prefixes (such as *di*, *iso*, *tetra*, *tri*: *diisopropyl fluorophosphate*, *ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid*) and other compound forms (*benzeneethanol*), where normal hyphenation rules would require a hyphen between the double vowels.
- 16.8 *Closed and open compounds*. When in doubt as to whether to close up constituents or not (*ethyl alcohol*, but *ethylbenzene*), follow the conventions used in [Einecs](#) (*European inventory of existing commercial chemical substances*).
- 16.9 *Using Einecs*. You can use Einecs to search for a substance by name. Choose the source language (only English, French, German, or Spanish are available) and select the option in the left-hand box. If you cannot locate a substance, search for the head noun, i.e. the rightmost constituent of the string, followed by the attributive parts of the compound. Thus, *lactate dehydrogenase* is entered as *Dehydrogenase, lactate*.

- 16.10 *Names containing numbers.* Use hyphens to link numbers to letters in the names of chemical compounds (on both sides if the number is an infix). If there are several numbers in sequence, they are separated by commas. Examples: 2-pentanone; 1,2-dichloroethane; 2,2,3 3-tetrabromobutane.
- 16.11 *Sentences beginning with numbers.* If the first word in a sentence is a chemical compound that starts with a number, the first letter is capitalised:
2-Pentanone is a compound obtainable from propionic acid.
- 16.12 *Common names.* Most chemical compounds in widespread use have one or more common names besides their scientific name. Such common names or abbreviations of the scientific names are often used for brevity's sake in scientific texts. For example, *ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid* is more customarily known as *edetic acid* or abbreviated to *EDTA*. If translating, follow source document usage.
- 16.13 *Further information.* Lots more, especially on chemistry, can be found via the [IUPAC network](#) webpage and in their [Gold Book](#).

Part II

About the European Union

17 THE EUROPEAN UNION

- 17.1 *The European Union — EU.* In geographical terms, the *European Union* comprises the combined territories of its Member States. Since the Treaty of Lisbon (see 18.15), it now has legal personality in its own right and absorbs what used to be known as the *European Community/ies*. The European Union is referred to systematically as ‘the Union’ in the Treaties and in legislation. This practice should be avoided in other texts: use either the full form (European Union) or the abbreviation ‘EU’. Do not refer to the European Union as ‘Europe’.
- 17.2 *The European Communities* have now been absorbed by the European Union, so references to ‘Community policy/institutions/legislation’ should now read ‘European Union/EU policy/institutions/legislation’. Retain ‘the (European) Community/ies’ only for historical references. The European Atomic Energy Community continues to exist, and is always abbreviated as ‘Euratom’.
- 17.3 *Common*, meaning *EU*, is still used in set phrases such as *common fisheries policy*, *common agricultural* (not *agriculture*) *policy*, etc. Do not use the term in this sense outside these set phrases.
- 17.4 *Common market.* This term is normally used in EU documents only in phrases such as ‘the common market in goods and services’.
- 17.5 *Single market.* This term is generally preferable to *internal market* (which has other connotations in the UK), except in standard phrases such as ‘completing the internal market’, which was originally the title of the key White Paper.
- 17.6 *The Twenty-eight (Twenty-seven, Twenty-five, Fifteen, Twelve, Ten, Nine, Six).* These expressions are sometimes used to refer to different memberships of the European Union at different periods. In this context the only correct abbreviation is EU-28, 27, 25, 15, 12, 10, 9 or 6 (not EUR-25 etc.) to avoid confusion with the euro.
- 17.7 *Acquis.* The *acquis* (note the italics) is the body of EU law in the broad sense, comprising:
- ◆ the Treaties and other instruments of similar status (primary legislation);
 - ◆ the legislation adopted under the Treaties (secondary legislation);
 - ◆ the case-law of the Court of Justice;
 - ◆ the declarations and resolutions adopted by the EU;
 - ◆ measures relating to the common foreign and security policy;
 - ◆ measures relating to justice and home affairs;
 - ◆ international agreements concluded by the EU and those concluded by the Member States among themselves in connection with the EU’s activities.

Note that the term covers ‘soft’ law as well, e.g. EU guidelines, policies and recommendations.

Candidate countries have to accept the entire *acquis* and translate it into their national language before they can join the EU.

If qualified, *acquis* may also refer to a specific part of EU law, e.g. the Schengen *acquis*.

When you are producing documents intended for the general public, use the term *acquis* only with an accompanying explanation, or paraphrase it with a more readily understood expression, such as ‘the body of EU law’.

18 PRIMARY LEGISLATION

- 18.1 The way in which the European Union operates is regulated by a series of Treaties and various other agreements having similar status. Together they constitute what is known as *primary legislation*.

THE TREATIES — AN OVERVIEW

- 18.2 The treaties founding what has become the European Union (originally the European Communities) were:
- ◆ the [ECSC Treaty](#) (Paris, 1951), which established the *European Coal and Steel Community* (expired in 2002),
 - ◆ the [EEC Treaty](#) (Rome, 1957), which established the *European Economic Community* (later the [EC Treaty](#), now the [Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union](#)),
 - ◆ the [Euratom Treaty](#) (Rome, 1957), which established the *European Atomic Energy Community*.

The European Union was established by:

- ◆ the [EU Treaty](#) (Maastricht, 1992), which at the same time amended the EEC Treaty and renamed it the EC Treaty.

Over the years these Treaties have been amended by:

- the Merger Treaty (1965)
- the Budget Treaty (1975)
- the Greenland Treaty (1984)
- the Single European Act (1986)
- the Treaty of Amsterdam (1997)
- the Treaty of Nice (2001)
- the [Treaty of Lisbon](#) (2007)

- seven Accession Treaties (1972; 1979; 1985; 1994; 2003; 2005; 2011).

See [EUR-Lex](#) for the [consolidated versions](#) of the treaties currently in force.

THE TREATIES IN DETAIL

- 18.3 *Order of listing.* When listed together the Treaties should be put in historical order: ECSC Treaty, EEC Treaty, Euratom Treaty, EU Treaty.
- 18.4 *ECSC Treaty — Treaty establishing the European Coal and Steel Community.*
Signed in Paris on 18 April 1951, it came into force on 23 July 1952 and expired on 23 July 2002. It is sometimes also called the *Treaty of Paris*.
- 18.5 [*Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union*](#) (TFEU).
This is the new name — introduced by the Treaty of Lisbon — for what was formerly known as the EC Treaty (Treaty establishing the European Community) and earlier still as the *EEC Treaty* (*Treaty establishing the European Economic Community*). The original EEC Treaty was signed in Rome on 25 March 1957 and came into force on 1 January 1958.
- 18.6 *Euratom Treaty — Treaty establishing the European Atomic Energy Community.*
Also signed in Rome on 25 March 1957, it came into force on 1 January 1958. The standard form is now *Euratom Treaty* rather than *EAEC Treaty*.
- 18.7 *Treaties of Rome* refers to the EEC and Euratom Treaties together.
- 18.8 *Merger Treaty — Treaty establishing a Single Council and a Single Commission of the European Communities.*
Signed in Brussels on 8 April 1965, it came into force on 1 July 1967.
- 18.9 *Budget Treaty — Treaty amending certain Financial Provisions of the Treaties establishing the European Communities and of the Treaty establishing a Single Council and a Single Commission of the European Communities.*
Signed in Brussels on 22 July 1975, it came into force on 1 June 1977.
- 18.10 *Greenland Treaty — Treaty amending, with regard to Greenland, the Treaties establishing the European Communities.*
Signed on 13 March 1984, it came into force on 1 January 1985. This made arrangements for Greenland's withdrawal from the then European Communities and granted the island 'Overseas Countries and Territories' status.
- 18.11 *Single European Act.*
Signed in Luxembourg and The Hague on 17 and 28 February 1986, it came into force on 1 July 1987. This was the first major substantive amendment to

the EEC Treaty. It committed the signatories to a single European market by the end of 1992 and generally expanded the scope of European policy-making. It also made minor amendments to the ECSC and Euratom Treaties.

18.12 [Treaty on European Union \(TEU\)](#) or *EU Treaty*.

Signed in Maastricht on 7 February 1992, it came into force on 1 November 1993. Often known as the Maastricht Treaty, it established a European Union based on (1) the existing Communities plus (2) a common foreign and security policy (CFSP) and (3) cooperation on justice and home affairs (JHA). Among other things it gave the European Parliament an equal say with the Council on legislation in some areas and extended the scope of qualified majority voting in the Council. It also laid down a timetable and arrangements for the adoption of a single currency and changed the name of the European Economic Community to the European Community and amended the Treaty establishing the Community substantially. It has now been amended by the Treaty of Lisbon (see [18.15](#)).

For the short form, write ‘the EU Treaty’ or, in citations, abbreviate to TEU. (see [18.18](#)).

18.13 [Treaty of Amsterdam](#) — *Treaty of Amsterdam amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts*.

Signed in Amsterdam on 2 October 1997, it came into force on 1 May 1999. After enlargement to 15 members in 1995 and with further expansion in prospect, it sought to streamline the system, taking the innovations of Maastricht a step further. Among other things, it broadened the scope of qualified majority voting and brought the Schengen arrangements and much of justice and home affairs into the then Community. It also incorporated the Social Protocol into the EC Treaty. Under the Common Foreign and Security Policy, the arrangements on defence aspects were strengthened. Finally it completely renumbered the articles of the EU and EC Treaties.

18.14 [Treaty of Nice](#) — *Treaty of Nice amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts*.

Signed in Nice on 26 February 2001, it came into force on 1 February 2003. It amended the founding Treaties yet again to pave the way for enlargement to 25 Member States, making certain changes in institutional and decision-making arrangements (qualified majority voting, codecision) and extending still further the areas covered by these arrangements. It changed the name of the *Official Journal of the European Communities* to *Official Journal of the European Union*.

18.15 [Treaty of Lisbon](#) — *Treaty of Lisbon amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community*. Signed in Lisbon on 13 December 2007, it came into force on 1 December 2009. It amended the EU’s two core treaties: the [Treaty on European Union](#) and the Treaty establishing the European Community. The latter was renamed the [Treaty on](#)

the Functioning of the European Union. The principal changes include the following:

- ◆ the European Union acquired legal personality and absorbed the European Community;
- ◆ qualified majority voting was extended to new areas;
- ◆ the European Council was made a European institution in its own right and acquired a President elected for 2½ years;
- ◆ the post of High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (also a Vice-President of the Commission) was established;
- ◆ the role of the European Parliament and national parliaments was strengthened;
- ◆ a new ‘citizens’ initiative’ introduced the right for citizens to petition the Commission to put forward proposals.

These changes also had major consequences for terminology, in particular all references to ‘Community’ became ‘European Union’ or ‘EU’ and a number of institutions were renamed. This process is still ongoing, though.

18.16 *Accession treaties*. The original Treaties have been supplemented by seven treaties of accession. These are:

- ◆ the 1972 Treaty of Accession (Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom),
- ◆ the 1979 Treaty of Accession (Greece),
- ◆ the 1985 Treaty of Accession (Portugal and Spain),
- ◆ the 1994 Treaty of Accession (Austria, Finland and Sweden),
- ◆ the 2003 Treaty of Accession (Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia),
- ◆ the 2005 Treaty of Accession (Bulgaria and Romania),
- ◆ the 2011 Treaty of Accession (Croatia).

Do not confuse the dates of these Treaties with the actual dates of accession (1973, 1981, 1986, 1995, 2004, 2007, 2013).

Note that the accession of Romania and Bulgaria is considered to have completed the fifth enlargement, rather than constituting a sixth enlargement.

18.17 *Treaties versus Acts of Accession*. Take care to distinguish between *Treaty of Accession* and *Act of Accession*. Treaties of accession set out principles and regulate ratification, while acts of accession contain the technical details of transitional arrangements and secondary legislation (*droit dérivé*) requiring amendment.

TREATY CITATIONS

18.18 *Citation forms.* Always use a treaty's full title in legislation:

... the procedure laid down in Article 269 of the Treaty establishing the European Community ... (Article 2(2) of Council Decision 2000/597/EC, Euratom)

However, the Treaty of Amsterdam and the Treaty of Nice may be cited as such:

... five years after the entry into force of the Treaty of Amsterdam ...

On the other hand, it is common usage in legal writing (e.g. commentaries, grounds of judgments) to cite the Treaties using a shortened form or abbreviation:

The wording of Article 17 Euratom reflects ...

Under the terms of Article 97 TFEU the Commission can ...

The arrangements for a rapid decision under Article 30(2) TEU allow ...

This form can be used practically anywhere (except, of course, in legislation), especially if the full title is given when it first occurs.

18.19 *Citing subdivisions of articles.* Paragraphs and subparagraphs that are officially designated by numbers or letters should be cited in the following form (note: no spaces):

Article 107(3)(d) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union ...

Subdivisions of an article that are not identified by a number or letter should be cited in the form *nth (sub)paragraph of Article XX* or, less formally, *Article XX, nth (sub)paragraph*.

The first paragraph of Article 110 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union ...

Article 191(2) TFEU, second subparagraph ...

19 SECONDARY LEGISLATION

19.1 The various legal acts adopted under the Treaties form the European Union's 'secondary legislation'. As specified in Article 288 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, they comprise chiefly:

Regulations

Directives

Decisions

Regulations and *decisions* are directly applicable and binding in all EU Member States. *Directives* on the other hand are binding but not directly applicable: they set out the objectives to be achieved and require the Member

States to incorporate them into their national legislation. This incorporation is termed *transposition*. Consequently, only directives are *transposed* into national legislation, but all three types of legal act are *implemented* or *applied*, i.e. given practical effect.

Where such acts are adopted following a legislative procedure, they are termed ‘legislative acts’. ‘Non-legislative acts’ are accordingly those where no legislative procedure is required, for example where power is delegated to the Commission to adopt acts or where the Commission adopts an act to implement a legislative act. In the latter cases (since the Treaty of Lisbon), the act has to include the adjectives *delegated* or *implementing* in its title.

Legal acts also include recommendations and opinions, but these are non-binding.

To consult individual legal acts, see the EU’s law website [EUR-Lex](#).

- 19.2 For matters coming under what were the second and third pillars of the European Union before amendment by the Treaty of Lisbon, the original Treaty on European Union also introduced framework decisions, joint actions and common positions. Following the Lisbon Treaty, however, they are obsolete.

LEGISLATIVE PROCEDURES

- 19.3 Legislative procedures have been overhauled by the Treaty of Lisbon: there is now an ordinary legislative procedure and special legislative procedures.
- 19.4 *Ordinary legislative procedure* (Article 294 TFEU). Under this procedure, originally introduced as the ‘codecision procedure’ by the Treaty on European Union, Parliament jointly adopts legislation with the Council. It is described in detail in Article 294 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) and is used for all EU legislation except in cases specifically defined in the TFEU as coming under a ‘special legislative procedure’.
- 19.5 *Special legislative procedure* (Article 289 TFEU). In cases specifically defined in the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, the Council or another institution may adopt legislation on its own. This may involve consulting the European Parliament or obtaining its consent.

TITLES AND NUMBERING

- 19.6 *Draft legislation*. In relation to EU legislation, the word *draft* denotes that the act in question has not yet been formally approved by the Commission. In the simplest case, it is used to qualify Commission acts (e.g. a draft Commission Regulation) before they are adopted by the Commission. For acts that are proposed by the Commission for adoption by other EU institutions, there is an additional stage in the procedure: Commission departments prepare a *draft proposal* (e.g. draft proposal for a Regulation of the Council and of the

European Parliament), which the Commission approves, whereupon the designation *draft* is dropped and the *proposal* is sent to the Council and the European Parliament for discussion and possible adoption.

Draft Commission legislation is accompanied by a *Memorandum to the Commission* (FR: *Communication à la Commission*) while draft proposals for non-Commission acts also include an *Explanatory Memorandum* (*Exposé des motifs*), which is sent with the proposal to the legislator.

All unadopted acts have attached to them a *financial statement* (FR: *fiche financière*) detailing the budget implications and an *impact assessment* (FR: *fiche d'impact*) setting out more general implications.

- 19.7 *Numbering of acts.* Legal acts are numbered by year and serial number. The number of an act normally constitutes part of its title. For legal acts published before 1 January 2015, the numbering format differs depending on the type of act (see the following sections for further details), but legal acts published in the 'L' series of the Official Journal since that date have been numbered in the following standardised way:

(domain) YYYY/N

where:

- ◆ the domain can be (EU), (Euratom), (EU, Euratom) or (CFSP)
- ◆ YYYY represents the year of publication (NB: since 1999, the year has been written with four digits rather than two. However, this is not retroactive: numbers before 1999 keep the two-digit year.)
- ◆ N represents the serial number of the document (NB: the numbering restarts at the beginning of every year. Before 1 January 2015 it was separate for each type of act, but serial numbers are now allocated regardless of the domain and type of act.)

For example:

Commission Regulation (EU) 2015/18 of 23 December 2014 establishing a prohibition of fishing for cod in Skagerrak by vessels flying the flag of Germany

The numbering system introduced on 1 January 2015 does not apply retroactively. The numbers of legal acts published before that date remain unchanged and retain their original format.

- 19.8 *Special cases.* There are a small number of exceptions to the standardised numbering system.

The following documents are not numbered:

- ◆ international agreements and information on the date of their entry into force
- ◆ corrigenda

The following documents have two numbers, one assigned by the Publications Office (in the standardised format) and one assigned by the author:

◆ ECB legal acts and instruments:

Decision (EU) 2015/5 of the European Central Bank of 19 November 2014 on the implementation of the asset-backed securities purchase programme (ECB/2014/45)

◆ Political and Security Committee decisions:

Political and Security Committee Decision (CFSP) 2015/102 of 20 January 2015 on the appointment of the EU Force Commander for the European Union military operation to contribute to the deterrence, prevention and repression of acts of piracy and armed robbery off the Somali coast (Atalanta) and repealing Decision Atalanta/4/2014 (ATALANTA/1/2015)

The number assigned to the following documents has no domain name and is placed at the end of the title in square brackets:

◆ acts adopted by bodies created by international agreements:

Decision No 1/2016 of the ACP-EU Committee of Ambassadors ... [2016/1]

◆ acts adopted within the framework of the European Economic Area (EEA):

Decision of the EEA Joint Committee No 153/2014 of 9 July 2014 amending Annex X (Services in general) to the EEA Agreement [2015/88]

◆ acts adopted within the framework of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA):

EFTA Surveillance Authority Decision No 302/14/COL of 16 July 2014 amending for the ninety-ninth time the procedural and substantive rules in the field of State aid by modifying certain State aid Guidelines [2015/95]

◆ regulations of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UN/ECE):

Regulation No 78 of the Economic Commission for Europe of the United Nations (UNECE) — Uniform provisions concerning the approval of vehicles of categories L1, L2, L3, L4 and L5 with regard to braking [2015/145]

19.9 *Regulations.* Until 1967, EEC and Euratom regulations were numbered separately, in cumulative series from 1958 to 1962, and then annually. After 1 January 1968 they formed a single series, numbered annually. Thereafter, the numbering followed the pattern *Regulation (EEC/EC/EU) No ##/year*:

(before 1963) EEC Council Regulation No 17

(before 1968) Council Regulation No 1009/67/EEC

(before November 2003) Commission Regulation (EEC) No 1234/84

(before December 2009) Council Regulation (EC) No 1234/2007

(before January 2015) Commission Regulation (EU) No 722/2012

Since 1 January 2015, the numbering has followed the standardised pattern explained in 19.7 above. The number of a regulation is an integral part of its title. The citation form is therefore as follows:

Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) 2015/12 of 6 January 2015 establishing the standard import values for determining the entry price of certain fruit and vegetables

- 19.10 *Directives*. Directives are issued mainly by the Council and European Parliament and less frequently by the Commission. Before 1 January 2015 the numbering followed the pattern [*Institution*] *Directive* year/number/entity:

Commission Directive 2004/29/EC on determining the characteristics and minimum conditions for inspecting vine varieties

Since 1 January 2015, the numbering has followed the standardised pattern explained in 19.7 above.

Commission Delegated Directive (EU) 2015/13 of 31 October 2014 amending Annex III to Directive 2014/32/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council, as regards the flowrate range of water meters

The number of a directive has formed an integral part of its title since 1 January 1992.

- 19.11 *Decisions* (See also 19.12 below). Decisions comprise acts adopted under Article 288 TFEU (formerly 249 EC). Before 1 January 2015 they bore no formal number forming part of the title (except for joint decisions — see 19.12 below), but were assigned a ‘publication number’ by the Publications Office. The full citation form was therefore as follows:

Council Decision of 30 July 2003 on the conclusion of the agreement between the European Community and Canada on trade in wines and spirit drinks (2004/91/EC)

Although it was not formally part of the title, the publication number was regularly used in citing such acts: *Council Decision 2004/91/EC*.

Since 1 January 2015 the numbering of decisions has followed the standardised pattern explained in 19.7 above:

Council Decision (CFSP) 2015/77 of 19 January 2015 appointing the European Union Special Representative in Bosnia and Herzegovina

Unpublished decisions are identified by date only.

Until the Treaty of Lisbon, there were different words for decisions with an addressee and decisions not addressed to anyone in Danish (*beslutning* and *afgørelse*), Dutch (*beschikking* and *besluit*), German (*Entscheidung* and *Beschluss*) and Slovenian (*odločba* and *sklep*). The second form in each case is now used for all decisions.

- 19.12 *Joint acts* (Council and Parliament) (See also 19.4). However unwieldy it may appear, and whatever variants you may see in circulation, the ‘of the ... and of the ...’ formulation below is the only correct one for the titles of joint acts:

Regulation (EC) No 852/2004 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 29 April 2004 on the hygiene of foodstuffs

Decisions are numbered along the same lines as regulations:

Before 1 January 2015:

Decision No 649/2005/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 April 2005 amending Decision No 1419/1999/EC establishing a Community action for the European Capital of Culture event for the years 2005 to 2019

Since 1 January 2015:

Decision (EU) 2015/42 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 December 2014 on the mobilisation of the European Globalisation Adjustment Fund, in accordance with point 13 of the Interinstitutional Agreement of 2 December 2013 between the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission on budgetary discipline, on cooperation in budgetary matters and on sound financial management

- 19.13 *ECSC decisions.* ECSC general decisions were equivalent to EEC and Euratom regulations and were given an official serial number that was an integral part of the title (e.g. *Commission Decision No 891/92/ECSC of 30 March 1992 imposing a provisional anti-dumping duty ...*).
- 19.14 *Framework decisions, joint actions, common positions.* These were legal acts adopted in the areas of common foreign and security policy and justice and home affairs (Titles V and VI respectively of the Treaty on European Union before amendment by the Treaty of Lisbon). Their citation forms are as follows:
- Council Framework Decision 2001/68/JHA of 22 December 2003 on combating the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography
- Council Joint Action 2004/523/CFSP of 28 June 2004 on the European Union Rule of Law Mission in Georgia
- Council Common Position 2004/698/CFSP of 14 October 2004 concerning the lifting of restrictive measures against Libya
- 19.15 *Multiple references.* When referring to several acts together, follow the pattern below:
- Regulations (EC) Nos 1234/96 and 1235/96
- Regulations (EU) 2015/20 and 2015/21
- Directives 96/100/EC and 96/350/EC
- 19.16 *Abbreviated references.* Use abbreviations only in footnotes or when space is at a premium:
- Reg. 1234/85, Dir. 84/321, Dec. 3289/75, Dec. 74/612, Reg. 2015/18
- 19.17 *Amendments.* Legal acts are as a rule amended by the same institution as adopted the original act, in which case the name of the institution is not repeated in the title of the amended act. The date of the original act is also omitted, but the rest of its title is quoted in full:

Regulation (EC) No 1934/2004 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 October 2004 amending Regulation (EC) No 1726/2000 on development cooperation with South Africa

STRUCTURE OF ACTS

- 19.18 *Opening text.* The preambles to regulations, directives, and decisions start with a line in capitals identifying the institution and ending with a comma:

THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND THE COUNCIL OF THE
EUROPEAN UNION,

THE COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION,

THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION,

- 19.19 *Citations.* The opening text is followed by the citations (FR: *visas*), stating the legal basis for the act and listing the procedural steps; these begin *Having regard to ...* and also end in a comma (here for a Regulation of the Council and of the European Parliament):

Having regard to the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, and in particular Article [...] thereof,

Having regard to the proposal from the Commission,

Having regard to the notification to the national Parliaments,

Having regard to the opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee,

Having regard to the opinion of the Committee of the Regions,

Acting in accordance with the ordinary legislative procedure,

- 19.20 *Recitals.* Next come the recitals (FR: *considérants*), stating the grounds on which the act is based. The block of recitals begins with a single *Whereas* followed by a colon and a new paragraph. The recitals which follow are numbered sequentially using Arabic numerals within round brackets. Each recital, including the first, begins with a leading capital and ends with a full stop, except for the last (or a sole) recital, which ends in a comma. Sentences within a given recital are separated by full stops.

- 19.21 *References to other acts.* Previous acts referred to in citations and recitals must be given their full title (institution, type of instrument, number, date, title) on first occurrence and must carry a footnote with OJ reference after the descriptive title. In less formal contexts it is not necessary to give the date of the act; this is invariably cited in French but tends to clutter up the sentence to no good purpose. There are some exceptions to the above rules:

- ◆ amendments to the principal acts cited (type and number only):

Whereas Commission Regulation (EEC) No #####/## of (date) on ... as (last) amended by Regulation (EEC) No xxxx/xx, provides ...

- ◆ where the title/content is paraphrased to shorten recitals:

Whereas the Commission has adopted, in connection with the Christmas and New Year holidays, Regulation (EEC) No 2956/84 dealing with the sale of butter from public stocks at a reduced price ...

- 19.22 *Enacting formula.* Preambles close with a line in capitals continuing the enacting formula, ending with a colon:

HAS/HAVE ADOPTED THIS REGULATION/DIRECTIVE/DECISION:

Following the Treaty of Lisbon, the formula ‘has/have decided as follows’ is no longer used for legislative acts, but is still used for internal Commission decisions that have no addressees and do not produce legal effects for third parties.

- 19.23 *Enacting terms.* The French term *Article premier* is rendered *Article 1*. Certain acts have only one article, the *Sole Article*.

A reference such as *Article 198a* is not to a subdivision but to an article subsequently inserted after Article 198. In English, the letter is always in lower case and closed up to the number. In some languages, such articles are numbered *Article 1 bis* (*ter*, *quater*, *quinquies*, etc.).¹ When translating, use the English form. (For national legislation, see 23.16.)

Regulations have a final article stating when they enter into force and, in some instances, the details of the date or dates from which they apply.

That final article is followed by the sentence:

This Regulation shall be binding in its entirety and directly applicable in all Member States.

Directives usually conclude with an article giving details of the arrangements for transposition followed by one stating when they enter into force and a final one stating to whom they are addressed.

Likewise, Decisions may conclude with articles giving details of their application and their addressees.

For the use of verbs in articles, see 10.19-10.27 (Verbs: usage in legal texts).

- 19.24 *Place of enactment.* Legislation issued by the Commission is always *Done at Brussels*, [date], while in draft Council legislation the place name is left blank (*Done at ...*) since the ministers may not be meeting in Brussels when the instrument is finally adopted.
- 19.25 *Signatories.* The surname is written in upper case (see also 5.1).

REFERRING TO SUBDIVISIONS OF ACTS

- 19.26 The subdivisions of acts are explained in a [table](#) in the Interinstitutional style guide.

¹ See conversion table for numbering of inserted articles (Annex 5).

- 19.27 *Recitals*. Numbered recitals are referred to as ‘recital 1, 2, 3’, etc. Note that the numbers are not enclosed in brackets in such references. Any unnumbered recitals are cited as ‘the first, second, third recital’ and so on.
- 19.28 *Numbered and unnumbered subdivisions*. The rules for citing subdivisions of articles in secondary legislation are the same as for treaties (see 18.19).
- 19.29 *French terminology*. The French word *paragraphe* always means a numbered paragraph; *alinéa* is an unnumbered sub-unit. If an article has no numbered subdivisions, *alinéa* is rendered in English as *paragraph* (first, second, etc.). If the *alinéa* is part of a numbered paragraph, it is rendered as *subparagraph*.
- 19.30 Avoid abbreviating *Article* to *Art.* wherever possible. Also do not use the § sign (section mark) for EU legislation: for example, *l’article 3 §1* should read *Article 3(1)* in English.

20 THE EU INSTITUTIONS

COMMISSION

- 20.1 *Title*. The [European Commission](#) (before the Treaty of Lisbon, Commission of the European Communities) is governed by Articles 244 to 250 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. Where the context is clear, it may also be referred to as just ‘the Commission’. Note that the abbreviation EC may also refer to *European Community* in historical references, so should be avoided in such cases.
- 20.2 *Titles of Members*. The word *Commissioner* should not be used in legal texts but is acceptable in other less formal, journalistic-type texts, such as press releases and especially headlines (where the more formal designations sound stilted). *Mr Z, Commission Member*, can also be used in less formal texts. The established forms are:
- Mr X, President of the Commission, ...
- Ms Y, Vice-President, ...
- Mr Z, Member of the Commission responsible for ...
- Ms Z (Member of the Commission)
- Usually *Mr Z* on its own is sufficient in English.
- 20.3 *Cabinets*. Each Commissioner has a private office called a ‘cabinet’, headed by a ‘Head of Cabinet’ (the French title *Chef de cabinet* is now no longer used in English). Formal references should follow the model ‘Ms Smith, Head of Cabinet to X, Member of the Commission’.
- 20.4 *Commission meetings*. The Members of the Commission hold a weekly meeting (*réunion*), normally on Wednesdays and sometimes divided into sittings (*séances*). The Commission adopts its proposals either at its meetings

or by written procedure and *presents* (or *transmits* or *sends*) them to the Council. For a more detailed account of its decision-making arrangements, see the Commission's [Rules of Procedure](#).

- 20.5 *Referring to the Commission.* The term 'the Commission' may mean just the members of the Commission collectively (also known as the College of Commissioners, or College for short, the body ultimately responsible for Commission decisions) but it may also refer to the Commission as an institution. If the context does not make the meaning clear, you will need to be more precise.
- 20.6 *Names of Commission departments.* The Commission's main administrative divisions — Directorates-General or DGs for short — have self-explanatory names, which are frequently abbreviated, e.g. EMPL or DG EMPL. The abbreviated forms are supposed to be for the Commission's internal use only but some of them are becoming current elsewhere. Details and organisation charts of [all Commission departments](#) (including [Eurostat](#)) can be found on the Commission's website.
- If the reader cannot be expected to know what 'DG' means, write out the name in full, at least to begin with, e.g. the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion.
- 20.7 *Services of the Commission.* The Commission has a Legal Service and an Internal Audit Service, which are thus Services of the Commission. In Commission usage, however, 'service' can also mean any department of the Commission administration, e.g. a DG, office, or unit. These are services of the Commission or Commission services. Note the capitalisation.
- 20.8 *Other commissions.* Guard against confusion with the *UN Economic Commission for Europe* (EN: *ECE*, FR: *CEE*) based in Geneva and the *European Commission of Human Rights* based in Strasbourg.

COUNCIL

- 20.9 The work and composition of the [Council](#) are defined in Articles 237 to 243 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. The work of the Permanent Representatives is defined in Article 240(1).
- 20.10 *Title.* Generally write *the Council*; use *Council of the European Union* only in formal contexts or to distinguish it from other councils (see below) where necessary.
- 20.11 *General Secretariat.* The Council has a *General Secretariat* (NB: not a Secretariat-General) headed by a Secretary-General, and conducts its business via committees and working parties.
- 20.12 Referring to Council meetings (FR: *sessions*):
 the Council meeting of 22 May (one day)

the Council meeting of 22 and 23 May (two days)

the Council meeting of 22/23 May (overnight)

the Council meeting of 22 to 24 May (three days)

Meetings lasting more than one day have sittings (FR: *séances*) referred to by date: the *Council sitting of 22 May*.

- 20.13 The Council meets in what are termed ‘configurations’ to discuss particular policy areas. These meetings are normally attended by the national ministers holding the corresponding portfolio, though other matters may also be discussed.

The Council also holds informal meetings to discuss matters which do not lie within its responsibilities under the Treaties. For a more detailed account, see the Council’s [Rules of Procedure](#).

- 20.14 *The chair.* The chair at Council meetings is taken by the minister whose country holds the Presidency at the time. His/her name appears above *The President* on any EU legislation adopted at the meeting. Avoid *the President of the Council* in reports on the meeting, however, and write either *the minister presiding* or his/her name, adding (*President*). The Presidency changes every six months on 1 January and 1 July.

- 20.15 Do not confuse the Council with the following institutions:

the European Council (see below)

the ACP-EC Council of Ministers under the Cotonou Convention

the Council of Europe, a non-EU body based in Strasbourg

EUROPEAN COUNCIL

- 20.16 Made into a European institution in its own right by the Treaty of Lisbon, the [European Council](#) comprises the Heads of State or Government of the Member States, together with its President (a new post introduced by the Treaty of Lisbon) and the President of the Commission. Its functions are set out in Article 15 of the revised EU Treaty and in Articles 325 and 326 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. For more details of how it operates, see its [Rules of Procedure](#).

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

- 20.17 The work and composition of the [European Parliament](#) are defined in Articles 223 to 234 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. For more detailed information on voting and other procedures, see Parliament’s [Rules of Procedure](#).
- 20.18 *Title.* Refer to the European Parliament simply as *Parliament* (no definite article) unless confusion with national parliaments is possible. If the context is clear, you may also use the abbreviation EP.

- 20.19 *Sessions*. Parliamentary sessions (FR: *sessions*) run from one year to the next, e.g. the 2015/2016 session. These are divided into *part-sessions*, e.g. part-session from 12 to 15 January 2015 (FR: *séances du 12 au 15 janvier*).
- 20.20 *Sitting*. Each day's *sitting* (FR: *séance*) during a part-session is referred to by the day on which it commences, whether or not it goes on past midnight.
- 20.21 *The Secretariat*. This is headed by the *Secretary-General*. If necessary, to avoid confusion with other secretariats it may be called the *General Secretariat*.
- 20.22 *The Bureau*. This consists of the *President* and *Vice-Presidents* of Parliament. The *Cabinet du Président* is the *President's Office*. The quaestors are responsible for administrative and financial matters concerning Members.
- 20.23 *MEPs*. Members are identified in English by the letters MEP after their name. A [full list of MEPs](#) with their national party affiliations is given on Parliament's website.
- 20.24 English titles of committees are available on the website. Note that there is a *Committee on Budgets* as well as a *Committee on Budgetary Control*.
- 20.25 *Written questions*. Answers should be headed *Answer given by (Commission Member's name) on behalf of the Commission*, followed by the date of the answer. The MEP putting the question is referred to as *the Honourable Member*, other MEPs by name.
- 20.26 *Debates*. Parliament's debates up to the end of the fourth Parliamentary term (May 1999) are available in paper form as annexes to the Official Journal. From April 1996, they are available online.

COURT OF JUSTICE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

- 20.27 *Composition and Statute*. Under the Treaty of Lisbon, the [Court of Justice of the European Union](#) (CJEU) comprises the Court of Justice, the General Court and any specialised courts established by Parliament and the Council. In 2004 a decision was adopted to establish the Civil Service Tribunal. The relationship between them is laid down by the [Court's Statute](#).
- 20.28 *Court of Justice*. Originally established in 1952, the Court of Justice is the highest authority on matters of EU law. Its primary task is to ensure that the law is uniformly applied in all the Member States. It has jurisdiction to rule on three types of case: (i) actions against Member States for infringing EU law, brought by the Commission or other Member States, potentially leading to fines; (ii) actions for annulment of EU legislation or to require an institution to act, brought by a Member State or by one of the institutions; and (iii) references for preliminary rulings, in which it decides questions referred to it by national courts on how EU law should be interpreted in order to help them decide a case.

- 20.29 *General Court*. Previously called the Court of First Instance, it was established in 1988 to relieve the Court of Justice of some of its workload. It has jurisdiction to deal with almost all cases against the EU institutions and agencies. Its judgments are subject to appeal to the Court of Justice, but only on points of law.

It is currently undergoing a step-by-step reform to cope with its heavy workload. The number of judges was increased in December 2015, the Civil Service Tribunal was merged with it in September 2016, and a further increase will bring the number of judges to two per Member State in September 2019.

- 20.30 *Civil Service Tribunal*. The Tribunal was established in 2005 to deal with disputes between EU bodies and their staff. Such disputes had previously been under the jurisdiction of the Court of Justice and then the (former) Court of First Instance. Appeals against the Tribunal were heard by the General Court. It was dissolved on 1 September 2016 and jurisdiction was transferred to the General Court.

- 20.31 *European Case-Law Identifier*. The ECLI has been devised to provide an unambiguous, uniform system for citing both national and European case-law. It is composed of the following elements, separated from each other by a colon:

- ◆ the prefix ‘ECLI’;
- ◆ the code ‘EU’, to indicate that it relates to a decision delivered by an EU court or tribunal;
- ◆ an abbreviation indicating the court concerned; for the EU, the letters ‘C’, ‘T’ and ‘F’ indicate the Court of Justice, the General Court and the Civil Service Tribunal, respectively;
- ◆ the four-digit year of the decision; and
- ◆ a serial number identifying the individual decision.

Adopted by the Court of Justice in 2014, an ECLI has been assigned to all decisions delivered by the EU Courts since 1954 and to the opinions of the Advocates-General. The ECLI system replaces the system using the ECR reference (see 20.33 below).

- 20.32 *Citing judgments*. There are different forms of citation depending on whether the reference is in the body of a text or in a footnote.

General EU publications (except those of the EU courts¹)

References in body text must include the decision type (judgment, order, etc.) and the name of the court. If useful in the context, the usual name of the case and the date of the decision may be added.

In its judgment in Case C-403/03⁷ the Court of Justice ruled that ...

¹ Each EU court has its own way of citing cases in Court of Justice publications. For full details, see [Section 5.9.3](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.

In *Spain v Commission*⁸ the General Court pointed out in paragraph 29 of its judgment that ...

Having regard to the judgment of the Civil Service Tribunal⁹,

Points to note:

- a. The parties' names are always in italics, but never the 'v'.
- b. Individual grounds of a judgment are referred to as 'paragraphs'.
- c. If the same decision is mentioned several times in the document, it is best to decide, on the first occurrence, how it should be referred to thereafter:

In its judgment of 12 July 2005 in Case C-403/03 (hereinafter *Schempp*), the Court of Justice held ...

Footnotes:

The standard format for footnotes in any type of text comprises the following elements in order:

[*Decision type*] [*name of court*] [*date*] [*case name*] [*case number*] [*ECLI*]
{[*paragraph(s)*]}

⁷ Judgment of the Court of Justice of 12 July 2005, *Schempp*, C-403/03, ECLI:EU:C:2005:446, paragraphs 22 to 24.

⁸ Judgment of the General Court of 15 January 2013, *Spain v Commission*, T-54/11, ECLI:EU:T:2013:10, paragraph 29.

⁹ Judgment of the Civil Service Tribunal of 30 January 2013, *Wahlström v Frontex*, F-87/11, ECLI:EU:F:2013:10, paragraph 32.

Translating documents from outside the EU institutions:

When translating documents from outside the EU institutions, apply the rules above if possible. Include the type of decision, the court, and the case name or number so as to provide an unambiguous reference, and if there is a footnote, the full details will be given there. If there is no footnote, follow the pattern for footnotes.

Note point c above and be consistent throughout the document.

- 20.33 *European Court Reports*. The former ECR reference indicated the case number, the parties, the year of publication, the ECR volume, and the page number. Full details can be found at the end of [Section 5.9.3](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide. Two examples:

Case C-287/87 *Commission v Greece* [1990] ECR I-125
(prefix 'C' for Court of Justice.)

Case T-27/89 *Sklias v Commission* [1990] ECR II-269
(prefix 'T' for *Tribunal de première instance*.)

The page number in the ECR on which a judgment begins was the same in the French and English versions only after 1969. Use the [EUR-Lex](#) database to check the page number for references to the English version before that date.

Publication of the paper version of the European Court Reports has ceased and, as of April 2014, case-law is published online in monthly sets.

- 20.34 Make clear the distinctions between the Court of Justice of the European Union in Luxembourg, the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg and the International Court of Justice in The Hague.

Avoid simply writing *the Court* if confusion between, say, the Court of Justice, the General Court and the Court of Auditors is possible.

Take care, too, with terms such as ‘*la Cour*’ and ‘*le Tribunal*’, since in the EU context they refer to two quite different bodies, namely the Court of Justice and the General Court. Several languages have different words for them:

	<i>Court</i>	<i>General Court</i>		<i>Court</i>	<i>General Court</i>
CS	Soudní dvůr	Tribunál	NL	Hof	Gerecht
DA	Domstol	Ret	PL	Trybunał	Sąd
DE	Gerichtshof	Gericht	RO	Cúrte	Tribunal
FR	Cour	Tribunal	SK	Súdny dvor	Súd
IT	Corte	Tribunale	SV	Domstol	Tribunal
HU	Bíróság	Törvényszék			

EUROPEAN COURT OF AUDITORS

- 20.35 The work and composition of the [European Court of Auditors](#) (ECA) are defined in Articles 285 to 287 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.

The Members of the ECA are supported in their work by its *Secretariat-General*. For more information on its organisation and operation, see the ECA’s [Rules of procedure](#).

- 20.36 The ECA produces [annual reports](#) (which are published in the Official Journal and are replied to formally by the Commission), special reports, opinions and other review-based outputs. All of its reports and opinions are published on its website in 23 EU languages.

EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE

- 20.37 The [Economic and Social Committee](#) is governed by Articles 300 to 304 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. On 17 July 2002 it decided to add the word ‘European’ to its title. Although this does not appear in the Treaty, it is appropriate to use it.

Do not confuse this Committee with the UN Economic and Social Council, of which the Economic Commission for Europe is a regional subdivision

- 20.38 A *Secretary-General* heads the *Secretariat-General*. Preparatory work for the plenary sessions in Brussels is carried out by sections devoted to individual policy areas.

The Committee elects a President and officers for a two-year term, and the groups and sections now also have presidents.

As well as giving opinions on draft EU legislation, the Committee can initiate opinions and studies of its own. Its [Rules of Procedure](#) can be found on its website.

COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS

- 20.39 The [Committee of the Regions](#) is governed by Articles 300 and 305 to 307 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.
- 20.40 A full account of its composition and activities can be found on its website, as can its [Rules of Procedure](#) and a list of [the Commissions](#) that prepare its work.

EUROPEAN CENTRAL BANK

- 20.41 Now a European institution in its own right following the Treaty of Lisbon, the [European Central Bank](#) (ECB) is the central bank for the EU's single currency, the euro, and its main job is to maintain its purchasing power and thus price stability in the euro area. More specifically, the basic tasks of the ECB are to manage the volume of money in circulation, conduct foreign-exchange operations, hold and manage the Member States' official foreign-exchange reserves, and promote the smooth operation of payment systems.

The ECB was established on 30 June 1998, in accordance with its [Statute](#). Its decision-making bodies are its *Governing Council*, *Executive Board* and *General Council*.

OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

- 20.42 *European Investment Bank*. The [European Investment Bank](#) (EIB) was established by the Treaty of Rome. Its main business is making or guaranteeing loans for investment projects. Capital is subscribed by Member States, but principally the EIB borrows on the market by issuing bonds. It provides financial support for projects that embody EU objectives in the Member States and in many other countries throughout the world. The Bank has a *Board of Governors*, a *Board of Directors*, a *Management Committee* and an *Audit Committee*.
- 20.43 *European Investment Fund*. The [European Investment Fund](#) (EIF) is an institution whose main objective is to support the creation, growth and

development of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). It provides risk capital and guarantee instruments, using either its own funds or those available under mandates from the EIB or the European Union.

The EIF has a tripartite shareholding, which includes the EIB, the European Union represented by the European Commission, and a number of European banks and financial institutions, from both the public and private sector. The EIF acts in a complementary role to its majority shareholder, the EIB.

INTERINSTITUTIONAL BODIES

20.44 There are four interinstitutional bodies serving the interests of the EU institutions and agencies:

- ◆ the Computer Emergency Response Team ([CERT-EU](#)), whose remit is to help manage threats to EU institutions' computer systems;
- ◆ the European Personnel Selection Office ([EPSO](#)), which is responsible for setting competitive examinations for recruiting staff to work in all the EU institutions;
- ◆ the European School of Administration ([EUSA](#)), which provides training in specific areas for members of EU staff; and
- ◆ the Publications Office of the European Union ([Publications Office](#)), which acts as the publishing house (paper and digital) for the EU institutions.

AGENCIES

20.45 Over the years the EU has spawned a number of [agencies](#) to perform specific technical, scientific or managerial tasks. Participation in the agencies is not necessarily restricted to the Member States of the EU.

21 REFERENCES TO OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

THE OFFICIAL JOURNAL

21.1 *General.* The full name of the Official Journal is *Official Journal of the European Union* and its official abbreviation in references is 'OJ'. It is published in three series, 'L', 'C' and 'S', each serving different purposes. The L series contains EU legislation, the C series EU notices and information and the S series public procurement notices. Notices of recruitment competitions and some vacancy notices are published in separate 'A' issues of the C series (numbered, for example, 'C227A'). For a fuller account of the three OJ series, see [Section 3.1.1](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.

From 1 July 2013 the electronic edition of the Official Journal is considered authentic and has legal effect. See the [Notice to readers](#) and [Regulation \(EU\) No 216/2013](#).

- 21.2 *OJ references in running text.* The abbreviation ‘No’ should be omitted from references to OJ numbers, whether in the OJ itself or in other work, including in references that predate the introduction of this convention. They should thus follow the pattern:

Official Journal (or OJ) L 118 of 4 May 1973

- 21.3 *OJ footnote references — abbreviated form.* Footnote references in the OJ itself have a shortened form for the date:

OJ L 281, 1.5.1975, p. 1.

Note that only the starting page should be given and not the full page range.

Use this form for OJ footnote references elsewhere as well and in texts destined for the OJ, especially legislation, the budget (‘Remarks’ column), answers to parliamentary written questions and amendments to the Combined Nomenclature.

- 21.4 Page references following an oblique stroke (e.g. OJ L 262/68) are used only in page headings of the OJ itself, and should be avoided in all other contexts.

GENERAL REPORT AND BULLETIN

- 21.5 *General Report.* References to the [General Report](#) take the form:

Twenty-third General Report, point 383; 1994 General Report, point 12

Point 104 of this Report

1990 Annexed Memorandum, point 38

The form ‘Twenty-seventh (or XXVIIth) General Report’ was used up to and including 1993. As from 1994, the title on the cover is ‘General Report 1994’ and the reference style ‘1994 General Report’. The above forms of reference are standard for footnotes in official publications, but in less formal contexts it is quite acceptable (and clearer) to refer to e.g. ‘the 1990 General Report’.

Note that Première (Deuxième, Troisième) partie are rendered Part One (Two, Three).

- 21.6 *Bulletin.* The [Bulletin](#) was a digest of the EEC/EC/EU’s activities, generally published monthly. The first issue covered September-December 1958 and the last July-August 2009. Electronic versions are available from 1996 onwards. A supplement was also issued on major topics and events. Should you come across references, they take the form:

Bull. 9-1980, point 1.3.4; Bull. 7/8-1995, point 1.1.6

Supplement 5/79 – Bull.

22 EU FINANCES

- 22.1 *Own resources.* The European Union and its institutions are essentially funded from own resources, i.e. revenue that the EU receives as of right. These fall into three categories: traditional own resources (customs duties, agricultural duties and sugar levies), a VAT-based resource (a proportion of each Member State's harmonised VAT base), and a resource based on Member States' gross national income. The GNI-based resource is variable, being designed to 'top-up' the revenue obtained from the other sources in order to meet expenditure for a given year. A special mechanism for correcting the budgetary imbalance of the United Kingdom (the UK rebate) is also part of the own resources system.
- 22.2 *Multiannual financial framework.* The multiannual financial framework (MFF — formerly the financial perspective) sets an overall ceiling for EU spending over a given period — currently seven years (2014 to 2020). Funds are apportioned between the years and annual ceilings are set for each spending category ('budget heading').

BUDGET

- 22.3 *General.* The General Budget of the European Union, which does not include the European Development Fund (see 22.11), is often simply called *the budget* (note lower case). The word 'budget' is usually preferable to 'budgetary' in adjectival usage (*budget line, budget year, budget expenditure*), but note 'the budgetary authority' (the Council and Parliament acting in tandem) and Parliament's 'Committee on Budgetary Control'.
- 22.4 *Adoption and structure.* The principles underlying the budget and the rules that govern it are contained in the [Financial Regulation](#) (Regulation (EU, Euratom) No 966/2012) and subsequent implementing regulations. The procedure for drawing up and approving the budget is laid down in Article 314 TFEU, with detailed arrangements set out in Part One, Title III of the Regulation.

In brief, the Commission draws up a draft budget and submits it to the Council and Parliament. The Council adopts its position on the draft and forwards it to Parliament, and if they both approve it, the draft is adopted. In the event of disagreement a conciliation procedure comes into play.

Each EU institution has its own section of the budget, divided into revenue and expenditure and then into titles, chapters, articles and items (*budget lines*). The Commission section is by far the largest, accounting for some 95 % of the total, and is published in a separate volume. Expenditure is broken down by policy area (titles), and activity (chapters). This budget management approach is known as activity-based budgeting (ABB).

- 22.5 *Appropriations and accounting.* Most funds allocated to EU policies are operating appropriations (*crédits opérationnels*). If operations span several years they are differentiated (*crédits dissociés*) and headings contain two

amounts: payment appropriations (*crédits de paiement*) and commitment appropriations (*crédits d'engagement*), with a schedule of projected payments by year. Commitment or payment appropriations plus non-differentiated appropriations are known as appropriations for commitments (*crédits pour engagements*) or appropriations for payments (*crédits pour paiements*).

- 22.6 *Unused appropriations.* As a rule appropriations unused at the end of the financial year (*exercice*) are cancelled (*sont annulés*). Carryovers (*reports*) are possible in certain cases but require a special decision. Where projects are not implemented in full or at all, the appropriations are decommitted (*dégagés*). Cancelled appropriations may be made available again (*reconstitués*) for some areas and subject to specific conditions. For details, see Articles 178 and 182 of the [Financial Regulation](#).

FUNDS FINANCED FROM THE BUDGET

- 22.7 *Agricultural Funds.* The common agricultural policy (CAP) is financed by the [European Agricultural Guarantee Fund](#) (EAGF), which finances direct payments to farmers and measures to regulate agricultural markets such as intervention and export refunds, and the [European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development](#) (EAFRD), which finances the Member States' rural development programmes. Although these two funds have now replaced the former European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF), you should note that many documents relating, for example, to disputed payments and financial corrections still refer back to the EAGGF.
- 22.8 *Structural Funds.* Structural assistance is provided through the Structural Funds (note capitals), which comprise the [European Regional Development Fund](#) (ERDF) and the [European Social Fund](#) (ESF). The EAGGF (Guidance Section) and the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance (FIFG) were previously also classed as Structural Funds, but have now been replaced by the [European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development](#) (EAFRD) and the [European Fisheries Fund](#) (EFF), which now form part of the common agricultural and fisheries policies, respectively.

For more details, see also the Commission's [regional policy](#) website.

- 22.9 *Cohesion Fund.* The purpose of the [Cohesion Fund](#) is to support projects designed to improve the environment and develop transport infrastructure in Member States whose per capita GNP is below 90 % of the EU average.

OTHER FUNDS

- 22.10 *European Investment Fund.* The [European Investment Fund](#) (EIF) secures financing for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). See 20.42 for more details.
- 22.11 *European Development Fund.* The [European Development Fund](#) (EDF) finances most of the EU's cooperation with developing countries. The Fund is

fed by the Member States; it does not come under the general EU budget, though a heading has been reserved for it in the budget since 1993. The EDF is not a permanent fund; a new one is concluded every five years or so.

23 MEMBER STATES

- 23.1 When translating a document that lists the Member States in alphabetical order, rearrange the list into English alphabetical order.
- 23.2 If the Member States are listed in protocol order (see [Section 7.1.1](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide), do not change the order.

The list of Member States in protocol order is as follows:

Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom

For more information, see also [Section 7.1.2](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.

- 23.3 For *abbreviations*, again see [Section 7.1.1](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.
- 23.4 For *postal-code conventions*, see [Section 9](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.
- 23.5 In English, the long forms of country names (full names) should not be used in any but the most formal contexts (unless there is no accepted short form). Even in international treaties, they should be used sparingly, e.g. in the title.
- 23.6 See the [Country Compendium](#) for details of individual Member States.
- 23.7 For other countries, see [Annex A5](#) to the Interinstitutional style guide.

PERMANENT REPRESENTATIONS/REPRESENTATIVES

- 23.8 *Titles.* For *la Représentation permanente du Danemark* etc. write *the Danish Permanent Representation*. Use *Permanent Representative* only for the person holding that office. For correspondence, see [14.3](#).
- 23.9 *The Permanent Representatives Committee* is commonly known under its French acronym *Coreper*. In documents intended for the general public, however, spell out what the acronym means when using it for the first time.

Coreper has been split into Coreper 2 (the Permanent Representatives themselves) and Coreper 1 (deputies) to speed up its work; these designations are only likely to arise in internal Commission papers and may be used without explanation in English translations of them.

NATIONAL PARLIAMENTS

- 23.10 Use the country's own names for its parliamentary institutions only if you are sure your readers will be familiar with them. Otherwise, write *the ... Parliament*, inserting the country adjective. In the case of bicameral systems, write the *lower/upper house of the ... Parliament* if it needs to be specified. However, if a particular parliament is referred to repeatedly, the non-English name may be used, provided it is explained the first time it is introduced. For example, write *the Bundestag* (*the lower house of the German Parliament*) and thereafter *the Bundestag* in a text where the term occurs many times.

Refer to the relevant sections of the [Country Compendium](#) for country-specific information on national parliaments and how to present their names.

- 23.11 *Ireland*. Note that the qualifier '*Éireann*' is not needed when referring to *the Dáil* or *the Seanad*.
- 23.12 *Parliamentarians*. Write *Member of the ... Parliament*, specifying which house if necessary. *MP* should be used only if the context supports the meaning. Avoid national abbreviations of such titles (e.g. *MdB* in Germany).
- 23.13 *Political parties*. Where possible and meaningful, always translate the names of political parties, as this may be important to the reader, but add the national abbreviation in brackets and use this in the rest of the document:

The German Social Democratic Party (SPD) had serious reservations on this issue. The SPD had in the past ...

See, however, the section on Belgium in the [Country Compendium](#).

NATIONAL JUDICIAL BODIES

- 23.14 Use the suggested translations in the [Country Compendium](#). If necessary, insert the original-language form in brackets following the first mention.

NATIONAL LEGISLATION

- 23.15 For countries that provide reliable translations of their legislation into English (e.g. on the Finlex website in Finland), you should use the terms they use. To ensure consistency at source-language level, you should also consult the [Country Compendium](#) for agreed terms and apply the advice given below.
- 23.16 In national legislation, if a provision is numbered *Article 1 bis* (*ter*, *quater*, etc.), do not change it to *Article 1a* (*b*, *c*, etc.) unless there is an official English translation that does so, as this would only cause confusion for anyone attempting to find the original. The English versions of many international agreements, conventions, etc. also use this style of numbering. (But for EU legislation, see 19.23.)

- 23.17 For more information about legislation in Europe, see the Publications Office's guide [Access to legislation in Europe](#).
- 23.18 *Translating the titles of legislation.* In common law systems (such as those of England and Wales, Northern Ireland, Ireland, the United States, Australia and India), titles of legislative acts customarily appear in a form which is concise, avoids the use of relative clauses, contains few prepositions, and — with the exception of brackets — is largely devoid of punctuation.

Examples:

Police (Complaints and Conduct) Act 2012

The European Parliamentary Elections (Returning Officers' and Local Returning Officers' Charges) (Great Britain and Gibraltar) Order 2014

Contract Cleaning Joint Labour Committee Establishment (Amendment) Order 2014

Titles of legislative acts in other systems (those of most EU Member States) tend to be explicit and descriptive and may contain several relative clauses. Their structure is in some cases governed by rules prescribing the use of specific phrases, prepositions, punctuation, etc.

Examples:

Loi modifiant la loi relative à la protection des animaux

Rozporządzenie Ministra Finansów z dnia 24 czerwca 2011 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie kryteriów i warunków technicznych, którym muszą odpowiadać kasy rejestrujące oraz warunków ich stosowania

These descriptive titles can often be neatly translated into English by inverting the word order so that they appear in the more concise form customary in common law countries.

Examples (from French, but equally applicable to many languages):

Loi concernant les chèques, Cheques Act

Loi no. 66-537 du 24 juillet 1966 sur les sociétés commerciales, Commercial Business Associations Act No 66-537 of 24 July 1966

Loi abrogeant l'article 77 du Code civil, Civil Code (Article 77) Repeal Act

Loi modifiant la loi relative à la protection des animaux, Protection of Animals (Amendment) Act

Alternatively, and in particular if this procedure becomes unmanageable or if you feel the reader might be confused, it may be preferable to follow the structure of the original language:

Example:

Loi abrogeant l'article 77 du Code civil, Act repealing Article 77 of the Civil Code

To avoid a top-heavy or bottom-heavy title it may sometimes be possible to combine these styles, as in the title of this piece of US legislation: *1997 Emergency Supplemental Appropriations Act for Recovery from Natural Disasters, and for Overseas Peacekeeping Efforts, Including Those in Bosnia*.

To sum up, the options for *Loi d'orientation et de programmation relatif à la politique de développement et de solidarité internationale* include:

- ◆ the concise common-law format: Development and International Solidarity Policy (Guidance and Planning) Act;
- ◆ the descriptive format: Act governing guidance and planning for policy on development and international solidarity;
- ◆ a mixed format (here with initial capitalisation to emphasise that it is a title): Guidance and Planning Act for Development and International Solidarity Policy.

When deciding which style to adopt you should always bear in mind the need for consistency, clarity and readability.

- 23.19 *Act vs law*. Either is acceptable in translations, provided you are consistent (bearing in mind 23.15).

Note that *act* is a more natural translation for the title of a law, e.g. *la loi sur les sociétés* = *the Companies Act*, while *law* is better in a description, e.g. *la loi sur les sociétés* = *the French law governing companies*.

- 23.20 *Bill vs draft act/law*. Prefer ‘draft act/law’, bearing in mind 23.15.

- 23.21 *Law gazettes, official gazettes and official journals*. For general references to such publications, use these three terms in accordance with the ‘Note to readers’ in [Access to legislation in Europe — Guide to the legal gazettes and other official information sources in the European Union and the European Free Trade Association](#) (substituting *law gazette* for *legal gazette*). For references to specific national publications, follow the advice given in the [Country Compendium](#) (if any), or the general advice in 13.5. However, where appropriate a gloss may be added. Where an English translation is used in the country itself, it should be preferred to the word-for-word translation used in the above-mentioned guide.

24 OFFICIAL LANGUAGES

- 24.1 The official EU languages are listed in English alphabetical order in [Annex A8](#) to the Interinstitutional style guide.
List them in this order in all texts other than legislation. For legislative texts and special cases, see [Section 7.2](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide.
- 24.2 *Abbreviations*. For abbreviations, follow ISO 639 (as in [Annex A8](#) and [Section 7.2.1](#) of the Interinstitutional style guide), but use upper case.

- 24.3 For the official languages of each Member State, see the [Country Compendium](#).
- 24.4 For other languages, see the [ISO list of languages and codes](#).
- 24.5 *Official/working/procedural languages.* The relevant regulations do not distinguish between official and working languages. Internally, however, the Commission works in three languages — English, French and German — unofficially referred to as the ‘procedural languages’. Material generated inside the Commission for internal use only is drafted in one or more of these and, if necessary, is translated only between those three. Similarly, incoming documents in a non-procedural language are translated into one of the procedural languages so that they can be generally understood within the Commission, but are not put into the other official languages.

25 EXTERNAL RELATIONS

- 25.1 The terms ‘*external relations*’ or ‘*external policy*’ refer to the Commission’s and the EU’s traditional dealings with non-member countries in the fields of trade, aid and various forms of cooperation. Use ‘foreign policy’ only in the limited context of the common foreign and security policy (CFSP).
- 25.2 *Information on individual countries.* For names, currencies, capital cities, etc., see the list in [Annex A5](#) to the Interinstitutional style guide.
- 25.3 *The European Economic Area (EEA),* established by the 1991 Agreement on the European Economic Area, extended the ‘free movement’ principles of the then European Communities (now the EU) to the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), i.e. Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, Finland, Sweden, Austria and Liechtenstein. Switzerland failed to ratify the Agreement and Austria, Finland and Sweden subsequently joined the EU.
- 25.4 *Enlargement process.* Going by the Commission’s [enlargement glossary](#), an ‘accessing country’ is one that has signed an act of accession, a ‘candidate country’ is one whose application has been officially accepted, whether or not negotiations have started, and a ‘potential candidate country’ is one that has been offered the prospect of membership. The term ‘applicant country’ would describe any country that has applied to join the EU, so is not an official designation as such. The term ‘accession country’ may be used either for countries about to join the EU or those that have just joined it, so should be avoided if there is a danger of misinterpretation. Note that ‘candidate countries’ may include ‘accessing countries’ where no distinction is being made between them.
- 25.5 *South-East Europe (Western Balkans).* In the context of EU external relations the two terms are used interchangeably to refer collectively to Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia and Montenegro.

- 25.6 *Third countries.* The term *third country* is used in the Treaties, where it means a country that is not a member of the European Union. This meaning is derived from ‘third country’ in the sense of one not party to an agreement between two other countries. Even more generally, the term is used to denote a country other than two specific countries referred to, e.g. in the context of trade relations. This ambiguity is also compounded by the fact that the term is often incorrectly interpreted to mean ‘third-world country’.

If there is a risk of misunderstanding, therefore, especially in documents intended for the general public, either spell out what the term means or use e.g. ‘non-member/non-EU countries’ where this is meant.

- 25.7 *United States of America.* Shorten to the *United States* after first mention; *America* and *American* are quite acceptable, but *the States* should generally be avoided. Abbreviate as *USA* if the proper noun is meant, as *US* if the adjective is intended. *USA* is used more widely in other languages; in translation work it is better rendered *the United States*. Note that a singular verb follows in English (see also 10.7).
- 25.8 *Islam.* Islam is the faith, *Muslim* (not *Muhammedan*, *Mohammedan*) a member of that faith. An Islamic country thus has a mainly Muslim population, some of whom may be Islamists (i.e. ‘fundamentalists’).
- 25.9 *Middle East.* The term *Middle East* now covers the countries around the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, the Arabian Peninsula, and Iran. The term *Near East* has fallen into disuse in English since World War Two. Translate both French *Proche Orient* and *Moyen Orient*, German *Naher Osten* and *Mittlerer Osten*, by *Middle East* — unless, of course, the source text contrasts the two regions.
- 25.10 *International organisations.* The best source is *The Yearbook of International Organisations*.
- 25.11 *United Nations.* Use the abbreviation UN, not UNO. See also *Everyman’s UN*.
- 25.12 *GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade).* The term *the GATT* refers to the Agreement, which is still in force, while *GATT* without the article refers to the now defunct organisation, superseded by the World Trade Organisation (WTO). While GATT had *Contracting Parties*, the WTO has *Members*. The WTO administers not only the GATT but also the GATS — the General Agreement on Trade in Services — as well as a host of other Understandings, Agreements and Arrangements on specific topics. The WTO is not to be confused with the WCO, or World Customs Organisation, formerly known as the Customs Cooperation Council.
- 25.13 *OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development).* The ‘Conseil des ministres’ is called simply ‘the OECD Council’.

Annexes

Annex 1

TRANSLITERATION TABLE FOR GREEK

NAME	LETTER		UN 1987 (ELOT 743)	VARIANTS
alpha	A	α	a	
beta	B	β	v	
gamma	Γ	γ	g	
+ gamma		γγ	ng	
+ kappa		γκ	gk	g (<i>initial</i>), nk (<i>medial</i> + <i>final</i>)
+ xi		γξ	nx	
+ chi		γχ	nch	
delta	Δ	δ	d	
epsilon	E	ε	e	
zeta	Z	ζ	z	
eta	H	η	i	
theta	Θ	θ	th	
iota	I	ι	i	
kappa	K	κ	k	
lambda	Λ	λ	l	
mu	M	μ	m	
+ pi		μπ	b (<i>initial</i> + <i>final</i>) mp (<i>medial</i>)	
nu	N	ν	n	
+ tau		ντ	nt	d (<i>initial</i> + <i>final</i>) nt (<i>medial</i>)
xi	Ξ	ξ	x	
omicron	O	ο	o	
pi	Π	π	p	
rho	P	ρ	r	
sigma	Σ	σ, ς	s	
tau	T	τ	t	
upsilon	Υ	υ	y [u in ου — <i>see below</i>]	
phi	Φ	φ	f	
chi	X	χ	ch	
psi	Ψ	ψ	ps	
omega	Ω	ω	o	

Diphthongs

alpha, epsilon, eta + upsilon	αυ, ευ [ɪv — <i>rare</i>] άυ, αῦ, <i>etc.</i>	av, ev [iv — <i>rare</i>] af, ef, [if — <i>rare</i>] áy, aÿ, <i>etc.</i>	Before β, γ, δ, ζ, λ, μ, ν, ρ, or vowel Before θ, κ, ξ, π, σ, τ, φ, χ, ψ, and final See footnote 15 on accents
omicron + upsilon	ου [óv, oÿ — <i>rare</i>]	ou [óy, oÿ — <i>rare</i>]	
alpha, epsilon, omicron + iota	αι, αῖ ει, εῖ οι, οῖ	ai, aī ei, eī oi, oī	
upsilon iota	υι	yi	

NOTES

- 1) **General rule.** Always use the ELOT 743 standard¹ — including accents — to romanise Greek place names and in any text that is to be published as an official act (except where notes 3 or 4 apply).

In other texts, a variant may be more appropriate in some circumstances (a few specific cases are described in notes 2, 3, and 4).

- 2) **Include accents where feasible.** When a source text other than an official act does not indicate accents,² they may be omitted in the English if it is impossible to determine the correct position or if doing so would involve disproportionate effort.
- 3) **Names.** If you know that someone romanises their own name differently from ELOT, use their spelling (for example, Yorgos or George for Γεώργιος). See also note 4.
- 4) **Classical forms.** In some circumstances the classical form may be more appropriate, e.g. *Cyclades* rather than *Kykládes* for Κυκλάδες. By the same token, the (ancient) Athenian statesman should be written *Pericles*, while a modern Greek with the same name would normally be *Periklís* unless, of course, he himself uses the ‘ancient’ spelling.
- 5) **Double letters.** There is no reason to transcribe a single σ between vowels as ‘ss’, e.g. *Vassilis* for Βασίλης, even though this is often seen. Take care with foreign names, however, as double letters are usually rendered in Greek by a single letter, even if pronounced double in the original language, e.g. *Kanaletto* for Canaletto.

¹ Its use was approved by a European Community interinstitutional working party in 1987 and, for the purposes of romanising geographical names, by the UN (<http://www.eki.ee/wgrs/>) and the relevant US/UK bodies (http://www.pcgn.org.uk/Romanisation_systems.htm).

² An acute accent is used in Greek to indicate stress, and in syllables of two vowels the accent usually appears over the second vowel. However, when romanising upsilon as *v/f* in the syllables *άυ*, *εύ*, *ηύ*, move the accent forward to the vowel, e.g. *άυ* = *áv/áf*. All other accented combinations follow the rules for each separate character, e.g. *άυ* = *áy*, *αῦ* = *aÿ*.

- 6) **Original orthography of foreign names.** The original spelling of foreign names transliterated into Greek is not always obvious and will often require some research. Ντάκα, for instance, is the capital of Μπανγκλαντές (Dhaka, Bangladesh). The Greek rendering τσ for the sounds ‘ch’ (as in ‘china’) and ‘ts’ can pose particular difficulty: Ντόμπριτς is the Greek rendering of the Bulgarian town of *Dobrich* — Добрич (not ‘Dobrits’), but Βράτσα is indeed *Vratsa* — Враца (and not ‘Vracha’).

- 7) Examples of Greek letters used to represent non-Greek sounds:

σ	sh (EN), ch (FR), sci/sce (IT), sch (DE), sz (PL), š (CS)
τσ	ch, tch (EN), ce/ci (IT), tsch (DE), cs (HU), č (CS)
ζ	j (FR), zs (HU), ž (CS)
τζ	j (EN), gi/ge (IT), c (Turkish), xh (Albanian)
ε	ö (DE), ø (DA)
ι	u (FR <i>tu</i>), ü (DE), y (DA)
(γ)ου	w (EN)

- 8) Examples of hellenised foreign names:

Auschwitz	Άουσβιτς	Maxwell	Μάξγουελ
Bruges	Μπριζ	Nietzsche	Νίτσε
Chekhov	Τσέχωφ/Τσέχοφ	Sarajevo	Σαράγιεβο/Σαράγεβο
Eisenhower	Αϊζενχάουερ	Schoenberg	Σένμπεργκ
Goethe	Γκέτε/Γκαίτε	Vaughan	Βον
Hoxha	Χότζα	Wyoming	Ουαϊόμινγκ

Annex 2

CONVERSION TABLE FOR GREEK SERIAL NUMBERING

No	EL	EN
1	α)	(a)
2	β)	(b)
3	γ)	(c)
4	δ)	(d)
5	ε)	(e)
6	στ)	(f)
7	ζ)	(g)
8	η)	(h)
9	θ)	(i)

No	EL	EN
10	ι)	(j)
11	ια)	(k)
12	ιβ)	(l)
13	ιγ)	(m)
14	ιδ)	(n)
15	ιε)	(o)
16	ιστ)	(p)
17	ιζ)	(q)
18	ιη)	(r)
19	ιθ)	(s)

No	EL	EN
20	κ)	(t)
21	κα)	(u)
22	κβ)	(v)
23	κγ)	(w)
24	κδ)	(x)
25	κε)	(y)
26	κστ)	(z)
27	κζ)	(aa)
28	κη)	(bb)
29	κθ)	(cc)

No	EL	EN
30	λ)	(dd)
31	λα)	(ee)
32	λβ)	(ff)
33	λγ)	(gg)
34	λδ)	(hh)
35	λε)	(ii)
36	λστ)	(jj)
37	λζ)	(kk)
38	λη)	(ll)
39	λθ)	(mm)

No	EL	EN
40	μ)	(nn)
41	μα)	(oo)
42	μβ)	(pp)
43	μγ)	(qq)
44	μδ)	(rr)
45	με)	(ss)
46	μστ)	(tt)
47	μζ)	(uu)
48	μη)	(vv)
49	μθ)	(ww)

No	EL	EN
50	ν)	(xx)
51	να)	(yy)
52	νβ)	(zz)
53	νγ)	(aaa)
54	νδ)	(bbb)
55	νε)	(ccc)
56	νστ)	(ddd)
57	νζ)	(eee)
58	νη)	(fff)
59	νθ)	(ggg)

No	EL	EN
60	ξ)	(hhh)
61	ξα)	(iii)
62	ξβ)	(jjj)
63	ξγ)	(kkk)
64	ξδ)	(lll)
65	ξε)	(mmm)
66	ξστ)	(nnn)
67	ξζ)	(ooo)
68	ξη)	(ppp)
69	ξθ)	(qqq)

No	EL	EN
70	ο)	(rrr)
71	οα)	(sss)
72	οβ)	(ttt)
73	ογ)	(uuu)
74	οδ)	(vvv)
75	οε)	(www)
76	οστ)	(xxx)
77	οζ)	(yyy)
78	οη)	(zzz)
79	οθ)	(aaaa)

No	EL	EN
80	π)	(bbbb)
81	πα)	(cccc)
82	πβ)	(dddd)
83	πγ)	(eeee)
84	πδ)	(ffff)
85	πε)	(gggg)
86	πστ)	(hhhh)
87	πζ)	(iiii)
88	πη)	(jjjj)
89	πθ)	(kkkk)

No	EL	EN
90	ι)	(llll)
91	ια)	(mmmm)
92	ιβ)	(nnnn)
93	ιγ)	(oooo)
94	ιδ)	(pppp)
95	ιε)	(qqqq)
96	ιστ)	(rrrr)
97	ιζ)	(ssss)
98	ιη)	(tttt)
99	ιθ)	(uuuu)

No	EL	EN
100	ρ)	(vvvv)
101	ρα)	(www)
102	ρβ)	(xxxx)
103	ργ)	(yyyy)
104	ρδ)	(zzzz)
105	ρε)	(aaaaa)
106	ρστ)	(bbbbb)
107	ρζ)	(ccccc)
108	ρη)	(ddddd)
109	ρθ)	(eeeee)

No	EL	EN
110	ρι)	(fffff)
111	ρια)	(ggggg)
112	ριβ)	(hhhhh)
113	ριγ)	(iiiii)
114	ριδ)	(jjjjj)
115	ριε)	(kkkkk)
116	ριστ)	(lllll)
117	ριζ)	(mmmmm)
118	ριη)	(nnnnn)
119	ριθ)	(ooooo)

No	EL	EN
120	ρκ)	(ppppp)
121	κ α)	(qqqqq)
122	κ β)	(rrrrr)
123	κ γ)	(sssss)
124	κ δ)	(ttttt)
125	κ ε)	(uuuuu)
126	κ στ)	(vvvvv)
127	κ ζ)	(wwwww)
128	κ η)	(xxxxx)
129	κ θ)	(yyyyy)

No	EL	EN
130	ρ λ)	(zzzzz)
131	ρ λ α)	(aaaaa)
132	ρ λ β)	(bbbbb)
133	ρ λ γ)	(ccccc)
134	ρ λ δ)	(ddddd)
135	ρ λ ε)	(eeeee)
136	ρ λ στ)	(ffffff)
137	ρ λ ζ)	(ggggg)
138	ρ λ η)	(hhhhh)
139	ρ λ θ)	(iiiii)

No	EL	EN
140	ρ μ)	(jjjjj)
141	ρ μ α)	(kkkkk)
142	ρ μ β)	(lllll)
143	ρ μ γ)	(mmmmm)
144	ρ μ δ)	(nnnnn)
145	ρ μ ε)	(ooooo)
146	ρ μ στ)	(ppppp)
147	ρ μ ζ)	(qqqqq)
148	ρ μ η)	(rrrrr)
149	ρ μ θ)	(sssss)

No	EL	EN
150	ρ ν)	(ttttt)
151	ρ ν α)	(uuuuu)
152	ρ ν β)	(vvvvv)
153	ρ ν γ)	(wwwww)
154	ρ ν δ)	(xxxxx)
155	ρ ν ε)	(yyyyy)
156	ρ ν στ)	(zzzzz)
157	ρ ν ζ)	(aaaaa)
158	ρ ν η)	(bbbbb)
159	ρ ν θ)	(ccccc)

No	EL	EN
160	ρ ξ)	(ddddd)
161	ρ ξ α)	(eeeeee)
162	ρ ξ β)	(ffffff)
163	ρ ξ γ)	(ggggg)
164	ρ ξ δ)	(hhhhh)
165	ρ ξ ε)	(iiiii)
166	ρ ξ στ)	(jjjjj)
167	ρ ξ ζ)	(kkkkk)
168	ρ ξ η)	(lllll)
169	ρ ξ θ)	(mmmmm)

No	EL	EN
170	ρ ο)	(nnnnnn)
171	ρ ο α)	(ooooo)
172	ρ ο β)	(ppppp)
173	ρ ο γ)	(qqqqq)
174	ρ ο δ)	(rrrrr)
175	ρ ο ε)	(sssss)
176	ρ ο στ)	(ttttt)
177	ρ ο ζ)	(uuuuu)
178	ρ ο η)	(vvvvv)
179	ρ ο θ)	(wwwww)

Annex 3

TRANSLITERATION TABLE FOR CYRILLIC

(Belarusian, Bulgarian, Macedonian, Russian, Ukrainian and Serbian)

For each of the Slavic languages written in Cyrillic there are a number of different romanisation systems used for different purposes: in academic writing on Slavic linguistics; for library and museum cataloguing; for rendering Slavic names in news articles; for maps, road signs, passports and birth certificates, and so on. As a result, there is considerable variety and inconsistency encountered in practice: for example, the Belarusian city of Магілёў is variously transliterated as Mahiloŭ, Mahilyow, Mahilëŭ, Mahilioŭ, Mahilëw, Magilëŭ, Mahilioŭ and Mahilioŭ, and while one Ukrainian Юлія may transliterate herself Yulia, another will use Yuliya, another Yuliia and yet another Iuliia.

The systems recommended here are based on official systems in use in the respective countries. As the systems are language-specific, care should be taken to use the right transliteration system for the right language: for example, a Russian ‘Ольга’ is ‘Olga’, but a Ukrainian one is ‘Olha’.

If not available on the keyboard you are using, accented letters such as đ, ž and ů can be found by using the Insert Symbol menu in Word.

While these transliteration rules can be reliably applied in most cases, it may sometimes be appropriate to deviate from them, for example:

- ◆ where there is a more familiar established spelling: ‘Софія’ > ‘Sofia’ (not ‘Sofiya’), ‘България’ > ‘Bulgaria’ (not ‘Balgariya’), ‘Чайковский’ > ‘Tchaikovsky’ (not ‘Chaykovski’);
- ◆ where an individual habitually uses a different spelling: e.g. the Bulgarian politician ‘Иван Станчов’ himself uses the spelling ‘Ivan Stancioff’ rather than ‘Ivan Stanchov’;
- ◆ for foreign names from languages not written in Cyrillic, in which case rather than being transliterated directly from the Cyrillic the name should be given in its native form correctly spelled (for languages usually written in the Latin alphabet) or in the form conventionally used in English (for other languages); for familiar names this will be obvious, for others it may require a little research: ‘Кишинёв’ (RU) > ‘Chişinău’, ‘Кошиці’ (UK) > ‘Košice’, ‘Солун’ (BG/MK/SR) > ‘Thessaloniki’, ‘Ахмадинежад’ (RU) > ‘Ahmadinejad’, ‘Чунцин’ (RU) > ‘Chongqing’, ‘Пан Її Мун’ (UK) > ‘Ban Ki-moon’.

<i>Letter</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>BG</i>	<i>MK</i>	<i>RU</i>	<i>UK</i>	<i>SR*</i>
Аа	a					
Бб	b					
Вв	v					
Гг	h	g	g	g	h/gh ¹	g
Ґґ	-	-	-	-	g	-
Дд	d					
Ђђ	-	-	-	-	-	Đđ ²
Ѓѓ	-	-	gj	-	-	-
Ее	je ³ /ie	e	e	ye ⁴ /e	e	e
Ёё	jo ³ /io	-	-	yo ⁴ /o	-	-
Єє	-	-	-	-	ye ⁵ /ie	-
Жж	ž	zh	zh	zh	zh	ž
Зз	z					
Сс	-	-	dz	-	-	-
Ии	-	i	i	i ⁶	y	i
Іі	i	-	-	-	i	-
Її	-	-	-	-	yi ⁵ /i	-
Йй	j	y		y	y ⁵ /i	-
Јј	-	-	j	-	-	j
Кк	k					
Лл	l					
Љљ	-	-	lj	-	-	lj
Мм	m					
Нн	n					
Њњ	-	-	nj	-	-	nj
Оо	o					
Пп	p					

¹ When preceded by з to avoid confusion with the digraph ‘zh’ that represents ж: for example, Згорани becomes Zghorany.

² The transliteration ‘dj’ is sometimes seen but considered incorrect, so for Ђоковић write Đoković, not Djoković.

³ Initially and after a vowel, apostrophe, soft sign or ѣ.

⁴ Initially and after vowel.

⁵ Initially.

⁶ The combination ‘ий’ should be transliterated as ‘i’ in Russian, but as ‘yi’ in Ukrainian.

<i>Letter</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>BG</i>	<i>MK</i>	<i>RU</i>	<i>UK</i>	<i>SR</i> [*]
Рр	r					
Сс	s					
Тт	t					
Ћћ	-	-	-	-	-	ć
Ќќ	-	-	kj	-	-	-
Уу	u					
Ўў	ũ	-	-	-	-	-
Фф	f					
Хх	ch	h	h	kh	kh	h
Цц	c	ts	ts	ts	ts	c
Чч	č	ch	ch	ch	ch	č
Џџ	-	-	dzh	-	-	dž
Шш	š	sh	sh	sh	sh	š
Щщ	-	sht	-	shch	shch	-
Ъъ	-	a	-	<i>omit</i>	-	-
Ыы	y	-	-	y ¹	-	-
Ьь	<i>acute accent</i> ²	y	-	<i>omit</i>	<i>omit</i>	-
Ээ	e	-	-	e	-	-
Юю	ju ³ /iu	yu	-	yu	yu ⁴ /iu	-
Яя	ja ³ /ia	ya ⁵	-	ya	ya ⁴ /ia	-
' (apostrophe)	<i>omit</i>	-	-	-	<i>omit</i>	-

* Serbian is unusual in being a language with complete synchronic digraphia, with speakers using both Cyrillic and Latin alphabets, depending on personal preference, and able to read the two scripts equally well. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the two alphabets, each letter of the Serbian Cyrillic alphabet corresponding to a letter (or combination of two letters) in the Serbian Latin alphabet. The Latin letters given in this table for Serbian are, therefore, not a transliteration as such, but the Latin alphabet version of Serbian.

¹ The combination 'ѣй' should be transliterated as 'y'.

² Placed over the preceding consonant: , e.g. дѣ = dž, зѣ = ź, лѣ = ľ, нѣ = ń, сѣ = ś, цѣ = ć.

³ Initially and after a vowel, apostrophe, soft sign or ѣ.

⁴ Initially.

⁵ In Bulgarian word-final 'ия' should be transliterated as 'ia': Мария becomes Maria, not Mariya.

Annex 4

CONVERSION TABLE FOR BULGARIAN SERIAL NUMBERING

No	BG	EN
1	а)	(a)
2	б)	(b)
3	в)	(c)
4	г)	(d)
5	д)	(e)
6	е)	(f)
7	ж)	(g)
8	з)	(h)
9	и)	(i)
10	й)	(j)
11	к)	(k)
12	л)	(l)
13	м)	(m)
14	н)	(n)
15	о)	(o)
16	п)	(p)
17	р)	(q)
18	с)	(r)
19	т)	(s)
20	у)	(t)
21	ф)	(u)
22	х)	(v)
23	ц)	(w)
24	ч)	(x)
25	ш)	(y)
26	щ)	(z)

No	BG	EN
27	аа)	(aa)
28	бб)	(bb)
29	вв)	(cc)
30	гг)	(dd)
31	дд)	(ee)
32	ее)	(ff)
33	жж)	(gg)
34	зз)	(hh)
35	ии)	(ii)
36	йй)	(jj)
37	кк)	(kk)
38	лл)	(ll)
39	мм)	(mm)
40	нн)	(nn)
41	оо)	(oo)
42	пп)	(pp)
43	рр)	(qq)
44	сс)	(rr)
45	тт)	(ss)
46	уу)	(tt)
47	фф)	(uu)
48	хх)	(vv)
49	цц)	(ww)
50	чч)	(xx)
51	шш)	(yy)
52	щщ)	(zz)

No	BG	EN
53	ааа)	(aaa)
54	ббб)	(bbb)
55	ввв)	(ccc)
56	ггг)	(ddd)
57	ддд)	(eee)
58	еее)	(fff)
59	жжж)	(ggg)
60	ззз)	(hhh)
61	иии)	(iii)
62	ййй)	(jjj)
63	ккк)	(kkk)
64	ллл)	(lll)
65	mmm)	(mmm)
66	ннн)	(nnn)
67	ooo)	(ooo)
68	ппп)	(ppp)
69	ррр)	(qqq)
70	ccc)	(rrr)
71	ттт)	(sss)
72	ууу)	(ttt)
73	ффф)	(uuu)
74	ххх)	(vvv)
75	ццц)	(www)
76	ччч)	(xxx)
77	шшш)	(yyy)
78	щщщ)	(zzz)

Annex 5

CONVERSION TABLE FOR NUMBERING OF INSERTED ARTICLES

Article 1 bis	Article 1a
Article 1 ter	Article 1b
Article 1 quater	Article 1c
Article 1 quinques	Article 1d
Article 1 sexties	Article 1e
Article 1 septies	Article 1f
Article 1 octies	Article 1g
Article 1 nonies	Article 1h
Article 1 decies	Article 1i
Article 1 undecies	Article 1j
Article 1 duodecies	Article 1k
Article 1 terdecies	Article 1l
Article 1 quaterdecies	Article 1m
Article 1 quindecies	Article 1n
Article 1 sex[ties]decies	Article 1o
Article 1 septdecies	Article 1p
Article 1 octodecies	Article 1q
Article 1 novodecies	Article 1r
Article 1 vicies	Article 1s
Article 1 unvicies	Article 1t
Article 1 duovicies	Article 1u
Article 1 tervicies	Article 1v
Article 1 quatervicies	Article 1w
Article 1 quinvicies	Article 1x
Article 1 sex[ties]vicies	Article 1y
Article 1 septvicies	Article 1z

It is worth noting that more elaborate combinations may occur, even if rarely, e.g. Article 1 septvicies ter (Article 1zb).

Annex 6

FORMS OF ADDRESS

All forms that begin ‘Dear’ are less formal than those that begin ‘Sir/Madam’, ‘Excellency’, etc.

Close ‘Yours sincerely’ if you are addressing a specific person, whether by name or by position.

For information on specific cases, e.g. where an M(E)P has a title, see also the guidance on forms of address in [Debrett’s](#).

For further details on how to address the clergy in the Anglican Church see [Crockford’s Clerical Directory](#).

Envelope	Start	Close
Letters to Ambassadors and permanent representatives		
His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name] Ambassador of [country] ¹	[Your] Excellency, ² <i>or</i> Sir/Madam, <i>or</i> Dear Ambassador,	I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours faithfully,
His/Her Excellency Ambassador [name] Head of the Mission of [country] to the European Union/ Permanent Representative of [state] to the European Union		
Letters to Ministers		
<i>For the UK:</i> The Rt Hon ³ [name without Mr/Ms] MP [portfolio]	Sir/Madam/My Lord, ¹ <i>or</i> Dear Minister, <i>or</i> Dear Home Secretary, ² <i>or</i> Dear Mr/Ms [name],	I remain [or I am], Sir /Madam/My Lord, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours faithfully, <i>or</i> Yours sincerely,
<i>Ireland:</i> His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name] TD [portfolio]		

¹ For the US, address envelopes to ‘The Honourable [name without Mr/Ms] the American Ambassador’.

² For the UK, start ‘Sir’ or ‘Madam’. For all other countries, start ‘[Your] Excellency’. British ambassadors are known as His/Her Excellency within the country to which they are accredited but not in the United Kingdom. It is almost always acceptable to use ‘Dear Ambassador’.

³ All members of the British cabinet are Privy Counsellors, which entitles the holder to the distinction ‘the Right Honourable’. NB: the spelling ‘Councillors’ is also correct but the Privy Council Office prefers ‘Counsellors’.

Envelope	Start	Close
Letters to Members of Parliament		
<i>European Parliament:</i> Mr/Ms [name], Member of the European Parliament <i>UK backbench MPs:</i> Mr/Ms [name] MP ³	Sir/Madam, <i>or</i> Dear Mr/Ms [name],	Yours faithfully, <i>or</i> Yours sincerely,
Letters to Kings or Queens		
His Majesty King [name] <i>or</i> The King of [country] Her Majesty Queen [name] <i>or</i> The Queen of [country] Their Majesties the King and the Queen of [country]	Your Majesty ⁴ / Your Majesties,	I have the honour to remain/to be, Your Majesty's/ Majesties' most obedient servant, <i>or</i> ... loyal/devoted friend,
Letters to other Heads of State		
His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name] President of [country] ⁵	Excellency, <i>or</i> Mr/Madam President,	I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours faithfully,
Letters to Heads of Government		
His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name] Prime Minister of [country] <i>For the UK: The Rt Hon²⁹</i> [i] [name] MP	Excellency, <i>or</i> Dear Prime Minister, <i>For the UK: Dear Prime</i> Minister,	I remain, Sir/Madam, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours faithfully,

¹ According to rank.

² The recommended informal style of address is by job title.

³ The letters MP follow the name of members of the House of Commons. Use MSP for members of the Scottish Parliament, AM for members of the National Assembly for Wales, MLA for members of the Northern Ireland Assembly and TD for members of Dáil Éireann (Ireland).

⁴ For the UK, letters to the Queen should begin 'Madam' and the envelope should be addressed to 'Her Majesty The Queen'.

⁵ For the US President address envelopes to the 'President of the United States of America' and start 'Mr President'.

Envelope	Start	Close
Letters to Presidents of EU institutions		
Mr/Ms [name] President of the [institution]	Sir/Madam, <i>or</i> Dear Mr/Madam President,	I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours faithfully,
Letters to Secretaries-General		
Mr/Ms [name] Secretary-General of the [...]	Sir /Madam,	I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours faithfully,
Letters to the Pope		
His Holiness Pope Francis Vatican City	Your Holiness, <i>or</i> Most Holy Father,	I have the honour to be/to remain, Your Holiness's obedient servant,
Letters to Cardinals		
His Eminence Cardinal [name] Archbishop of [...]¹	Your Eminence, <i>or</i> My Lord Cardinal, <i>or</i> Dear Cardinal [name],	I remain, Your Eminence/My Lord Cardinal, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours sincerely,
Letters to Archbishops		
The Most Reverend the Lord Archbishop of [...]²	Dear Archbishop, <i>or more formally</i> Your Grace	I remain, Your Grace, Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours sincerely,
Letters to Bishops		
The Right Reverend the Bishop of [...]³ <i>or</i> The Right/Most⁴ Reverend the Lord/Lady Bishop of [...]	Dear Bishop, <i>or more formally</i> My Lord/Lady	I remain, My Lord [Bishop], Yours faithfully, <i>or just</i> Yours sincerely,

¹ If appointed to a See.

² The Archbishops of Canterbury and York are Privy Counsellors. Address envelopes to 'The most Reverend and Right Honourable the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury/York'.

³ The Bishop of London is a Privy Councillor. Address envelopes to 'The Right Reverend and Right Honourable the Lord Bishop of London'.

⁴ The Bishop of Meath and Kildare is styled 'The Most Reverend'.

