



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 shared standard usage of Ireland and the United Kingdom (called ‘Irish/British usage’ or ‘Irish/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 '[Web writing guidelines](#)' section of the Commission's [Europa Web 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 interinstitutional [Joint Practical Guide](#) for the drafting of EU legislation, the [Joint Handbook](#) for the ordinary legislative procedure, and internal drafting tools such as the Commission's [Drafters' Assistance Package](#). Needless to say, our Guide does not in any way aim to replace these resources, which are well worth consulting in their own right. Commission staff should also follow the [Commission Style Guide](#) published internally by the Secretariat-General.

The English Style Guide's current editorial committee is:

Graham Cansdale
Mireille Cayley (deputy chair)
Jonathan Dancourt-Cavanagh
Richard Davies
Danielle Della Porta
Alastair Ferguson
Angus Forsyth (chair)
Kara Lundsatter
Marcin Majewski
Daniel Marcus
Patrick McCarthy
Caroline McClelland
John O'Doherty
Zornitsa Stoyanova-Yerburgh
Alex Teligadas
Rebecca Watts
Lisa Willatts

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-STYLE@ec.europa.eu.

Part I

Writing English

1. General

- 1.1. *Language usage.* The language used in English texts should be understandable to speakers of Irish/British English (defined in the introduction to this guide as the shared standard usage of Ireland and the United Kingdom). As a general rule, Irish/British English should be preferred, and Americanisms that are liable not to be understood by speakers of Irish/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 Irish/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 2.17) 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. 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 space¹.

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 Irish/British usage, colons do not require the next word to start with a capital.
- 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

dry, fruity wine

but not if the adjectives do not form a series:

stable agricultural prices

sweet red wine

The adjectives in the first pair of examples are coordinate adjectives. They separately describe the noun that follows them. They could be inverted or conjoined by ‘and’.

The adjectives in the second pair of examples are cumulative adjectives. ‘Agricultural prices’ and ‘red wine’ form a lexical unit that is described by the adjective that precedes them. They cannot be inverted or conjoined by ‘and’.

- 2.12. *Linked clauses.* Use a comma to separate two clauses 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 clause 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 2.17) or brackets (see 2.19):

The committee on commas, discussing the issue for the 10th 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.

- 2.15. *Apposition.* Commas are not placed around restrictive appositive terms, but are used to set off non-restrictive ones.

In the following sentence, the appositive term (in bold) is restrictive because it identifies the person in question from among a number of colleagues:

My colleague **Ursula** gave a speech at the conference.

In the following sentence, the appositive term (in bold) is non-restrictive because it merely provides additional information about the person in question, but does not identify her:

Ursula, **my colleague**, gave a speech at the conference.

In the following sentences, the appositive terms (in bold) are non-restrictive because there is only one President of the European Commission and people generally have only one boss. Her identity would be clear even if the appositive term and the commas around it were deleted:

The President of the European Commission, **Ursula von der Leyen**, gave a speech at the conference.

My boss, **Ursula**, gave a speech at the conference.

Short-form titles, however, appear before names without an article or comma:

European Commission President Ursula von der Leyen gave a speech at the conference.

- 2.16. *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

- 2.17. *Short (or ‘en’) dashes* may be used to punctuate a sentence instead of commas (see 2.13) or round brackets (see 2.19). 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 short dash to separate the title from the subtitle (see also 4.11 on titles of publications).

Either ‘en’ dashes or hyphens may be used to join related or contrasting pairs (see 3.29) or to replace ‘to’ in a range (see 3.30).

In Microsoft Word, the keyboard shortcut for the ‘en’ dash is Ctrl + - (on the numeric keypad).

- 2.18. *Long (or ‘em’) dashes* can be used as bullet points in lists (see 11).

In Microsoft Word, the keyboard shortcut for the ‘em’ dash is Alt + Ctrl + - (on the numeric keypad).

Brackets

- 2.19. *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 2.17):

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

- 2.20. *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.

- 2.21. *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

- 2.22. 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.

- 2.23. A question mark is used at the end of a direct question:

How will this affect EU trade?

- 2.24. Question marks are not used in indirect speech:

We should ask ourselves how this policy will affect EU trade.

- 2.25. 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

- 2.26. 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.
- 2.27. 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!'*
- 2.28. *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

- 2.29. *Curly vs straight quotation marks*. Quotation marks should be curly ('...') rather than straight ('...').
- 2.30. *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 quotation marks to identify words and phrases that are not themselves quotes but to which you wish to draw attention as lexical items.
- 2.31. *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 4.24.

- 2.32. *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.
- 2.33. *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.
- 2.34. *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.
- 2.35. *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.
- 2.36. *So-called.* Take care when 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 the intended meaning is indeed negative and to distance yourself from the term to which you are referring:

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 ...

Do not place the word or phrase qualified by ‘so-called’ in quotation marks.

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.

- 2.37. *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 4.11 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

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

Marketing years, financial years, and any other 12-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 an ‘en’ dash or hyphen, e.g. 2015–2016, which means 2 years (see also 6.21).

The forward slash is often used to give alternatives, as in ‘and/or’ and ‘yes/no/maybe’. It is closed up when separating single words, but is written with a space either side when one or more of the alternatives is a compound term, e.g.:

Brussels/Luxembourg

but

police car / fire engine / ambulance

Apostrophe

2.39. *Possessive of nouns.* The possessive of any singular noun and of plural nouns that do not end in ‘s’ is formed by adding an apostrophe and the letter ‘s’:

an actress’s role

the owner’s car

this MEP’s expenses

women’s rights

Where a plural ends in ‘s’, only an apostrophe is added:

footballers’ earnings

those MEPs’ expenses

There is no apostrophe in the 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*¹ for individual cases.

Note that it is *1 month's / 4 months' holiday* but *a 1/4-month stay*.

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

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

Helios's future is uncertain; AWACS's success

Cyprus's recovery and resilience plan

The -s after terminal *s*' now tends to be omitted only with classical and biblical names, e.g. *Odysseus' companions*, *Moses' basket*. However, this may also be an option for other nouns if the *s*'s combination sounds awkward. Alternatively a preposition can be used.

Siemens's annual accounts => Siemens' annual accounts

Soissons's 900th anniversary => the 900th anniversary of Soissons

- 2.41. *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 (*hence 'dos and don'ts'*)

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'*)

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

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

Pilots of 747s undergo special training.

- 2.44. *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.

- 2.45. *Inflection of abbreviations used as verbs*. Use an apostrophe when inflecting 'abbreviation verbs' such as *cc, ID, PM* (personal message) and *RSVP*:

I'm cc'ing the Director-General.

¹ Also available online as a search option in the drop-down menu on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#).

Under the UK's Challenge 25 scheme, anyone who is over 18 but looks under 25 should be ID'd when they try to buy alcohol.

Where possible, however, it is preferable to use alternatives such as 'to put someone in copy':

I'm putting the Director-General in copy.

Under the UK's Challenge 25 scheme, anyone who is over 18 but looks under 25 should be asked for ID when they try to buy alcohol.

3. Spelling

Conventions

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

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 Premium website](#) (subscription required), or on the [Oxford Learner's Dictionaries website](#), should be followed (making sure in each case that the British English dictionary is selected). 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.
- 3.3. Note, however, that the names of bodies in other English-speaking countries retain the original spellings, e.g. *US Department of Defense*; *Australian Labor Party*. For international organisations, follow their own practice, e.g. *World Health Organization*. Follow the list in [Annex 1](#).
- 3.4. *The -yse form* is the only correct spelling for words such as *paralyse* and *analyse*.
- 3.5. 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).
- 3.6. *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 Irish/British English. *Foetus* is still common in Ireland and the United Kingdom in non-technical use.

- 3.7. *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. *kidnapped*, *worshipped*, but not *developed*).

- 3.8. *Carcass/carcase.* Prefer *carcass(es)* to *carcase(s)*, except when citing official texts that use the latter.
- 3.9. Use *-ct-* not *-x-* in *connection*, *reflection*, etc. But note *complexion* and *flexion*.
- 3.10. Write *gram*, *kilogram* (not *gramme*, *kilogramme*). However, use *tonne* not *ton* ('ton' refers to the non-metric measure).
- 3.11. Write *metre* for the unit of length, *meter* for measuring instruments.
- 3.12. *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.
- 3.13. *Judg[e]ment.* *Judgment* is used in legal contexts, *judgement* in all other contexts.
- 3.14. *Data-processing usage.* Avoid the forms *inpu[t]ted* 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*.
- 3.15. *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>fora only in relation to ancient Rome</i>)
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
minimum	minima (<i>mathematics, science</i>) minimums (<i>other contexts</i>)
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

3.16. *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*).

- 3.17. *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
environnement	environment
exemple	example
existant	existent
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](#), the internal [Claire's Clear Writing Tips](#) blog and [Section 10.3.3](#) of the *Interinstitutional Style Guide* on interference effects.

Compound words and hyphens

- 3.18. *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*. As a general rule, the form used on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#) or the [Oxford Learner's Dictionaries website](#) should be followed (e.g. *end user*, *by-product*, *database*, *e-learning*).

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. Failure to insert a hyphen when it is necessary could lead to confusion or even change the meaning of the sentence:

a little-used car / a little used car

government-monitoring programme / government monitoring programme

Hyphens need not be inserted, however, if the meaning is clear and unambiguous without them:

civil rights movement
mechanical engineering degree

Avoid using long strings of modifiers (adjectives and/or nouns qualifying other nouns), as they can be confusing. Where the confusion cannot be resolved by the addition of a hyphen, consider using prepositions to clarify the relationship between the words:

underground mine worker safety procedures development
development of safety procedures for underground mine workers

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;
product-by-product input-output tables;
a 2-day meeting; a 4-month stay (*but* 4 months' holiday);
45 tonne-kilometres; 15 person-days;
non-English-speaking population groups; non-EU-related business;
one-size-fits-all approach; buy-one-get-one-free offer

3.19. In modifiers consisting of an adverb and participle or an adverb and adjective, there is no hyphen when the adverb ends in *-ly*:

an occupationally exposed worker; a beautifully phrased sentence; a steeply sloping roof; an impossibly complex issue; a pleasantly cool breeze

This applies irrespective of the form used on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#) or on the [Oxford Learner's Dictionaries website](#):

fully automatic; fully grown; fully fashioned; fully fledged

Nor is there a hyphen when *ever* is followed by a comparative adjective:

ever closer union; ever greater understanding

But note that other compound modifiers formed with *ever* are hyphenated:

ever-loving family; ever-faithful dog

With other adverbs too, a hyphen is usually required:

a well-known problem; the above-mentioned report; a deep-rooted fear (*but* a deeply held belief); a close-fought match (*but* a closely fought match)

Some compound adjectives take a hyphen even when used predicatively:

We need a solution that is cost-effective.
All of the company's products are cruelty-free.
You would be ill-advised to ignore our concerns.

Check the example sentences on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#) or on the [Oxford Learner's Dictionaries website](#) to see which compounds are hyphenated in this way.

- 3.20. An adjective formed out of a noun and a participle should be hyphenated:
 drug-related crime, crime-fighting unit; oil-bearing rock
- 3.21. Many phrases are treated as compounds, and thus need a hyphen, only when used attributively as premodifiers:
 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
 to meet face to face, *but* face-to-face meeting
 service provided free of charge, *but* free-of-charge help
- 3.22. *Chemical terms.* Note that open compounds designating chemical substances do not take a hyphen in attributive position: *boric acid solution, sodium chloride powder.*
- 3.23. *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, cooperation, subcommittee, subparagraph

Others are more resistant to losing the hyphen:

co-determination, end-phase, all-embracing, all-metal, off-market operations, off-duty

but note

end user, end product, endgame, nonsense, overalls, email

- 3.24. *Phrasal verbs.* Noun forms of phrasal verbs (a verb combined with a particle, usually an adverb or preposition) are often hyphenated or written as single words. As a general rule, the form used on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#) or on the [Oxford Learner's Dictionaries website](#) should be followed (e.g. *handout, takeover, comeback, backup* but *follow-up, run-up, spin-off*).

The verb forms are always written as separate words: *hand out, take over, come back, back up, follow up, run up, spin off.*

Participle forms of phrasal verbs are generally hyphenated when used attributively as adjectives: *cooling-off period, warming-up exercise, knocked-down prices, worn-out shoes.*

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

anti-intellectual, co-education, part-time, re-election, re-entry, re-examine,
pre-empt

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

bookkeeping, 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), 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. *Related or contrasting pairs.* Either ‘en’ dashes or hyphens are used to join related or contrasting pairs (see also 2.17 and 2.18 on dashes):

the Brussels–Paris route / the Brussels-Paris route

a current–voltage graph / a current-voltage graph

the height–depth ratio / the height-depth ratio

- 3.30. *Ranges.* Either ‘en’ dashes or hyphens can be used to replace ‘to’ in a range, e.g. 2015–2019 (see also 6.21 on time spans).

- 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, frameworks, etc.* These are in lower case:

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

Europe 2020 strategy

common agricultural policy

EU action plan on urban mobility

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:

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

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 capitals for a particular institution or person, but small letters for groups of institutions or people. Exception: references to permanent EU bodies/formations (e.g. ‘College of Commissioners’, ‘Directorates-General’, ‘Cabinets’) and to official functions within the EU institutions (e.g. ‘Members of the Commission’, ‘Directors-General’) always take a capital letter, whether in the singular or the plural.

Ad hoc groups (e.g. the Polish delegation to a meeting) do not require initial capitals.

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

Names of institutions reproduced in a foreign language should retain the capitalisation of the original language, e.g. *Banque centrale du Luxembourg*. If you translate the name directly then English capitalisation rules apply, e.g. *Central Bank of Luxembourg*. Use initial capitals for official or literal translations but lower case for descriptive translations:

The Federal Constitutional Court is the German supreme court.

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. *Short forms.* When deciding whether to capitalise or not, it is useful to draw a distinction between:

- ◆ writing out official titles in full; and
- ◆ using a short form.

Using a short form of the official title can make a text more readable by not spelling out the full title every time it appears in the text. Authors often use this device quite naturally and without thinking, but often capitalise the short form unnecessarily. This is particularly common when authors refer back to the names of EU and national strategies, programmes, action plans, etc., which often have their origin in the title of a published document. Do not use initial

capitals when referring back to titles or documents in this way (even if the form you are using is not much shorter than the original title):

The evaluation guidelines

Slovakia's 2013–2020 social protection programme

the 2020 action plan implementing the 2013–2022 medicines strategy

For further examples of short forms see 4.5 and 4.6 above.

The degree of formality of a text can also influence the choice of upper or lower case. You can write *the Latvian government*, *the Spanish environment ministry*, *the German and Swedish agriculture ministers*, etc., except:

- ◆ when using (a translation of) the full formal title (see 5.10);
- ◆ in the expression 'Heads of State or Government' (see 4.16);
- ◆ in diplomatic correspondence (see Annex 7).

The use of lower case in short forms should not introduce ambiguity. For example, an initial capital may be needed to avoid confusion between *the Funds* in reference to specific EU funds like the European Social Fund and *the funds* as amounts of money in a more general sense.

- 4.8. *Generic descriptions.* While the full official name of a body always takes initial capitals, generic descriptions such as *national regulatory authority*, *managing authority*, *certifying authority*, *intermediate body* or *auditing authority* do not.
- 4.9. *References to EU legislation.* Write *Regulation*, *Decision* and *Directive* with capitals if they are followed by a number or refer to specific acts (e.g. 'For the purpose of this Regulation, the following definitions apply.') Write *Annex*, *Appendix* and *Article* with capitals if they are followed by a number or if the act in question contains only one annex, appendix or article (e.g. 'the Annex to this Decision' but 'the Directive and its articles'). Use lower case for references to regulations, directives, etc. in a generalised sense and when referring to proposed legislation (e.g. draft regulation, proposal for a directive on ...).
- 4.10. *Draft legislation.* Note that the words *draft* and *proposal* should be written in lower case even in the titles of draft legislation.
- 4.11. *Publications.* The titles of books, journals, newspapers and periodicals normally take a capital on each word except articles, prepositions and conjunctions, and when cited 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

PM²

Project Management Methodology Guide

Interinstitutional Style Guide

although the shortened title of the *Official Journal of the European Union* is written in roman type (see also 21.2):

the Official Journal

For long titles and all subtitles use a capital only on the first word, on any proper nouns and on any adjectives formed from proper nouns:

Economic and budgetary outlook for the European Union 2017

Handbook on European law relating to asylum, borders and immigration

Likewise, titles of papers included in journals or as chapters in books, along with newspaper articles, take a capital only on the first word, on any proper nouns and on any adjectives formed from proper nouns. When cited, they are written in roman type in quotation marks.

4.12. *Headings and subheadings.* All headings and subheadings within a document take a capital only on the first word, on any proper nouns and on any adjectives formed from proper nouns.

4.13. *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 2018/2019 marketing year, the 2019 budget year*, and so on.

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

4.14. *Graphics, tables and cross references.* When they are followed by a numeral, always use an initial capital for *Figure (Fig.)*, *Number (No)*, *Table*, *Volume (Vol.)*, *Part*, *Chapter (Chap.)*, *Subchapter (Subchap.)*, *Division (Div.)*, *Section (Sect.)*, *Subsection (Subsect.)* and *Article (Art.)*. In running text the abbreviations indicated should be spelt out. Do not capitalise *page*, *paragraph*, *subparagraph*, *footnote*, *point* or *line*.

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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.

4.15. *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](#).

4.16. *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*)

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

North Pole

River Plate

Trafalgar Square

Third World

North Rhine-Westphalia

Northern Ireland

East Midlands

the North-West Frontier

but lower case when describing a geographical area:

northern England

western, central and eastern Europe

central European countries

Industry is concentrated in the north of the country

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 [5.31](#).

- 4.18. *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

- 4.19. *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.

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

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

Bunsen burner
Faraday cage
but
arabic (numerals)

french (chalk, polish, windows)

morocco (leather)

roman (type)

Consult a reliable dictionary, as practice varies.

- 4.22. *Hyphenated constructions.* In titles containing a hyphenated compound, it is acceptable to capitalise either only the first element (unless the second element is a proper noun) or both elements:

Mind-bending Conundrums and Puzzles or *Mind-Bending Conundrums and Puzzles*

Anti-corruption Measures in South-Eastern Europe or *Anti-Corruption Measures in South-Eastern Europe*

but

Anti-American Sentiment in Post-Soviet Russia

In the names of organisations containing a hyphenated term, both approaches are also acceptable. If an organisation has an official name in English, however, its own practice should be followed:

European Anti-Fraud Office

International Agri-Food Network

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

Where constructions starting with one letter followed by a hyphen appear as a heading or at the beginning of a sentence, the letter preceding the hyphen should remain in lower case, e.g. *e-Evidence* or *o-Toluidine*.

- 4.23. *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](#).

- 4.24. *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 written in upper case 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. *Personal names* should retain their original accents, e.g. Cañete, Malmström, Šefčovič. The German *ß* may, however, be replaced with *ss*, e.g. Clauss, if the person in question has expressed a preference for that spelling or spells their own name that way.
- 5.3. *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).
- 5.4. *Mx.* The most common title for non-binary people is *Mx*. Use this unless you know that the person concerned prefers otherwise. Note that unlike singular *they*, *Mx* cannot be used to indicate that you are uncertain of a person's gender (in which case it is better to use no title).
- 5.5. *Foreign-language titles.* Avoid titles not customary in English, but note that if you use Mr, Ms or Mx, you must be sure of the gender of the person in question.

For:

Prof. Dr. H. Schmidt

Dipl.-Ing. W. Braun

Drs. A. Baerdemaeker

Ir. B. De Bruyn

Me Reuter

write:

Prof. H. Schmidt

Mr W. Braun

Ms A. Baerdemaeker

Ms B. De Bruyn

Mr Reuter

- 5.6. *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.
- 5.7. *Government ministers and senior officials.* When translating into English, write ‘Minister for...’ but ‘Ministry of...’. In formal texts, use the translations given on [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

- 5.8. 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.

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

This Decision is addressed to Federazione Dottori Commercialisti.

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

Names in a non-Latin alphabet should be transliterated (and not translated):

Dimosia Epichirisi Ilektrismou AE (DEI) (*rather than* Public Power Corporation SA (PPC))

- 5.10. 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](#).

- 5.11. 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.

- 5.12. *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.

- 5.13. *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).

- 5.14. *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 other vehicles

- 5.15. *Names of ships, aircraft and other vehicles* are written in italics:

the *Cutty Sark*

HMS *Beagle*

the SS *Normandie*

the *Spirit of St Louis*

the *Flying Scotsman*

Geographical names

- 5.16. *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](#).
- 5.17. *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*.
- 5.18. *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

- 5.19. *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.

5.20. *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 quotation marks.

- ◆ *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.

5.21. *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.

5.22. *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.

5.23. *Lakes.* Use the English names *Lake Constance* (for *Bodensee*), *Lake Geneva* (for *Lac Léman*), *Lake Maggiore* (for *Lago Maggiore*) and *Lake Balaton* (for *Balaton*).

5.24. *Strait/straits.* The singular is the form commonly used in official names, for example: *Strait of Dover* or *Strait of Gibraltar*.

5.25. *Other bodies of water.* Write *IJsselmeer* (not *Ij-* or *Y-*), *Wattenmeer*, *Kattegat* (Danish), *Kattegatt* (Swedish), *Great/Little Belt*.

5.26. *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 *Füüen* in English texts and use *West Friesian Islands* for *Waddeneilanden*.

- 5.27. *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.

- 5.28. *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*.

- 5.29. *Cities*. See the sections on individual countries in the [Country Compendium](#).

- 5.30. *Non-literal geographical names*. Geographical names used in lexicalised compounds tend to be written in lower case, as they are no longer considered proper adjectives: *gum arabic*, *prussic acid*. Consult an up-to-date reliable dictionary in cases of doubt.

- 5.31. *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*, *South-East Asia*; they are always abbreviated as capitals without points (*NW France*).

- 5.32. *Addresses*. With the exception of the name of the country, which should be translated and written all in upper case, postal addresses should be reproduced in the original language (but transliterated if they are in a non-Latin alphabet). Thus:

‘B.P.’ (boîte postale) should **not** be changed to ‘P.O. Box’.

‘Straße’ should **not** be changed to ‘Strasse’.

‘Den Haag’ should **not** be changed to ‘The Hague’.

For the presentation of addresses on envelopes and in EU publications, see [Section 9.1](#) of the *Interinstitutional Style Guide*.

6. Numbers

Writing out numbers

- 6.1. *Figures or words?* Spell out the numbers *one* to *nine*, use digits thereafter; however, where numbers in ranges, ratios and other similar constructions fall above and below this limit use figures for both:

‘9 to 11’, *not* ‘nine to 11’

‘2 of the 12’, *not* ‘two of the 12’

On web pages, all numbers should be written as figures.

Note that you should also always use figures for statistics in which two or more numbers are compared (3 new officials were appointed in 2015, 6 in 2016 and ...), for votes (9 delegations were in favour, 7 against, and 6 abstained), for ranges denoted by an ‘en’ dash or hyphen (see [Ranges, 6.15-6.16](#)), 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).

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

90 fifty-gram weights, seventy 25-cent stamps

Similarly, where a sentence combines two sets of different figures, it is often clearer to use words for one and figures for the other:

Twelve of the children were over 10 and one was 9.

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 euro *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*.

The rule that numbers greater than nine are written as figures is not always followed in names or titles, e.g. the Thirty Years War, *One Thousand and One Nights*.

- 6.2. *Ordinal numbers*. First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth (one to nine inclusive written in full), but:

10th, 11th, ... 21st, 22nd, 23rd, 24th, etc.

However, the ‘first to ninth’ rule does not always apply to ordinal numbers. For example:

5th place, 2nd edition

but

third country, the third meeting of the committee, third party, first world, first and foremost, the second time.

In addition, in some legal documents, dates and reference to dates are written out in full:

This Directive shall enter into force on the twentieth day following that of its publication in the *Official Journal of the European Union*.

The thirty-first day of December, nineteen hundred and eighty-one.

- 6.3. On rare occasions, a large number may need to be written out, e.g. in a financial document in which amounts are both presented as figures and spelled out. In such cases, the amount in words has a comma where the amount in figures has a space or comma (e.g. after the words ‘million’ and ‘thousand’), and the conjunction ‘and’ appears before the tens or ones in each group. For example:

For €672 508 323.50 write: ‘Six hundred and seventy-two million, five hundred and eight thousand, three hundred and twenty-three euro and fifty cent’.

- 6.4. 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 ...’

- 6.5. *Grouping of thousands*. Thousands are separated by a hard space¹:

15 000

Separation by a comma is allowed only in stand-alone graphics and infographics, popular works, promotional publications, press releases and audiovisual products and when writing for the web. For tables and graphics embedded in documents, thousands should be separated by a hard space¹. Note that serial numbers are not grouped in thousands (*p. 1452*).

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

- 6.6. *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.
- 6.7. *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 space¹.

Serial numbers

- 6.8. 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 (џ, Ђ, 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 (III)

- ◆ ρ), σ), τ), υ), φ), χ), ψ), ω), ρ) represent hundreds (from 100 to 900), so ρ is translated as (vvvv) and φ as (ffffffffffffffffffff), 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 (wwww).

To find the equivalent lower-case letters to use in English, see the conversion tables in [Annex 3](#) (Greek numbering) and [Annex 5](#) (Bulgarian numbering).

Fractions and percentages

- 6.9. *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.

- 6.10. *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*.
- 6.11. *Percentages.* Note that *per cent* is normally written as two words in Irish/British English. Use *per cent* where the number is also spelled out in words: *twenty per cent*. With figures, use the per cent sign (%), closed up to the figure, e.g. 25%. However, in official (legal and non-legal) publications, a hard space¹ is added automatically before the percentage symbol in accordance with the relevant ISO standard. See also Section [6.4](#) of the *Interinstitutional Style Guide*.
- 6.12. 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.
- 6.13. 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%.
- 6.14. 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*.

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

Ranges

- 6.15. *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

- 6.16. *Abbreviated form.* When a range is indicated by an ‘en’ dash or hyphen, do not repeat the symbol or multiple if they do not change and close up the ‘en’ dash or hyphen between the figures:

€20–30 million, 10–70 °C

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

100 kW – 40 MW

Dates and times

- 6.17. *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*.

- 6.18. *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 ...*

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

- 6.20. *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.

- 6.21. *Time spans.* Use a closed-up ‘en’ dash or hyphen (see 3.30) for year ranges:

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

1939–1945, 2015–2021

but in legislative texts, use ‘to’ rather than an ‘en’ dash or hyphen (2015 to 2021).

The word ‘inclusive’ is not added after the date, as it is superfluous in all expressions of time.

Remember, too, that 2015/2016 = 1 year: marketing year, financial year, academic year (see 2.38).

Note:

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

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

1 May 2018 to 30 April 2019 (*preferable to*: 1 May 2018 – 30 April 2019)

6.22. *Start dates.* The following formulations may be used to set the start of a period:

with effect from 1 January 2018

shall take effect on 1 January 2018

shall have effect on 1 January 2018

shall enter into force on 1 January 2018

When dates need to be expressed by reference to a certain event, the following formulation may be used:

on the first day of the month following [an event]

The word ‘after’ should not normally be used to start a time period as it may create confusion. If ‘after’ is used, the date following it should be the date preceding that on which the period begins. For example:

‘after 31 December 2017’ means ‘on or with effect from 1 January 2018’

6.23. *End dates.* The following formulations may be used to set the end of a period:

until 31 December 2017

until the entry into force of the Act, or 31 January 2017, whichever is the earlier

shall expire on 31 December 2017

shall cease to apply on 31 December 2017

shall apply until 31 December 2017

not later than 31 December 2017

by 31 December at the latest (This formulation should not be used for the end of the period of validity of acts because it would render that date imprecise)

Please note the distinction between the use of ‘by’ and ‘until’ when setting time limits and periods:

The report must be completed by 1 January 2018 (*not*: The report must be completed until 1 January 2018)

The reference period of the report runs until 31 December 2017

6.24. *Time limits.* You can use the following formulation to set a time limit:

Member States shall take the necessary measures to comply with this Directive within a period of 6 months as from the date of its entry into force

A delegated act shall enter into force ... within a period of 2 months of notification of that act

6.25. *Dates as qualifiers.* In general, 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 2012 Olympic Games

However, when referring to a specific document or event, dates and time spans should be written exactly as they appear in the title:

HMRC Annual Report and Accounts 2015–16

Innovate Finance Global Summit 2017

Hull City of Culture 2017

Instead of writing ‘the 2006–2010 period’, consider omitting the word ‘period’ and simply writing ‘from 2006 to 2010’ or ‘between 2006 and 2010’.

6.26. *Time.* The 24-hour system is preferred, but in less formal registers you may use the 12-hour system with a.m. and p.m.

24-hour system

Use leading zeros and a colon, e.g. 09:30. In some cases, the seconds are also indicated, e.g. 09:30:05.

The full hour is written with zero minutes: 12:00 (midday), 14:00. Midnight may be written as either 00:00 (beginning of the given date) or 24:00 (end of the given date), i.e. 24:00 of one day is the same time as 00:00 of the following one.

12-hour system

Use a point and avoid leading zeros (e.g. 9.15 a.m., not 09.15 a.m.)

The full hour is not written with zero minutes (e.g. 9 a.m., not 9.00 a.m.)

‘Midday/noon’ and ‘midnight’ should be used in preference to 12 p.m. and 12 a.m.

In English, times are not followed by h or hrs in either the 24 or the 12-hour system.

6.27. For duration use *h*:

The time allowed for the test is 2½ h.

6.28. 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.

Second, 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 ‘FM’ or a similar coined abbreviation). See also 5.13.

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 and each separate letter is pronounced (examples include: *BBC*, *MEP*, *USA*, *UK*, *EU*). As a general principle, initialisms are written without points.

Contractions and truncations

- ◆ **Contractions** omit the middle of a word (examples include: *Mr*, *Dr*, *contd*, *Ltd*) and, in Irish/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 written in upper case:

AIDS, COST, COVID-19, 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, CENELEC and UNCTAD) and other acronyms conventionally written in upper case.

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, EAGF, EMCDDA, UNHCR, WTO, also AI for *Artificial intelligence* and NB for *Nota Bene*

This applies in particular to Incoterms®:

EXW, FCA, CPT, CIP, DAT, DAP, DDP, FAS, FOB, CFR, CIF

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

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

However, *balance of payments* is abbreviated as BoP.

Note that ‘e.g.’ and ‘i.e.’ are never capitalised (even at the beginning of footnotes) and always take points, while ‘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., Chap., Fig., etc., cf., *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:

Chaps. 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 7.21 and 7.30). 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*.

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*]).

Note that first names should be abbreviated with a single letter only, followed by a point (*Philippe: P.*, *Theodor: T.*, *Ádám: Á.*, *Lukasz: L.*). 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.

Some Latin alphabets contain letter combinations (digraphs) which count as distinct letters: note that György is therefore abbreviated to Gy. and Zsuzsanna to Zs.

For Slavonic languages that use a Cyrillic alphabet, initials should be transliterated as shown in Annex 4. Some initials will therefore appear as two letters when transliterated (*Желю: Zh.*, *Юрий: Yu.*).

For Greek, initials should be transliterated as shown in Annex 2 (*Θεόδωρος: Th.*, *Χριστόφορος: Ch.*), unless it is known that the person concerned prefers otherwise. See also footnote 3 to Annex 2 (for instance, a certain Χριστόφορος might be known to use C. as his initial in English).

- 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*).

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

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, MSs* (Member States), 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.

In units of measurement, the plural ‘s’ is also sometimes omitted from abbreviations, e.g. CFU/g = colony-forming units per gram, LU/ha = livestock units per hectare. It may also be omitted when the abbreviation in question exists only in plural form, e.g. ordinary least squares (OLS), or when the plural word is not the last one in the sequence of words from whose initial letters the abbreviation is formed, e.g. checks by monitoring (CbM).

- 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 9.3), these should be written in roman type:

e.g., i.e.

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. *Mathematical expressions* may be either in-line (embedded in the surrounding text) or displayed (presented on a separate line). In both cases, they are

grammatically part of the text in which they appear. They should be punctuated accordingly and be as clear and grammatical as any other type of text.

- 7.13. *Mathematical symbols.* Always use the correct character for mathematical symbols. For example, do not use an ‘en’ dash as a minus sign¹ or a letter ‘x’ as a multiplication sign², as these can make equations inaccessible to people using screen readers.

There should be a hard space³ between the symbol and the number, thus:

$$10 \div 5 = 2, \text{ and}$$

$$10 - 11 = -1.$$

The minus sign should normally be followed by a hard space³ (see [Section 6.4](#) of the *Interinstitutional Style Guide*), but when expressing a negative value in a mathematical equation, it should be closed up to the following figure to avoid confusion (as in the example above).

- 7.14. *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.

- 7.15. *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. $2 \cdot A = 2 \cdot \pi \cdot r^2$ can be written $2A = 2\pi r^2$.

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

- 7.16. *Division sign.* In the English-speaking world, the commonest symbols for division are \div , $/$, and $/$ (obelus⁴, slash, and solidus or division slash⁵). 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).

- 7.17. *Ranges.* Use a closed-up ‘en’ dash or hyphen to signify a range (e.g. $10\text{--}12\%$). Note the remark concerning Italian usage in [7.16](#). See also [2.17](#) and [2.18](#) on dashes.

¹ For the minus sign ($-$), use Alt + 8722 in Windows and U + 2212 in Unicode.

² For the multiplication sign (\times), use Alt + 0215 in Windows and U + 00D7 in Unicode.

³ In Windows: Alt + 0160. In Word: Ctrl + Shift + Space.

⁴ You will find it in the Latin-1 character set after the letter \ddot{o} , using *Insert > Symbol ...* in Word.

⁵ In the Mathematical Operators character set, using *Insert > Symbol ...* in Word.

- 7.18. *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

- 7.19. *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 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’](#).
- 7.20. *Names of measurement units.* Names of basic and derived units of measurement are always written in lower case, e.g. *15 grams*. This is the case 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, 10 metres*, etc.) and are separated from preceding figures by a hard space¹.
- Note that proper names used adjectivally retain their initial capital: Richter scale, Mach number, degree Celsius.
- 7.21. *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*).
- 7.22. *Capitalisation 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 written in lower case: *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.
- 7.23. *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.
- 7.24. *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*.
- 7.25. *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*

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

- (ft). Do not convert quantities, although an explanatory footnote may be inserted if appropriate.
- 7.26. *Degree sign.* The degree sign in temperatures should be preceded by a hard space¹, 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*.
- 7.27. *Ohm.* The ohm symbol is capital omega (Ω). All other SI symbols for units of measurement are formed from unaccented Latin characters.
- 7.28. In computing, *K (kilo)*, *M (mega)* and *G (giga)* often stand for binary thousands (1 024=2¹⁰), millions (1 048 576=2²⁰) and billions (1 073 741 824=2³⁰), respectively. Note the capital K in this usage.
- 7.29. *Electric power.* *Kilowatt (kW)* and *megawatt (MW)* are used for generating capacity, *kWh* and *MWh* for output over a given period.
- 7.30. *Chemical elements.* The [names of the chemical elements](#) start with a lower-case 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.
- 7.31. In shipping, *grt* stands for gross register tonnage (not *registered*) and *gt* for gross tonnage.

8. Currencies

- 8.1. *Currency abbreviations and symbols.* When the monetary unit is accompanied by an amount, use the ISO code (compulsory in legal acts). It is followed by a hard space¹ and the amount in figures:

The amount required is EUR 500

A sum of USD 300 was spent

The main ISO codes are set out in [Annex A7](#) to the *Interinstitutional Style Guide*. An exhaustive list of codes can be found in ISO 4217.

In graphics and infographics, popular works, promotional publications, press releases and audiovisual products and when writing for the web, the currency symbol (€, \$, etc.) should be used. It is closed up to the figure:

The amount required is €500

A sum of \$300 was spent

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

- 8.2. *Negative currency values.* Where a minus sign is used to express a negative amount, it precedes the currency abbreviation or symbol and is followed by a hard space¹:

– EUR 240
– €240

- 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. If one unit is used throughout an entire table, the unit can be indicated once only, in italics and in brackets, at the top. In English texts, if the unit used for the entire table is EUR 1 million, the abbreviation *million EUR* should be used.

- 8.5. *The euro.* Like any other currency name in English, the word ‘euro’ is written in lower case with no initial capital. The plural of ‘euro’ is ‘euro’ (without ‘s’). The invariable plural form ‘cent’ is also preferred and is compulsory in legal acts:

The project was granted funding of fifty thousand euro and fifty cent.

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 quotation marks) 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 type:

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

- 9.3. *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 type:

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*¹ for italic or roman style).

Examples of roman:

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

Latin phrases are never hyphenated, regardless of whether they are used adjectivally (e.g. ad hoc meeting, *ex post* check) or adverbially (e.g. statutory days are calculated pro rata for part-time staff). (See also 3.21 on the hyphenation of phrases treated as compounds.)

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

- 9.4. *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 2 – Transliteration Table for Greek](#).
- 9.5. *Cyrillic*. When transliterating for EU documents, use the scheme set out in [Annex 4 – 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](#).
- 9.6. *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.

¹ Also available online as a search option in the drop-down menu on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#).

- 9.7. *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.

Geographical names and other proper nouns written in Chinese characters can contain pitfalls for the unwary and there are cases where English spelling conventions and usage should take precedence over straight transliteration into pinyin: 呼和浩特 *Hohhot* (not *Huhehaote*), 九龙 *Kowloon* (not *Jiulong*), 高雄市 *Kaohsiung* (not *Gaoxiong*), 三菱 *Mitsubishi* (not *Sanling*).

10. Parts of speech

Adjectives and adverbs

- 10.1. *Order of adjectives.* When two or more adjectives occur before a noun, the following rules apply:

An adjective expressing opinion comes before a factual or descriptive adjective:

an amazing red coat

An adjective expressing a general opinion comes before an adjective expressing a specific opinion:

nice tasty soup

Descriptive adjectives generally appear in the following order:

size – age or shape – colour – origin or nationality – material

a small wooden table

an old Russian song

a large white loaf

Nouns used as modifiers tend to come after adjectives:

a big new car factory

- 10.2. *Biannual/biennial*. ‘Biannual’ means twice a year and ‘biennial’ means every 2 years, but the terms are often confused. If the meaning is not clear from the context, use alternatives such as ‘twice-yearly’ or ‘2-yearly’ or clarify what you mean, e.g. ‘the biannual/biennial report (i.e. published every 6 months / 2 years)’.
- 10.3. *Pronominal adverbs* are generally used to replace a preposition + pronoun phrase. For example:
- herewith → with this
 - thereto → to that
 - whereby → by which

Some pronominal adverbs, such as *whereby*, *thereby* and *thereafter*, continue to be used in standard English.

Some, such as *thereof*, *thereto*, *herein*, *herewith* and *hereinafter*, are still used in legal contexts, including in legislative acts. Examples of good usage include:

Having regard to the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, and in particular Article 292 thereof,

The contractor shall achieve the outcomes and targets set out in this agreement and in accordance with the provisions contained herein.

The Aarhus Convention provides for public participation in decisions on the specific activities listed in Annex I thereto.

Others, such as *heretofore*, *hereunder* and *wherefore*, have become archaic or overly formal and a more widely used alternative should be preferred. For example:

heretofore → previously, hitherto *or* until now

hereunder → below *or* under the terms of this document

wherefore → for which, on account of which, and therefore, for which purpose *or* why

When using pronominal adverbs, 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* means ‘from this point onwards within this text’ whereas *hereafter* means ‘from now on in terms of time’; *therefor* without a final ‘e’ means ‘for that (purpose)’; *therefore* with a final ‘e’ is a conjunctive adverb meaning ‘accordingly’, ‘as a result’.

Note that a handful of pronominal adverbs also have noun forms that continue to be used in standard English, even if in some cases the adverb itself is considered archaic. For example, *the hereafter*, *the wherewithal*.

- 10.4. *The causal adverbs hence and thus*, though also formal, are widely used. Both *hence* and *thus* are used to link two phrases and indicate that the second phrase is a result or consequence of the first.

Hence may be used in conjunction with a noun in isolation:

The sampling was carried out off-season, hence the lower readings.

while *thus* introduces a full phrase:

We will help authorities correct market distortions, thus responding to concerns raised by stakeholders and preventing disputes.

Note that in the second example the use of *thus* makes this consequential relationship clear. (Consider the change in meaning if *by*, *while* or no adverb had been used.)

- 10.5. *Only*. The positioning of the adverb *only* is flexible in spoken English and in informal texts, although ambiguities can arise if it is separated from the word or phrase that it modifies.

In any text where clarity and precision are essential, it is therefore advisable to place *only* as close as possible to – in most cases immediately in front of – the word or phrase that it modifies:

The council only proposed the construction of a bypass, but did not fund or implement its construction.

The council proposed only the construction – but not the maintenance – of a bypass.

The council proposed the building only of a bypass, but not of a park-and-ride facility.

Only the council proposed the construction of a bypass; the civic society and environmental groups suggested several other congestion reduction measures.

Note that additional emphasis can in some cases be achieved by placing *only* immediately after the word or phrase that it modifies – often in the final position in a sentence. For example:

Decisions on new road infrastructure projects are to be taken by the Ministry of Transport only.

- 10.6. *In the future* or *in future*. Use *in the future* to mean ‘at an unspecified later time’ and *in future* to mean ‘from now on’:

In the future, we will store all information in an electronic cloud and there will be no such thing as email.

In future, please submit reports in electronic form only. Hard-copy reports are no longer accepted.

Note that US English makes no such distinction and uses *in the future* for both meanings.

Nouns: singular or plural

- 10.7. *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.

10.8. *Sums of money* can take a singular or plural verb:

EUR 2 million were/was made available.

10.9. *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.

10.10. *Decimal fractions and zero*. Countable items take the plural:

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

10.11. *Countries and organisations* with a plural name take the singular:

The Netherlands is reconsidering its position.

The United Nations was unable to reach agreement.

10.12. *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.

10.13. *A statistic*. The singular *statistic* is a back-formation from the plural and means an individual item of data from a set of statistics.

10.14. *Data* can be used as a plural or a singular noun.

10.15. *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.

10.16. *Neither ... nor ...* When using *neither ... nor ...* as a determiner to link two singular nouns, use a singular verb:

Neither the Regulation nor the guidance document lays down detailed rules on when an on-the-spot check must be carried out.

When one of the nouns is singular and the other plural, put the plural noun second and use a plural verb:

Neither the Regulation nor the guidelines lay down detailed rules on when an on-the-spot check must be carried out.

If more than two elements are presented, the same rules apply and ‘nor’ is repeated before each further element:

Neither the Regulation nor the Directive nor the guidance document lays down detailed rules on when an on-the-spot check must be carried out.

Neither the Regulation nor the Directive nor the guidelines lay down detailed rules on when an on-the-spot check must be carried out.

When using *neither of* as the subject of a sentence, use a singular verb:

Neither of the documents lays down detailed rules on when an on-the-spot check must be carried out.

- 10.17. *None and one.* The word *none* may take either a singular or a 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.

The construction *one in X* (e.g. *one in five*, *one in ten*) 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.

- 10.18. *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.

Nouns: *people* or *persons*

- 10.19. *People* or *persons*. *People* is the standard plural form of *person* and will be appropriate in most contexts. *Persons* is a variant form encountered in a formal register and in certain set expressions, such as *legal person* (where the *person* in question may be a company or other entity, as opposed to a *natural person*, i.e. a human being), and official texts, e.g. the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. *Persons* is also used in preference to *people* on official signs indicating prohibitions or restrictions, e.g. *No persons under 18 admitted*, *No unauthorised persons beyond this point* and *Maximum eight persons [allowed in this lift]*.

Verbs: present perfect/simple past

- 10.20. 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

- 10.21. *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 spokesperson: ‘We *are* concerned by the number of exceptions which *have been* included.’

Chair: ‘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 chair 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.

- 10.22. *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.’

- 10.23. *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*).
- 10.24. *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 legislation, contracts and the like

- 10.25. 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.
- 10.26. *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 10.26-10.30 apply only to **main clauses** in enacting terms. Where **subordinate clauses** are concerned, see 10.32 (**Non-enacting terms and subordinate clauses**).

- 10.27. *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.

- 10.28. *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 10.26 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.

- 10.29. *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*.

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

This test need not be performed in the following cases:

- 10.31. *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.

- 10.32. *Amendments: replacement, deletion, addition, insertion.* Note the following formulations used when drafting or translating amending legislation:

Article 1 of [Act No ...] is **replaced** by the following:

Article 1 of [Act No ...] is **deleted**.

Since these are examples of declarative provisions (see [10.30 above](#)), the preferred style is to use the present tense rather than ‘shall’.

Text is ‘added’ when it is placed **at the end** of an article, paragraph or subparagraph.

In Article 1 of [Act No ...], the following paragraph [3] **is added**:

When text is placed **somewhere other than at the end** of an article, paragraph or subparagraph, it is ‘inserted’.

In [Act No ...], the following Article [1a] **is inserted**:

Here is a possible formulation for multiple amendments:

Article 1 of [Act No ...] is **amended** as follows:

(1) Section 1 is **replaced** by the following...

(2) Section 2 is **deleted**.

- 10.33. *Non-enacting terms, subordinate clauses and indirect quotations.* Do not use *shall* in non-enacting terms such as recitals or annexes (but see 10.33 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.

- 10.34. *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

- 10.35. A split infinitive is where one or more adverbs etc. are inserted between 'to' and the verb, as in 'to boldly go where no one 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

- 10.36. 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 them/their 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 they were to go bankrupt.

Publication could be delayed because they have gone bankrupt.

Conjunctions

- 10.37. The structures following 'both ... and ...' or 'either ... or ...' should balance and mirror each other.

This applies to both full-fat and semi-skimmed milk.

or

This applies both to full-fat and to semi-skimmed milk.

(but not: This applies both to full-fat and semi-skimmed milk.)

The word *none* may take either a singular or a plural noun.

(but not: The word *none* may take either a singular or plural noun.)

- 10.38. Take care when using 'not only ... but also ...'. The purpose of 'not only ... but also' in English is to emphasise new or possibly surprising information after 'but also'. That being the case, the first part ('not only') should introduce something that is already known or to be expected in the context:

A successful night for Labour saw the party gain ground not only in London but also in the South-West.

Make sure both parts of the construction are present.

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*.

If the sentence is simply expressing the idea of ‘both x and y’, i.e. two similar items, then ‘not only... but also’ should be avoided; instead, use ‘both x and y’ or even a simple ‘and’ construction.

11. Lists

- 11.1. Use automatic numbering wherever possible, since it is much easier to amend a list if the numbers are automatically adjusted. Note, however, that the automatic numbering function should not be used for lists of lettered points that include non-English characters or are based on another alphabet, e.g. when translating national legislation (see 23.15).

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 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 phrase, 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 phrase, 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 lower-case 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 main sentence and continue as indicated below.
- 1) Do not 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.

This latter type is the mainstay of administrative writing. The list of points may extend over several pages, making it essential not to introduce it with an incomplete sentence or colon.

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

If the provision cited...	use
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 [10.24-10.33](#).

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*).

However, when producing a word-processing document, use only the *Insert footnote/endnote* function. The reference should normally be a superscript Arabic numeral – other symbols (such as asterisks or lower-case letters) should only be used in special cases. It should be placed before any punctuation, and should not be in bold or italic (even in headings).

NB: there is no need to insert brackets or manually reformat references to include them, as this is handled by the printers. By the same token, when translating/editing a document that is not destined for publication and follows a different convention, there is no need to change the style or position of references.

For any additional explanations at the foot of tables which are not footnotes, the use of *NB* is recommended:

NB: p.m. = token entry.

- 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).
- 13.4. *Bibliographical citations.* If authoring for an EU institution, see [Section 5.9.4](#) 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 (see also 4.11). 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. Write *White Paper* or *Green Paper* with initial capitals only if it forms part of the title.

The Green Paper on Innovation

If the title consists of a main title and a subtitle (appearing on a separate line on the title page), separate them with an ‘en’ 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*

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 quotation marks:

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, quotation marks, 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

If the part has both a number and a title which appears on a separate line, enclose the title in single quotation marks, for example:

Section 2.4 ‘Establishing common ground – what is youth work to us?’ will help you to...

In Chapter 1 ‘Preparing a process of quality development’ you will find...

For the use of initial capitals, see [4.14](#).

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 7 – Forms of Address](#).

15. Inclusive language

These are general guidelines. Please be aware that this is an evolving and sensitive area of language.

These guidelines concern the drafting, editing and translation of text for publication. When translating material for information purposes, translators should use their best judgement about how to convey the author's intentions. If the text includes offensive language, it is usually better to refer to its use than to translate it directly.

- 15.1. *Gender-neutral language.* Much existing EU legislation is not gender-neutral and the masculine pronouns 'he' etc. are used generically to include all genders. However, gender-neutral language is nowadays preferred wherever possible.

Avoid word choices which may be interpreted as implying that one gender is the norm, including:

- ◆ nouns such as 'chairman' that appear to assume that a particular role is habitually performed by a person of a particular gender;
- ◆ words such as 'man-made' that contain 'man' to mean people of all genders;
- ◆ gender-specific pronouns for people whose gender is not specified.

Roles. 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 people working in those occupations, e.g. we now write *firefighters* instead of *firemen*, *fishers* instead of *fishermen*, 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 people of all genders.

Words containing 'man'. Wherever possible, use alternatives for terms containing 'man' to mean people of all genders, such as:

- ◆ *manufactured, artificial* or *human-made* for *man-made*¹
- ◆ *labour hours* for *man hours*
- ◆ *staff* or *human resources* for *manpower*
- ◆ *to staff* for *to man*
- ◆ *humanity* for *mankind*
- ◆ *the average person* for *the man in the street*

¹ Note that 'man-made fibres' is an exception, as it is the official technical term used by the European Man-made Fibres Association and the International Bureau for the Standardisation of Man-made Fibres.

- ◆ *simply put, in simple terms or in everyday language for in layman's terms*

Pronouns. If the text clearly refers to a specific individual on a particular occasion, and you know the gender of the person concerned, use the appropriate pronoun. This may be ‘he’/‘him’/‘himself’, ‘she’/‘her’/‘herself’, or – in the case of a non-binary person – ‘they’/‘them’/‘themselves’ used in a singular sense¹:

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.

Toryn Glavin, trans engagement manager at LGBT charity Stonewall, said: ‘We’re delighted that [the pop star] Sam Smith feels able to speak openly about their gender identity, and their visibility will have a huge impact on many non-binary people.’

NB: this person-specific singular ‘they’ is not to be confused with the general singular ‘they’, which can be used to refer to a person whose gender is not known (see [below](#)).

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

- ◆ 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.

- ◆ Where possible draft in the plural; this is very common in English for general references:

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]

- ◆ In current usage, ‘they’/‘them’/‘their’/‘theirs’/‘themselves’ are used to refer to singular nouns:

¹ Cf. the note on non-binary usage under entry 2.1 for ‘they’ on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#) or entry 2 on the [Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries website](#).

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.

This device was formerly perceived as grammatically incorrect, but has been attested to in print since the 14th century and is currently widely used¹.

◆ 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.

- 15.2. *Language used to refer to people with disabilities.* Person-first language, which emphasises the person rather than the disability (e.g. ‘people/persons with disabilities’), is generally preferred, although other forms are also acceptable (e.g. ‘disabled people/persons’).

Avoid collective nouns such as ‘the disabled’.

Use neutral expressions instead of negative or passive phrases. For example, use ‘person with a mental health condition’ instead of ‘person suffering from a mental disorder’, and ‘wheelchair user’ instead of ‘person confined to a wheelchair’.

- 15.3. *Other aspects of inclusive language.* When referring to relationships, the terms ‘spouse’ or ‘partner’, depending on the context, are generally preferred over ‘husband’ or ‘wife’.

When referring to the LGBTIQ+ community, avoid outdated terminology such as ‘homosexuals’. Refer to ‘transgender people/persons’ instead of ‘transgenders’.

Deadnaming transgender people (i.e. referring to them by the name they were given at birth, rather than the name they themselves currently use) is disrespectful and is to be avoided. Likewise, use the third-person pronouns used by the person in question (see also the section on [pronouns](#) in 15.1).

Use terms such as ‘first name’, ‘forename’ or ‘given name’ rather than ‘Christian name’.

Use expressions such as ‘older people/persons’ rather than ‘old people/persons’ or ‘the elderly’, and avoid language which suggests that being older is an undesirable state.

¹ Cf. entry 2 for ‘they’ on the [Oxford Dictionaries Premium website](#) or entry 2 on the [Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries website](#).

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 written in lower case, 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 taxa 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’.

For microorganisms, the rank ‘serovar’ is not abbreviated: *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium, often abbreviated to *Salmonella* Typhimurium.

If an author citation (the first person(s) to publish the name and description of a new species) is given, it is written in roman type and placed after all taxon names. Linnaeus is usually abbreviated to ‘L.’:

Goniocidaris florigena Agassiz

Rosa gallica var. *versicolor* L.

Pyropia yezoensis f. *narawaensis* N. Kikuchi & al.

See also the [International Code of Nomenclature for algae, fungi, and plants](#), the [International Code of Zoological Nomenclature](#) and the [International Code of Nomenclature of Prokaryotes](#).

- 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. *Grape varieties.* Many grape varieties are technically cultivars. When writing in a horticultural context, follow the rule set out in 16.1 (e.g. *Vitis vinifera* ‘Pinot Noir’). However, in the context of wine and winegrowing, grape varieties are usually referred to without giving the genus and species, in which case the grape variety should be written with initial capitals but without quotation marks:
- Busuioacă de Bohotin
 - Cabernet Sauvignon
 - Gewürztraminer
 - Pinot Noir
 - Zinfandel
- 16.5. *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.
- 16.6. *Chemical compounds.* Like chemical elements, the symbols for chemical compounds (i.e. chemical formulae) are interlingual: *NaCl*, *H₂O*, *C₁₈H₂₅NO*, etc.
- 16.7. *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.
- 16.8. *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 to other compound forms (*benzeneethanol*), where normal hyphenation rules would require a hyphen between the double vowels.
- 16.9. *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*).
- 16.10. *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*.
- 16.11. *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*.

- 16.12. *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 proprionic acid.
- 16.13. *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 *edetac acid* or abbreviated to *EDTA*. If translating, follow source document usage.
- 16.14. *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.

If you use ‘EU-27’ to refer to the remaining Member States after Brexit, make sure there is no risk of confusion with the EU-27 before the accession of Croatia. If you need abbreviations to refer to both, use ‘EU-27brex’ for the situation post-Brexit.

- 17.7. *Brexit.* Take care to distinguish between Brexit itself and the Brexit referendum. Some people have taken to referring to events following the Brexit referendum on 23 June 2016 as ‘since Brexit’ or ‘in the post-Brexit world’, when what they mean is ‘since the Brexit referendum’. This is not only inaccurate, it is also loaded with political connotations. The UK did not actually leave the EU until 31 January 2020.
- 17.8. *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:

... 5 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 23.15.)

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 10.24-10.33 ([Verbs: usage in legislation, contracts and the like](#)).

¹ See conversion table for numbering of inserted articles ([Annex 6](#)).

- 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*.
- 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 acts 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 former *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 (1 day)
 - the Council meeting of 22 and 23 May (2 days)
 - the Council meeting of 22/23 May (overnight)
 - the Council meeting of 22 to 24 May (3 days)

Meetings lasting more than 1 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. Their 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 their name, adding (*President*). The Presidency changes every 6 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 1 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, but in 2016 it was dissolved (see 20.30). There are currently no specialised courts. The relationship between the various courts is laid down by the [Statute of the Court of Justice of the European Union](#). As part of its mission, the Court of Justice of the European Union reviews the legality of EU measures, ensures that Member States comply with their obligations under the Treaties and interprets EU law at the request of the national courts and tribunals.
- 20.28. *Court of Justice.* Originally established in 1952, the Court of Justice is the highest authority on matters of EU law. It is composed of 27 Judges and 11 Advocates General. It has jurisdiction to rule on the following types of proceedings: (i) 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; (ii) actions against Member States for failure to fulfil obligations under EU law, brought by the Commission or other Member States, potentially leading to fines; (iii) actions for annulment of EU legislation, brought by a Member State or by one of the institutions; (iv) actions for failure to act; and (v) appeals on points of law against judgments and orders of the General Court.
- 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. The General Court is made up of two Judges from each Member State. 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.
- 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 ...

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 Tribunal⁽⁹⁾,

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.

¹ Since 2016, all EU courts have used a harmonised way of citing cases in Court of Justice publications. For full details, see [Section 5.9.3](#) of the *Interinstitutional Style Guide*.

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	Curte	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 2-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 the 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 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. *References.* References to the Official Journal may take the following forms:

Long form

Official Journal of the European Union (in italics)

This form is used in the main body of the text of EU legislation.

NB: for publications up to and including 31 January 2003, reference should be made to the *Official Journal of the European Communities*.

Short form

Official Journal (not in italics)

This form is used in footnotes where no Official Journal number is given, e.g.:

⁽¹⁾ See page ... of this Official Journal.

⁽¹⁾ Not yet published in the Official Journal.

It may also be used in less formal texts, such as correspondence referring to the Official Journal.

Abbreviated form

This form is used whenever the Official Journal number is cited.

On 1 October 2023 publication of the Official Journal act by act was introduced, with each act becoming a separate Official Journal. Abbreviated-form references are now given as follows:

L series: OJ L, year/serial number, short-form date of publication, ELI: hyperlink

C series: OJ C, C/year/serial number, short-form date of publication, ELI: hyperlink

The European Legislation Identifier (ELI), assigned to each document published in the L and the C series, consists of a fixed part (<http://data.europa.eu/eli/>), variables according to the OJ series and the abbreviation ‘oj’¹.

For example:

OJ L, 2023/2407, 23.10.2023, ELI: <http://data.europa.eu/eli/reco/2023/2407/oj>

OJ C, C/2023/426, 23.10.2023, ELI: <http://data.europa.eu/eli/C/2023/426/oj>

For documents published before the introduction of act-by-act publication, where page numbers are included with the abbreviated form, note that only the starting page should be given and not the full page range. Adding the ELI, where there is one, to the existing OJ reference is recommended:

OJ L 222, 20.8.2008, p. 1, ELI: <http://data.europa.eu/eli/reg/2008/823/oj>

OJ C 48 A, 24.2.2005.

For more information, see [Section 3.1](#) of the *Interinstitutional Style Guide*.

General Report and Bulletin

21.3. *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).

¹ For references to the OJ C series, the use of the ELI is optional but recommended.

- 21.4. *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.
- 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 7 years (2021 to 2027). 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 [20.43](#) 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 5 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, Czechia, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden

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. *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).
- 23.12. *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

- 23.13. Use the suggested translations in the [Country Compendium](#). If necessary, insert the original-language form in brackets following the first mention.

National legislation

- 23.14. 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.
- 23.15. 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.)

Similarly, if a list of lettered points omits letters because they do not exist in the source language (e.g. ‘j’ and ‘k’ are not used in Italian), or uses non-English letters such as ‘ñ’, the translation must do the same. However, note that for Greek and Bulgarian the conversion tables in Annex 3 and Annex 5, respectively, should be used.

- 23.16. For more information about legislation in Europe, see the Publications Office’s guide [Access to legislation in Europe](#).
- 23.17. *Translating the titles of legislation.* Your translation must allow the act to be identified easily and unambiguously. If the country’s legal system provides an official English translation, it should always be used (see also 23.15). If not, the approach adopted will depend on how the title is structured in the source language.

A title containing a number and a date should be translated for information purposes: the number and date make it easily identifiable.

Nos termos do artigo 7.º da Lei n.º 43/2006, de 25 de agosto, que regula o acompanhamento, apreciação e pronúncia pela Assembleia da República no âmbito do processo de construção da União Europeia...

Pursuant to Article 7 of Law No 43/2006 of 25 August 2006 on the monitoring, examination and issuing of opinions by the Assembly of the Portuguese Republic in the context of the process of EU integration...

If the act is mentioned again in the document, the number and date (in this case, Law No 43/2006 of 25 August 2006) is usually sufficient.

Where the national legal system provides an official abbreviation of the title, this should always be used, along with a translation/gloss of the title for information purposes:

Zakon o Slovenskem filmskem centru javni agenciji Republike Slovenije ZSFCJA

Slovenian Film Centre Act (ZSFCJA)

If the act is mentioned again in the document, the abbreviation is usually sufficient.

Where no number, date or official abbreviation is provided, the translated title should be followed by the original title in brackets. Various approaches to translating titles are set out below.

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.

- 23.18. *Act vs law*. Either is acceptable in translations, provided you are consistent (bearing in mind 23.14).

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*.

- 23.19. *Bill vs draft act/law*. Prefer ‘draft act/law’, bearing in mind 23.14.

- 23.20. *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 ‘acceding 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 for those that have just joined it, so should be avoided if there is a danger of misinterpretation. Note that ‘candidate countries’ may include ‘acceding 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 to a group of countries covered by EU enlargement policy. On 1 July 2013, Croatia became the first of the seven countries in the region to join the EU. Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia have candidate country

status, and Kosovo¹ submitted its application for EU membership in December 2022. These countries are now known as the Western Balkans six (WB6).

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 10.11).

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.* Most have a website in English where you can find their English name. Use the organisation’s own spelling, e.g. *World Health Organization* (see also 3.3). Those organisations whose names do not follow our standard spelling rules are listed in Annex 1². Other sources (especially for defunct or inactive organisations without a website) include IATE³ and *The Yearbook of International Organizations*.

25.11. *United Nations.* Use the abbreviation UN, not UNO. See also *Everyman’s UN*.

¹ This designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with UNSCR 1244/1999 and the ICJ Opinion on the Kosovo declaration of independence.

² Please report any omissions by emailing DGT-EN-STYLE@ec.europa.eu.

³ Please report any errors or omissions in IATE, either using the feedback feature or by emailing DGT-EN-TERM@ec.europa.eu.

- 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 Organization (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 Organization, formerly known as the Customs Cooperation Council.
- 25.13. *OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development)*. The ‘Conseil des ministres’ is called simply ‘the OECD Council’.

Annexes

Annex 1

International organisations whose names do not follow our standard spelling rules

Use the spellings set out in this table.

This information is based on the corresponding entries in [IATE – Interactive Terminology for Europe](#).

Organisation	IATE entry
Customs Co-operation Council	777546
European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization	787705
European co-operation for Accreditation	912971
European Organization for Nuclear Research	780937
Food and Agriculture Organization	799023
International Center for Transitional Justice	1889215
International Coffee Organization	787707
International Civil Aviation Organization	787691
International Labour Organization	787715
International Maritime Organization	800404
International Organization for Migration	833808
International Organization for Standardization	787397
International Organization for Succulent Plant Study	967228
International Sugar Organization	787714
International Union of Forest Research Organizations	1723128
North Atlantic Treaty Organization	791154
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	787693
Organization of African Unity	791158

Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries	791141
Organization of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation	878850
Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries	791144
Preparatory Commission for the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization	931543
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	791338
United Nations Industrial Development Organization	787726
United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in the Central African Republic	3562570
World Customs Organization	777546
World Health Organization	787722
World Intellectual Property Organization	787721
World Meteorological Organization	787720
World Tourism Organization	787723
World Trade Organization	877866

Please report any omissions in the above table by emailing DGT-EN-STYLE@ec.europa.eu.

Annex 2

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 + final</i>) mp (<i>medial</i>)	
nu	N	ν	n	
+ tau		ντ	nt	d (<i>initial + 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 – see below]	
phi	Φ	φ	f	
chi	X	χ	ch	
psi	Ψ	ψ	ps	
omega	Ω	ω	o	

Diphthongs

alpha, epsilon, eta + upsilon	αυ, ευ [ηυ – <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 1 on accents
omicron + upsilon	ου [όυ, οῦ – <i>rare</i>]	ou [όy, oÿ – <i>rare</i>]	
alpha, epsilon, omicron + iota	αι, αῖ ει, εῖ οι, οῖ	ai, aï ei, eï oi, oï	
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 accents², 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

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 ([UNGEGN Working Group on Romanization Systems](#)) and the relevant US/UK bodies ([romanisation systems approved by the BGN and PCGN](#)).

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, εῦ, ηῦ*, move the accent forward to the vowel, e.g. *άύ = άv/άf*. All other accented combinations follow the rules for each separate character, e.g. *άυ = άy, αῦ = aÿ*.

names, however, as double letters are usually rendered in Greek by a single letter, even if pronounced double in the original language, e.g. Καναλέτο for Canaletto.

- 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* – Браца (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 3

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)	(wwww)
102	ρβ)	(xxxx)
103	ργ)	(yyyy)
104	ρδ)	(zzzz)
105	ρε)	(aaaa)
106	ρστ)	(bbbb)
107	ρζ)	(cccc)
108	ρη)	(dddd)
109	ρθ)	(eeee)

No	EL	EN
110	ρι)	(ffff)
111	ρια)	(ggggg)
112	ριβ)	(hhhhh)
113	ριγ)	(iiii)
114	ριδ)	(jjjj)
115	ριε)	(kkkkk)
116	ριστ)	(llll)
117	ριζ)	(mmmmm)
118	ριη)	(nnnnn)
119	ριθ)	(ooooo)

No	EL	EN
120	ρκ)	(ppppp)
121	ρκα)	(qqqqq)
122	ρκβ)	(rrrrr)
123	ρκγ)	(sssss)
124	ρκδ)	(ttttt)
125	ρκε)	(uuuuu)
126	ρκστ)	(vvvvv)
127	ρκζ)	(wwwww)
128	ρκη)	(xxxxx)
129	ρκθ)	(yyyyy)

No	EL	EN
130	ρλ)	(zzzzz)
131	ρλα)	(aaaaa)
132	ρλβ)	(bbbbbb)
133	ρλγ)	(ccccc)
134	ρλδ)	(dddddd)
135	ρλε)	(eeeeee)
136	ρλστ)	(ffffff)
137	ρλζ)	(gggggg)
138	ρλη)	(hhhhh)
139	ρλθ)	(iiiiii)

No	EL	EN
140	ρμ)	(jjjjj)
141	ρμα)	(kkkkkk)
142	ρμβ)	(lllll)
143	ρμγ)	(mmmmm)
144	ρμδ)	(nnnnn)
145	ρμε)	(ooooo)
146	ρμστ)	(pppppp)
147	ρμζ)	(qqqqqq)
148	ρμη)	(rrrrrr)
149	ρμθ)	(ssssss)

No	EL	EN
150	ρν)	(ttttt)
151	ρνα)	(uuuuuu)
152	ρνβ)	(vvvvvv)
153	ρνγ)	(wwwww)
154	ρνδ)	(xxxxxx)
155	ρνε)	(yyyyyy)
156	ρνστ)	(zzzzzz)
157	ρνζ)	(aaaaaa)
158	ρνη)	(bbbbbb)
159	ρνθ)	(cccccc)

No	EL	EN
160	ρξ)	(ddddddd)
161	ρξα)	(eeeeeee)
162	ρξβ)	(fffffff)
163	ρξγ)	(ggggggg)
164	ρξδ)	(hhhhhhh)
165	ρξε)	(iiiiiii)
166	ρξστ)	(jjjjjj)
167	ρξζ)	(kkkkkkk)
168	ρξη)	(lllllll)
169	ρξθ)	(mmmmmm)

No	EL	EN
170	ρο)	(nnnnnnn)
171	ροα)	(oooooooo)
172	ροβ)	(ppppppp)
173	ρογ)	(qqqqqqq)
174	ροδ)	(rrrrrrr)
175	ροε)	(sssssss)
176	ροστ)	(ttttttt)
177	ροζ)	(uuuuuuu)
178	ροη)	(vvvvvvv)
179	ροθ)	(wwwwwww)

Annex 4

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 Їі 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					
Ѣѣ	-	-	-	-	-	ć
Ќќ	-	-	kj	-	-	-
Уу	u					
Ўў	ů	-	-	-	-	-
Фф	f					
Хх	ch	h	h	kh	kh	h
Цц	c	ts	ts	ts	ts	c
Чч	č	ch	ch	ch	ch	č
Ѣѣ	-	-	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 'Ѣѣ' should be transliterated as 'y'.

² Placed over the preceding consonant: , e.g. дѢ = dž, зѢ = ź, лѢ = ł, 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 5

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 6

Conversion table for numbering of inserted articles

Article 1 bis	Article 1a
Article 1 ter	Article 1b
Article 1 quater	Article 1c
Article 1 quinquies	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 7

Forms of address

The following is based on guidelines issued by the European Commission's Protocol Service.

Head of State	
President	
Oral address	President <i>or</i> Mister/Madam President (in the US) <i>or</i> Sir/Madam (pronounced 'Ma'am') <i>or</i> Excellency
On envelope	His/Her Excellency Mister/Madam [name and surname], President of [State]
Written salutation	President, <i>or</i> Mister/Madam President (in the US), <i>or</i> Excellency,
In letter text	Sir/Madam <i>or</i> Your Excellency <i>or</i> you
Complimentary close	I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam, respectfully yours, <i>or</i> I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam, most respectfully,
Emperor/Empress	
Oral address	Your (Imperial) Majesty
On envelope	His/Her Imperial Majesty [name], Emperor/Empress of [State]
Written salutation	Your dignified Majesty,
In letter text	First address: Your Majesty Subsequently: Sir/Madam
Complimentary close	I have the honour to remain, your Imperial Majesty's (good and) loyal friend,

King/Queen	
Oral address	First address: Your Majesty Subsequently: Sir/Madam (pronounced 'Ma'am') NB for Belgium: the Queen of the Belgians is only to be addressed as Your Majesty
On envelope	To His/Her Majesty King/Queen [name] of [State/people] <i>or</i> To His/Her Majesty The King/Queen of [State/people]
Written salutation	Your Majesty,
In letter text	First address: Your Majesty Subsequently: Sir/Madam
Complimentary close	I have the honour to remain, your Majesty's (good and) loyal friend,
The Pope	
Oral address	Your Holiness
On envelope	His Holiness Pope Francis Vatican City
Written salutation	Your Holiness,
In letter text	Your Holiness
Complimentary close	I have the honour to remain, your Holiness's (good and) loyal friend,
Prince/Princess (Sovereign Monarchs)	
Oral address	First address: Your Royal/Serene Highness Subsequently: Sir/Madam (pronounced 'Ma'am')
On envelope	His/Her Royal/Serene Highness Prince/Princess [name] of [State]
Written salutation	Your Royal/Serene Highness, <i>or</i> Sir/Madam,
In letter text	First address: Your Royal/Serene Highness Subsequently: Sir/Madam
Complimentary close	I remain, Your Royal/Serene Highness, yours very truly, <i>or</i> I have the honour to be, your Royal/Serene Highness's (good and) loyal friend, <i>or</i> Yours faithfully,

Governments	
Head of Government	
Oral address	Prime Minister/Chancellor <i>or</i> Excellency
On envelope	Commonwealth: The Rt. Hon. [name and surname] MP, Prime Minister of [State] Others: His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name and surname], Prime Minister/Chancellor of [State]
Written salutation	Dear Prime Minister/Chancellor, <i>or</i> Excellency,
In letter text	you
Complimentary close	Yours sincerely, [used when the recipient is addressed by name] Yours faithfully, [used when the recipient is not addressed by name] <i>For a very formal letter:</i> I remain, Sir/Madam, yours faithfully,
Minister	
Oral address	Minister <i>or</i> Sir/Madam (pronounced 'Ma'am') Foreign Affairs: Excellency
On envelope	Commonwealth: The Rt. Hon. [name and surname], Minister of [portfolio] of [State] Others: Mr/Ms [name and surname], Minister of [portfolio] of [State] Foreign Affairs: His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name and surname], Minister for Foreign Affairs of [State]
Written salutation	Sir/Madam, <i>or</i> Dear Minister, Foreign Affairs: UK: Dear Foreign Secretary, <i>or</i> US: Dear Secretary of State, <i>or</i> Excellency,
In letter text	you

Complimentary close	Yours sincerely, [used when the recipient is addressed by name] Yours faithfully, [used when the recipient is not addressed by name] <i>For a very formal letter:</i> I remain, Sir/Madam/your Excellency, yours faithfully,
Institutions	
President of a European Institution	
Oral address	President
On envelope	Mr/Ms [name and surname], President of the European [institution]
Written salutation	Dear President,
In letter text	you
Complimentary close	Yours sincerely, [used when the recipient is addressed by name] Yours faithfully, [used when the recipient is not addressed by name]
(First) Vice-President/Member of the European Commission	
Oral address	(First) Vice-President/Commissioner
On envelope	Mr/Ms [name and surname], (First) Vice-President/Member of the European Commission
Written salutation	Dear (First) Vice-President/Commissioner,
In letter text	you
Complimentary close	Yours sincerely, [used when the recipient is addressed by name] Yours faithfully, [used when the recipient is not addressed by name]
Vice-President/Member of the European Parliament	
Oral address	Vice-President or Sir/Madam (pronounced 'Ma'am')
On envelope	Mr/Ms [name and surname], Vice-President/Member of the European Parliament
Written salutation	Dear Vice-President, <i>or</i> Dear Mr/Ms [name and surname],
In letter text	you
Complimentary close	Yours sincerely, [used when the recipient is addressed by name] Yours faithfully, [used when the recipient is not addressed by name]

Diplomacy	
Ambassador, Head of Mission and Permanent Representative	
Oral address	Ambassador <i>or</i> Excellency*
On envelope	His/Her Excellency Mr/Ms [name and surname], Ambassador of [State A] to [State B] <i>or</i> His/Her Excellency Ambassador [name and surname], Permanent Representative of [Member State] to the European Union <i>or</i> His/Her Excellency Ambassador [name and surname], Head of the Mission of [State] to the European Union
Written salutation	Dear Ambassador, <i>or</i> Excellency,
In letter text	you
Complimentary close	Yours sincerely, [used when the recipient is addressed by name] <i>or</i> Yours faithfully, [used when the recipient is not addressed by name]

* One's own Ambassador is usually not referred to as 'Excellency'.

Notes:

A letter starting with '(Dear) Sir/Madam/Excellency etc.' should finish with 'yours faithfully'.

A letter starting with 'Dear' and including the name of the recipient should finish with 'yours sincerely'.

In private correspondence, it is usual to address your addressee by name. In administrative correspondence, however, it is preferable to address your addressee with their title, if they have one – for example, as president of an organisation or association – rather than by their name, as you are addressing them as holder of that office or function, and not in a personal capacity. For example, a letter addressed to Ms Margaret Smith, President of the Locksmiths Association, would start 'Dear President' and not 'Dear Ms Smith' and a letter addressed to a member of the judiciary should start with 'Dear Judge' or, if applicable, a more specific title (e.g. 'Dear President' or 'Dear Chief Justice').