English
Style Guide

A handbook for authors and translators in the European Commission

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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: Towards Clarity and Grace* by Joseph M. Williams (University of Chicago Press, 1995), both of which encourage the use of good plain English. For reasons of stylistic consistency, the variety of English on which this Guide bases its instructions and advice is the standard usage of Britain and Ireland (for the sake of convenience, called 'British usage' or 'British English' in this Guide).

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

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

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

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 EU Publications Office's Interinstitutional Style Guide, the Commission's Legislative Drafting Manual and the interinstitutionally produced Joint Practical Guide for the drafting of EU legislation. Needless to say, our Guide does not in any way aim to replace these publications, which are well worth consulting in their own right.

The English Style Guide's current Editorial Committee is:
Tim Cooper
John Fallas
Francis Flaherty
John Jones
Tim Martin
Brian Moon
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All work for the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation.

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

Part I

Writing English

1. SPELLING

CONVENTIONS

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

Note, however, that the names of US bodies may retain the original spellings, e.g. *Department of Defense*.

1.2 *Words in -ise/-ize.* Use *-ise*. Both spellings are correct in British English, but the *-ise* form is now much more common in the media. Using the *-ise* spelling does away with the need to list the most common cases where it must be used anyway. (There are up to 40 exceptions to the *-ize* convention: the lists vary in length, few claiming to be exhaustive.)

The spelling *organisation* should thus be used for all international organisations, even if they more commonly use the *-ize* spelling, e.g. *International Labour Organisation* (its [website](#) uses *International Labour Organization*, while Americans will write *International Labor Organization*). However, following the rule in 1.1 above, the spellings of bodies native to the USA and other countries that use the *–ize* spelling may be retained.

1.3 *The -yse form* for such words as *paralyse* and *analyse* is the only correct spelling in British English.

1.4 *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 spelt without the digraph in British English. *Foetus* is still common in Britain in non-technical use.

1.5 *Double consonants.* In British usage (unlike US practice), a final *-l* is doubled after a short vowel on adding *-ing* or *-ed* to verbs (sole exception: *parallel, paralleled*) and adding *-er* to make nouns from verbs:

> travel, travelling, travelled, traveller
>
> level, levelling, levelled, leveller

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

> admit, admitting, admitted
>
> refer, referring, referred
>
> format, formatting, formatted

but

> benefit, benefiting, benefited

focus, focusing, focused

combat, combating, combated

target, targeting, targeted

Exception: a few verbs in *-p* (e.g. *handicapped, kidnapped, worshipped*, unlike *developed*).

1.6 *Input/output*. Avoid the forms *inputted* and *outputted*; write *input* and *output*: e.g. *70 000 records were input last month*.

1.7 Use *-ct-* not *-x-* in *connection, reflection,* etc. But note *complexion* and *flexion*.

1.8 Write *gram*, *kilogram* (not gramme, kilogramme). However, use *tonne* not *ton* ('ton' refers to the non-metric measure).

1.9 Write *metre* for the unit of length, *meter* for measuring instruments.

1.10 *Judgment*. The European Courts use the form without the middle -e-, and this practice should be followed for EU purposes.

1.11 *Plurals of words of foreign origin.* Follow the list below.

addendum	addenda
apparatus	apparatus *or* apparatuses
appendix	appendices (*books*), appendixes (*anatomy*)
bacillus	bacilli
bacterium	bacteria
bureau	bureaux
consortium	consortia
corrigendum	corrigenda
criterion	criteria
curriculum	curricula
focus	focuses, focal points, foci (*mathematics, science*)
formula	formulas (*politics*) formulae (*science*)
forum	fora *or* forums
genus	genera
index	indexes (*books*), indices (*science, economics*)
maximum	maximums *or* maxima
medium	media, mediums (*spiritualism*)
memorandum	memoranda
papyrus	papyri *or* papyruses
phenomenon	phenomena
plus	pluses
premium	premiums

referendum	referenda *or* referendums
spectrum	spectra (*science*),
	spectrums (*politics*)
symposium	symposia *or* symposiums

INTERFERENCE EFFECTS

1.12   *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*); premisses (*propositions*), premises (*building*); discreet, discrete.

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

FRENCH	ENGLISH
adresse	address
carcasse	carcass *or* carcase
compétitivité	competitiveness
correspondance	correspondence
existant	existent
indépendance	independence
médecine	medicine
messager	messenger
négligeable	negligible
négociation	negotiation
réflexion	reflection
représentativité	representativeness
responsable	responsible
rincer	rinse
tarif	tariff

CAPITAL LETTERS

1.14   *General*. Capitalise specific references, but lowercase general references. See also compass points, Chapter 4 on abbreviations, and Chapter 8 on scientific usage.

1.15   As a rule, *capitalise* all nouns and adjectives in names of specific institutions and their subdivisions (directorates-general, directorates, divisions and other departments), committees, working parties and the like:

Parliament; Council; Commission; Court of Auditors.

Cereals and Rice Division; Markets in Crop Products Directorate.

Permanent Representatives Committee;

In cases where this rule would produce a long series of capitalised words, use discretion, especially where the name of a department, committee or programme reads more like a description of its function than a real title:

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.

The general rule is 'the longer the title, the fewer the capitals'.

Note. When using an original name in French or another language where only the first word is capitalised, follow the foreign style and put in italics or add inverted commas if confusion could arise.

1.16   Use *lower case* for *general* references:

The Court of Justice rules on matters referred to it by courts or tribunals in the Member States.

Two separate Commission units are involved.

It was decided to set up a number of working parties.

1.17   *Legislative and other formal instruments.* Remember to capitalise *specific* references but use lower case for *general* references:

Regulation (EEC) No 1837/80 (= *the Council Regulation of 27 June 1980* or *the basic Regulation on sheepmeat*);

On 29 May 1990, the Council adopted Directive 90/270/EEC on the minimum safety and health requirements for work with display screen equipment.

(Note also: the Financial Regulation, the Sixth VAT Directive, the Banking Directive, the New Approach Directives.)

but:

It was felt a directive rather than a regulation was the appropriate instrument.

Apply the same rule to title, chapter, section, article and annex in such instruments (including the budget and the Combined Nomenclature — CN).

Note: the words *draft* and *proposal* should always be written in lower case when referring either specifically or generally to draft legislation.

1.18   *Official titles.* Capitalise the titles of EU (and other) officials and their offices:

Simone Veil was chosen as first President of the directly elected Parliament in July 1979.

The current President of the Council is Prime Minister of Ireland.

The Judges and Advocates-General of the Court; President of the First Chamber

Director-General for Agriculture; Head of the Road Transport and Inland Waterways Unit.

1.19   Note also:

The meeting opened at 10:00 with Ms Smith presiding. The Chair asked …

The usage 'Chair' is now the rule in the European Parliament for all its committees.

1.20   *Political entities.* Remember to capitalise *specific* political entities and to use lowercase when the reference is *general*, e.g.:

The French Government

the French authorities, a matter for governments

the State (*in political theory and legal texts, otherwise prefer* government, *as in* the role of government, central government, *or simply* country)

the Member States, nation states, reasons of state, state aid, state-owned, the Arab states (*since ill-defined*).

1.21   *International agreements*. Follow the same specific/general rule for treaties, conventions, arrangements, understandings, protocols, etc.

The Treaty of Nice, the International Tin Agreement, the United Nations Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants

by treaty, under an agreement, the parties agreed to a memorandum of understanding

1.22   *Permanent and ad hoc bodies*. Permanent bodies (e.g. the Commission Delegation in the United States) require capitals, while ad hoc groups (e.g. the Polish delegation to a meeting) do not.

1.23   *Seasons, etc*. No capitals for *spring, summer, autumn, winter*; capitals for weekdays, months and feast-days (*Ascension Day, pre-Christmas business*).

1.24   *Events*. Initial capitals throughout for events such as *British Week, Love Parade, the International Year of the Child, the Second UN Development Decade*. No capitals, however, for *the 2003/04 marketing year, the 2004 budget year* and so on.

1.25   *Celestial bodies and objects*. Since they are proper nouns, the names of planets, moons, stars and artificial satellites are capitalised (*Venus*, *Rigel*, *Palapa B*). 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 daydreamer returned to earth.

1.26   *Proprietary names*. Proprietary names (or trade names) are normally capitalised, unless they have become generic terms, such as *aspirin,*

gramophone, linoleum, nylon, celluloid. Thus, capitalise registered trade names such as *Airbus, Boeing, Land Rover, Disprin, Polaroid.*

1.27 *Derivations from proper nouns*. When proper nouns are used adjectivally they keep the initial capital (e.g. *Bunsen burner*, *Faraday cage*). In the case of words derived from proper nouns (such as *pasteurise, quixotic, Rabelaisian*), consult a reliable dictionary, as practice varies.

1.28 *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'.

GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

1.29 *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 Annex 1.

1.30 *Orthography*. Recommended spellings of countries (full names and short forms), country adjectives, capital cities, currencies and abbreviations are given in Annex A5 of 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 English form. Examples: *Belén/Bethlehem*; *Hong-Kong/Hong Kong*; *Irak/Iraq*; *Mogadiscio/Mogadishu*; *Karlsbad/Karlovy Vary; Naplouse/Nablus*; *Saïda/Sidon*.

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

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

1.32   *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.

1.33   *Names of regions*. Regional names fall into three types.

♦   *Administrative units*. Anglicise only those names given in the list in [Annex 1](). Names of units below the top region/province tier should be left in the native spelling, without inverted commas.

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

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

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

Lower Bavaria; the Charentes development area

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

1.34   *Rivers*. Note that the river *Labe* (in Czech) is the *Elbe*. Use the forms *Meuse* (*Maas* only if the context is solely 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 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.

1.35   *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.

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

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

1.38   *Other bodies of water*. Write *Ijsselmeer* (without capital J), *Wattenmeer, Kattegat* (Danish), *Kattegatt* (Swedish), *Great/Little Belt*.

1.39   *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 *Fünen* in English texts and use *West Friesian Islands* for *Waddeneilanden.*

1.40   *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.

1.41   *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*.

1.42   *Cities.*

Austria	Use *Vienna* for *Wien*.
Belgium	Use the forms *Antwerp, Bruges, Brussels, Ghent, Ostend*.
	Flemish vs French forms. Use Flemish names of places in Dutch-speaking provinces and French for French-speaking areas. For details, see Annex 2.
Bulgaria	For towns and cities in Bulgaria, use the BG to EN transliteration table in Annex 4 (NB *Sofia* for the capital city). Avoid using forms such as *Rousse* and *Bourgas*, which, although French, are still sometimes found in English-language texts.
Czech Republic	Write *Prague* for Praha. Leave *Plzeň* in the Czech form (*Pilsen* is a style of beer).
Cyprus	Write *Nicosia* for Λευκοσία (*Levkosia*).

Denmark	Note *Copenhagen, Aarhus, Aalborg*.
Finland	Finland is a bilingual country, and many cities and localities have official names in both Finnish and Swedish. When translating from either language, remember that the form to be used depends on the local language situation, not on the text you are translating. A full list of the Finnish/Swedish names which take precedence is kept by the [Research Institute for the Languages of Finland](#). Note in particular that for all major cities the Finnish name must be used: write *Helsinki, Oulu, Tampere, Turku*, not *Helsingfors, Uleåborg, Tammerfors, Åbo*.
France	Write *Dunquerke, Lyon, Marseille, Strasbourg*.
Germany	Use the forms *Cologne* and *Munich*.
Greece	Use traditional English spellings for well-known cities, regions, islands, etc. − the officially recommended transcription system has not found acceptance even within the European Union and is unknown elsewhere. However, use transliteration for unfamiliar localities, and note that preference should always be given to the demotic forms of place names (where known).
Ireland	Use the English names of cities and towns, except for those in an Irish-speaking area (*Gaeltacht*). A list of English and Irish names can be found at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Place_names_in_Irish#Names_of_Irish_cities.
Italy	Use the English spellings *Florence, Genoa, Milan, Naples, Rome, Turin, Venice*. Take care not to use the French spelling of other towns, which may differ only slightly from the Italian.
Latvia	Write *Riga* for *Rīga*.
Lithuania	Note that *Memel* (German) is *Klaipėda* in Lithuanian.
Luxembourg	Use the spelling *Luxembourg* for both the Member State and its capital city.
Netherlands	Always write *The Hague* with a capital T except when used attributively (e.g. *the Hague Convention*).
Poland	Write *Warsaw* for *Warszawa*, but use the native forms *Gdańsk* (German: *Danzig*), *Kraków* (rather than *Cracow* or the German *Krakau*) and *Wrocław* (German: *Breslau*).

Portugal	Write *Lisbon*, but use the native form *Porto* (not *Oporto*).
Romania	Write *Bucharest* for *Bucureşti*.
Slovakia	Use the Slovak spellings for all place-names, bearing in mind that *Pressburg* (German) is *Bratislava* in English.
Spain	Write *Seville*. Otherwise use native spellings, e.g. *Córdoba, Irún*.
Sweden	Note *Gothenburg* for *Göteborg*. However, the Swedish form should be used in some EU-specific contexts, e.g. *the Göteborg summit/process*.

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

1.44   *Compass points*. No capitals for *north, north-west, north-western*, etc. unless part of an administrative or political unit or a distinct regional entity. Hence *South Africa, Northern Ireland* but *southern Africa, northern France*. Note, however, *Central and Eastern European countries* (capitalised because the connotations are more political than geographic). Compass bearings are abbreviated without a point (54°E).

1.45   *Compound compass points*. Compound compass points are hyphenated and, in official designations, each part is capitalised (*South-West Germany, the North-West Frontier*); always abbreviate as capitals without stops (*NW France)*.

HYPHENS AND COMPOUND WORDS

1.46   *General*. Compounds may be written as two or more separate words, or with hyphen(s), or as a single word, and many compounds have followed precisely those steps: *data base, data-base, database*. One indication of whether words should be joined or separated is stress: *underpass* is a single word, but *under way* should be written as two words.

Use hyphens sparingly but to good purpose: the phrase *crude oil production statistics* needs a hyphen to tell the reader whether 'crude' applies to the oil or to the statistics.

Sometimes hyphens are absolutely necessary to clarify the sense:

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

1.47   There are few hard and fast rules, but note the following examples:

well-known problem; hot-rolled strip; broad-based programme (*but* a broadly based programme);

oil-bearing rock; user-friendly software;

two-day meeting; four-month stay (*but* four months' holiday)

balance-of-payments policy; cost-of-living index;

low-interest loans; flood-control measures.

1.48   In adverb-adjective modifiers, there is no hyphen when the adverb ends in -ly:

occupationally exposed worker, a beautifully phrased sentence

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

drug-related (crime), crime-fighting (unit)

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

long-term effects *but* policy for the long term,

large-scale redundancies *but* production on a large scale

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

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

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

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

antibody, codetermination, codecision, cofinancing, cooperation, subcommittee, subparagraph

Others are more resistant to losing the hyphen:

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

but note

endgame, nonsense, overalls

1.53   *Nouns from phrasal verbs.* These are often hyphenated, but the situation is fluid. Thus *handout, takeover, comeback* but *follow-up, run-up, spin-off*.

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

cooling-off period;

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

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

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

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

1.56   *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.

1.57   *Prefixes before proper names.* Prefixes before proper names are hyphenated: *pro-American, intra-Community, mid-Atlantic, pan-European, trans-European (NB: Trans-European Networks)*. Note, however, that *transatlantic* is written solid.

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

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

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

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

NOT

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

(BUT of course

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

1.59   *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.

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 [2.18](#)) and ellipsis points (see 2.3) — closed up to the preceding word;

- ♦ stops (. ? ! : ;) are always followed by only a single (not a double) space;

- ♦ quotation marks may be either straight ('…') or preferably smart ('…'), but not both in the same text, and never chevrons (‹‹…››) or as in German („…").

FULL STOP

2.2 No further full stop is required if a sentence ends 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 final quotes:

> René Descartes said 'I think therefore I am.'

2.3 *Full stops as omission marks (aka ellipsis points).* Always use three points, preceded by a hard space. In Word, use Alt + Ctrl + (full stop) to insert ellipsis points. In French texts the points are commonly enclosed in brackets. This is never done in English:

> 'The objectives of the Union shall be achieved … while respecting the principle of subsidiarity.'

If a sentence ends with an omission, no fourth full stop should be added. If any other punctuation mark follows, there is no space before it.

NB: where French uses omission marks to mean 'etc.', put *etc.* instead.

2.4 *Run-in side heads (you are looking at one).* These are followed by a stop in English typographical practice (while colons are used in French).

COLON

2.5 Colons are most often used to indicate that an expansion, qualification 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 7](#) for lists.

2.6 Do not use colons at the end of headings.

2.7   Colons do not require the next word to start with a capital: contrast usage in German etc. (However, see [Chapter 7](#) for an exception.)

2.8   As stated in 2.1, colons should be closed up to the preceding word, unlike in French usage.

SEMICOLON

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

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

You may also use semicolons instead of commas to separate items in a series, especially phrases that themselves contain commas (see also [Chapter 7](#) for the use of semicolons in lists).

2.10   As stated in 2.1, semi-colons should be closed up to the preceding word, unlike in French usage.

COMMA

2.11   *Items in a series*. Here, the comma may be considered to stand for a missing 'and' or 'or'.

> John mowed the lawn, Mary did the cooking and Frank lazed around.
>
> He came, saw and conquered.
>
> The committee considered sugar, beef and milk products.

Insert an additional comma before the final 'and' (or 'or') if needed for clarification:

> sugar, beef and veal, and milk products.

A comma also comes before 'etc.' in a series:

> sugar, beef, milk products, etc.

but not if no series is involved:

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

Commas also divide adjectives in series:

> moderate, stable prices.

but not if the adjectives do not form a series:

> stable agricultural prices.

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

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

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

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

2.13   *Parenthetic and introductory phrases.* If a phrase is intended to complement or introduce the information in a sentence and has a separate emphasis of its own, it is set off by a comma, or by a pair of commas if inside the sentence:

> Mindful of the need to fudge the issue, the committee on commas never came to a conclusion.

> The committee on commas is composed of old fogeys, as you know.

> The committee on commas, however, was of a different opinion.

Note that the sentence must remain a complete sentence even if the parenthetic or introductory phrase is omitted.

Parenthetic phrases may also be created by setting off part of the sentence with a comma (or commas) while retaining the normal word order. Both the following are possible:

> The President was a great man despite his flaws.

> The President was a great man, despite his flaws.

Without the comma, the phrase 'despite his flaws' forms part of the statement. With the comma, the phrase complements it, i.e. the sentence retains its sense if the phrase is omitted. The comma is therefore correctly left out in the following sentence:

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

However, a comma is required if the phrase has a separate emphasis simply by virtue of being moved out of position, for example to the beginning of the sentence:

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

Note, though, that short introductory phrases need not have any separate emphasis of their own, i.e. they may be run into the rest of the sentence. Both the following are possible:

> In 2003, the committee took three decisions.

> In 2003 the committee took three decisions.

Parenthetic phrases (but not introductory phrases) may sometimes be marked by dashes (see 2.18) or brackets (see 2.20).

2.14   *Non-defining relative clauses.* Non-defining relative clauses are special cases of parenthetic phrases. Note the difference compared with relative clauses that define the preceding noun phrase (i.e. 'the translations' or 'the translation in the tray' in the examples below):

> The translations, which have been revised, can now be sent out.
>
> *(added detail — they have all been revised)*
>
> The translations which (*or better:* that) have been revised can now be sent out.
>
> *(defining the subset that is to be sent out — only those that have been revised are to be sent out)*

Note also that the use of '*which*' in defining relative clauses is often considered to be stilted and overly formal. *'That'* reads more naturally. It also helps make the meaning clearer, reinforcing the lack of commas, since it is used as a relative pronoun only in defining clauses. Unlike '*which*', however, '*that*' needs to be close to the noun to which it refers.

2.15   *Combined uses of commas.* The uses of commas described above can of course be combined. Worth noting is that an initial comma is not needed before introductory phrases in linked sentences:

> The committee dealing with the question of commas agreed on a final text, but despite the importance of the matter, the relationship with semicolons was not considered.

2.16   *Avoiding commas*. Avoid liberally sprinkling sentences with commas, but do so by constructing sentences so as to minimise the number of commas required rather than by breaching the comma rules described above. For example, inserted phrases can often be moved to the beginning of the sentence. Parenthetic phrases can also be rendered with brackets or dashes. Moreover, a parenthetic phrase may not in fact be appropriate (see the examples in 2.13 and the discussion of relative clauses in 2.14). Finally, a complex sentence can be divided by a semicolon (compare 2.9 and 2.12) or even split into two or more sentences.

DASHES

2.17   *Dashes v hyphens.* Most users of word processors do not distinguish between dashes and hyphens, using hyphens to represent both short dashes ('en' dashes = –) and long dashes ('em' dashes = —) commonly used in typeset documents. However, please note that both en and em dashes are available in modern word processors.

2.18   *Em dashes* may be used to punctuate a sentence instead of commas (see 2.13) or round brackets (see 2.20). They increase the contrast or emphasis of the text thus set off. However, use no more than one in a sentence, or — if used with inserted phrases — one set of paired dashes. To avoid errors if your dashes subsequently turn into hyphens as a result of document conversion, do not follow the typesetting practice of omitting the spaces around the em dashes. In

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

2.19 *En dashes* are used to join coordinate or contrasting pairs (*the Brussels–Paris route, a current–voltage graph, the height–depth ratio*). These are not subject to hyphen rules. In Microsoft Word, the keyboard shortcut for the en dash is Ctrl + - (on the numeric keypad).

BRACKETS

2.20 *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.

2.21 *Round brackets in citations.* Use a pair of round brackets when citing numbered paragraphs from legal instruments, and close up to the article number:

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

2.22 *Bracketed sentences.* A whole sentence in brackets should have the final stop inside the closing bracket. Do not forget the stop at the end of the preceding sentence as well.

2.23 *Square brackets.* Square brackets are used to make insertions in quoted material. They are also used by convention in administrative drafting to indicate optional passages or those still open to discussion, so do not replace with round brackets.

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

QUESTION MARK

2.24 *Courtesy questions.* No question mark is needed after a request or instruction put as a question for courtesy:

> Would you please sign and return the attached form.

2.25 Do not use a question mark in indirect speech:

> The chairman asked when the deadline would be fixed.

2.26 As stated in 2.1 above, question marks should be closed up to the preceding word, unlike in French usage.

EXCLAMATION MARK

2.27 In English, exclamation marks are used solely to mark exclamations, such as '*How we laughed!*' or '*What a fiasco!',* or to add exclamatory force to a

statement, e.g. '*Two million cows had to die!*', or a command, e.g. '*Please read this paragraph!*'. 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. Note that exclamation marks are not used to mark the imperative as such in English.

2.28   *Factorials.* As a mathematical symbol, the exclamation mark identifies a factorial:

$$6! = 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

2.29   As stated in 2.1 above, exclamation marks should be closed up to the preceding word, unlike in French usage.

QUOTATION MARKS

2.30   *Double v single quotation marks.* Use single quotation marks to signal direct speech and verbatim quotes, and double quotation marks for quotations within these. You may also use single quotation marks to identify words and phrases that are not themselves quotes but to which you wish to draw attention as lexical items.

2.31   *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.

2.32   *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.

2.33   *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.

2.34   *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.

2.35   *So-called.* Quotation marks are preferable to *so-called*, which has pejorative connotations, to render *soi-disant, sogenannt,* etc.

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

French and German authors tend to make frequent use of inverted commas 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.

APOSTROPHE

2.37   *Possessive of nouns*. The possessive form of nouns is marked by an apostrophe followed by an -*s*. After the plural ending 's', however, the possessive -*s* is omitted:

> the owner's car
>
> women's rights
>
> footballers' earnings

Note that the apostrophe is never used in possessive adjectives:

> its *(as distinct from it's, i.e. 'it is')*, ours, theirs, yours

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

> an actress's pay; Mr Jones's paper;
>
> Helios's future is uncertain; AWACS's success

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

Note that some place names also omit the apostrophe (*Earls Court, Kings Cross*). Possessives of proper names in titles (e.g. *Chambers Dictionary*) sometimes omit the apostrophe as well. There is no apostrophe in *Achilles tendon*.

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

> don't = do not
>
> it's = it is *(as distinct from the possessive 'its')*
>
> who's = who is *(as distinct from* whose*)*
>
> you're = you are *(as distinct from* your*)*

2.40   *Plurals of abbreviations*. Plurals of abbreviations (*MEPs, OCTs, SMEs, UFOs, VDUs*) do not take an apostrophe.

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

> Pilots of 747s undergo special training.

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

> Dot your i's.

Mind your p's and q's.

2.43   In tables, write *'000 tonnes* (or of course *thousand tonnes* or *thousands of tonnes*), not *in 1 000 tonnes.*

3.   NUMBERS

3.1   *General.* In deciding whether to write numbers in words or figures, the first consideration should be consistency within a passage. As a general rule write low numbers (up to *nine* inclusive) in words and larger numbers (*10* and above) in figures. If the passage contains both kinds, however, use either figures or words for all the numbers.

Note that you should always use figures for statistics (3 new officials were appointed in 2002, 6 in 2003 and …), for votes (*12 delegations were in favour, 7 against, and 6 abstained*), for ranges denoted by a dash (see [Ranges](#), 3.14–3.15), 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*).

On the other hand, try not to start a sentence with a figure or a symbol followed by a figure. Either write out in full or, if this does not work, make use of devices such as inversion: *Altogether 92 cases were found ..., Of the total, €55 million was spent on ...*

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

> EUR 50 *or* fifty euros
>
> 250 kW *or* two hundred and fifty kilowatts
>
> 205 µg *or* two hundred and five micrograms
>
> 5 °C *or* five degrees Celsius

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*.

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

> 300 *or* three hundred ***but not*** 3 hundred
>
> EUR 3 000 *or* three thousand euros ***but not*** EUR 3 thousand

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

> 2.5 million, 3 million, 31 billion

WRITING OUT NUMBERS

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

> a three-year period; a five-door car

But note set phrases such as:

> 40-hour week, 24-hour clock, 4-wheel drive

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

> 90 fifty-gram weights, seventy 25-cent stamps

3.6 Compound numbers that are to be written out (e.g. in treaty texts) take a hyphen:

> the thirty-first day of December, nineteen hundred and eighty-one

3.7 *Grouping of thousands*. Do not use either commas or points but insert hard spaces[1] (*4 000 000*). Note that serial numbers are not grouped in thousands (*p. 1452*).

In tables write

> EUR '000 *or* EUR thousand, ***but not*** in EUR 1 000.
>
> '000 tonnes *or* thousand tonnes *or* thousands of tonnes, ***but not*** in 1 000 tonnes

3.8 *Billion.* The use of *billion* to designate *thousand million* (rather than *million million*) is now officially recognised by the Commission and is standard usage in official EU publications. Leading British newspapers and journals (such as the *Financial Times* and *The Economist*) have also adopted the convention.

3.9 *Abbreviating 'million' and 'billion'.* Do not use *mio*. 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 may either be preceded by a hard space[1] (examples: *€ 230 000 m, $ 370 000 bn*) or be closed up where the preceding figure does not contain a space (examples: *€230m, £490bn*). See also 20.6.

FRACTIONS

3.10 *Written out.* Insert hyphens in fractions used as adverbs or adjectives but not if they are nouns:

> a two-thirds increase, ***but*** an increase of two thirds.

3.11 Avoid combining figures and words:

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

3.12 *Decimal points.* When translating, do not replace commas with points in legislation (including the budget). This was agreed in the 1970s by the UK and Irish Permanent Representatives. The same goes for all other work that is to appear in the Official Journal of the European Union. Elsewhere, replace decimal commas with points. See also Chapter 7 on tables.

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[1] Or, if possible, a thin space (key code: Alt + 8021). At present, however, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs. To make hard spaces (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) look more like thin spaces, as here, you can halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50%).

3.13 Note when quoting statistics that 3.5 (as in 3.5%) is not the same as 3.50 or 3½; each decimal place, even if zero, adds to the precision. The non-decimal fraction is more approximate.

RANGES

3.14 *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

3.15 *Abbreviated form.* When a range is indicated by a dash *(N.B. use an en-dash),* do not repeat the symbol or multiple if they do not change and close up the dash 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 dash:

> 100 kW – 40 MW

DATES AND TIME

DATES

3.16 Write out the month, preceded by a simple figure for the day, e. g. *23 July 1997*. Use all four digits when referring to specific years (i.e. 1997 not '97). However, in footnotes and where space is at a premium, the month can be written as a number.

Note that in American usage, *23 July 1997* is *7.23.97* and in the international dating system it is *1997-07-23*.

3.17 *Avoiding redundancy.* If the year in question is absolutely clear from the context, the year number may be left out: *on 23 July 2001, the Committee adopted ... but subsequently on 2 August, it decided ...*

3.18 *Decades.* When referring to decades write *the 1990s* (no apostrophe).

3.19 *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.

3.20 *Time spans.* Use a closed-up *en* dash (see 2.19). For the second figure, you should not repeat the century if it is the same, but you should always include the decade:

> 1939–45, 1990–96, 1996–2006, 2010–12

However, the century may be repeated in the first decade of a new century:

2000–2008.

3.21   Note the following patterns:

from 1990 to 1995 (**not**: from 1990–95)

between 1990 and 1995 (**not**: between 1990–95)

1990 to 1995 inclusive (**not**: 1990–95 inclusive)

3.22   Note that *1990–91* is two years. Single marketing years, financial years, etc. that do not coincide with calendar years are denoted by a forward slash: e.g. *1990/91*, which is twelve months or less.

TIME

3.23   Use the 24-hour system in preference to the 12-hour system.

When writing times, use a colon in preference to a point between hours and minutes, without adding *hrs* or *o'clock*: *11:30*. However, if the original document uses a point, this may be retained for the sake of convenience.

For midnight either write the word *midnight* or use *24:00* (for periods ending then) or *00:00* (for periods starting then).

3.24   For duration use *h:*

the time allowed for the test is 2½ h.

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

4. ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ABBREVIATIONS

4.1 *General.* The prime consideration when using abbreviations should be to help the reader. First, then, they should be easily understood. So when an abbreviation that may not be familiar to readers first occurs, it is best to write out the full term followed by the abbreviation in brackets:

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

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

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

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

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

4.2 *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 (*Benelux, NATO*). They never take points.

♦ **Initialisms** are formed from the initial letters of a series of words, usually written without points, and each separate letter is pronounced (*BBC*, *MEP*, *USA*).

Contractions and truncations

♦ **Contractions** omit the middle of a word (*Mr, Dr*) and, in British usage, are not followed by a point.

♦ **Truncations** omit the end of a word (*Feb., Tues.*) and sometimes other letters as well (*cf.*), and end in a point.

4.3 *Writing acronyms.*

Acronyms with **five letters or less** are uppercased:

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

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

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

Benelux, Esprit, Helios, Interreg, Resider, Unesco, Unctad

Exceptions: computer terms such as FORTRAN, WYSIWYG

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

4.4 *Writing initialisms*.

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

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

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

aka, BAe (British Aerospace), MoD, kph, PhD

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

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

Note that 'e.g.' and 'i.e.' are never capitalised (even at the beginning of footnotes) and always take points. In contrast, 'plc' (private limited company) never takes points even though it, too, is never capitalised.

4.5 *Writing truncations*.

Truncations take a point at the end:

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

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

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

chs. 7 to 9, figs. 1 to 3

However, truncated forms used as codes or symbols, e.g. *EN, kg*, do not take points (see also 4.20 and 4.27). Further, no point is used after the *v* in the names of court cases (*Smith* v *Jones*) and sporting contests. The abbreviation *No* for 'number' (plural *Nos*) also has no final point, as it is in fact a **contraction** of the Latin *numero*.

Note that first names should be abbreviated with a single letter only, followed by a point *(Philippe: P., Theodor: T.*). Multiple initials should normally be

written with points and separated by a space (*J. S. Bach*). For compound first names, use both initials (*Jean-Marie: J.-M.*). See, however, 11.1.

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

4.6   *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

4.7   *Definite/indefinite article*.

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

Initialisms generally take the definite article if the expression they stand for does (*the OECD, the WTO, but TNT*). However, there is a tendency to drop the article if the initialism is regarded more as a name in its own right, for example where the full expression is hardly ever used or no longer even known. Bare initialisms are also seen as 'cooler', which probably explains *DGT* for *the Directorate-General for Translation*.

4.8   *Plurals*. Plurals of abbreviations are formed in the usual way by adding a lower-case *'s'* without an apostrophe:

> ICTs, SMEs, UFOs, VDUs, OCTs, PhDs

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

4.10   *Use of e.g. and 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.*

4.11   *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.* in footnotes or tables, but this should be avoided in running text.

MATHEMATICAL SYMBOLS

4.12   *Per cent*. Note that *per cent* is normally written as two words in British English. Use *per cent* where the number is also spelled out in words: *twenty*

per cent. With figures, use the per cent sign (%) preceded by a hard space,[1] e.g. 25 %. See also section 6.4 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

Observe the distinction between *per cent (or %)* and *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 %.

4.13   *Percentages*. 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*.

4.14   *Technical tolerances.* Do not use ± (ASCII 241) to mean 'about' or 'approximately'. Use it only for technical tolerances.

4.15   *Foreign-language conventions.* Remember that languages may have different conventions as regards their use of mathematical signs.

4.16   *Open dashes.* Use a closed-up dash, not a hyphen or open dash, to signify a range (e.g. *10–12 %*). See also 2.17 to 2.19.

4.17   *Multiplication sign.* Change points used as a multiplication sign to 'x' or '*', e.g. *2.6 . 10^{18}* becomes *2.6 x 10^{18}* or *2.6 * 10^{18}*.

SCIENTIFIC SYMBOLS AND UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

4.18   *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.

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

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

4.20   *Degree sign.* The degree sign in temperatures should be preceded by a hard space,[1] 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.

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[1]   Or, if possible, a thin space (key code: Alt + 8021). At present, however, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs. To make a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) look more like a thin space, you can, as here, halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50%).

4.21   *Symbols for units of measurement.* These are normally abridged forms of the names of these units. They are written without stops, are not closed up to figures and do not have plurals (*4 ha, 9 m, 60 km, 50 km/h, 200 g, 5 kg, 40 t, 20 bar, 55 dB (A), 2 000 kc/s*).

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

4.23   *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. When combining prefixes with units, link either symbols only or full-forms only: thus *kilohertz* or *kHz* but not *kiloHz* or *khertz.*

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

4.25   *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) for land measurement. Aircraft altitudes are often expressed in *feet* (ft). Do not convert quantities, although an explanatory footnote may be inserted if appropriate.

4.26   *Computing.* Where computers are concerned, *K (kilo), M (mega)* and *G (giga)* often stand for binary thousands ($1\,024=2^{10}$), millions ($1\,048\,576=2^{20}$) and billions ($1\,073\,741\,824=2^{30}$), respectively. Note the capital K in this usage.

4.27   *Electric power. Kilowatt (kW)* and *megawatt (MW)* are used for generating capacity, *kWh* and *MWh* for output over a given period.

4.28   *Chemical elements.* The names of the chemical elements start with a lowercase letter, including elements whose designations are derived from proper names: *californium, einsteinium, nobelium,* etc. Their symbols (which are interlingual) consist either of a single capital or a capital and small letter (*N, Sn, U, Pb, Mg, Z*) without a point. A list of elements may be found, for example, at http://www.ch.cam.ac.uk/resources/misc/weii/elements.html.

4.29   In shipping, *grt* stands for gross register tonnage (not *registered*) and *gt* for gross tonnage.

5.   FOREIGN IMPORTS

FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES IN ENGLISH TEXT

5.1   Foreign words and phrases used in an English text should be italicised (no inverted commas) and should have the appropriate accents, e.g. *inter alia*, *raison d'être*.

Exceptions: words and phrases now in common use and/or considered part of the English language, e.g. role, ad hoc, per capita, per se, etc.

5.2   Personal names should retain their original accents, e.g. Grybauskaitė, Potočnik, Wallström.

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

5.4   *Latin.* Avoid obscure Latin phrases if writing for a broad readership. When faced with such phrases as a translator, check whether they have the same currency and meaning when used in English.

5.5   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

5.6   *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 the Transliteration Table for Greek annexed to this Guide.

5.7   *Cyrillic.* When transliterating for EU documents, use the scheme set out in the Transliteration Table for Cyrillic annexed to this Guide. (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.

5.8   *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

5.9 *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.

6. VERBS

SINGULAR OR PLURAL AGREEMENT

6.1 *Collective nouns.* Use 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 the individual members:

> The police have failed to trace the goods.
>
> A majority of the Committee were in favour.

6.2 Countries and organisations with a plural name take the singular:

> The Netherlands is reconsidering its position.
>
> The United Nations was unable to reach agreement.

6.3 Use a singular verb when a multiple subject clearly forms a whole:

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

6.4 *Words in -ics.* These 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.

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

6.6 '*Data'* is properly a plural noun and therefore goes with a plural verb.

6.7 The word *none* takes either a singular or plural verb, depending on sense.

PRESENT PERFECT/SIMPLE PAST

6.8 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 2001.

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.

TENSES IN MINUTES

6.9 *Minutes and summary records* are written in the past tense in English, unlike in French and some other languages, where they are written using the present tense.

6.10 This means converting actual or implied statements from the present to the past.

A simple example of English reported speech conventions:

> Dutch spokesman: 'We *are* concerned at the number of exceptions which *have been* included.'
>
> Chairman: 'The legal experts *will be* looking into this question.'

In reported speech, this becomes:

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

6.11 *Sequence of tenses.* Simple past is normally replaced by past perfect (pluperfect):

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

However, to avoid a clumsy string of past perfects in minutes 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 in order to maintain a logical sequence of tenses, 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 *in 2003* the problem had been referred to the subcommittee, since legislation was then 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.'

6.12 *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.

6.13   *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).

VERBS IN LEGISLATION

6.14   The use of verbs, in particular the modal verb *shall*, in legislation often gives rise to problems, since such uses are rarely encountered in everyday speech. Consequently, writers may lack a feel for the right construction. The following section is intended to provide guidance.

6.15   *Use of verbs in enacting terms*. The enacting terms of binding EU legislation, i.e. the articles of EU treaties (see Chapter 14) and of EU regulations, directives and decisions (see Chapter 15), can be divided broadly into two linguistic categories: imperative terms and declarative terms. Imperative terms can in turn be subdivided into positive and negative commands and positive and negative permissions. Declarative terms are terms that are implemented directly by virtue of being declared, for example definitions or amendments. Note that the explanations here apply only to the main clauses of sentences in enacting terms. For subordinate clauses, see *Use of verbs in non-enacting terms* below.

6.16   For a *positive command*, use *shall*:

> This form shall be used for all consignments.

Note that this provision expresses an obligation. However, this is not always the case:

> This Regulation shall enter into force on ...

Theoretically, *must* could be used instead of *shall* in the first case, while *will* could be used in both cases. However, this is not the practice in EU legislation.

6.17   For a *negative command*, use *shall not*:

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

> This agreement shall not enter into force until/if ...

Where a prohibition is meant, however, use *may not*:

> The Judges may not hold any political or administrative office.

> This additive may not be used in foods.

As a guide to usage, note that *will not* could be used instead of *shall not* in the first case, and *must not* could be used instead of *may not* in the second. Again, however, this is not the usual practice in EU legislation.

6.18   For a *positive permission*, use *may*:

> This additive may be used ...:

6.19   For a *negative permission*, use *need not*:

> This test need not be performed in the following cases:

6.20   For *declarative terms*, use the simple present (together with an optional 'hereby' where the declaration constitutes an action, as in the first three examples):

> Regulation … is (hereby) repealed.
>
> A committee … is (hereby) established.
>
> Article 3 of Regulation …is (hereby) amended as follows:
>
> This Regulation applies to aid granted to enterprises in the agriculture or fisheries sectors.
>
> For the purpose of this Regulation, 'abnormal loads' means …

Note that *shall be* could be used in the first four examples (without *hereby*), but the meaning would be different: instead of declaring something to be so, this would be ordaining that something is to be so at some point or in some event (*Two years after the entry into force of this Regulation/Should the Member States so decide, ...*). In the last example as well, *shall mean* would in effect be instructing people how to use the term 'abnormal loads' from now on, rather than simply declaring what it means in the regulation. Consequently, where no futurity or contingency is intended, the correct form here is a declarative term using the simple present.

6.21   *Use of verbs in non-enacting terms.* Do not use *shall* in non-enacting terms, for example recitals or points in annexes. This is because these are not normally imperative terms (but see 6.22 below) and *shall* is not used with the third person in English except in commands (and to express resolution as in *it shall be done*). Use other verbs such as *will* or *must* as appropriate. Note that this also applies to subordinate phrases in enacting terms, since these refer or explain and do not in themselves constitute commands (e.g. *where applicants must/have to/are to* [**not** *shall*] *submit documentation under paragraph 1, ...*).

Avoid also the archaic use of *shall* in subordinate clauses to express contingency: use instead the present tense (e.g. *if an application is* [**not** *shall be*] *submitted after the deadline, ...*) or the inverted construction with *should* (e.g. *should an application be submitted after the deadline, ...*).

Do not use *may not* in non-enacting terms to express a prohibition since it will often be interpreted as expressing possibility: use, for example, *must not* instead.

6.22   *Instructions in annexes to legislation.* While instructions will contain imperative terms, they often contain descriptions and statements of fact as well. For the sake of clarity, therefore, you should use the second person 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)*

SPLIT INFINITIVE

6.23   This refers to the practice of inserting adverbs or other words before an infinitive but after the 'to' that usually introduces it, as in 'to boldly go where no-one has gone before'. Although there is nothing wrong with this practice from the standpoint of English grammar, there are still many who think otherwise. One way of encouraging such readers to concentrate on the content of your text rather than on the way you express it is to avoid separating the 'to' from its following infinitive.

Note, however, that this does <u>not</u> justify qualifying the wrong verb, as in 'we called on her legally to condemn the practice'. In these and similar cases, either split the infinitive with a clear conscience or move the qualifying adverb to the end of the phrase.

7.   LISTS AND TABLES

LISTS

7.1   Use your word processor's automatic numbering facilities wherever possible, since it is much easier to amend a list if the numbers are automatically adjusted.

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

When translating lists, always use the same type of numbering as in the original, e.g. Arabic numerals, small letters, Roman numerals, etc. 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.

7.2   *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.

7.3   *Where each item completes* the introductory sentence, you should:
-    begin with the introductory colon;
-    label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
-    end each item with a semicolon;
-    close with a full stop.

7.4   *If all items are complete statements* without a grammatical link to the introductory sentence, proceed as follows:
a.   introduce the list with a colon;
b.   label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
c.   start each item with a lowercase letter;

  d. end each one with a semicolon;

  e. put a full stop at the end.

7.5 If any one item consists of several complete sentences, announce the list with a complete sentence and continue as indicated below:

  1) Introduce the list with a colon.

  2) Label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter.

  3) Begin each item with a capital letter.

  4) End each statement with a full stop. This allows several sentences to be included under a single item without throwing punctuation into confusion.

TABLES

7.6 *Table headings.* Place table headings above the table without a main verb. Diagrams, figures and graphs should be labelled at the bottom, also without a main verb. It is not necessary to repeat the word *table* in the heading.

7.7 *Figures and symbols in tables.* Change decimal commas into decimal points, unless requested not to (see 3.12). Otherwise, however, figures and internationally recognised symbols in tables are language-independent elements and should not normally have to be retyped if a source text is available in electronic format.

8.   SCIENCE GUIDE

SCIENTIFIC NAMES

8.1   *Biological sciences.* As the binomial system for classifying living organisms is used in all languages, it is normally sufficient to reproduce the original terms. Note that the initial letter of the scientific name is capitalised, while species epithets are always lowercased, even if derived from proper names (e.g. *Martes americana, Pusa sibirica*):

ORDER:	Rosales	Carnivora
FAMILY:	Rosaceae	Felidae
GENUS:	*Rosa*	*Felis*
SPECIES:	*Rosa moschata*	*Felis catus*

8.2   *Italicisation.* The names of genera, species and subspecies (varieties, cultivars) are always italicised.

8.3   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.*

8.4   *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*).

8.5   *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.

8.6   *Chemical compounds.* Like chemical elements, the symbols for chemical compounds (i.e. chemical formulae) are interlingual: *$NaCl$, H_2O, $C_{18}H_{25}NO$*, etc.

8.7   *Sulphur/sulfur.* Note that the spelling *sulfur* is preferred by IUPAC (the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry), but the Harmonised System and Combined Nomenclature (customs tariff nomenclatures) retain the *sulph-* forms. The correct spelling will therefore depend on the context.

8.8   *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 other compound forms (*benzeneethanol*), where normal hyphenation rules would require a hyphen between the double vowels.

8.9   *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).*

8.10   *Using Einecs. Einecs* is a multi-volume work published by the Office for Official Publications. It is available on CD-ROM. Volumes IV and V of *Einecs* contain the alphabetically ordered Name Index. If you cannot locate the substance where you would expect to find it (i.e. under the first letter of its name), look under the head noun, i.e. the most rightward constituent of the string, which is followed by the attributive parts of the compound. Thus, *iodobenzene* is entered as *Benzene, iodo-*. Note that the end-hyphen in the *Einecs* entry means that the compound is *closed,* i.e. that there is *no hyphen* when it is written out in running text. The absence of an end-hyphen means that the compound is written *open*. Thus, *lactate dehydrogenase* is entered as *Dehydrogenase, lactate.*

8.11   *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.*

8.12   *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.

8.13   *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 *edetic acid* or abbreviated to *EDTA*. If translating, follow source document usage.

9.   FOOTNOTES, CITATIONS AND REFERENCES

9.1   *Footnote and endnote references.* Use your word processor's automatic footnote function so that if you alter the order of footnotes, they will be renumbered automatically. Footnote/endnote references in text are usually given as superscript numerals without brackets following punctuation. However, to achieve uniformity across language versions, the Publications Office places footnote references in brackets before punctuation (see Section 8.1 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide). Follow this practice when producing or translating texts destined for the Publications Office.

9.2   *Positioning of footnote/endnote numbers referring to legislation.* Put the footnote number immediately after the title of the instrument.

9.3   *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).

9.4   *Bibliographical citations.* If authoring for an EU institution, see Section 5.3.4 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide. If translating, follow the source document conventions. See also citations of European Court Reports.

9.5   *Citations.* Put titles of periodicals, books and newspapers in italics but cite titles of articles within such publications in single quotation marks. Use the English titles of publications where an official English version exists but do not translate titles of works that have appeared only in a foreign language.

9.6   *Referring to parts of documents*. When referring to parts of documents, use Part, Chapter, Section, etc. with capitals only if the parts are actually called that. If the parts only have a number or title, use an appropriate term in lower case, 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

Do not use a symbol such as a section mark (§) unless the section referred to is itself marked by such a symbol (see also 15.28).

9.7   *Citing EU documents.* Italicise the titles of white and green papers. Separate the main title and the subtitle, if any, with a colon. Use initial capitals on the first and all significant words in the main title and on the first word in the subtitle. Launch straight into the italicised title: do not introduce it with 'on', 'concerning', 'entitled', etc.

> In the White Paper *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment: The challenges and ways forward into the twenty-first century*, the Commission set out a strategy . . .
>
> The White Paper *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment* was the first . . .

> In *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment*, on the other hand, the Commission set in motion . . . *[this form might work where the White Paper had already been mentioned, for example, or in an enumeration]*
>
> The Green Paper *Towards Fair and Efficient Pricing in Transport: Policy options for internalising the external costs of transport in the European Union*
>
> The *Green Paper on Innovation ['Green Paper on' is part of its title]*

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

> the communication *An Industrial Competitiveness Policy for the European Union* [published as Bull. Suppl. 3/94]
>
> the communication *Agenda 2000: For a stronger and wider Union [when the reference is to the title of the document, which was published in Bull. Suppl. 5/97; but of course we would probably say 'an Agenda 2000 priority' for example]*

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

> the communication 'A European Strategy for Encouraging Local Development and Employment Initiatives' *[this appeared in OJ C 265 of 12 October 1995, and its title is cast like the title of a book, but it does not seem to have been published in its own right]*

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

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

10. CORRESPONDENCE

10.1 *Translating incoming letters.* Use a simple layout such as follows:

Letter from:
(name and, where necessary, address on one line)

Date:
(place and date of letter)

To:

Subject:

Ref.:

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

10.2 *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**.

10.3 *Letters to ambassadors and permanent representatives.* For the UK, start 'Sir' or 'Madam'. For all other countries, start 'Your Excellency'. For all countries, close as follows.

I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,

Yours faithfully

(*or just* Yours faithfully)

10.4 *Letters to ministers*. For the UK, start 'Sir/Madam/My Lord' and close:

I remain (or I am), Sir /Madam/My Lord,

Yours faithfully

(*or just* Yours faithfully)

For all other countries, start 'Sir/Madam' and close:

I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,

Yours faithfully

(*or just* Yours faithfully)

10.5   *Letters to presidents of EU institutions*. Start 'Sir/Madam,' and close:

> I have the honour to be, Sir/Madam,
>
> Yours faithfully

10.6   *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.

10.7   *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.

10.8   For further information on forms of address, see the guidance from the UK Ministry of Justice.

11. PERSONAL NAMES AND TITLES

11.1 *Personal names.* Surnames are not normally uppercased in running text in English (thus Mr Barroso not Mr BARROSO). However, common sense must apply if the same text is to appear in several languages or if it is impractical to reinstate accents.

Similarly, 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:

> Gro Harlem Brundtland *(first mention),* Ms Brundtland *(thereafter)*
>
> Tony Blair *(first mention),* Mr Blair *(thereafter)*

If it is impossible to track down the first name, then drop the initial.

11.2 *Ms — Mme — Frau.* As a matter of courtesy use *Ms* in English unless you know that the person concerned prefers otherwise. Note that the French *Mme* and German *Frau* are likewise courtesy titles: a *Mme* or *Frau* is not necessarily a *Mrs* (i.e. married).

11.3 *Foreign-language titles.* Avoid titles not customary in English, but note that if you use Mr or Ms, you must obviously be sure of the gender of the person in question.

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

11.4 *Doctor.* The title *Dr* should be given when it appears in the original (except in combined titles, as above), regardless of whether the holder is a doctor of medicine or not.

12. GENDER-NEUTRAL LANGUAGE

12.1   Using gender-neutral formulations is more than a matter of political correctness. The Commission wholeheartedly endorses equal opportunities, and its language should reflect this. Using the generic 'he' is incongruous, since Commission documents are just as likely to be addressed to women.

12.2   *He/she*. Avoid the clumsy *he/she* etc., except perhaps in non-running text such as application forms. The best solution is often to use the plural, which in any case is more commonly used in English for the generic form as it does not require the definite article. For example, in draft legislation or calls for tenders, translate *l'exportateur/le soumissionaire … il* by *exporters/tenderers … they*. It is also acceptable to use forms such as *everyone has their own views on this* (see *usage note* for *they* in the Concise Oxford Dictionary).

12.3   In some texts, for example in manuals or sets of instructions, it is more natural in English to address the reader directly using the second-person form or even 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.

12.4   *Noun forms*. Use your judgment in choosing noun forms to emphasise or de-emphasise gender. The *policewoman* has arrived, the *dustwoman* has not, and we will no doubt go on using *fisherman* until the culture of fishing communities changes. *Pilot* and the like no longer have variants with *woman* tacked on the front. In some cases a substitute is available, e.g. *firefighters* instead of *firemen*. For *Chairman*, *Chairwoman* and *Chair* use your discretion, but note that Parliament now uses *Chair* for its own committees.

Part II

About the European Union

13. THE EUROPEAN UNION

13.1 *The European Union — EU.* In geographical terms, the *European Union* comprises the combined territories of its Member States. Structurally speaking, it comprises three 'pillars': (1) the supranational organisation known as the *European Communities* (see below), plus two areas of intergovernmental cooperation in the form of (2) a common foreign and security policy (including a defence component); and (3) cooperation on justice and home affairs (now only police and judicial cooperation in criminal matters). It has powers of its own under pillars 2 and 3 but no legal personality as yet, though it will under the new Treaty of Lisbon (see 14.17).

The Council being responsible for all three pillars, its formal title is the *Council of the European Union*. (See Chapter 16 for further guidance on all the EU institutions.) Likewise, the Official Journal is now named the *Official Journal of the European Union* since it covers publications under all three pillars.

13.2 *The European Communities.* The term 'the European Communities' has always been the correct legal form to refer collectively to the *European Coal and Steel Community* (now defunct), the *European Community* (formerly *European Economic Community*) and the *European Atomic Energy Community*, which together constitute the first pillar of the European Union. Use their full names rather than the abbreviations *ECSC, EC* (formerly *EEC*) and *Euratom* in legislation. The short form '*the Communities*' may be used in informal texts.

Since the Commission administers this first pillar (but not the other two), its formal title is the *Commission of the European Communities* (see also 16.1).

13.3 *The European Community — EC.* This is now the name of what used to be the 'European Economic Community' (renamed by the EU Treaty). The abbreviated form is 'EC', as in *the EC Treaty*, but use it only where the context is quite clear to avoid potential confusion with *European Commission*.

13.4 *European Community in general references.* Before the European Union was established, the term 'the European Community' (or simply 'the Community') was often used informally for all three Communities and for the European political entity in general. For references of this kind, use either 'the European Communities' or 'the European Union', whichever is correct.

13.5 *Community* was also frequently used as an attributive adjective in general references such as 'Community policy/institutions/legislation'. However, unless the context is specifically the European Communities rather than the European Union in general, you should now use *EU* instead.

13.6 *Common,* meaning *Community*, 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.

13.7   *Common market.* This term is normally used in EU documents only in phrases such as 'the common market in goods and services'.

13.8   *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.

13.9   *The Twenty-seven (Twenty-five, Fifteen, Twelve, Ten, Nine, Six).* These expressions are sometimes used to refer to different memberships of the European Union/Communities at different periods. In this context the only correct abbreviation is EU-27, 25, 15, 12, 10, 9 or 6 (*not* EUR-25 etc.) to avoid confusion with the euro.

13.10   *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 Union;

  ♦ measures relating to the common foreign and security policy (second pillar of the Union);

  ♦ measures relating to justice and home affairs (third pillar of the Union);

  ♦ international agreements concluded by the Union and those concluded by the Member States among themselves in connection with the Union'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 Union.

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'.

14. PRIMARY LEGISLATION

14.1   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

14.2   The treaties founding the original 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* (now EC Treaty)

- the Euratom Treaty (Rome, 1957), which established the *European Atomic Energy Community*.

Then in 1992 the European Union was established by:

- the EU Treaty (Maastricht, 1992).

Over the years these founding 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)
-    five Accession Treaties (1972; 1979; 1985; 1994; 2003).

The Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe (2004) has been abandoned.

The Treaty of Lisbon (2007) is pending ratification.

THE TREATIES IN DETAIL

14.3   *Order of listing.* When listed together the Treaties should be put in historical order: ECSC Treaty, EEC Treaty, Euratom Treaty, EU Treaty. (In the titles of legal instruments common to more than one of the Communities, the order no longer rotates; see 3.4.4 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide.)

14.4   *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*.

14.5   *EC Treaty — Treaty establishing the European Community*.

This is the new name given by the EU Treaty to the *EEC Treaty (Treaty establishing the European Economic Community),* which was signed in Rome on 25 March 1957 and came into force on 1 January 1958. The name *Treaty of Rome* for the EEC Treaty can be used in historical contexts, but do not use it for references to the *EC Treaty*. Do not use the abbreviation ECT; use either the short form or a bare abbreviation for citations (see [14.18](#)).

14.6   *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*.

14.7   *Treaties of Rome* can be used to refer to the EEC and Euratom Treaties together.

14.8   *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.

14.9   *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.

14.10   *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 European Communities and granted the island 'Overseas Countries and Territories' status.

14.11   *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 Community policy-making. It also made minor amendments to the ECSC and Euratom Treaties.

14.12   *[EU Treaty](#) — Treaty on European Union*.

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). These

are the three 'pillars' of the European Union (see 13.1). 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*.

For the short form, write 'the EU Treaty'. Do not abbreviate to TEU. Alternatively, use a bare abbreviation for citations (see 14.18).

14.13   *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 (asylum and immigration policy and judicial cooperation in civil matters) into the Community system (the first pillar). It also incorporated the Social Protocol into the EC Treaty. Under the second pillar (CFSP), the arrangements on defence aspects were strengthened. Finally it completely renumbered the articles of the EU and EC Treaties.

14.14   *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, extending still further the areas covered by the Community system and making certain changes in institutional and decision-making arrangements (qualified majority voting, codecision). It changed the name of the Official Journal of the European Communities to 'Official Journal of the European Union'.

14.15   *Accession treaties*. The original Treaties have been supplemented by six 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 (adding Bulgaria and Romania).

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

Note that the accession of Romania and Bulgaria is considered to have completed the fifth enlargement, rather than constituting a sixth enlargement — see From 6 to 27 members and beyond on Europa.

14.16 *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.

14.17 *Treaty of Lisbon — Treaty of Lisbon amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community.* Following the abandonment of the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe, an Intergovernmental Conference was convened in 2007 to draw up a 'Reform Treaty'. Signed in Lisbon on 13 December 2007 (hence the 'Treaty of Lisbon'), this new Treaty amends the EU's two core treaties: the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community. The latter is renamed the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. The principal changes include the following:

♦ the European Union acquires legal personality and absorbs the European Community;

♦ qualified majority voting is extended to new areas;

♦ the European Council is made a European institution in its own right and acquires a President elected for 2½ years;

♦ there is a new High Representative for the Union in Foreign Affairs and Security Policy, who will also be a Vice-President of the Commission;

♦ the role of the European Parliament and national parliaments is strengthened;

♦ under a new 'citizens' initiative' citizens can petition the Commission to put forward proposals.

These changes also have major consequences for terminology, in particular all references to 'Community' become 'Union' or 'EU' and a number of institutions are renamed.

TREATY CITATIONS

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

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

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

> … five years after the entry into force of the Treaty of Amsterdam … (Article 63 EU).

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

> Under the terms of Article 99(3) EEC the Commission can …

> The wording of Article 17 Euratom reflects …

> The arrangements for a rapid decision under Article 18 EU allow …

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

14.19 *Citing subdivisions of articles*. Paragraphs and subparagraphs that are officially designated by numbers or letters should be cited in the following form:

> Article 87(3)(d) of the Treaty establishing the European Community …

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 subparagraph of Article 90 of the EC Treaty …

> Article 174(2) EC, second subparagraph …

Note that a reference such as *Article 198a of the EC Treaty* is not to a subdivision but to an article subsequently inserted after Article 198. Here, the letter is always in lower case and closed up to the number.

14.20 *Amended or new articles.* Many writers refer to a new/amended article as 'Article xx of the Treaty of Nice' (or Amsterdam or Maastricht). This is wrong. It should be:

> Article 133 of the EC Treaty as amended by the Treaty of Nice.
> [*Not* 'Article 133 of the Treaty of Nice' — The Treaty of Nice has only 13 articles]

Also remember that the articles of the EU and EC Treaties were renumbered by the Treaty of Amsterdam. Take care that references are to the correct renumbered article (errors still occasionally occur).

15.   SECONDARY LEGISLATION

15.1   The various legal acts adopted under the Treaties form the European Union's 'secondary legislation'. As specified in Article 249 of the Treaty establishing the European Community (the first pillar 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.

To consult individual legal acts, see the EU's law website EUR-LEX.

15.2   For matters coming under the second and third pillars, the Treaty on European Union also introduced:

Framework Decisions

Joint actions

Common positions

See 15.13 for further details.

DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURES

15.3   *Consultation procedure.* Under this procedure the Council must consult the European Parliament and take its views into account before adopting any binding legislation. However, it is not bound by Parliament's opinion. The Council may also consult Parliament before adopting non-binding acts such as recommendations and opinions, but it is not obliged to do so.

15.4   *Codecision procedure* (Article 251 EC). This procedure, introduced by the Treaty on European Union, gives Parliament the power to adopt instruments jointly with the Council. Its scope was considerably broadened by the Treaty of Amsterdam and it now encompasses very many areas of the Community's legislative activity.

15.5   *Assent procedure.* The assent procedure, whereby the Council must obtain Parliament's assent (absolute majority of its members) before certain important decisions can be taken, was introduced by the Single European Act. Parliament may accept or reject a proposal but cannot amend it. The procedure mainly applies to applications for membership of the Union, association and other

international agreements, and the appointment of the Commission President, although its scope has been extended to other areas by the Amsterdam and Nice Treaties.

TITLES AND NUMBERING

15.6   *Draft legislation.* In relation to Community 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 Council Regulation), 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.

15.7   *Numbering of acts.* Legal acts are numbered by year and serial number. The serial numbering restarts at the beginning of every year and is separate for each type of act. 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.

The number of an act normally constitutes part of its title, but the form this takes differs depending on the type of act. For acts where the serial number comes before the year, the contraction *No* precedes the number. See the following sections for more details.

15.8   *Regulations.* The number of a regulation is an integral part of its title and follows the pattern *[Institution] Regulation (EC) No ##/year*. The citation form is therefore as follows:

> Council Regulation (EC) No 139/2004 on the control of concentrations between undertakings

Until 1967, EEC and Euratom regulations were numbered separately, in cumulative series from 1958 to 1962, and then annually. Since 1 January 1968 they have formed a single series, numbered annually:

> (before 1963) EEC Council Regulation No 17

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

(since 1968) Commission Regulation (EEC) No 1234/84

15.9 *Directives.* Directives are issued mainly by the Council and less frequently by the Commission. Since 1 January 1992 the number of a directive has formed an integral part of its title, in the pattern *[Institution] Directive year/number/Community.* The citation form is therefore as follows:

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

15.10 *Decisions* (See also 15.11 below). Decisions comprise acts adopted under Article 249 EC (formerly 189 EEC) or Article 161 Euratom and *sui generis* decisions (i.e. decisions not addressed to anyone, generally used to regulate the internal workings of the EU). Except for joint decisions (see 15.11 below), they bear no formal number forming part of the title, but are assigned a 'publication number' by the Publications Office. The full citation form is 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 is not formally part of the title, the publication number is regularly used in citing such acts: *Council Decision 2004/91/EC.* Unpublished decisions are identified by date only.

In most languages the same word is used to designate both Article 249/161 decisions and *sui generis* decisions, but there are different words for the two types of decision in Danish (*beslutning* and *afgørelse*), Dutch (*beschikking* and *besluit),* German (*Entscheidung* and *Beschluss*) and Slovenian (*odločba* and *sklep*).

15.11 *Joint acts* (Council and Parliament) (See also 15.4). 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

With the extension of the codecision procedure since it was first introduced by the EU Treaty, the Council and Parliament now regularly adopt joint decisions in a wide range of areas. These are numbered along the same lines as regulations, e.g.:

> 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

15.12 *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…).*

15.13   *Framework decisions, joint actions, common positions.* These are 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). 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

15.14   *Multiple references.* When referring to several acts together, follow the pattern below:

> Regulations (EC) Nos 1234/96 and 1235/96

> Directives 96/100/EC and 96/350/EC

15.15   *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

15.16   *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

15.17   *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 COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES,

15.18   *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:

> Having regard to the Treaty establishing the European Community, and in particular Article 100a thereof,

> Having regard to Council Regulation (EC) No …, and in particular Article ## thereof,

> Having regard to the proposal from the Commission,

> Having regard to the opinion of the (European Parliament, Economic and Social Committee, etc.),
>
> Having regard to the assent of the European Parliament,
>
> In cooperation with the European Parliament,

15.19 *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.

15.20 *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 …

15.21 *Enacting formula.* Preambles close with a line in capitals continuing the enacting formula, ending with a colon. The main variants are:

> HAS/HAVE ADOPTED THIS REGULATION or DIRECTIVE:
>
> HAS/HAVE DECIDED AS FOLLOWS: — corresponds to FR *décide,* DE *beschliesst*
>
> HAS/HAVE ADOPTED THIS DECISION: — FR *a arreté la présente décision* DE *hat folgende Entscheidung erlassen*

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

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 Verbs in legislation in section 6.

15.23 *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.

REFERRING TO SUBDIVISIONS OF ACTS

15.24 *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.

15.25 *Numbered subdivisions.* In citing provisions of EU legislation, place numbered subdivisions of articles in brackets after the article number (note: no spaces):

> Article 1(3)(d) of Regulation (EEC) No 1696/71

Note that a reference such as *Article 20a of Commission Regulation (EC) No 174/1999* is not to a subdivision of an article but to a new article subsequently inserted after Article 20. Here, the letter is always in lower case and closed up to the number.

15.26 *Unnumbered subdivisions.* Unnumbered items precede the article number and are written out in words:

> The third indent of the second subparagraph of Article 2(2) of Commission Regulation (EEC) No 1153/75 provides that the colour of V. A. 3 forms is to be red.

15.27 *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.*

15.28 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.

16. THE EU INSTITUTIONS

COMMISSION

16.1 *Title.* The Commission of the European Communities (full title — see 13.2) is governed by Articles 211 to 219 of the Treaty establishing the European Community, as amended by the Protocol on the enlargement of the European Union. It is normally referred to as the European Commission (the form used in letterheads) or the Commission. While the abbreviation EC is becoming increasingly common, use it only where the context is absolutely clear in order to avoid potential confusion with *European Community*.

16.2 *Titles of Members.* The word *Commissioner* should not be used in legal texts but is acceptable in other less formal, journalistic-type texts, such as press releases and especially headlines (where the more formal designations sound stilted). *Mr Z, Commission Member,* can also be used in less formal texts. The established forms are:

> Mr X, President of the Commission, …
>
> Ms Y, Vice-President, …
>
> Mr Z, Member of the Commission responsible for …
>
> Ms Z (Member of the Commission)

Usually *Mr Z* on its own is sufficient in English.

16.3 *Cabinets.* Each Commissioner has a private office called a 'cabinet', headed by a 'Head of Cabinet' (so-called since 1 January 2006, when the Commission's amended Rules of Procedure entered into force; previously referred to in English by the French title *Chef de cabinet*). Formal references should follow the model 'Ms Smith, Head of Cabinet to X, Member of the Commission'.

16.4 *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.

16.5 *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.

16.6 *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 EMPL DG. 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 the Statistical Office and the Office for Official Publications) 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 and Social Affairs.

16.7   *Services of the Commission*. The Commission has at present (2006) 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.

16.8   *Other commissions.* Guard against confusion with the *UN Economic Commission for Europe* (EN: *ECE*, FR: *CEE*) based in Geneva and the *European Commission of Human Rights* based in Strasbourg.

COUNCIL

16.9   The work and composition of the Council are defined in Articles 202 to 210 of the EC Treaty, as amended by the Protocol on the enlargement of the European Union. The work of the Permanent Representatives is defined in Article 207(1) See the [Council's website](#) for a full description of its activities.

16.10   *Title*. Generally write *the Council*; use *Council of the European Union* only in formal contexts or to distinguish from other councils (see below) where required.

16.11   *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.

16.12   Referring to Council meetings (FR: *sessions*):

> the Council meeting of 22 May (one day)
>
> the Council meeting of 22 and 23 May (two days)
>
> the Council meeting of 22/23 May (overnight)
>
> the Council meeting of 22 to 24 May (three days)

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

16.13   Meetings are also identified by the policy area covered and are normally attended by the national ministers holding the corresponding portfolio, though other matters may also be discussed. A Council meeting devoted to agriculture (FR: *le Conseil agricole*), for example, may be referred to as:

> the Council meeting on agriculture

> the Council meeting (agriculture)
>
> the Council meeting of Agriculture Ministers

Note that the word 'meeting' is sometimes dropped when referring to formal acts adopted by the Council:

> The Council on transport adopted a Decision on trans-European networks

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.

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

16.15   Do not confuse the Council with the following institutions:

> *the European Council*, the summit of Heads of State or Government normally held three or four times a year
>
> *the ACP-EC Council of Ministers* under the Cotonou Convention;
>
> *the Council of Europe*, a non-EU body based in Strasbourg.

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

16.16   The work and composition of the European Parliament are defined in Articles 189 to 201 of the EC Treaty, as amended by the Protocol on the enlargement of the European Union. See Parliament's website for a full description of its activities.

16.17   *Title.* Refer to the European Parliament simply as *Parliament* (no definite article) unless confusion with national parliaments is possible. The abbreviation EP is used by Parliament itself but write out 'Parliament' if there is space.

The first direct elections were in 1979 and resulted in the 'first European Parliament'. Subsequently elections have been held every five years. The current parliamentary term 2004-09 is the sixth.

See Parliament's rules of procedure for more detailed information on voting and other procedures.

16.18   *Sessions.* Parliamentary sessions (FR: *sessions*) run from one year to the next, e.g. the 2004/05 session. These are divided into *part-sessions*, e.g. part-session from 12 to 15 January 2004 (FR: *séances du 12 au 15 janvier*).

16.19   *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.

16.20   *The Secretariat.* This is headed by the *Secretary-General.* If necessary, to avoid confusion with other secretariats it may be called the *General Secretariat.*

16.21   *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.

16.22   *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.

16.23   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.*

16.24   *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.

16.25   *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

16.26   The EU has three law courts: the European Court of Justice (ECJ), the highest court; the Court of First Instance (CFI); and the Civil Service Tribunal (CST). 'European Court of Justice' is also used as a collective term for all three.

16.27   *Constitution of the Court.* The Court's Statute defines the relationship between the ECJ and the two lower-tier courts that assist it: the CFI and the CST.

16.28   *Court of Justice.* Originally established in 1952, the ECJ is the highest authority on matters of EU law. A primary task is to ensure that the law is uniformly applied in all the Member States through preliminary rulings.

16.29   *Court of First Instance.* The CFI was established in 1988 to relieve the ECJ of some of its workload. Much of its work relates to competition law, trade mark law and State aid. Its judgments are subject to appeal to the Court of Justice, but only on points of law.

16.30   *Civil Service Tribunal.* The CST was established in 2004 to deal with disputes between EU bodies and their staff, which had previously been under the ECJ's and then the CFI's jurisdiction. Appeals against the Tribunal are heard by the Court of First Instance.

16.31   *Citation of cases.* EN usage in the European Court Reports (ECR) is quite different from FR usage.

Cases from before the establishment of the CFI are cited as follows:

> Case 13/72 *Netherlands* v *Commission* [1973] ECR 27
> (where 13/72 means case 13 of 1972, [1973] is the year of publication in the European court reports (ECR) and 27 is the page number. The parties' names are in italics, but not the 'v'.)

Since the CFI was established, ECJ and CFI cases have been published in separate ECR volumes, which is reflected in the citation:

> Case C-287/87 *Commission* v *Greece* [1990] ECR I-125   (Note the case number is prefixed 'C' for Court of Justice. The page number (125) is preceded by I because ECJ cases are published in section I of the court reports.)

> *Case T-27/89 Sklias v Commission [1990] ECR II-269* (The case number is prefixed 'T' for *Tribunal de première instance.* The page number (269) is preceded by II because CFI cases are published in section II of the court reports.)

From 1989 up to the creation of the CST, staff cases were recorded in a separate series of the ECR (ECR-SC) (and in Section II containing CFI cases). Staff cases from this period are quoted as follows:

> Case T-13/95 *Kyrpitsis* v *ESC* [1996] ECR-SC I-A-167 and II-503

In cases heard by the CST, the case number is prefixed 'F' for *fonction publique* but otherwise cases should be quoted as before. A fictional example would be:

> Case F-1/07 *X* v *Council* [2008] ECR-SC I-0000.

In most circumstances, there is no need in English to cite the date of a judgment or an order (unless the case has not yet been published or it is one in a series of orders in a single case.)

16.32   *Page numbering.* The page number in the ECR on which a judgment begins has been the same in the French and English versions since 1969 only. Use the EUR-Lex database to check that you have the right page number for references to the English version before that date.

16.33   Make clear the distinctions between the ECJ in Luxembourg, the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg and the International Court of Justice in The Hague. Avoid formulations such as *the Court* if confusion of the ECJ with the CFI or the Court of Auditors is possible.

COURT OF AUDITORS

16.34   The work of the Court of Auditors is defined in Articles 246 to 248 of the EC Treaty. There is no abbreviated form for its title.

For more information, see the Court of Auditors' website.

16.35   *Annual Reports*. The Annual Reports are published in the Official Journal. Special reports are also issued, but these are not always published and can be difficult to obtain, particularly if they deal with sensitive issues. The Commission replies formally to annual reports.

EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE

16.36   The Economic and Social Committee is governed by Articles 257 to 262 of the EC Treaty. 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

See the Committee's website for a full account of its activities.

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

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

As well as giving opinions on draft Community 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

16.38   The Committee of the Regions is governed by Articles 263 to 265 of the EC Treaty.

16.39   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.

FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

16.40   *European Central Bank*. 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. On 1 January 1999, it took over responsibility for implementing European monetary policy within the *European System of Central Banks* (ESCB). The ECB's

decision-making bodies are its *Governing Council*, *Executive Board* and *General Council*.

16.41   *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*.

16.42   *European Investment Fund.* The [European Investment Fund](#) (EIF) is an institution whose main objective is to support the creation, growth and development of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). It provides risk capital and guarantee instruments, using either its own funds or those available under mandates from the EIB or the European Union.

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

AGENCIES

16.43   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.

There are currently twenty-three [European Community agencies](#), set up under the first pillar; two second-pillar [agencies that deal with aspects of the common foreign and security policy](#); three third-pillar [agencies concerned with police and judicial cooperation in criminal matters](#); and three [Executive Agencies](#), entrusted with certain tasks relating to the management of one or more Community programmes

17. REFERENCES TO OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

THE OFFICIAL JOURNAL

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

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

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

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

> OJ L 281, 1.11.1975, p.1.

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

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

BULLETIN AND GENERAL REPORT

17.5   *Bulletin.* References to the Bulletin take the form:

> Bull. 9-1980, point 1.3.4
>
> Supplement 5/79 − Bull.

17.6   *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'.

17.7   *Part-numbering conventions.* Note that *Première* (*Deuxième, Troisième*) *partie*
         are rendered *Part One* (*Two, Three*), not *Part I* or *Part 1*.

18.   EU FINANCES

18.1   *Own resources*. The European Union and its institutions are essentially funded from own resources, i.e. revenue that the Union receives as of right. These fall into three categories: traditional own resources (customs duties, agricultural duties and sugar levies), a VAT-based resource (a proportion of each Member State's harmonised VAT base), and a resource based on Member States' gross national income. The GNI-based resource is variable, being designed to 'top-up' the revenue obtained from the other sources in order to meet expenditure for a given year. A special mechanism for correcting the budgetary imbalance of the United Kingdom (the UK rebate) is also part of the own resources system.

18.2   *Financial perspective.* The financial perspective (*perspectives financières*) is a mechanism whereby Parliament, the Council and the Commission agree in advance on the main budgetary priorities for the following period, defining the revenue and expenditure ceilings within which each annual budget is drawn up. A financial perspective is drawn up to cover a seven-year period (e.g. 2000 to 2006, 2007 to 2013).

BUDGET

18.3   *Title and parts*. The General Budget of the European Union, which does not include the European Development Fund (see 18.11), is often simply called *the budget* (note lower case). The word 'budget' is usually preferable to 'budgetary' in adjectival usage (*budget heading*, *budget year*, *budget expenditure*), but note 'budgetary authority' (the Council and Parliament acting in tandem) and Parliament's 'Committee on Budgetary Control'.

The principles underlying the budget and the rules governing it are contained in the Financial Regulation (Council Regulation (EC, Euratom) No 1605/2002) and subsequent implementing regulations. Title III of that Regulation sets out the procedure for drawing up and approving the budget.

The preliminary draft budget prepared by the Commission becomes the draft budget after a first reading by the Council. The draft goes to Parliament for a first reading; Parliament makes amendments (*amendements*) to non-compulsory expenditure and proposes modifications (*modifications*) to compulsory expenditure. Each institution in turn gives the draft a second reading. For details of this procedure, see Article 272(3) to (8) EC.

Each EU institution has its own section of the budget, divided into revenue and expenditure and then into titles, chapters, articles and items. The Commission budget is by far the largest and is published in a separate volume. The expenditure section is divided by policy area, with administrative expenditure allocated to the individual titles.

18.4   *Expenditure and appropriations*. All expenditure is either compulsory (*dépenses obligatoires*), i.e. derived from the Treaties, or non-compulsory (*dépenses non-obligatoires*). Compulsory spending is mainly on agriculture.

Most funds allocated to EU policies are operating appropriations (*crédits opérationnels*), usually differentiated (*crédits dissociés*) where operations span several years. Headings then contain two amounts: payment appropriations (*crédits de paiement*) and commitment appropriations (*crédits d'engagement*), with a schedule of projected payments by year. The terms appropriations for commitments (*crédits pour engagements*) and appropriations for payments (*crédits pour paiements*) are used to designate differentiated plus non-differentiated appropriations.

Note that the EU is in the process of switching to activity-based budgeting (*budget sur base d'activités*) and accrual accounting (*comptabilité d'exercice*).

18.5   *Unused appropriations*. As a rule all unused appropriations lapse (*sont annulés*) at the end of the year. Carryovers (*reports*) require a special decision. When commitments are cancelled (*dégagés*) because projects are abandoned, the appropriations lapse but may be made available again (*reconstitués*) by special decision of the budgetary authority. For details see Article 7 of the Financial Regulation.

FUNDS FINANCED FROM THE BUDGET

18.6   In 2003, agriculture absorbed about 45 % of the budget via the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF), while structural operations accounted for about 34 % via the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund. These funds are described briefly below.

18.7   *European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund*. The EAGGF is divided into two sections, the Guidance Section, designed to improve the rural environment, and the Guarantee Section, which supports farmers' incomes in a variety of ways. Note that the EU's agricultural financial year ends on 15 October.

18.8   *Structural Funds*. Structural assistance is provided through the *Structural Funds* (note capitals), which comprise the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), the European Social Fund (ESF), the EAGGF (the Guidance Section and, in the case of Objective 2, the Guarantee Section) and the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance. Legislation on the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund may be found in OJ L 161 of 26 June 1999.

The Structural Funds finance three Objectives: Objective 1, concerned with the development and structural adjustment of regions whose development is lagging behind; Objective 2, supporting economic and social conversion in urban and rural areas and areas dependent on fisheries; and Objective 3, which promotes education and employment in areas of the EU not covered by either of the other two Objectives. Assistance is implemented through Community

support frameworks (CSFs) (*cadres communautaires d'appui* — CCA) or single programming documents (SPDs) (*documents uniques de programmation* — DOCUP), which contain the programmes agreed jointly by the Member States and the Commission. There is transitional support for areas no longer eligible for assistance.

Also part of the Structural Funds are the four 'Community Initiatives': *Interreg*, which promotes cross-border, transnational and interregional cooperation; *Urban*, concerned with urban areas in crisis; *Leader+* for rural development; and *Equal*, which combats discrimination.

18.9   *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

18.10   *European Investment Fund*. The European Investment Fund (EIF) secures financing for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). See 16.42 for more details.

18.11   *European Development Fund.* The European Development Fund (EDF) finances most of the EU's cooperation with developing countries. The Fund is fed by the Member States; it does not come under the general EU budget, though a heading has been reserved for it in the budget since 1993. The EDF is not a permanent fund; a new one is concluded every five years or so. The ninth EDF covers the period from 2000 to 2005.

19. MEMBER STATES

19.1   In English alphabetical order the Member States are:

> Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

List them in this order in all texts other than legislation.

19.2   For tables appearing in several language versions, however, keep the same order of Member States in each language version, even if that means that they are not in English alphabetic order in the English version.

19.3   In legislation, list Member States in protocol order, i.e. absolute alphabetical order based on the name of the Member State in the country's language.

Member State		Abbreviation
National name(s)	*English name*	
België/Belgique	Belgium	BE
България (Bulgaria)	Bulgaria	BG
Česka Republika	Czech Republic	CZ
Danmark	Denmark	DK
Deutschland	Germany	DE
Eesti	Estonia	EE
Éire/Ireland	Ireland	IE
Ελλάδα (Ellada)	Greece	EL
España	Spain	ES
France	France	FR
Italia	Italy	IT
Κύπρος (Kypros)	Cyprus	CY
Latvija	Latvia	LV
Lietuva	Lithuania	LT
Luxembourg	Luxembourg	LU
Magyarország	Hungary	HU
Malta	Malta	MT
Nederland	Netherlands	NL
Österreich	Austria	AT
Polska	Poland	PL
Portugal	Portugal	PT

Member State		Abbreviation
România	Romania	RO
Slovenija	Slovenia	SI
Slovensko	Slovakia	SK
Suomi/Finland	Finland	FI
Sverige	Sweden	SE
United Kingdom	United Kingdom	UK

For postal-code conventions, see section 7.1.3 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

19.4 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.

NOTES ON INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES

19.5 *Austria.* Full name: *Republic of Austria.* Call the Austrian *Bundesländer* 'provinces' in English.

19.6 *Belgium.* Full name: *Kingdom of Belgium.* See also Annex 2.

19.7 *Bulgaria*. Full name: *Republic of Bulgaria*.

19.8 *Czech Republic.* This, the long form, is used in all contexts. There is currently no agreement on the use of a short form.

19.9 *Cyprus.* Full name: *Republic of Cyprus.* The long form may be used when contrasted with northern Cyprus, the 'Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus'. However, since the EU and its Member States do not recognise the latter and the Republic of Cyprus joined the EU on behalf of the whole island, 'Cyprus' is adequate for most purposes.

19.10 *Denmark.* Full name: *Kingdom of Denmark.* Neither Greenland (adj. Greenland) nor the Faeroes (NB not Faeroe Islands, adj. Faeroese) are part of the European Union.

19.11 *Estonia*. Full name: *Republic of Estonia*.

19.12 *Finland*. Full name: *Republic of Finland*. Call the country's main administrative/regional units (*lääni*) 'provinces' in English.

19.13 *France.* Full name: *French Republic*. The *départements d'outre-mer* (DOM) are the *(French) overseas departments* in English. Do not abbreviate. The *pays et térritoires d'outre-mer* (PTOM) are the *overseas countries and territories* (OCTs in English).

19.14   *Germany*. Full name: *Federal Republic of Germany*. The full name is no longer obligatory in all contexts, as was the case before unification.

19.15   *Greece*. Full name: *Hellenic Republic*.

19.16   *Hungary*. Full name: *Republic of Hungary*.

19.17   *Ireland*. Full name: *Ireland*. Ireland is the full name laid down in the Irish Constitution; *Éire* (the name in Irish) and *Republic of Ireland/Irish Republic* are incorrect in English.

19.18   *Italy*. Full name: *Italian Republic*.

19.19   *Latvia*. Full name: *Republic of Latvia*.

19.20   *Lithuania*. Full name: *Republic of Lithuania*.

19.21   *Luxembourg*. Full name: *Grand Duchy of Luxembourg*. Note the spelling, and use it for the capital city as well. Note *Luxembourg Government, Luxembourg cuisine, the Luxembourg climate*, but when referring to the language use the -*ish* form: *Luxembourgish expressions, Luxembourgish poetry*. Where French texts refer simply to *le Grand-Duché*, render in English as *Luxembourg*.

19.22   *Malta*. Full name: *Republic of Malta*.

19.23   *Netherlands*. Full name: *Kingdom of the Netherlands*. Holland is only part of the Netherlands (the provinces North and South Holland). The correct adjective is *Dutch*: the Dutch Government, the Dutch delegation, Dutch industry, etc., notwithstanding certain proper names such as the Netherlands Antilles.

19.24   *Poland*. Full name: *Republic of Poland*.

19.25   *Portugal*. Full name: *Portuguese Republic*.

19.26   *Romania*. Full name: *Romania*. The administrative units into which Romania is divided are called '*judeţe*' (counties).

19.27   *Slovakia*. Full name: *Slovak Republic*.

19.28   *Slovenia*. Full name: *Republic of Slovenia*.

19.29   *Spain*. Full name*: Kingdom of Spain*. The 17 political/administrative units into which Spain is divided are called *Autonomous Communities* in English. Translate *Presidente del Gobierno* as *Prime Minister (of Spain)*.

19.30   *Sweden*. Full name: *Kingdom of Sweden*. Call the country's main administrative/regional units (*län*) 'counties' in English.

19.31   *United Kingdom*. Full name: *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*. Avoid the colloquial *Britain* and *British* in legal or formal texts. Great

Britain comprises England, the Principality of Wales and Scotland; these three together with Northern Ireland form the United Kingdom. Never use *Ulster* for the province of Northern Ireland: Ulster includes the Counties of Cavan, Donegal and Monaghan *plus* Northern Ireland.

The geographical term *British Isles* includes Ireland and the Crown Dependencies (Isle of Man and Channel Islands).

Use GB only for the international vehicle identification. Note that the abbreviation 'RU' is sometimes used in French texts for 'UK', but it might also mean Russia.

19.32   For other countries, see Annex A5 to the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

PERMANENT REPRESENTATIONS/REPRESENTATIVES

19.33   *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 10.3.

19.34   *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

19.35   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.

19.36   *Ireland*. Note that the qualifier '*Éireann'* is not needed when referring to *the Dáil* or *the Seanad*.

19.37   *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).

19.38   *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, Annex 2 for Belgium.

NATIONAL JUDICIAL BODIES

19.39   Use the suggested translations in Annex 6. If necessary, insert the original-language form in brackets following the first mention.

NATIONAL LEGISLATION

19.40   For countries that produce their legislation in English and others that systematically provide translations into English, you should use the terms they use. See also Annex 7.

20. OFFICIAL LANGUAGES AND CURRENCIES

OFFICIAL LANGUAGES

20.1   In English alphabetical order the official EU languages are:

> Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovenian, Spanish, Swedish.

List them in this order in all texts other than legislation. For special cases, see section 7.2.2 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

20.2   *Irish.* Irish became an official language on 1 January 2007, but there is a derogation (reviewable on a five-yearly basis) limiting what must be translated into Irish — see http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/spotlight/irish_en.htm for details. Irish should not be referred to as 'Gaelic'; the terms are not synonymous because Gaelic can also mean Scots Gaelic.

20.3   *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.

20.4   *Protocol order and abbreviations.* In legislative texts and in other contexts where protocol is to be observed, use the absolute alphabetical order of the official names of the languages, as shown below. This is also the order in which the language versions appear on, for example, the nameplates outside EU offices. For abbreviations, follow ISO 639. Although the ISO standard itself uses lower case, it is preferable to use upper case in EU documents. For the names and ISO codes of other languages, see the ISO list arranged alphabetically by the English name of language.

Name in own language	English name	Abbreviation ISO 639-1 code
български	Bulgarian	BG
castellano[1]	Spanish	ES
čeština	Czech	CS
dansk	Danish	DA
Deutsch	German	DE
eesti keel	Estonian	ET
ellinikà	Greek	EL
English	English	EN
français	French	FR
Gaeilge	Irish	GA
italiano	Italian	IT
latviešu valoda	Latvian	LV
lietuvių kalba	Lithuanian	LT
magyar	Hungarian	HU
Malti	Maltese	MT
Nederlands	Dutch	NL
polski	Polish	PL
português	Portuguese	PT
limba română	Romanian	RO
slovenčina (slovenský jazyk)	Slovak	SK
slovenščina (slovenski jezik)	Slovenian	SL
suomi	Finnish	FI
svenska	Swedish	SV

CURRENCIES

20.5 *Currency abbreviations*. The main currency codes are set out in Annex A7 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide. An exhaustive list of codes can be found in ISO 4217.

20.6 The currency abbreviation precedes the amount and is followed by a hard space:

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[1] Official name of the language, but generally known as 'español' at the request of the Spanish authorities.

EUR 2 400; USD 2 billion

The symbol also precedes the amount, and is followed by a hard space[1] if the following number contains a space as well (see also 3.9):

€ 120 000; £ 78 000; $ 100 000 m

However, you may close it up in other cases:

€120; £78bn; $100m

20.7   *Units and subunits*. Use a point to separate units from subunits:

€7.20; $50.75; EUR 2.4 billion; USD 1.8 billion

20.8   *The euro*. Like 'pound', 'dollar' or any other currency name in English, the word 'euro' is written in lower case with no initial capital. Where appropriate, it takes the plural 's' (as does 'cent'):

This book costs ten euros and fifty cents

However, in documents and tables where monetary amounts figure largely, make maximum use of the € symbol (closed up to the figure) or the abbreviation EUR before the amount.

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[1]   Or if possible, a thin space (key code: Alt + 8021). At present, however, this does not display correctly on Commission PCs. To make a hard space (Ctrl + Shift + Space in Word) look more like a thin space, you can, as here, halve the space width (in Word: Format, Font, Character Spacing, Scale = 50%).

21. EXTERNAL RELATIONS

21.1   The terms *'external relations'* or *'external policy'* refer to the Commission's and the Community'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), which forms the second 'pillar' of the Union (see 13.1).

21.2   *Information on individual countries*. For names, currencies, capital cities, etc., see the list in Annex A5 of the Interinstitutional Style Guide.

21.3   *The European Economic Area (EEA)*, established by the 1991 Agreement on the European Economic Area, extended the Community's 'free movement' principles 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.

21.4   *Enlargement process*. Going by the usage of the Commission's enlargement website (in April 2006), 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 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.

21.5   *South-East Europe* (*Western Balkans)*. In the context of EU external relations the two terms are used interchangeably to refer collectively to Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia and Montenegro.

21.6   *Third countries*. The term *third country* is used in the Treaties, where it means a country that is not a member of the 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.

21.7   *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 6.2).

21.8   *Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)*. This is an official entity. It covers the territory of the former Soviet Union less the Baltic States. It comprises the Slavic, Transcaucasian and Central Asian republics (respectively Belarus, Russia and Ukraine; Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia; Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan) plus Moldova.

21.9   *The Russian Federation.* Note that Russia is itself a federal state. Administratively, the Russian Federation is divided into 21 republics, 6 federal territories (*kray*), 2 federal cities, 49 regions (*oblast*), 1 autonomous region and 10 autonomous areas (*okrug*).

21.10   *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').

21.11   *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.

21.12   *International organisations*. The best source is *The Yearbook of International Organisations*.

21.13   *United Nations*. Use the abbreviation UN, not UNO. See also *Everyman's UN*.

21.14   *GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade)*. The term *the GATT* refers to the Agreement, which is still in force, while *GATT* without the article refers to the now defunct organisation, superseded by the World Trade Organisation (WTO). While GATT had *Contracting Parties,* the WTO has *Members*. The WTO administers not only the GATT but also the GATS — the General Agreement on Trade in Services — as well as a host of other Understandings, Agreements and Arrangements on specific topics. The WTO is not to be confused with the WCO, or World Customs Organisation, formerly known as the Customs Cooperation Council.

21.15   *OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development)*. The 'Conseil des ministres' is called simply 'the OECD Council'.

ANNEXES

Annex 1
REGIONS OF THE EU

The NUTS nomenclature (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics) is a five-level hierarchical classification (three regional levels and two local levels) drawn up by Eurostat to provide a single uniform breakdown of territorial units for the production of EU regional statistics, for socio-economic analyses of the regions and for the framing of EU regional policies. It has been used in EU legislation since 1988, and was formalised in Regulation (EC) No 1059/2003 (covering the EU-15), and extended by Regulation (EC) No 105/2007 to cover the EU-25 and by Regulation (EC) No 176/2008 to cover the EU-27.

NUTS subdivides each Member State into a number of NUTS 1 regions, each of which is in turn subdivided into a number of NUTS 2 regions and so on.

NUTS is defined only for the Member States of the European Union. There is a coding which resembles NUTS for the other countries of the European Economic Area (EEA) and for Switzerland.

For the correspondence between NUTS levels and national administrative units, see http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/ramon/nuts/introannex_regions_en.html.

The following table includes NUTS 1 (bold) and NUTS 2 (italic) regions, with translations of their names into English where these exist. For the most part, NUTS 3 regions are not anglicised so are not included here. However, some of the new Member States have only NUTS 3 or NUTS 2 and 3 subdivisons, in which case the NUTS 3 regions have been included to provide a fuller picture.

Note that NUTS itself, as an autonomous nomenclature, does not admit of translation. When NUTS regions are explicitly referred to as such (particularly in statistical contexts), you should therefore use the original-language names in the lefthand column of the table. In other contexts, however, the English translations in the righthand column should be used for the sake of comprehensibility.

Luxembourg and Cyprus are single regions with no NUTS 3 subdivisons and so are not listed in the table.

BELGIË-BELGIQUE[1]	**BELGIUM**	
Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest/ Région de Bruxelles capitale	**Brussels Region**	
Vlaams Gewest	**Flemish Region**	
Antwerpen	*Antwerp*	
Limburg	*Limburg*	
Oost-Vlaanderen	*East Flanders*	
Vlaams-Brabant	*Flemish Brabant*	
West-Vlaanderen	*West Flanders*	
Région Wallonne	**Walloon Region**	
Brabant Wallon	*Walloon Brabant*	
Hainaut	*Hainaut*	
Liège	*Liège*	
Luxembourg	*Luxembourg*	
Namur	*Namur*	

БЪЛГАРИЯ	**BULGARIA**	**BULGARIA**
Северна и югоизточна България	**Severna i yugoiztochna Bulgaria**	**North and South-East Bulgaria**
Северозападен	*Severozapaden*	*North-West*
Видин	Vidin	Vidin
Враца	Vratsa	Vratsa
Монтана	Montana	Montana
Северен централен	*Severen tsentralen*	*North-Central*
Велико Търново	Veliko Tarnovo	Veliko Tarnovo
Габрово	Gabrovo	Gabrovo
Ловеч	Lovech	Lovech
Плевен	Pleven	Pleven
Русе	Ruse	Ruse
Североизточен	*Severoiztochen*	*North-East*
Варна	Varna	Varna
Добрич	Dobrich	Dobrich
Разград	Razgrad	Razgrad
Силистра	Silistra	Silistra
Търговище	Targovishte	Targovishte
Шумен	Shumen	Shumen
Югоизточен	*Yugoiztochen*	*South-East*
Бургас	Burgas	Burgas
Сливен	Sliven	Sliven
Ямбол	Yambol	Yambol
Югозападна и южна България	**Yugozapadna i yuzhna tsentralna Bulgaria**	**South-West and South-Central Bulgaria**
Югозападен	*Yugozapaden*	*South-West*

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[1]   Regions of Belgium do not coincide with language communities.

Благоевград	Blagoevgrad	Blagoevgrad
Кюстендил	Kyustendil	Kyustendil
Перник	Pernik	Pernik
София	Sofia	Sofia
София (град)	Sofia (grad)	Sofia (city)
Южен централен	*Yuzhen tsentralen*	*South-Central*
Кърджали	Kardzhali	Kardzhali
Пазарджик	Pazardzhik	Pazardzhik
Пловдив	Plovdiv	Plovdiv
Смолян	Smolyan	Smolyan
Стара Загора	Stara Zagora	Stara Zagora
Хасково	Haskovo	Haskovo

ČESKÁ REPUBLIKA *(NUTS 2-3)*   **CZECH REPUBLIC**

Praha	*Prague*
Hlavní město Praha	Prague Capital City
Střední Čechy	*Central Bohemia*
Středočeský kraj	Central Bohemia Region
Jihozápad	*South-West*
Jihočeský kraj	South Bohemian Region
Plzeňský kraj	Plzeň Region
Severozápad	*North-West*
Karlovarský kraj	Karlovy Vary Region
Ústecký kraj	Ústí nad Labem Region
Severovýchod	*North-East*
Liberecký kraj	Liberec Region
Královéhradecký kraj	Hradec Králové Region
Pardubický kraj	Pardubice Region
Jihovýchod	*South-East*
Jihomoravský kraj	Southern Moravia Region
Vysočina	Vysočina Region
Střední Morava	*Central Moravia*
Olomoucký kraj	Olomouc Region
Zlínský kraj	Zlín Region
Moravskoslezsko	*Moravian Silesia*
Moravskoslezský kraj	Moravian-Silesian Region

Note: For statistical and Structural Fund purposes the Czech Republic is divided into 8 *areas* (*oblasti* – NUTS 2), each consisting of either a single *region* (*kraj* – NUTS 3) or a group of regions *(seskupení krajů)*.
Administratively the country is divided into 14 regions (*kraje* = NUTS 3; higher territorial self-governing units – *vyšší územní samosprávné celky*). At the lowest level are *obce* (sing. *obec*) and *města* (sing. *město*) - municipalities and cities. (There used to be 73 *okresy* ('districts') but these were abolished in 2003.)

DANMARK *(NUTS 2 only)*   **DENMARK**

Hovedstaden	*Capital (region)*
Byen København	City of Copenhagen

Københavns omegn	Outer Copenhagen
Nordsjælland	North Zealand
Bornholm	Bornholm
Sjælland	*Zealand*
Ostjælland	East Zealand
Vest- og Sydsjælland	West and South Zealand
Syddanmark	*South Denmark*
Fyn	Fyn
Sydjylland	South Jutland
Midtjylland	*Central Jutland*
Vestjylland	West Jutland
Østjylland	East Jutland
Nordjylland	*North Jutland*

DEUTSCHLAND	**GERMANY**
Baden-Württemberg	**Baden-Württemberg**
Stuttgart	*Stuttgart*
Karlsruhe	*Karlsruhe*
Freiburg	*Freiburg*
Tübingen	*Tübingen*
Bayern	**Bavaria**
Oberbayern	*Upper Bavaria*
Niederbayern	*Lower Bavaria*
Oberpfalz	*Oberpfalz*
Oberfranken	*Oberfranken*
Mittelfranken	*Mittelfranken*
Unterfranken	*Unterfranken*
Schwaben	*Swabia*
Berlin	**Berlin**
Brandenburg	**Brandenburg**
Brandenburg-Nordost	*North-East Brandenburg*
Brandenburg-Südwest	*South-West Brandenburg*
Bremen	**Bremen**
Hamburg	**Hamburg**
Hessen	**Hessen**
Darmstadt	*Darmstadt*
Giessen	*Giessen*
Kassel	*Kassel*
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	**Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania**
Niedersachsen	**Lower Saxony**
Braunschweig	*Braunschweig*
Hannover	*Hannover*
Lüneburg	*Lüneburg*
Weser-Ems	*Weser-Ems*

Nordrhein-Westfalen	**North Rhine-Westphalia**
Düsseldorf	*Düsseldorf*
Köln	*Cologne*
Münster	*Münster*
Detmold	*Detmold*
Arnsberg	*Arnsberg*
Rheinland-Pfalz	**Rhineland-Palatinate**
Koblenz	*Koblenz*
Trier	*Trier*
Rheinhessen-Pfalz	*Rheinhessen-Pfalz*
Saarland	**Saarland**
Sachsen	**Saxony**
Chemnitz	*Chemnitz*
Dresden	*Dresden*
Leipzig	*Leipzig*
Sachsen-Anhalt	**Saxony-Anhalt**
Schleswig-Holstein	**Schleswig-Holstein**
Thüringen	**Thuringia**

EESTI *(NUTS 3 only)*	**ESTONIA**
Põhja-Eesti	Northern Estonia
Lääne-Eesti	Western Estonia
Kesk-Eesti	Central Estonia
Kirde-Eesti	Northeastern Estonia
Lõuna-Eesti	Southern Estonia

ΕΛΛΑΔΑ	**ELLADA**	**GREECE**
Βόρεια Ελλάδα	**Voria Ellada**	**North Greece**
Ανατολική Μακεδονία, Θράκη	*Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki*	*East Macedonia, Thrace*
Κεντρική Μακεδονία	*Kentriki Makedonia*	*Central Macedonia*
Δυτική Μακεδονία	*Ditiki Makedonia*	*West Macedonia*
Θεσσαλία	*Thessalia*	*Thessaly*
Κεντρική Ελλάδα	**Kendriki Ellada**	**Central Greece**
Ήπειρος	*Ipiros*	*Epirus*
Ιόνια Νησιά	*Ionia Nisia*	*Ionian Islands*
Δυτική Ελλάδα	*Ditiki Ellada*	*Western Greece*
Στερεά Ελλάδα	*Sterea Ellada*	*Continental Greece*
Πελοπόννησος	*Peloponnisos*	*Peloponnese*
Αττική	**Attiki**	**Attica**
Νησιά Αιγαίου, Κρήτη	**Nisia Eyeou, Kriti**	**Aegean Islands, Crete**
Βόρειο Αιγαίο	*Vorio Eyeo*	*North Aegean*
Νότιο Αιγαίο	*Notio Eyeo*	*South Aegean*
Κρήτη	*Kriti*	*Crete*

ESPAÑA	SPAIN
Noroeste	**North-West**
Galicia	*Galicia*
Principado de Asturias	*Asturias*
Cantabria	*Cantabria*
Noreste	**North-East**
País Vasco	*Basque Country*
Comunidad Foral de Navarra	*Navarre*
La Rioja	*Rioja*
Aragón	*Aragon*
Comunidad de Madrid	**Madrid**
Centro	**Centre**
Castilla y León	*Castile-Leon*
Castilla-La Mancha	*Castile-La Mancha*
Extremadura	*Extremadura*
Este	**East**
Cataluña	*Catalonia*
Comunidad Valenciana	*Valencia*
Illess Balears	*Balearic Islands*
Sur	**South**
Andalucía	*Andalusia*
Región de Murcia	*Murcia*
Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	*Ceuta*
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	*Melilla*
Canarias	**Canary Islands**

FRANCE	FRANCE
Île-de-France	**Île-de-France**
Bassin parisien	**Paris basin**
Champagne-Ardenne	*Champagne-Ardenne*
Picardie	*Picardy*
Haute-Normandie	*Upper Normandy*
Centre	*Centre*
Basse-Normandie	*Lower Normandy*
Bourgogne	*Burgundy*
Nord-Pas-de-Calais	**Nord/Pas-de-Calais**
Est	**East**
Lorraine	*Lorraine*
Alsace	*Alsace*
Franche-Comté	*Franche-Comté*
Ouest	**West**
Pays de la Loire	*Loire Region*
Bretagne	*Brittany*

Poitou-Charentes	*Poitou-Charentes*
Sud-Ouest	**South-West**
Aquitaine	*Aquitaine*
Midi-Pyrénées	*Midi-Pyrénées*
Limousin	*Limousin*
Centre-Est	**Centre-East**
Rhône-Alpes	*Rhône-Alpes*
Auvergne	*Auvergne*
Méditerranée	**Mediterranean**
Languedoc-Roussillon	*Languedoc-Roussillon*
Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur (PACA)	*Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur*
Corse	*Corsica*
Départements d'outre-mer (DOM)	**Overseas Departments[2]**
Guadeloupe	*Guadeloupe*
Martinique	*Martinique*
Guyane	*French Guiana*
Réunion	*Réunion*

IRELAND

Border, Midlands and Western
Southern and Eastern

ITALIA	**ITALY**
Nord Ovest	**North-West**
Piemonte	*Piedmont*
Valle d'Aosta	*Valle d'Aosta*
Liguria	*Liguria*
Lombardia	*Lombardy*
Nord Est	**North-East**
Provincia Autonoma Bolzano/Bozen	*Bolzano*
Provincia Autonoma Trento	*Trento*
Veneto	*Veneto[3]*
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	*Friuli-Venezia Giulia*
Emilia-Romagna	*Emilia-Romagna*
Centro	**Centre**
Toscana	*Tuscany*
Umbria	*Umbria*
Marche	*Marche*
Lazio	*Lazio*

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[2] NB: avoid OD.

[3] NB: FR = Vénétie!

Sud	**South**
Abruzzo	*Abruzzi*
Molise	*Molise*
Campania	*Campania*
Puglia	*Apulia*
Basilicata	*Basilicata*
Calabria	*Calabria*
Isole	**Islands**
Sicilia	*Sicily*
Sardegna	*Sardinia*

LATVIJA *(NUTS 3 only)*	**LATVIA**
Kurzeme	Kurzeme
Latgale	Latgale
Rīga	Rīga
Pierīga	Pierīga
Vidzeme	Vidzeme
Zemgale	Zemgale

LIETUVA (*NUTS 3 only*)	**LITHUANIA**
Alytaus apskritis	Alytus county
Kauno apskritis	Kaunas county
Klaipėdos apskritis	Klaipėda county
Marijampolės apskritis	Marijampolė county
Panevėžio apskritis	Panevėžys county
Šiaulių apskritis	Šiauliai county
Tauragės apskritis	Tauragė county
Telšių apskritis	Telšiai county
Utenos apskritis	Utena county
Vilniaus apskritis	Vilnius county

MALTA *(NUTS 3 only)*	**MALTA**
Malta	Malta
Ghawdex u Kemmuna	Gozo and Comino

MAGYARORSZÁG	**HUNGARY**
Közép-Magyarország	**Central Hungary**
Dunántúl	**Transdanubia**
Közép-Dunántúl	*Central Transdanubia*
Nyugat-Dunántúl	*West Transdanubia*
Dél-Dunántúl	*South Transdanubia*
Alföld Es Észak	**Great Plain and North**
Észak-Magyarország	*North Hungary*
Észak-Alföld	*North Great Plain*

Dél-Alföld	*South Great Plain*

NEDERLAND	**THE NETHERLANDS**
Noord-Nederland	**North Netherlands**
Groningen	*Groningen*
Friesland	*Friesland*
Drenthe	*Drenthe*
Oost-Nederland	**East Netherlands**
Overijssel	*Overijssel*
Gelderland	*Gelderland*
Flevoland	*Flevoland*
West-Nederland	**West Netherlands**
Utrecht	*Utrecht*
Noord-Holland	*North Holland*
Zuid-Holland	*South Holland*
Zeeland	*Zeeland*
Zuid-Nederland	**South Netherlands**
Noord-Brabant	*North Brabant*
Limburg	*Limburg*

ÖSTERREICH	**AUSTRIA**
Ostösterreich	**East Austria**
Burgenland	*Burgenland*
Niederösterreich	*Lower Austria*
Wien	*Vienna*
Südösterreich	**South Austria**
Kärnten	*Carinthia*
Steiermark	*Styria*
Westösterreich	**West Austria**
Oberösterreich	*Upper Austria*
Salzburg	*Salzburg*
Tirol	*Tyrol[4]*
Vorarlberg	*Vorarlberg*

POLSKA	**POLAND**
Centralny	**Central**
Łódzkie	*Łódź*
Mazowieckie	*Masovia*
Południowy	**South**
Małopolskie	*Lesser Poland*
Śląskie	*Silesia*

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[4]   NB: the Tyrol.

Wschodni	**East**
Lubelskie	*Lublin*
Podkarpackie	*Subcarpathia*
Świętokrzyskie	*Świętokrzyskie*
Podlaskie	*Podlasie*
Północno-Zachodni	**North-West**
Wielkopolskie	*Greater Poland*
Zachodniopomorskie	*West Pomerania*
Lubuskie	*Lubusz*
Południowo-Zachodni	**South-West**
Dolnośląskie	*Lower Silesia*
Opolskie	*Opole*
Północny	**North**
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	*Cuiavia-Pomerania*
Warmińsko-Mazurskie	*Warmia-Masuria*
Pomorskie	*Pomerania*

The above table shows the statistical regions (NUTS 1) and administrative divisions (voivodships — *województwa*, sing. *województwo*) (NUTS 2).
Lower levels of administrative division are *powiat* (county) and *gmina* (commune).

PORTUGAL	**PORTUGAL**
Continente	**Continental Portugal**
Norte	*North*
Algarve	*Algarve*
Centro	*Centre*
Lisboa	*Lisbon*
Alentejo	*Alentejo*
Região Autónoma dos Açores	**Azores**
Região Autónoma da Madeira	**Madeira**

ROMÂNIA	**ROMANIA**
Macroregiunea unu	**Macroregion one**
Nord-Vest	*North-West*
Centru	*Centre*
Macroregiunea doi	**Macroregion two**
Nord-Est	*North-East*
Sud-Est	*South-East*
Macroregiunea trei	**Macroregion three**
Sud -Muntenia	*South-Muntenia*
Bucureşti-Ilfov	*Bucharest-Ilfov*
Macroregiunea patru	**Macroregion four**
Sud-Vest Oltenia	*South-West Oltenia*
Vest	*West*

Romania is divided into 41 counties (*judeţe*) and one municipality (Bucharest)

SLOVENIJA *(NUTS 2-3 only)*	**SLOVENIA**
Vzhodna Slovenija	*East Slovenia*
Pomurska	Pomurska
Podravska	Podravska
Koroška	Koroška
Savinjska	Savinjska
Zasavska	Zasavska
Spodnjeposavska	Spodnjeposavska
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	South-East Slovenia
Notranjsko-kraška	Notranjsko-kraška
Zahodna Slovenija	*West Slovenia*
Osrednjeslovenska	Central Slovenia
Gorenjska	Gorenjska
Goriška	Goriška
Obalno-kraška	Obalno-kraška

SLOVENSKÁ REPUBLIKA *(NUTS 2-3)*	**SLOVAK REPUBLIC**
Bratislavský kraj	*Bratislava*
Bratislavský kraj	Bratislava Region
Západné Slovensko	*West Slovakia*
Trnavský kraj	Trnava Region
Trenčiansky kraj	Trenčín Region
Nitriansky kraj	Nitra Region
Stredné Slovensko	*Central Slovakia*
Žilinský kraj	Žilina Region
Banskobystrický kraj	Banská Bystrica Region
Východné Slovensko	*East Slovakia*
Prešovský kraj	Prešov Region
Košický kraj	Košice Region

Note: For statistical and Structural Fund purposes Slovakia is divided into 4 *areas* (*oblasti* – NUTS 2), each consisting of either a single region (*kraj* – NUTS 3) or a group of regions *(zoskupenie krajov)*. Administratively the country is divided into 8 self-governing regions (*samosprávne kraje* — NUTS 3 higher territorial units — *vyššie územné celky* (*VÚC*)). Below that, there are 79 *okresy* (districts).

SUOMI/FINLAND	**FINLAND**
Manner-Suomi	**Continental Finland**
Itä-Suomi	*East Finland*
Etelä-Suomi	*South Finland*
Länsi-Suomi	*West Finland*
Pohjois-Suomi	*North Finland*
Ahvenanmaa/Åland	**Åland Islands**

SVERIGE	**SWEDEN**
Östra Sverige	**Eastern Sweden**
Stockholm	*Stockholm*
Östra Mellansverige	*East-Central Sweden*
Södra Sverige	**Southern Sweden**
Småland med öarna	*Småland and islands*
Sydsverige	*South Sweden*
Västsverige	*West Sweden*
Norra Sverige	**Northern Sweden**
Norra Mellansverige	*North-Central Sweden*
Mellersta Norrland	*Central Norrland*
Övre Norrland	*Upper Norrland*

UNITED KINGDOM

North East
> *Tees Valley and Durham*
> *Northumberland and Tyne and Wear*

North West
> *Cumbria*
> *Cheshire*
> *Greater Manchester*
> *Lancashire*
> *Merseyside*

Yorkshire and the Humber
> *East Yorkshire and Northern Lincolnshire*
> *North Yorkshire*
> *South Yorkshire*
> *West Yorkshire*

East Midlands
> *Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire*
> *Leicestershire, Rutland and Northamptonshire*
> *Lincolnshire*

West Midlands
> *Herefordshire, Worcestershire and Warwickshire*
> *Shropshire and Staffordshire*
> *West Midlands*

East of England
> *East Anglia*
> *Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire*
> *Essex*

London
> *Inner London*
> *Outer London*

South East

Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire
Surrey, East and West Sussex
Hampshire and Isle of Wight
Kent

South West

Gloucestershire, Wiltshire and Bristol/Bath area
Dorset and Somerset
Cornwall and Isles of Scilly
Devon

Wales

West Wales and The Valleys
East Wales

Scotland

Eastern Scotland
South Western Scotland
North Eastern Scotland
Highlands and Islands

Northern Ireland

Annex 2
NOTES ON BELGIUM

Do not use the French versions of names of towns in the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium. Use the three anglicised forms *Ostend*, *Ghent* and *Antwerp* (known to French-speakers as *Anvers*) and the Dutch forms for other towns: *Mechelen* not *Malines, Leuven* not *Louvain* (but NB: *Louvain-la-Neuve* is French-speaking), *Kortrijk* not *Courtrai*, *Ieper* not *Ypres*. The one exception is *Brugge*, which takes the French name *Bruges* in English.

Use French names for towns in Wallonia: *Mons* not *Bergen*, *Liège* not *Luik*.

If in doubt, make sure the map you consult is an official Belgian bilingual one (maps produced by outsiders — Britannica, Times Atlas — are unreliable on this point) or see the index in the Brussels telephone directory, which refers the reader from the 'wrong' to the 'right' version for each town.

Bilingual *Bruxelles/Brussel* is always *Brussels* in English. Many of the 19 local authorities (FR *communes*, NL *gemeenten*) (and all streets) in the Brussels region also have a French and a Dutch name, both equally correct, but most English-speakers use the French version. The same applies to a few Walloon towns with special bilingual status, such as *Enghien/Edingen*, *Mouscron/Moeskroen* and *Comines/Komen*.

In the footer of Commission letters, include both forms: *Rue de la Loi/Wetstraat 200*.

Note however that the local authorities immediately outside the Brussels region, though mostly *de facto* bilingual, are all in Flanders and hence officially Dutch-speaking, so use *Sint-Genesius-Rode* not *Rhode-Saint-Genèse*, and *Vilvoorde* not *Vilvorde*, to avoid offending political sensibilities. For similar reasons the fiercely disputed area French-speakers call *les Fourons* and Dutch-speakers *Voeren* is perhaps best rendered in an English text as *Fourons/Voeren* or *Voeren/Fourons*.

The people who live in *Flanders* are *Flemings*, their institutions are *Flemish* and they speak *Dutch* (**NOT** Flemish). The people who live in *Wallonia* (except the German-speaking Belgians) are *Walloons*, their institutions are *Walloon* and they speak *French*. But note that not all French-speakers in Belgium are Walloons. In particular, Brussels is not in Wallonia. So anything referring to Belgian French-speakers as a whole must be described in English not as *Walloon* but as *French-speaking* (or, in certain contexts, just *French*).

Government. Belgium is a federal kingdom of unique complexity. It comprises three *regions*:
- the *Flemish Region,*
- the *Walloon Region,* and
- *Brussels Capital Region*

and three language *communities*:

- the *Flemish Community*,
- the *French Community* (not *French-speaking*), and
- the *German-speaking Community* (not *German*).

The *Flemish Region* covers the north of the country down to a line running across the country just south of Brussels, but not including the *Brussels Region* (which forms an enclave), while the *Walloon Region* covers the whole of the south of the country (including the German-speaking area). The regions may also be referred to informally as *Flanders, Wallonia* and *the Brussels Region* (to distinguish it from *Ville de Bruxelles/Stad Brussel*, which is only one of 19 local authorities in the region).

The *Flemish Community* covers Flanders, plus Brussels (for Dutch-speaking cultural matters); the *French Community* covers Wallonia minus the German-speaking area, plus Brussels (for French-speaking cultural matters); and the *German-speaking Community* covers the small German-speaking part of the country.

The *regions* exercise powers in a wide range of areas, while the *communities* are primarily responsible for education and cultural matters. Under the Constitution each region and community has an executive accountable to a parliament. However, all the responsibilities of the Flemish Region have been transferred to the Community, so there is only one *Flemish Government* and one *Flemish Parliament*, both based in Brussels. The executives of the other two regions are the *Walloon Government*, based in Namur, and the *Brussels Regional Government*. The leaders of all three executives wish to be described in English (unfortunately) as *Minister-President*. Meanwhile, the French Community — based in Brussels and entirely separate from the Walloon Government in Namur — has handed over some of its responsibilities to the Region. The German-speaking Community, with its seat in Eupen, has fewer powers than the other two.

At federal level, the Belgian Government retains such pan-Belgian functions as foreign affairs, defence, macroeconomic policy and rail transport. In a Belgian context it may be referred to as the *federal government*. The monarch's official title is 'King of the Belgians, Prince of Belgium'. In addition, the state comprises three regions and three language communities. These overlap in part.

Political parties, universities. There are no major bilingual political parties in Belgium. Note too that all the major parties have changed their names in recent years, making identification less obvious in some cases. It is probably best to give the original name or use the initials plus an English description, e.g. *the Mouvement réformateur* or *MR (the French-speaking Liberal Party), the SP.A (the Flemish Socialist Party), the Centre Démocrate Humaniste* or *CDH (the French-speaking Christian Democrat Party)*. For full details of the parties see the [Wikipedia entry](#).

Annex 3
TRANSLITERATION TABLE FOR GREEK

NAME	LETTER	PHONETIC (ELOT)	ETYMOLOGICAL (Classical)
alpha	α	a	a
beta	β	v	b
gamma	γ	g (see Note 5)	g
delta	δ	d (see Note 6)	d
epsilon	ε	e	e
zeta	ζ	z	z
eta	η	i	e
theta	θ	th	th
iota	ι	i	i
kappa	κ	k	c
lambda	λ	l	l
mu	μ	m	m
nu	ν	n	n
xi	ξ	x	x
omicron	o	o	o
pi	π	p	p
rho	ρ	r	r
sigma	σ,ς	s (see Note 7)	s
tau	τ	t	t
upsilon	υ	i	u[y]
phi	φ	f	ph
chi	χ	kh (see Note 4)	ch
psi	ψ	ps	ps
omega	ω	o	o

Those using the ELOT standard should note the following additional combinations:

gamma gamma	γγ	ng
gamma kappa	γκ	g (initially), ng (medially)
gamma xi	γξ	nx
gamma chi	γχ	nkh
alpha upsilon	αυ	av (before voiced consonant or vowel) af (before voiceless consonant)
epsilon upsilon	ευ	ev (before voiced consonant or vowel) ef (before voiceless consonant)
eta upsilon	ηυ	iv (before voiced consonant or vowel) if (before voiceless consonant)
mu pi	μπ	b (initially), mb (medially)
nu tau	ντ	d (initially), nd (medially)
alpha iota	αι	e
epsilon iota	ει	i
omicron iota	οι	i
upsilon iota	υι	i
omicron upsilon	ου	ou

1) Use the ELOT phonetic standard for transliteration, except where a classical rendering is more familiar or appropriate in English, e.g. Cyclades for Κυκλάδες rather than the phonetic Kiklades. This may mean using different transliterations in different circumstances, e.g. the Athenian statesman has to be Pericles, but a modern Greek with the same name should be transliterated as Periklis.

2) Be consistent within words, e.g. Myconos or Mikonos, but not Mykonos; Constantinos or Konstandinos, but not Konstantinos.

3) The ELOT standard is not used consistently even in Greece, as can be seen from the variety of transliterations used for road signs, street names and maps, not to mention the different ways Greeks choose to transliterate their own names (see Commission telephone directory).

4) The letter χ is usually better transliterated as *h,* e.g. in surnames beginning with Χατζι-/Χατζη-, although not usually for Χρίστος, which tends to come out as *Christos* (cf. Note 1).

5) The combinations γι, γυ, γει, γοι and γη should be transliterated as *y(i)* (e.g. Yannis for Γιάννης) and the combinations γαι and γε as *ye*. Do not use the combinations *ghi*, *ghy* or *ghe*.

6) There is no need to transliterate δ as dh, although this is sometimes seen.

7) A single σ between vowels is often seen transliterated as 'ss', e.g. Vassilis for Βασίλης, but this practice should not be followed. Conversely foreign names with

double letters usually appear in Greek with a single letter, even if pronounced double in the original language, e.g. Καναλέτο for Canaletto.

8) It may require a little research to get back to the original orthography of foreign names appearing in Greek texts. It is obvious that Τζορτζ Μπέρναρντ Σο should be George Bernard Shaw (rather than 'Tzortz Mpernarnt So'!), but Turkish or Yugoslav names may be trickier. Both the Italian painter, Carracci, and the former capital of Pakistan, Karachi, come out as Καράτσι.

9) Examples of Greek letters used to represent non-Greek sounds:

σ	ch (French), sci/sce (Italian), sh, sch, sz
τσ	ce/ci (Italian), ch, tsch, cs
ζ	j (French), zs
τζ	j (English), gi/ge (Italian), c (Turkish), xh (Albanian), dj
ε	oe, ö
ι	u (French), ü, y
(γ)ου	w

10) Examples of transliterated foreign names:

Auschwitz	Άουσβιτς	Maxwell	Μάξγουελ
Bruges	Μπριζ	Nietzsche	Νίτσε
Chekhov	Τσέχοφ	Sarajevo	Σαράγιεβο
Eisenhower	Αϊζενχάουερ	Schoenberg	Σένμπεργκ
Goethe	Γκέτε	Vaughan	Βον
Hoxha	Χότζα	Wyoming	Ουαϊόμινγκ

Annex 4
TRANSLITERATION TABLE FOR CYRILLIC
(Bulgarian and Russian)

Letter	*BG*	*RU*
Аа	a	a
Бб	b	b
Вв	v	v
Гг	g	g
Дд	d	d
Ее	e	ye[1]/e
Ёё	-	yo[1]/o
Жж	zh	zh
Зз	z	z
Ии	i[2]	i[3]
Йй	y	y
Кк	k	k
Лл	l	l
Мм	m	m
Нн	n	n
Оо	o	o
Пп	p	p
Рр	r	r
Сс	s	s
Тт	t	t
Уу	u	u
Фф	f	f
Хх	h	kh
Цц	ts	ts
Чч	ch	ch
Шш	sh	sh
Щщ	sht	shch

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[1]   Initially or after vowel.

[2]   The combination 'ия' at the end of a word should be transliterated as 'ia', e.g. 'София' > 'Sofia'.

[3]   The group of letters 'ий' should be transliterated as 'y' or 'i'.

Letter	BG	RU
Ъъ	a[4]	omitted (hard sign)
Ыы	-	y[5]
Ьь	y	omitted (soft sign)
Ээ	-	e
Юю	yu	yu
Яя	ya[6]	ya

For more information on Bulgarian, see the 'Comprehensible Bulgaria' project at http://transliteration.mdaar.government.bg/trans.php.

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[4]   However, the country name 'България' should be transliterated as 'Bulgaria'.

[5]   The group of letters 'ый' should be transliterated as 'y'.

[6]   The combination 'ия' at the end of a word should be transliterated as 'ia', e.g. 'София' > 'Sofia'.

Annex 5
ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS IN GERMANY

AMT, ÄMTER:	Translate as authority (authorities). This is a grouping of *Gemeinden* at a lower level than a *Kreis*.
BEZIRK:	As part of a town or city, translate as borough; as an abbreviation of *Regierungsbezirk*, see below. In references to former East Germany, do not translate, as the term does not equate to any unit in West Germany, let alone other European countries.
BUNDESLAND, BUNDESLÄNDER:	See *Land*, *Länder* below. Note however that *Bundesland/länder* are the usual terms in Austria and, for Austria, are translated as 'province(s)'.
GEMEINDE:	Translate as municipality.
GEMEINDEVERBAND:	Translate as municipal association.
KREIS:	Translate as district.
KREISFREIE STADT:	As this is exactly the same level as a *Stadtkreis*, the translation urban district will generally be satisfactory. Should it be necessary to distinguish between this term and a *Stadtkreis*, use 'town constituting a district in its own right'.
LAND, LÄNDER:	Translate as federal state(s), adding 'German' if necessary for clarity, or, alternatively, leave the terms in German.
LANDKREIS:	Translate as rural district.
REGIERUNGSBEZIRK/ BEZIRKSREGIERUNG:	If you translate these terms, use 'government region/regional government' not 'government district/district government', so as not to cause confusion with *Kreis*.
STADTKREIS:	Translate as urban district.

Annex 6
LIST OF JUDICIAL BODIES

A list of some suggested English translations is given below.

DANISH

Anklagemyndihed	Public prosecutor
Arbejdsret[1]	Labour Court
Byret[2]	District Court
Dombog	(Full record of court judgments and orders)
Fogedret	Enforcement and small claims (division of the district) court
Højesteret	Supreme Court
Procesbevillingsnævn	Appeals Permission Board
Retsbog	(Summary records of court cases)
Skifteret	Probate and bankruptcy (division of the district) court
Særlige Klageret	Special Court of Indictment and Revision
Sø- og Handelsret	Maritime and Commercial Court
Tinglysningsret	Land Registration Court
Østre/Vestre Landsret	Eastern/Western High Court

DUTCH (BELGIUM AND NETHERLANDS)

Arbeidshof	Labour Court
Arbeidsrechtbank	Labour Tribunal
Arrondissement	Judicial District
Arrondissementsparket	Office of the Public Prosecutor of a Judicial District
Arrondissementsrechtbank	District Court
Centrale Raad van Beroep	Court of last instance in social security matters
College van Beroep voor het Bedrijfsleven	Administrative court of last instance in matters of trade and industry
Correctionele Rechtbank	Criminal Court

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[1]   In fact its jurisdiction is over collective labour agreements, in disputes between trade unions and employers' organisations.

[2]   There are now 24 of them (as of 1 January 2007).

Economische Politierechter	Magistrate dealing with commercial offences
Gerechtsgebouw	Law Courts
Gerechtshof	Court of Appeal
Hof van Beroep	Court of Appeal
Hof van Cassatie	Court of Cassation
Hoge Raad der Nederlanden	Supreme Court of the Netherlands
Kamer van Koophandel en Fabrieken	Chamber of Commerce and Industry
Kantongerecht	Cantonal Court
Officier van Justitie	Public Prosecutor (representative of Openbaar Ministerie at Arrondissementsrechtbank and Kantongerecht)
Openbaar Ministerie	Public Prosecutor's Department
Politierechtbank	Petty Sessional Court
Procureur Generaal	Public Prosecutor (representative of Openbaar Ministerie at Hoge Raad and Gerechtshof)
Raad van Arbeid	Labour Council (family allowances board)
Raad van Beroep	Social Security Court
Raad van State, Afdeling Rechtspraak	State Council, Administrative Appeal Section
Rechtbank van Eerste Aanleg	Court of First Instance
Rechtbank van Koophandel	Commercial Court
Rijk	European territory of the Kingdom of the Netherlands
Rijks Sociale Verzekeringsraad	National Social Security Council
Tariefcommissie	Administrative court of last instance in revenue matters
Vredegerecht	Cantonal Court

FRENCH (BELGIUM, FRANCE AND LUXEMBOURG)
(Some of the equivalents given are those suggested by the Council of Europe)

Auditeur du travail	Officer representing the public interest in labour matters
Caisse des dépôts et consignations	Deposit and Consignment Office
Chambre des mises en accusation	Chamber for Indictments
Commission de première instance du contentieux de la sécurité sociale	Social Security First Instance
Commission de recours gracieux	Appeals Board
Commission des rentes	Pensions Commission (Lux.)

Conseil arbitral des assurances sociales	Arbitral Council of Social Insurance (Lux.)
Conseil d'état	Council of State
Conseil des prud'hommes	Conciliation Board (Lux.)
Conseil supérieur des assurances sociales	Supreme Council of Social Insurance (Lux.)
Cour d'appel	Court of Appeal
Cour d'assises	Assizes (most serious criminal cases)
Cour de cassation	Court of Cassation
Cour du travail	Labour Court
Cour supérieure de justice	Supreme Court of Justice (Lux.)
Justice de paix	Cantonal Court (First instance civil court for minor cases) (Magistrates' Court, Lux.)
Tribunal d'arrondissement	District Court
Tribunal de commerce	Commercial Court
Tribunal correctionnel	Criminal (Appeal) Court
Tribunal de grande instance	Regional Court (major civil cases and less serious criminal cases)
Tribunal d'instance	District Court (minor civil cases)
Tribunal de police	Local Criminal Court (minor offences; criminal division of Tribunal d'Instance)
Tribunal de première instance	Court of First Instance
Tribunal du travail	Labour Tribunal

GERMAN
(The English equivalents for names of courts are those recommended by the Federal authorities.)

Amtsgericht	Local Court
Arbeitsgericht	Labour Court
Bundesarbeitsgericht	Federal Labour Court
Bundesfinanzhof	Federal Finance Court
Bundesgerichtshof	Federal Court of Justice
Bundespatentgericht	Federal Patents Court
Bundessozialgericht	Federal Social Court
Bundesverfassungsgericht	Federal Constitutional Court
Bundesverwaltunsgericht	Federal Administrative Court
Finanzgericht	Finance Court
Landesarbeitsgericht	Higher Labour Court
Landessozialgericht	Higher Social Court
Landgericht	Regional Court
Oberlandesgericht	Higher Regional Court
Oberverwaltungsgericht	Higher Administrative Court

Sozialgericht	Social Court
Verwaltungsgericht	Administrative Court
Verwaltungsgerichtshof	Higher Administrative Court

ITALIAN

Ammin. delle Finanze dello Stato	State Finance Administration
Consiglio di Stato	Council of State
Corte Costituzionale	Constitutional Court
Corte d'Appello	Court of Appeal
Corte di Cassazione	Court of Cassation
Giudice Conciliatore	Conciliator Judge (unpaid − minor civil causes)
Pretore	Magistrate
Pretura (Civile e Penale)	(Civil and Criminal) Magistrates' Court
Pubblico Ministero	Public Prosecutor
Servizio del Contenzioso Diplomatico, Trattati e Affari Legislativi	Department for Contentious Diplomatic Affairs, Treaties and Legislative Matters
Tribunale (Civile e Penale)	(Civil and Criminal) District Court
Tribunale Amministrativo Regionale	Regional Administrative Tribunal

Annex 7
NATIONAL LEGAL INSTRUMENTS

A list of some suggested English translations is given below (but see 19.40).

DANISH:

administrativ afgørelse	administrative ruling
(kongelige/ministeriel) anordning	(royal/ministerial) decree
bekendtgørelse	order
cirkulaere	circular
lov	act/law
lovbekendtgørelse	consolidated act
lovforslag	bill/draft law
vejledning	guidelines

DUTCH:

algemene maatregel van bestuur	general administrative regulation
beschikking	decision
besluit	decree
Gerechtelijk Wetboek	Judicial Code (Bel.)
Grondwet	Constitution
koninklijk besluit	royal decree
Memorie van Toelichting	Explanatory Memorandum (to a bill)
overheidsbeschikking	executive decision
Staatsblad	Bulletin of Acts and Decrees
Staatscourant	Government Gazette
Tractatenblad	Collection of treaties and conventions
wet	act/law
Wetboek van Burgerlijke Rechtsvordering	Code of Civil Procedure (now the Gerechtelijk Wetboek)
Wetboek van Koophandel	Commercial Code
Wetboek van Strafvordering	Code of Criminal Procedure

FINNISH:

asetus	decree
laki	act/law
ministeriön päätös	ministerial decision
perustuslaki	constitutional law
Suomen säädöskokoelma	Statute Book of Finland
valtioneuvoston päätös	government decision
valtioneuvoston periaatepäätös	government resolution

FRENCH:

arrêté royal (AR)	royal decree
Code judiciaire	Judicial Code
loi	act/law
ordonnance	order
ordre ministériel	ministerial order
règlement grand ducal	grand ducal regulation

GERMAN:

Bundesgesetz (A)	federal act
Durchführungsverordnung (A)	implementing regulation
Bescheid (A)	decision
Erlass (A)	general circular
Gesetz	act/law
Grundgesetz	Basic Law/Constitution
(Rechts)bestimmung	provision (in a Vorschrift)
(Rechts)verordnung	(statutory) order
(Rechts)vorschrift	(set of) regulations
Rundschreiben	circular
Weisung (A)	administrative circular
[(A) = Austria]	

GREEK:

νόμος (nomos)	act/law
προεδρικό διάταγμα (proedriko diatagma)	presidential decree
αναγκαστικός νόμος (anangastikos nomos)	emergency act/law
εγκύκλιος (engiklios)	circular order
Εφημερίδα της Κυβερνήσεως (Efimerida tis Kiverniseos) (Greece)	Government Gazette
Τεύχος Πρώτο (Tevhos Proto) e.g. ΦΕΚ Α 164/14-07-2000	Series I e.g. Government Gazette, Series I, No 164, 14.7.2000, or GG I/164 of 14.7.2000
Τεύχος Δεύτερο (Tevhos Devtero) e.g. ΦΕΚ 379Β'/25-02-2004	Series II e.g. Government Gazette, Series II, No 379, 25.2.2004, or GG II/379 of 25.2.2004
Επίσημη Εφημερίδα της Δημοκρατίας (Episimi Efimerida tis Dimokratias) (Cyprus)	Government Gazette
Κύριο Μέρος (Kurio Meros)	Main Gazette
Παραρτήματα (Parartimata)	Appendices

ITALIAN:

Codice Civile	Civil Code
Codice di Procedura Civile	Code of Civil Procedure
decreto del presidente della repubblica (DPR)	presidential decree
decreto legge	decree-law
decreto reale	royal decree
legge	act/law

LITHUANIAN:

dekretas	decree
įsakymas	order
įstatymas	act/law
kodeksas	code
nutarimas	resolution
(Seimo) rezoliucija	(Parliament) resolution
sprendimas	decision

PORTUGUESE:

Constituição	Constitution
decreto regional	regional decree
decreto regulamentar	implementing decree

decreto regulamentar regional	regional implementing decree
decreto-lei	decree-law
despacho normativo	legislative order
lei	act/law
norma constitucional	constitutional statute
portaria	order in council
postura	(municipal) by-law
resolução do Conselho de Ministros	resolution of the Council of Ministers

SPANISH:

ley	act/law
orden ministerial	ministerial order
decreto	decree
decreto-ley	decree-law
real decreto	royal decree
reglamento (recopilación legislativa)	regulation

SWEDISH:

lagstiftning	legislation
grundlag (plural grundlagar)	fundamental law
grundlagarna	Constitution (i.e. the four Fundamental Laws collectively)
balk	code
författning	statute
lag	act/law
kungörelse	decree
förordning	ordinance
föreskrift	regulation
allmänna råd	general advice

The titles of laws, decrees, orders, regulations, etc. can often best be translated into English by inverting the word order so that they appear in the form customary in common law countries. Apostrophes and commas do not normally appear in such titles in English.

Examples:

> *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

It will be seen that words such as *concernant or sur* become superfluous when translated and this helps towards brevity. Note that words which would otherwise sit unhappily in the inverted title are placed in brackets; this is standard practice in the titles of statutes and statutory instruments in the United Kingdom.

If this procedure becomes unmanageable, or if you feel the reader might be confused, you can of course cite the law etc. in the original language and put a literal English translation in brackets:

Example:

> *Ley 19/1985, de 16 de julio, Cambiaria y del Cheque* (Law No 19 of 16 July 1985 governing bills of exchange and cheques)

Regarding *act* vs *law,* either is acceptable in translations, provided you are consistent (bearing in mind 19.40).

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*.

For draft legislation, use *bill* only where this is the term used in an English-speaking country or in official translations. Otherwise use *draft act/law*.

Annex 8
CLASSIFICATIONS

Combined Nomenclature (CN). The Combined Nomenclature (Annex I to Council Regulation (EEC) No 2658/87 on the tariff and statistical nomenclature and on the Common Customs Tariff, updated annually) is based on the Harmonised System (see below). The term 'common customs tariff' or CCT refers to the common rates of duty applied by all Member States at the external frontier but is no longer the title of the published nomenclature, as it was up to 1988.

Harmonised System (HS). The International Convention on the Harmonised Commodity Description and Coding System (the full title of the HS) was adopted under the aegis of the then Customs Cooperation Council (CCC — now known as the World Customs Organisation or WCO), and came into force on 1 January 1988. It correlates with the UN's SITC classification (see below) and forms the basis for the Combined Nomenclature. It comprises approximately 11 000 codes identifying products both for customs purposes and for freight statistics and insurance. It applies worldwide, and is used by 88 countries.

Integrated Tariff of the European Communities (Taric). Taric is based on the CN but in addition to the latter's eight-digit codes it includes extra subdivisions (subheads) coded with two further digits, used by the national customs authorities to apply tariff preferences, anti-dumping duties, export refunds and many other trade measures. Taric is published annually, but as a day-to-day working tool it is continually updated on a database and Member States receive weekly electronic notification of changes.

Customs Code. The Community Customs Code codifies in a single instrument the multitude of earlier regulations and directives on customs matters, updating them to take account of the Single Market. More detailed rules are codified in a copious implementing regulation. Note the French acronyms CDC (*Code des douanes communautaire*) and DAC (*dispositions d'application du code*); render these as 'the Code' and 'the Implementing Provisions', unless frequent repetitions make it desirable to abbreviate these forms, in which case use 'CCC' and 'CCIP' respectively. Do not confuse references to the Community Customs Code with references to the CN codes (i.e. 'heading numbers').

National accounts. The ESA (European System of Accounts) and the SNA (System of National Accounts, drawn up by the United Nations Bureau of Statistics) are standard breakdowns for comparing national accounts between countries. Note that with ESA 95, the version currently in force, the scope has been broadened to include regional (and environmental) accounts. The full title is now 'European system of national and regional accounts in the Community' (Council Regulation (EC) No 448/98, OJ L 58).

EC classification of economic activity (NACE). The full title is 'Statistical classification of economic activities in the European Community' (Council Regulation (EEC) No 3037/90, OJ L 293), and the version currently in force is NACE Rev. 1.1. NACE is modelled on the UN's ISIC classification (see below).

UN classifications of economic activity. The ISIC (International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities), the SITC (Standard Industrial Trade Classification) and the BEC (Classification by Broad Economic Categories) were prepared by the UN to enable member governments to compare GNP, manufacturing capacity, trade flows, etc. The ISIC provides a standard terminology, while the SITC and BEC are for preparing comparable statistics on trade.

Job classifications. ISCO-08 is the latest version of the ILO's International Standard Classification of Occupations, containing occupational titles grouped in 10 major groups, 43 sub-major groups, 130 minor groups and 436 unit groups. It is published in English, French and Spanish. The European Job Mobility Portal EURES uses its own classification system.

For a full list of statistical and other classifications, see Eurostat's classifications server 'Ramon'.