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How to cite

DAVIS, Katharine Lain, GANDOLFI, Chiara. Latin in Modern Languages : An Interpreter's Guide. Master, 2014.

This publication URL: <https://archive-ouverte.unige.ch/unige:40508>

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**UNIVERSITÉ
DE GENÈVE**

**FACULTÉ DE TRADUCTION
ET D'INTERPRÉTATION**

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Latin in Modern Languages: An Interpreter's Guide

Mémoire présenté à la Faculté de Traduction et d'Interprétation

Pour l'obtention du MA en Interprétation de Conférence

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Juin 2014

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ABSTRACT

Throughout the Master of Arts in Conference Interpreting at the Faculté de Traduction et d'Interprétation, in the University of Geneva, Switzerland, which prepares students to work as conference interpreters, the topic of preparedness and what constitutes good preparation for a specific subject, conference or assignment is frequently discussed. Similarly, an interpreter's range of knowledge of the world, or *culture générale*, is pointed to as absolutely necessary and something that should be constantly improved. This paper examines one small portion of that general cultural knowledge that is Latin. A historical linguistic review of the language is provided as well as a corpus-based analysis of three areas of interest – medicine, law and general cultural references – to find where Latin phrases and expressions are still to be found in modern French and English speeches. The aim is to provide students and beginning interpreters with a tool to improve their knowledge in this area and deal more effectively with Latin when they are confronted with it while working.

INTRODUCTION

Aim of this Paper

In his *De vulgari eloquentia*, Dante Alighieri (c. 1265 – 1321) tried, in Latin, to describe the relationship between Latin and the vernacular. In the centuries following his work, many authors have taken an interest in the question and tried to address it in their own way. The task of describing the evolution of Latin into modern languages is an immense one.

The purpose of this work however is not to examine the relationship between Latin and modern languages, an endeavour that proved too much even for Dante (*De vulgari eloquentia* itself is an unfinished work), or the legacy of Latin in modern languages *stricto sensu*¹, but to provide interpreters with a practical guide to some of the Latin expressions that are commonly used in English and French.

Use of Latin in speeches can represent an additional difficulty, especially because of long quotations and historical references, but one of the aims of the present work is to show that knowing some of the Latin expressions still used in modern languages could prove useful in several situations. For example, being able to quickly identify the etymology of an unknown medical word could make all the difference in an interpreter's ability to understand and consequently communicate an idea. The idea for this work grew out of our own difficulties with Latin when we encountered it and the interest fellow students have shown in a "Latin for dummies" guide that would help interpreters make their way through a Latin-studded speech.

The main body of this thesis focuses on legal Latin, medical Latin and short (two to four words) idiomatic Latin expressions or phrases which are not quotations, three areas in which an interpreter could make good use of some knowledge (Nolan, 2012, p. 262). This does not mean, however, that Latin is not present in other fields. Latin was and probably still is most present in

¹ Strictly speaking

religion (Rogersen, 2012). In the scope of this paper however, we will restrict our focus to the three sections mentioned.

Background Information

Today the English language is sometimes referred to as a *lingua franca*, with the acronym ELF, meaning English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2007, p. 1). Some go so far as to say that because English is a *lingua franca*, the profession of the interpreter is or could be endangered (Reithofer, 2011). However, English is not the first *lingua franca* that humankind has ever seen, although some argue that it is going to be the last (Ostler, 2010). Nor was it the only one; before English, Latin was a *lingua franca* in much of Europe. It then eventually evolved into several modern languages still in use today, as opposed to dead languages such as Ancient Greek and Sanskrit. Latin was also a *lingua franca* in science for a very long time, and in some cases still is. For example, in some specialised fields, such as zoology, international experts regularly refer to the Latin name for species of fish so as not to create confusion in a field in which there are numerous names for a given species (OECD, 2008).

Perhaps a good place to start is by looking at what a *lingua franca* is. One definition given for *lingua franca* is a “language which has been adopted by a speech community for such purposes as international communication, trade, or education, though only a minority of the community may use it as a mother tongue” (Crystal, 1992, p. 35).

Some academics opt for another definition: “standard language”. This is the view shared by Clackson and Horrocks:

The story of Latin in the centuries following its earliest attestations provides one of the first, and certainly one of the most important, examples of how the prestige of a ‘standard language’ and the benefits deriving from its use in the context of a rapidly expanding imperialist state cannot only put great pressure on other varieties (thereby

encouraging convergence in the direction of the norm), but also hasten the wholesale abandonment of other languages spoken by minorities within a larger political structure (2007, p. 77)

Also in this respect, a parallel can be established between Latin and English today (*ibid.*, p. 77).

Of course, *tempus fugit*² and today Latin is considered a dead language, meaning that there are no native speakers of Latin (Janson, 2004, p. 175). There are however some linguists for whom it is indeed an active language, since there are sworn translators who work into and from Latin, at least in Spain where there are no fewer than 17 listed in the country (Montero, 2011). Those are rare cases certainly and, as stated, Latin is an otherwise dead language, yet many Latin words that were borrowed unchanged are easy enough to spot in modern languages. English has taken many words from Latin, often via French, which along with Spanish and Italian, among others, is a language that developed out of Latin (Janson, 2004, p. 3).

Historical review

In order to understand the extent of the influence of Latin on our languages, we feel it is appropriate to start with a quick overview of its evolution.

The origins of Latin can be traced back to approximately 2,700 years ago (Janson, 2004, p. 6). It was the language of Rome, during the Regal Period, the Republic and the Empire, although it often coexisted with other languages, such as Greek in the East (*ibid.*, p. 45). Under Augustus, Latin was spoken in all the countries along the coasts of the *mare nostrum*³, the Mediterranean (*ibid.*, p. 44). A process of standardisation (in particular of the written language) worked in parallel to the evolution of local varieties. That is to say that Latin continued changing and it was only during the

² Time flies

³ Our sea

early Empire (first century AD) that a standardised form of Latin, of its grammar and orthography, was agreed on (Clackson & Horrocks, 2007, pp. 90-91).

And then the Empire collapsed. During the fifth century AD, it witnessed the invasions of peoples who brought along their languages, all of which were of Germanic origin, origins common to modern English, German, Dutch and the Scandinavian languages. England, for instance, was invaded by the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes, who managed to impose their language over the Celtic language, the “British” that, according to linguists, was spoken by the majority (Janson, 2004, pp. 87-88).

After the fall of the Empire, Latin did not disappear, even though its presence was not homogeneous in all geographical areas at the same time. For instance, in the British Isles Latin was still used in the seventh and eighth centuries, while in France and Italy it fell into decline (Clackson & Horrocks, 2007, p. 298). During this period, following major changes in the socio-economic situation, a collapse of the educational system occurred, which brought with it substantial linguistic changes. Because there was a lack of general education, in Europe very few people were literate. Dialects flourished, while the written form of Latin had little left in common with the spoken language. Little by little, the new languages began to be written, although in the courts, administrations and the Church, as well as in higher education and in sciences, Latin remained the only accepted language (Janson, 2004, pp. 89-90).

Influence on Modern Languages

A language that in one form or another was present for more than two millennia could not disappear without a trace. According to Stone, Latin is still commonly found in our everyday speech (1996, p. X) and this seems to be true in a number of ways. The first major influence of Latin on the languages of Western Europe is of course its alphabet (Janson, 2004, p. 12). On another level, it is hardly surprising that over the course of time all modern European languages have borrowed many

words from Latin and also from Greek via Latin, but perhaps what is surprising is the fact that many of these words were only recently adopted or “invented” by combining Latin words, Greek words, or words from both languages, such as the word television, which was formed from Greek and Latin roots, for a modern invention (*tele*, Greek for ‘far away, distant’, and *visio*, Latin for ‘sight’) (*ibid.*, p. 165).

Implications for Interpreters

One could argue that conference interpreting is already a challenging enough task, the interpreter being asked to juggle two modern languages at a time, without having the addition of a dead language such as Latin. However, speakers may choose to use Latin for different reasons, among them to impress the audience, refer to a legal concept, use a highly technical term, or just for lack of a better word or expression in plain English (or French, or whatever language the speaker happens to be using) (Nolan, 2012, pp. 262-263). Different languages are more or less prone to using Latin, and sometimes the Latin expressions that are used in one language are not the same as those used in another language (Janson, 2004, p. 168). In some cases, paradoxically, the same Latin expression used in two different modern languages has a slightly different meaning. An example is *a priori*⁴ in French and Italian: in both languages the term of art can be used as an adverb and an adjective, but only in French can it be used as a noun, meaning a preconceived idea

It was George Orwell who wrote that “Bad writers, and especially scientific, political, and sociological writers, are nearly always haunted by the notion that Latin or Greek words are grander than Saxon ones” (Orwell, 1946) hence inviting writers to opt for English words whenever possible. Not everyone however follows his advice, which is the reason for this work.

In the following chapters readers will find a compendium of some of the Latin expressions that we deem most useful. For each of the three main sections, Legal Latin, Medical Latin and

⁴ From what comes before

Everyday Expressions, a historical and theoretical overview and explanations will be provided, as well as a list of words and expressions taken from different sources and examples taken from real speeches (official transcripts will be used) specifically from English and French.

With this work, we hope to identify the Latin expressions that can be useful to interpreters whose working languages include English and French, both as passive and active languages, but not exclusively, because, as argued, Latin is a shared heritage. As our instructors and many practicing interpreters have noted, an interpreter should always be prepared for the worst. Being ready to deal with a wide range of eventualities can help, so knowing a bit of Latin, just in case it comes up in the middle of a smooth speech, could be one more trick in the interpreter's toolbox.

METHODOLOGY

In order to provide fellow interpreters with a “practical guide”, we decided to adopt a two-phase process.

First, we consulted existing sources of Latin expressions. These included dictionaries, textbooks for lawyers, lists already compiled by lawyers and/or interpreters for the legal Latin section. The six references used are *Guide to Latin in International Law* (Fellmeth, 2009), *Latin words and Phrases for Lawyers* (Datinder S. Sodhi, 1980), *Interpretation: Techniques and Exercises* (Nolan, 2012), *Black’s Law Dictionary* (Garner, 2011), *Latin for the Illiterati* (Stone, 1996) and *Adages du droit français* (Roland & Boyer, 1999). After examining these sources, we selected the expressions that appeared most often for the list. Dictionaries, specialised works and lists already compiled for students of Latin or by doctors and/or interpreters were used for the medical Latin section; they were *Introduction to Healthcare for Interpreters and Translators* (Crezee, 2013), *Greek and Latin in English Today* (Krill, 1990) and *Understanding Medical Terminology* (Frenay FSM, 1998). As for the idiomatic Latin section, priority was given to expressions present in both the English and the French monolingual dictionaries. Only the expressions included in both the Oxford Dictionary List of Foreign Words and Phrases – for English– and in the *Grand Robert de la langue française* – for French – were included. The expressions selected are then explained and a translation into English is provided whenever possible.

This choice was made because for the English and French language no list of Latin expressions classified on the basis of their frequency was found (there is one for Latin legal expressions used in Polish). The aim of the text analyses was also therefore to see if all of the terms and expressions selected were indeed found in modern speeches.

The second part is a text analysis *stricto sensu*, to verify the presence of the above-mentioned expressions in speeches given by French and English speakers respectively or, where this type of material is not publicly available, in papers that interpreters could use for their preparation. Examples taken from “real life” are provided with the references for the speeches and/or material given.

LEGAL LATIN

Why should Latin pose a problem for interpreters? More specifically, the question Gałuskina & Sycz ask is ‘Is it not a universal language that, as such, does not need translation?’ Quite the opposite is true; in particular in the field that will be examined in this chapter: law (2009, p. 9). In fact, one interpreter mentions Latin specifically as an additional problem facing interpreters at the Conference on the Law of the Sea: “the use of Latin terms which may have to be translated or left in the original, depending on legal tradition (i.e., *res judicata*, *proprio motu*, *mutatis mutandis*⁵)” (Drummond, 2000). The following pages provide an analysis of the reasons behind the potential pitfalls of legal Latin for interpreters that arise from the differences in the use of what might seem *prima facie*⁶ to be a shared heritage for the peoples of Europe.

Law is one of the few fields where Latin is still present in modern languages and where it still enjoys considerable prestige (Gałuskina & Sycz, 2013, p. 14). However, the frequency of its use varies appreciably from one language to another (Mattila, 2013, p. 174).

Types and purpose of Latinisms

In legal contexts, Latin is present in various forms and serves different purposes. In English and in Romance languages legal Latin often appears in the form of Latin expressions (this includes maxims, phrases and terms of art), whereas in other European languages a generous use of loan translations can be observed (Mattila, 2013, p. 174). In this case, modern legal languages form new words based on Latin and Greek. It also happens that words are borrowed from Greek through Latin (Janson, 2004, p. 165).

Another author, Nolan, breaks down the usage of Latin this way:

⁵ *res judicata* - A matter (already) decided, *proprio motu* - By one’s own motion, *mutatis mutandis* With the necessary changes having been made

⁶ ‘First face’ or on the face of things, at first sight

there are at least three different kinds of Latinisms:

(a) ‘assimilated’ Latinisms, which have become part of the standard lexicon in the language that has adopted them (...); (b) literary or scholarly phrases, maxims, quotations, etc., which are sometimes used not as technical terms but interspersed in a speech mainly for rhetorical effect (...); and (c) Latin expressions used as terms of art, which occur most often in the legal, medical and scientific contexts (2012, p. 262).

Legal Latin is also present unchanged, in the form of maxims, phrases and terms of art. While maxims are complete sentences, phrases are shorter and often used for stylistic purposes since they tend to have an equivalent in the given language, and lastly terms of art are those elements that are assimilated in the language and which could not be expressed otherwise (Gałuskińska & Sycz, 2013, p. 15). To illustrate the classifications, some examples might be useful. A commonly used Latin maxim is: *Breve ita dicitur, quia rem de qua agitur, et intentionem petentis, paucis verbis brevitur enarrat*, which means “A writ is called a ‘breve’ because the subject of it and the intention of the party seeking relief are told in few words” (Garner, 2011, p. 1621). As mentioned, phrases are shorter; examples of phrases are: *a priori* (in French), *bona fide*⁷, *ad hoc* (used in French, English and Italian, *inter alia*⁸), *de jure* (in classical Latin *de iure*), *de facto*, *per capita*⁹ (in Italian *pro capite*), *et cetera*. (Nolan, 2012). Some examples of terms of art are the expressions *res judicata*, *prima facie*, *quorum*, *jus sanguinis* (used in English). All the expressions not defined here or previously in the text will be discussed in greater detail and defined later in this document.

⁷ ‘With good faith’, meaning real or genuine

⁸ Among other things

⁹ ‘By heads’ or per person

Implications for interpreters

Here it is perhaps useful to analyse the direct implications this categorisation has for interpreters. With this work we would like to provide fellow interpreters with a practical guide to Latin expressions and their use in speeches. For this reason, although theoretical considerations and history are necessary to understand the broader context, a pragmatic approach will be considered equally important in this work.

One of the “myths” that surrounds Latin in multilingual contexts is that Latin elements present in a speech do not need translation. This assumption stems from several misconceptions related to Latin itself (Gałuskina & Sycz, 2013, p. 9).

First of all, those not specialised in the field or with little education in Latin may be labouring under the misconception that all legal Latin present in modern languages originates from Roman law, which was common to all the colonies under Roman rule during the Roman Empire. This is only partly true, because much of the Latin that has been introduced in modern languages was adopted only in the centuries following the collapse of the Roman Empire (*ibid.*, p. 11).

Secondly, for historical reasons, the way Roman law and therefore legal Latin was received looked quite different in the various countries that had been under Roman rule. Some tried to remove all traces of Latin from their law systems very early on (France is a good example), whereas others, such as Italy, continued to write judgements in Latin until the end of the 18th century (Mattila, 2013, p. 166).

Nolan (2012, p. 262, 263) offers practical advice on how to cope with the various types of Latinisms. He stresses that not all Latin elements potentially present in speeches should be left in Latin. Depending on the type of Latinism, the interpreter should adopt specific strategies.

Mattila (2013, p. 179-183) argues that “Latin quotations – expressions and maxims – constitute Latin’s most striking influence on modern legal languages (...). They may have three different functions: rhetoric, display function, or expressing legal concepts”. We see the desired effects as being closely related to Nolan’s three different types of Latinisms stated above.

In the first case, the aim of the speaker is to add splendour to the speech. This means that the expressions chosen might not only pertain to the specific legal language, and that the speaker might decide to opt for a learned quotation that is not relevant to the legal aspects of the case itself. Interpreters beware!

The display function of Latin can be summed up in one word: symbol. Here Latin expressions are used to symbolically link legal practice to a shared European tradition.

As for the third function, expressing legal concepts, this is of course a prerogative of the legal practice and legal science, where it is necessary to use a high degree of precision when discussing precise legal concepts. It is worth noting that in legal practice such terms are often used in countries with a common law system. Another feature of Latin terms of art is that they are used when it is felt that the term needs to be understood internationally, as we have found to be the case for fish species names within international bodies such as the OECD.

Faced with so many challenges already, what should interpreters do when they come across a Latin quotation (often unexpected)? According to Nolan (2013, p. 262, 263), there are three situations, with different possible responses on the part of the interpreter.

When the speaker chooses to use a maxim, it is often best left in Latin. In this case the Latinism is used as a stylistic device to produce a rhetorical effect on the audience. If the speaker clarifies the meaning of the Latin quotation or proverb the interpreter can translate the explanation given by the speaker, but otherwise he or she should not feel obliged to do so. Secondly, Latin phrases may or may not need to be translated because they may not be used on a daily basis in the target language, or the same expression used in two different languages might have a slightly different meaning. Thirdly, as far as terms of art are concerned, as previously argued, these often do not have a translation in the language in which they are used. In this case, it is obviously better to keep the Latin expression without trying to come up with a translation because the Latinism is used as a technical term. The interpreter should hence try to repeat it as faithfully as possible, which may not be easy because the pronunciation of Latin changes from country to country (Janson, 2004, p. 5).

Historical evolution of Latin's use in law

While it is true that Latin is often used because speakers believe that it adds prestige to their words (Gałuskina & Sycz, 2013, p. 10), it is also true that some have made a conscious, stylistic decision to oust it. In British courts Latin is virtually banned in order to enable a better understanding of the proceedings (Powell, 2011, p. 480). “There are a number of words that have no place in plain English today – except, apparently, in legal language” (Macdonald, 2006, p. 341).

One could argue that legal language is different from ordinary language and that it is therefore hardly surprising that some expressions are used in the former but not the latter. However, the movement in favour of plain English in decision writing argues for a replacement of most Latin expression with English equivalents. There are exceptions nonetheless, if only because not all Latinisms, and in particular not all Latin terms of art, have an equivalent in plain English. One example is the word *affidavit*, which cannot be replaced by any equivalent expression in English because it refers to a statement of fact subject to statutory rules that do not apply to other types of statements given under oath (*ibid.*, p. 342).

In France the push to limit Latin in judgements comes across clearly in a Ministry of Justice circular that dates back to 1977. It urges the courts to replace Latin expressions with French terms and provides a list of examples with the corresponding equivalent in French (Mattila, 2013, p. 175).

Despite this trend, common to more than one legal culture, Latin is still present both in English and French (Coulombe & Robichaud, 2006, p. 433). In order to fully understand the presence of Latinisms in different legal cultures one needs to take a step back and analyse the evolution of legal language.

“Originally, legal Latin came from Roman law” (Mattila, 2013, p. 161). It is however a mistake to infer that all Latin expressions found in modern languages originate exclusively from Roman law, the *jus commune* (Gałuskina & Sycz, 2013, p. 10). It is certainly true that Roman law

has had a major influence on legal systems in Europe, even beyond continental Europe, its influence having reached the Nordic countries as well (Mattila, 2013, p. 174). In this work the influence of Roman law on modern legal systems will not be discussed, since the focus is linguistic matters. On the other hand, it is obvious that Roman law was written in Latin and that the *jus commune* was indeed meant to be just that, “common” to all (*res ipsa loquitur!*¹⁰).

However “all legal systems develop certain linguistic features that differ from those of ordinary language” (Tiersma & Solan, 2012, p. 13), which can add to the difficulty of tracing the evolution of different legal languages in countries that were occupied by the Romans and shared Roman law. Over the course of time, these countries developed their own “ordinary language”, but they also developed their own legal language.

During the centuries of the Empire, Latin was not the first language of all the peoples who lived in the countries dominated by the Romans. In the Eastern part of the Empire, Greek was the *lingua franca par excellence*, enjoying a higher status than that of Latin. With the collapse of the Roman Empire, the countries once dominated by the Romans underwent major changes: the educational system declined and the western territories witnessed the arrival of Germanic tribes, which brought along their own languages. Gradually, written Latin and spoken Latin started to diverge (Janson, 2004, p. 88). Latin did not disappear though: it was kept alive by the Catholic Church. Latin therefore maintained its status as the language of written culture, be it legal, religious or scientific (Mattila, 2013, p. 163).

However, as very few people were able to read and write, the status of written Latin had no major influence on spoken languages. Between the sixth and the 11th centuries they changed very quickly, due to low mobility and widespread illiteracy (Janson, 2004, p. 89). It is interesting to note that at that time these languages were never used to write, and Latin remained the only written language for a long time, although it was often, according to Mattila, of poor quality. It was only after

¹⁰ The thing speaks for itself

the Carolingian renaissance (late eighth century) that written Latin rose to its old splendour again. But Latin itself had undergone transformations and started to move closer to spoken languages (Mattila, 2013, p. 163).

The first of those spoken languages to be written down was the language spoken in northern France in the 11th century, which evolved into modern French. Two centuries later the peoples living in Spain and Italy followed, but eventually all Romance languages acquired a written form (Janson, 2004, p. 92).

In the legal context, French started to replace Latin during the 13th century and gradually became the language of international diplomacy in Europe, particularly in the 18th and 19th centuries. It is perhaps worth noting that since the Middle Ages, legislators have tried to express the law in a language that the people could understand (Tiersma & Solan, 2012, p. 18), although some say with questionable results (Clackson & Horrocks, 2007, p. 480).

Here a brief literary digression is perhaps suitable. Already in 1842, in his masterpiece *I Promessi sposi* (The Betrothed), Alessandro Manzoni expressed his negative stand on the (mis)use of legal Latin with a clear intent to confuse. In particular, in the second chapter of the book the male protagonist, Renzo, exasperated by the complicated formulas used by don Abbondio, who uses Latin to give an explanation without revealing his real reasons for impeding Renzo's wedding, replies: "*Che vuol ch'io faccia del suo latinorum?*"¹¹. Here Manzoni, by purposefully having Renzo use the wrong case, a genitive plural instead of a nominative singular, is implying that Latin is used in order to take advantage of the illiterate peasant (Corbari, 2013, p. 6).

Leaving novels aside, in northern France, the struggle for emancipation from Latin began very early in the Middle Ages: in the 13th century French was already used in administrative and legal texts. The same was true for courts of law: the royal court of Paris favoured French over Latin from the beginning of its activities. Also the Decree of Villers-Cotterêts, promulgated in 1539, stated that

¹¹ What am I supposed to do with all your *latinorum*? [our translation]

French should be the only language to be used for legal acts. Its aim was not only to eradicate Latin, but also any language other than French. The situation in what is now the southern part of France, however, was completely different; there, Latin remained the language of the administration until the 17th century (Mattila, 2013, pp. 237-239).

In the British Isles the move away from Latin followed a different pattern, due to the region's unique history. There, thanks mainly to Catholic religious orders, education in Latin spread and brought the language to territories that had never been part of the Roman Empire, such as Ireland. In the eighth century, Latin was still very much in vogue and the works from that period, according to Janson's assessment (2004, p. 97), are of excellent quality. But beginning in the late eighth century, attacks from Scandinavian warriors became more frequent, targeting churches and monasteries and putting an end to the learning of Latin, although at the end of the 10th century, thanks to a reform in the Church, Latin experienced a revival. Yet for centuries, English and Latin coexisted. That is, until French made its entrance. After the Battle of Hastings in 1066 and the Norman conquest, three different languages were used in Britain: Latin, which retained a privileged status; French, used by the elite; and English, which was relegated to the lower classes and was not used as a written language for two centuries (Janson, 2004, pp. 97-98). The English legal profession hence can be described as having developed in a context of "legal trilingualism" (Tiersma, 1999, pp. 33-34).

But the linguistic changes were not the only major developments in the legal system at this time; the origins of the common law system also date back to this period (Mattila, 2013, p. 306). Some (Tiersma & Solan, 2012, p. 13) argue that Roman law had little influence in England, but a large number of words of Latin origin were nonetheless taken into the language (Mattila, 2013, p. 306).

In the 13th century Latin was still the dominant language. The *Magna Carta* was written in Latin in 1215. This apparently proved problematic for current Prime Minister David Cameron, who

could not give a literal translation of *Magna Carta* when asked by David Letterman during his well-known television show¹².

Around the year 1300 French partially replaced Latin in government, to be replaced by English only at the end of the 15th century. It is hence easy to infer that the influence of French on legal English has been a major one. This work cannot address the impact of French on English legal language, but it is interesting to note that, despite French's influence on English, often the Latin expressions that are commonly used in English and French are different (Clackson & Horrocks, 2007, p. 21).

The decline in the use of French and Latin for legal purposes in England is only observed from the 14th century on, with a decree (in French!) that urged judges to use English, and “the status of French (and Latin) as a judicial language was only finally abolished in 1731” (Mattila, 2013, p. 312).

Latin in modern legal languages today

How is Latin present in legal English today? According to Mattila “Latin is in evidence everywhere in legal English” (2013, p. 307). Although efforts have been made in different eras, from the decree mentioned above to Britain's modern-day local governments (as we will discuss in greater detail in the everyday Latin section), to remove Latin from legal texts and procedures, it seems that not everything can be “translated” (Galuskina & Sycz, 2013, p. 14). The Common law system is based on precedents. It is no coincidence then that many Latin expressions used in English refer to the process of formulating legal rules on the basis of prior cases (e.g.: *stare decisis*¹³) (Mattila, 2013, p. 314).

¹² For further information, see <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/politics/9571852/David-Camerons-ignorance-over-Magna-Charta-and-Rule-Britannia-exposed.html>

¹³ Stand by things decided

Although the decline in the use of Latin maxims and phrases over the last few centuries is undeniable, Latin is still very much alive, as confirm the studies conducted by Mattila (2013, p. 314). In Italy, for instance, not only have Latin expressions traditionally been fashionable, it appears that new Latinisms are created whenever possible, including in the legal context (Marucci, 2014). This is an example of the genesis of new words based on Latin models. Since 1993 Italy has produced no less than four electoral laws: the *Mattarellum*, the law that was in force from 1993 to 2001, which was renamed for its author, Sergio Mattarella, by the political analyst Giovanni Sartori. In 1995 an electoral law for the regions was taken into consideration, this time called the *Tatarellum* after the name of its author Pinuccio Tatarella. Then came Roberto Calderoli, of the Northern League, who did not hesitate to describe his own law as “una porcata”¹⁴. The law became known as the *Porcellum*. And today the bill resulting from the agreement between Italy’s new Prime Minister, Matteo Renzi, and Italy’s former Prime Minister, Silvio Berlusconi, is referred to as the *Italicum*. But it is not only for electoral laws that Italians love to use Latin: in the Italian Parliament Latin expressions are used for everything. *Ad personam*, *Cicero pro domo sua, cui prodest*¹⁵ at least exist in Latin, but what can one say about one of the newest neologisms, *ad aziendam*¹⁶ (referring to laws, which cannot only be *ad personam* but apparently also *ad aziendam*)?

There is little doubt that Latin is no longer an active language for interpreters; no AIIC interpreters include it in their combination¹⁷ and even a linguist recently awarded the title of a sworn Latin translator admits that it is largely an “honorific” title (Montero, 2011). Still, it is undeniable that the language “has left important traces in modern legal languages” (Mattila, 2013, p. 173).

¹⁴ “Hogwash”, our translation, with an attempt to preserve the play on words.

¹⁵ *ad personam* – to the person, meaning ‘on an individual basis’; *Cicero pro domo sua* – for Cicero’s [one’s] own benefit; *cui prodest* – to whose advantage.

¹⁶ Such laws would be ones that favour one company in particular, the term being created from the Italian word for company, *azienda*.

¹⁷ See aiic.net

Methodology – Legal Latin

The introduction to this section was devoted to a short historical and theoretical background. What follows is a “practical guide” to legal Latin as present in modern English and French legal language.

The following list of twenty Latin expressions – five maxims, ten phrases, five terms of art – represents a sample of some Latinisms that an interpreter might come upon when interpreting. Six sources were used: *Guide to Latin in International Law* (Fellmeth, 2009), *Latin words and Phrases for Lawyers* (Datinder S. Sodhi, 1980), *Interpretation: Techniques and Exercises* (Nolan, 2012), *Black’s Law Dictionary* (Garner, 2011), *Latin for the Illiterati* (Stone, 1996) and *Adages du droit français* (Roland & Boyer, 1999). The expressions that recurred most frequently in these sources were included in the list, which is presented in the form of a table, with the sources where they were cited, and a translation or definition (for the terms of art) taken from *Black’s Law Dictionary*. When not available there, an alternative source has been used for the definition. The third and final part of this section on Latin in French and English legal language consists of an analysis aimed at verifying the presence of the selected expressions in speeches deemed useful for interpreters’ preparation for this field taken from the database of the European Court of Justice, EUR-lex¹⁸.

We chose the EUR-lex database out of many possibilities for several reasons. It is a reliable source of law and legal publications, it is a multilingual website and it offers one of the vastest, if not the vastest, databases of transcripts of legal speeches. Moreover, most of the documents and speeches are available in several languages and in some cases in all the official languages of the European Union.

For each expression the number of results in both English and French in the EUR-lex database is indicated and at least one example taken from a speech is provided. Translation of the expression into other languages is also mentioned.

¹⁸ <http://new.eur-lex.europa.eu/homepage.html>

Table 1 Legal Latin Expressions

EXPRESSIONS	SOURCES	TRANSLATION) ¹⁹
MAXIMS		
<i>Ignorantia legis/juris non/neminem excusat</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Roland&Boyer, Sodhi, Stone	Ignorance of law excuses no one (commonly rendered in English as <i>Ignorance of the law is no excuse</i>)
<i>Pacta sunt servanda</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Roland&Boyer, Stone	Agreements must be kept
<i>Res ipsa loquitur</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Roland&Boyer, Sodhi, Stone	The thing speaks for itself
<i>Ubi lex non distinguit, nec nos distinguere debemus</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Roland&Boyer	Where law does not distinguish, we ought not to distinguish
<i>Si (vis) pacem, para bellum</i>	Fellmeth&Horwitz, Stone	If you want peace, prepare for war ²⁰
PHRASES		
<i>Ad hoc</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Sodhi, Stone	for this
<i>De facto/de jure</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Sodhi, Stone	1. Actual, existing in fact, 2. Illegitimate but in effect /[Law Latin “as a matter of law”] Existing by right or according to law
<i>Res judicata</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Sodhi, Stone,	a thing adjudicated
<i>Sine qua non</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Sodhi, Stone	without which not
<i>Sui generis</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Sodhi, Stone	of its own kind
<i>A priori/a posteriori</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Stone	from what is before/ from what comes after
<i>Pro forma</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Sodhi, Stone	for form

¹⁹ All the definitions are taken from Black’s Law Dictionary, ed. Garner, unless otherwise indicated.

²⁰ This definition was taken from Fellmeth&Horwitz

<i>Sub judice (iudice)</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Sodhi, Stone	under a judge
<i>A fortiori</i>	Garner, Nolan, Stone	by even greater force of logic
<i>Ceteris paribus</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Stone	other things being equal
TERMS OF ART		DEFINITION
<i>Caveat</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Nolan, Sodhi	let him or her beware
<i>Certiorari</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Sodhi, Stone	to be more fully informed
<i>Status quo</i>	Garner, Fellmeth&Horwitz, Sodhi, Stone	the situation that currently exists
<i>Habeas corpus</i>	Garner, Nolan, Sodhi, Stone	Law Latin “that you have the body”; a writ employed to bring a person before a court, most frequently to ensure that the party’s imprisonment or detention is not illegal.
<i>Affidavit</i>	Garner	a voluntary declaration of facts written down and sworn to by the declarant before an official authorised to administer oaths

Table 2 Occurrences of Legal Latin expressions in court hearings

EXPRESSIONS	N° of OCCURRENCES on EUR-lex	EXAMPLE	TRANSLATION
MAXIMS			
<i>Ignorantia legis/juris non/neminem excusat</i>	2 (both in Advocate General's Opinion)	<p>“As Advocate General Tizzano rightly states in point 77 of his Opinion in Case C-551/03 P <i>General Motors v Commission</i> [2006] ECR I-3173, parties also cannot rely on the fact that they were not aware of the prohibition in Article 81(1) EC (<i>ignorantia legis non excusat</i>).”</p> <p>(Competition Authority v Beef Industry Development Society Ltd and Barry Brothers (Carrigmore) Meats Ltd. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Supreme Court - Ireland., 2008, p. Note 21)</p>	The maxim is present in the original speech, which was given in German, and in the English and French versions.
<i>Pacta sunt servanda</i>	73 (26 Advocate General's Opinion)	<p>“Inasmuch as, under the first paragraph of Article 351 TFEU, EU law recognises such existing treaties between Member States and third countries, it takes account of the <i>pacta sunt servanda</i> principle of international law.” (Air Transport Association of America and Others v Secretary of State for Energy and Climate Change. Reference for a preliminary ruling: High Court of Justice (England & Wales), Queen's Bench Division (Administrative</p>	The maxim is present in the original speech, which was given in German, and in the English and French versions.

		Court) - United Kingdom., 2011, p. ¶ 56)	
<i>Res ipsa loquitur</i>	2 (both in Advocate General's Opinion)	“Obviously, those well-known facts require no verification whatsoever, the onus of proof being on the person wishing to refute them, in keeping with the adage <i>res ipsa loquitur</i> .” (August Storck KG v Office for Harmonisation in the Internal Market (Trade Marks and Designs) (OHIM) Appeal - Community trade mark - Article 7(1)(b) and (3) of Regulation (EC) No 40/94, 2006, p. ¶ 64)	The maxim is present in the original speech, which was given in Spanish, and in the English and French versions.
<i>Ubi lex non distinguit, nec nos distinguere debemus</i>	6 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“Pursuant to the wording of Article 4(1)(a) of Directive 87/344, the right to choose is indeed restricted to inquiries or proceedings. But within that limitation no exception in the case of mass tort cases is discernible. Under the principle <i>ubi lex non distinguit, nec nos distinguere debemus</i> , the wording of Article 4(1)(a) of Directive 87/344 thus militates against a differentiation between mass tort cases and other cases. The wording of Article 4(1)(a) of Directive 87/344 therefore does not permit a mass torts clause that gives the legal expenses insurer and not the person with legal expenses insurance the right to choose the legal representative.” (Erhard Eschig v UNIQA	The maxim is present in the original speech, which was given in German, and in the English and French versions.

		Sachversicherung AG. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Oberster Gerichtshof - Austria, 2009, p. ¶ 49)	
<i>Si (vis) pacem, para bellum</i>	1 (Advocate General's Opinion)	"I disagree with the maxim <i>si vis pacem para bellum</i> , despite the attempt by Cervantes, for whom I have great admiration, to redeem it in the form of a burlesque slip of the tongue from the mouth of Don Quixote: 'Away with those who say that Letters [laws] have the advantage over Arms. For I will tell them that they do not know what they are saying, whoever they are ... [the] aim and object [of Arms] is peace, the greatest good which men can desire in this life.'" (European Commission v Republic of Finland., 2009, p. Note 7)	The maxim is present in the original speech, which was given in Spanish, and in the English and French versions.
PHRASES			
<i>Ad hoc</i>	8841 (251 Advocate General's Opinion)	"On the one hand, Ms Prete applied for a benefit intended to assist young persons in gaining entry to the labour market, which means that her situation could be classified as that of a job seeker. On the other hand, according to the documents before the Court, Ms Prete worked before applying for the tideover allowance, albeit on an extremely short-term and ad hoc basis." (Déborah Prete v Office national de l'emploi. Reference for a preliminary	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in Spanish, and in the English and French versions.

		ruling: Cour de cassation - Belgium, 2012, p. ¶ 21)	
<i>De facto/de jure</i>	691 (de facto) + 129 (de jure) + 91 (both) (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“Article 5 of the Sixth VAT Directive refers to rights to dispose of tangible property as owner, and Article 5(3) lists what is to be considered as tangible property, including shares or interests equivalent in shares giving the holder <i>de jure</i> or <i>de facto</i> rights of ownership or possession over immovable property or part thereof.” (Skandinaviska Enskilda Banken AB Momsgrupp v Skatteverket. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Regeringsrätten - Sweden, 2010, p. Note 3)	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version.
<i>Res judicata</i>	163 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“The Regulation does not interfere with the procedural autonomy of the Member States, including the principle of <i>res judicata</i> .” (Salzgitter Mannesmann Handel GmbH v SC Laminorul SA. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Bundesgerichtshof - Germany, 2013, p. ¶ 44)	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version.
<i>Sine qua non</i>	62 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“The other two interveners submit, albeit without suggesting an alternative, that Article 15 is not applicable on the facts of the case, essentially arguing that the sending of the prize notification was not followed by the formation of a contract for	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in Italian, and in the English and French versions.

		consideration, which was the condition <i>sine qua non</i> for the application of the provision in question.” (Rosmarie Kapferer v Schlank & Schick GmbH. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Landesgericht Innsbruck - Austria, 2005, p. ¶ 40)	
<i>Sui generis</i>	94 (all in Advocate General’s Opinion)	“Article 7 concerns the composition of the judicial formations of the Elegktiko Sinedrio. Under Article 7(1), it can sit in plenary formation, in sections or in ‘klimakia’ (which would appear to be <i>sui generis</i> formations having both judicial and administrative functions).” (Epitropos tou Elegktikou Synedriou sto Ypourgeio Politismou kai Tourismou v Ypourgeio Politismou kai Tourismou - Ypiresia Dimosionomikou Elenchou. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Elegktiko Synedrio - Greece, 2012, p. ¶ 14)	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version.
<i>A priori/a posteriori</i>	416 (a priori) + 130 (a posteriori) + 24 (both) (all in Advocate General’s Opinion)	“The review to be carried out by the Tribunal Constitucional is comparable to that which a constitutional court may carry out in an a priori review of constitutionality of a law transposing Framework Decision 2009/299.” “It is clear that, if a Member State were to invoke, <i>a posteriori</i> , the retention of its higher level of	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in French, and in the English version.

		protection, the effect would be to upset the balance achieved by the European Union legislature and therefore to jeopardise the application of European Union law.” (Stefano Melloni v Ministerio Fiscal, 2012, pp. ¶¶ 49, 125)	
<i>Pro forma</i>	624 (23 Advocate General’s Opinion)	“As regards the principle of effectiveness, it seems to me that compliance with a two-stage procedure clearly set out in national legislation is not in itself likely to give rise to excessive difficulty, provided that (i) an initial ‘ <i>pro forma</i> ’ request can be made without such difficulty within the possibly brief period between the receipt of an order for goods that have already been released for consumption and subsequent dispatch of those goods to another Member State and that (ii) any relevant supporting documentation may be supplied later.” (Scandic Distilleries SA v Direcția Generală de Administrare a Marilor Contribuabili. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Curtea de Apel Oradea - Romania, 2013, p. ¶ 49)	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version.
<i>Sub judice (iudice)</i>	15 + 3 (all in Advocate General’s Opinion)	“Therefore, if the Rechtbank had doubts regarding the validity of the decision and, furthermore,	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in

		noted that the decision is <i>sub iudice</i> before the Courts of the Union, staying the national proceedings would avoid any risk of conflict between the decisions given by the Courts of the Union and the Belgian court.” (Europese Gemeenschap v Otis NV and Others. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Rechtbank van koophandel Brussel - Belgium, 2012, p. ¶ 52)	Spanish, and in the English version. In the French version, however, the expression has been translated into French: “devant les juridictions”
<i>A fortiori</i>	2408 (914 Advocate General’s Opinion)	“In the absence of such evidence, either through omission on the part of the recipients or, <i>a fortiori</i> , by design on their part, the authorities can legitimately conclude that the assistance in question was wrongly received and, in consequence, order its recovery.” (Syndicat OP 84 v Établissement national des produits de l’agriculture et de la mer (FranceAgriMer). Reference for a preliminary ruling: Conseil d’État - France, 2013, p. ¶ 61)	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in French, and in the English version.
<i>Ceteris paribus</i>	2 (both in Advocate General’s Opinion)	“That is a first point in favour of examining the question in the light of the provisions of the Charter rather than in relation to those of the ECHR, <i>ceteris paribus</i> .” (Scarlet Extended SA v Société belge des auteurs, compositeurs et éditeurs SCRL (SABAM). Reference for a preliminary ruling: Cour d’appel	The phrase is present in the original speech, which was given in French, and in the English version.

		de Bruxelles - Belgium, 2011, p. ¶ 30)	
TERMS OF ART			¶
<i>Caveat</i>	32 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“If that is the case, in accordance with the first paragraph of Article 6, the Member State responsible for examining the application will be that where a member of the minor's family is resident, although the provision is qualified by an important <i>caveat</i> ²¹ , that is, ‘provided that this is in the best interest of the minor’.” (The Queen, on the application of MA and Others v Secretary of State for the Home Department. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Court of Appeal (England & Wales) (Civil Division) - United Kingdom, 2013, p. ¶ 60)	The term of art is present in the original speech, which was given in Spanish, and in the English version. In the French version, however, the expression has been translated into French: “cette disposition comportant toutefois une nuance importance”
<i>Certiorari</i>	9 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“Judicial-review proceedings were then brought before the national court for an order of <i>certiorari</i> to quash the competent authority's decision in regard to penalties and for damages.” (The Queen v Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, ex parte Trevor Robert Fisher and Penny Fisher. Reference for a preliminary ruling: High Court of Justice (England & Wales), Queen's Bench Division	The term of art is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version.

²¹ Italics ours for all 5 terms of art.

		(Divisional Court) - United Kingdom, 2000, pp. ¶ III, 20)	
<i>Statu(s) quo</i>	152 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“The fact that the project makes no change to the overall character of the zone, as a mixed-use area which will inevitably remain a mixed-use area for some time to come, and the fact that Merck will not have to take any more stringent safety measures if it is carried out, would appear to indicate that the project is at least compatible with the <i>status quo</i> .” (Land Hessen v Franz Mücksch OHG. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Bundesverwaltungsgericht - Germany, 2011, p. ¶ 49)	The term of art is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version (<i>statu quo</i>).
<i>Habeas corpus</i>	1 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“In particular, the Royal Charter of Elizabeth I of 1559 confirmed the exclusive jurisdiction of the Royal Court of Jersey (save in cases of <i>habeas corpus</i> and treason).” (Rui Alberto Pereira Roque v His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor of Jersey. Reference for a preliminary ruling: Royal Court of Jersey - Channel Islands, 1997, p. Conclusions 7)	The term of art is present in the original speech, which was given in English, and in the French version.
<i>Affidavit</i>	15 (all in Advocate General's Opinion)	“In an <i>affidavit</i> subsequently presented to the High Court, an official of the Central Authority for England and Wales stated that it was not the competent authority for the purposes of Article 56 and that there was no one competent	The term of art is not present in the original speech, which was given in German, nor in the French version (déclaration sur l'honneur). It is only

		authority for the purposes of the Regulation.” (Health Service Executive v S.C. and A.C.. Reference for a preliminary ruling: High Court - Ireland, 2012, p. ¶ 26)	present in the English version.
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Conclusions from legal corpus analysis

This text analysis has shown that:

- all selected expressions were found at least once in the EUR-lex database of speech transcripts (Advocate General's Opinions), listed in the second column of the table. For all expressions, the first number refers to the total number of entries in the entire EUR-lex database and in parentheses the number of times it is found in Advocate General's Opinions is mentioned;

- the frequency of the expressions present in the various dictionaries and lists of expressions intended for interpreters and/or lawyers that were consulted in order to draw up the initial list was not always matched by how common they were in legal speeches. For example, the maxim *Ignorantia legis/juris non/neminem excusat*, which was listed in its various forms (either with *legis* or *juris* and *non* or *neminem*) in all six sources, appeared only twice in actual speeches, whereas the second maxim, *Pacta sunt servanda*, which was found in five of six sources, appeared 73 times in actual speeches taken from the EUR-lex database;

- in general, the results have shown that the most frequently used Latinisms are phrases. Terms of art are the second most commonly used and maxims third. This can be explained by the fact that maxims are mainly used for rhetorical purposes. They are therefore employed when the speaker wishes to make his speech, and himself, appear more prestigious, rather than serving strictly "practical" purposes. In other words, they could often be considered non-essential information. As for the terms of art, we feel that they refer to very specific legal concepts and therefore are less frequently used than phrases, the latter being used for more generic concepts applying to broader fields. *Ad hoc*, for example, was found a staggering 8841 times, but it can be assumed that this wide use is because the expression is not only used in strictly legal discourses/contexts.

- it is also worth noting that most often the expressions were transposed in the other languages, with the only exception being the translations into French, which in three cases out of a sample of twenty expressions preferred a translation into French (one phrase and two terms of art). As for the maxims, all five maxims were maintained in all of the languages.

On the basis of this analysis, we believe that in most cases an interpreter can afford to maintain the Latinism present in the source language, if he or she is sure of having heard it correctly (Nolan, 2012, p. 263). However, if the interpreter has doubts as to whether the expression is used in the target language and is able to translate it, the best option would be to choose an equivalent in the target language.

MEDICAL LATIN

Latin as encountered in Science

The use of Latin in the legal world, as discussed in the previous section, serves a variety of purposes, from evoking the most specific legal meaning in a precise situation, to simply impressing one's audience. However, Latin is not only present in the courts and lawyers' offices. Another professional field we have chosen to focus on where interpreters will encounter Latin is science, and medicine in particular. The form it takes differs from that of legal Latin as the usage found does not seem to break down into categories similar to those listed by Nolan (2012, p. 262). The difficulties for interpreters in this field are different as well, and therefore the strategies they choose to put in place to overcome these difficulties may and perhaps should differ, too.

When interpreting, the use of Latin in medicine may not be immediately obvious, unlike borrowed maxims and phrases found as rhetorical devices in less specialised speeches, which stand out as being a foreign tongue, in print because italicised and in spoken language for their different sound. The language however could be said to be more ubiquitous, in one way; because it is found in the terminology used by the medical profession. It lies behind the names for the parts of the human body, its functioning and malfunctioning, the descriptions of symptoms and sensations that patients experience and in the nomenclature of diseases and illnesses affecting them. Quite simply, Latin²² forms the basis of the medical science tradition (Ruiz Rosendo, 2009, p. 41), and this is true across many languages, Western or European languages to generalise. Science then is another field where many languages can claim a shared legacy in Latin. To illustrate its prevalence, the standard reference dictionaries for a French medical student include some 20,000 words and they are for the most part formed from these roots. Exact percentages vary depending on the statistics used and classes of words

²² This analysis includes Greek, as adopted into Latin, having undergone a process of "Latinisation" affecting spelling and accent (Krill, 1990, p. 22)

included or excluded, such as acronyms and eponyms, but range between 60 and 80% (Landrивon, 2000, p. 2).

Historical background

As already mentioned and known to most readers who have studied languages, French, Spanish and several other languages evolved from Latin. These shared roots imply shared heritage and certainly shared linguistic elements among these languages; they can also make learning a foreign tongue in the same language family easier. If these languages and medical terminology all find their sources in Latin, it might follow rationally that native speakers or students of Romance languages already know the vocabulary employed by doctors and medical specialists. But is this the case?

A phenomenon not yet examined in depth in our analysis of Latin and its influence on modern Western languages is the variety that existed within the Latin language itself. Between the second century BC and the first century AD, as Roman control of what is today Italy spread to include Carthage, North Africa, Greece and the northern and western Mediterranean coasts, Roman armies brought their language with them (Lodge, 1997, p. 49). However, their language was not the unified, immutable Latin used at the time by the Empire's leaders and scholars and still praised today by some, such as Landrивon (2000, p. 4) for being particularly suited by its logical construction and clarity for scientific usage, and still used in forming new scientific and medical terms. The latter, Classical Latin, with notable authors including Cicero, Virgil and Ovid among others, was the refined, literary, standardised form of the language which prevailed in scholarship and was taken as the model for learning the language, even almost up until the modern day. Interestingly, despite being "conservative" in its syntax, it was this form of Latin that in its vocabulary borrowed so much from Greek (Lodge, 1997, p. 51). Having conquered the Greeks, the Romans, impressed with the conquered people's science and learning, borrowed both the knowledge itself and lexicon to describe it (Landrивon, 2000, p. 4).

As has often been pointed out among those learning the language, English is a Germanic language with a high percentage of vocabulary from Latin roots, due to French influence from marriages of alliance made between the kings of England and French ladies exclusively for over three centuries (Walter, 2001, p. 89). The resulting influence of French at court meant that different registers of language in Medieval England drew from different sources because the two languages were reserved for different purposes and domains. Words of Germanic origins comprise terms for dealing with common objects: house, hand, shoe. Philosophical or political realms abound in Latinate terms: democracy, liberty, election. A certain diglossia even covered the names for a single animal, depending on how the speaker encountered it; if it was a part of one's farm, a living animal that was cared for by a farmer, it was a sheep, a cow, or a pig, while if it was the food on one's plate, it was referred to by words borrowed from French, mutton, beef, or pork (Walter, 2001, p. 102).

Predating this example, a similar dichotomy existed in Latin, where the language spoken by the people, the language that the aforementioned Roman armies, quite literally the foot soldiers of Roman culture, brought to colonies around the Mediterranean, referred to as Common Latin, Vulgar Latin, or Popular Latin, differed from the language spoken by the governing elite. There were further differences due to regional influences and the setting in which the language was spoken, either urban or rural, and this gave rise to the notions used by classical rhetoricians themselves: *sermo* (meaning speech) *urbanis*, *sermo rusticus*, *sermo plebeius*, and *sermo vulgaris*. These forms of Latin seem to exhibit as much variability and mutability as any other language studied (Lodge, 1997, p. 54) and Cicero noted both that he himself was capable of varying the style and form of his language, employing Latin very differently in his private letters and in his public speeches (Bertrand, 2008, p. 16), and also that a Spanish "accent" due to regional differences was noticeable, among even the most learned speakers (Lodge, 1997, p. 55).

Quite simply, these variations in Latin account, not only for the differences between Romance languages, indeed the fact that they are today different languages (Bertrand, 2008, p. 15), they also explain the existence of different vocables within a single Romance language. Bertrand's work

includes a longer table, but by way of illustration, here we will simply give a couple examples cited by him. Where Classical Latin used *equus* to designate a horse, Popular Latin used *caballus*. These two terms gave in French the common word *cheval* (first attested use in 11th century) as well as the more scientific horsemanship-related words *équestre* or *équitation* (first attested use in the 14th and 16th centuries, respectively). Another example is the multiple words for fire and their derivatives; where Popular Latin used *focus*, Classical Latin used *ignis*. These yielded *feu* (first attested use 11th century) to refer to fire in everyday French and *ignition* (14th century) or *ignifuge* (19th century) for more complex, scientific concepts.

This two-tier influence of Latin on French, from different sources and at different times, explains the variation of Latin roots between different registers. The majority of the French lexicon dates back to Popular Latin, a mutation of which over the course of several hundred years, from the third to the ninth century AD yielded the French language (Bertrand, 2008, p. 20). Classical Latin of course did influence the language as well, but through different channels and at a later time. Terms from Classical Latin have been especially directly borrowed into French for specialised language (Bertrand, 2008, p. 21).

The preference for Classical Latin is clear even in much later scientific use in other languages, too. To return to one linguistic dichotomy cited by Bertrand, in the English language, the adjective *igneous*, in its first attested use meaning “resulting from or produced by fire; esp. in Geol.” dates to the late 17th century (definition and usage given by the Oxford English Dictionary), long after the collapse of the Roman Empire and the natural influence of Latin through cohabitation of peoples could have affected English.

As concerns French scientific terms, the first book on health regimens and diet, the basis of healthcare and medical science at the time, to be written in French was the *Régime du corps* by Aldobrandino of Siena, in the mid-13th century. His text relies heavily on medical knowledge from various sources, even Arabic, but always through their Latin translation (Hunt, 2011, p. 12). While this text was entirely in French, it is interesting to note that scholars see “code-mixing”, changing

back and forth between two languages, frequently in medical texts of the time (Hunt's "Code-Switching in Medical Texts" in *Multilingualism in Later Medieval Britain* ed. D. A. Trotter cited in (Hunt, 2011, p. 18)), which could indicate further influence of one language on the other. This was consistent with the status that Latin had acquired by the Middle Ages in Europe as the language of "writing, culture, knowledge and power" (Lodge, 1997, p. 160).

It is this dual influence that explains the breadth of the lexicon and differences between everyday usage and scientific terminology (Ruiz Rosendo, 2009, p. 42). In our opinion, it also helps explain why simply speaking a Romance language does not mean a speaker, or in the case that interests us, an interpreter, would know all the roots that go into modern medical vocabulary without significant study. Instead the knowledge contained within terms and vocabulary in the medical and scientific fields may appear rather "hermetic" to laypeople (Landrивon, 2000, p. 2). It does however follow some clear rules, and while medical students may choose to learn terms only by rote memory rather than becoming scholars of Ancient Greek and Latin at the same time as they earn their medical degree, they have a solid basis for the former after their long years of study for the latter (Landrивon, 2000, p. 6). Better yet, Landrивon suggests learning with understanding rather than simply memorising interminable lists of vocabulary, and although it is a recommendation for medical students, we believe that interpreters would also do well to adopt this approach when preparing for medical or scientific subjects. This is the idea behind the first Medical Latin table below and other similar resources.

Application Today

In examining Latin's use in medical discourse, it seems to us that to be most useful as a guide for interpreters, it is best to take an approach that differs somewhat from the analyses on legal and everyday Latin. Bouché likens the process of medical terminology construction to a game of Legos, with suffixes and prefixes added together to arrive at a term that in the sum of its parts describes a

particular illness or condition (1994 p. 10). If they are constructed like building blocks, they can just as easily be deconstructed; the scientific medical term can be broken down into its roots to be better understood. This technique could be useful for terminology preparation prior to a conference, learning with understanding rather than simply learning words by heart. In our own experience in fields both scientific and non-scientific, a deeper general comprehension stands you in better stead than simply knowing the ‘right’ words. This will allow interpreters to understand the term used in the source language.

Despite proper preparation, unexpected terms do and will come up in speeches, and here, too, we feel that some basic notions of Latin can be of service. An interpreter with knowledge of roots and suffixes carefully recorded in the on-board glossary (the human brain) is more ready in general for the unexpected and more prepared to learn ‘on the fly’. If a speaker at a conference on head trauma happens to use the term “oliguria” in describing a patient’s symptoms, a term which was unfortunately not included in the related documents and did not figure in the interpreter’s prior research and preparation, an interpreter with some knowledge of Latin roots could deconstruct the term into its roots *olig(o)* meaning ‘few’ and *uria* referring to urine, QED²³ *oliguria*: passing little urine. First, he or she would therefore have a very good guess at how to interpret it into the given target language in many instances, because the same roots are used, as noted, across many languages, merely slightly adapted in spelling, endings and pronunciation (Ruiz Rosendo, 2009, p. 41). At the very least, or depending on one’s view on the matter, even more importantly, the interpreter can decipher the meaning behind the name of the symptom and will not be surprised should the speaker, in describing this particular case, proceed to go into more detail about the patient’s bathroom habits.

This strategy can be used in the heat of the action, when there is no time to use a dictionary. In a small booth while interpreting a difficult topic, referring to paper or more technological resources combined with active simultaneous interpretation may consume too much time and mental capacity

²³ QED, quod erat demonstrandum, ‘which has to be shown or proved’

to be a viable option.. Having alternate resources and strategies at your disposal in the booth seems to us like a wise idea.

Methodology- Medical Latin

The intention in providing this table is not to give readers a comprehensive list of Latin nouns, prefixes and suffixes including every obscure Latinate and that they can refer to exclusively. On the other hand, like René Pinhas, an AIIC-member and interpreter who has written two articles on medical terms intended as references for his colleagues (Pinhas, 1998), we do not want to take our readers for fools and have therefore left out the most basic etymologies that are assumed to be common knowledge for someone with the higher education required of interpreters (*ante-* before; *cranio* – skull). This list is intended to serve as an illustration of the naming system described and to show how understanding the roots used makes it possible to understand the term as a whole. The selection of terms then is a subjective one, some that we did not know, some that we had not understood despite knowing the term, or some that we think may be less well known to interpreting students and any beginning interpreter who is preparing medical topics. General works on Greek and Latin, books on medical terminology and on interpreting in healthcare were consulted (Creeze, 2013; Frenay FSM, 1998; Krill, 1990).

As touched upon in the introduction to this paper, the usefulness of Latin in the medical field seems most obvious in the roots given in the first table below. Nonetheless, it seemed likely that the weight of tradition would also have left traces of another kind in modern medicine. Completing medical school requires generally seven or eight years of study, and while they are not Latin experts at the end of these studies, doctors are highly educated and surely not completely unaware of the origins of their field. Given that, we have drawn up a shorter list of Latin expressions and phrases that are used in or refer to the field in Table 6, Krill's work being the main source for these expressions and phrases.

To verify the presence of these phrases, speeches given at medical conferences were not as easily accessible, not in a searchable format divided along the specialisation, as was the case for legal texts. The decision was made therefore to search a database of scientific papers; the website Europe PubMed Central²⁴ was chosen. It is a searchable repository of articles from more than 2000 journals in biomedicine from different countries including Canada, most European countries, Malaysia, Oman and Saudi Arabia; it is managed by the European Bioinformatics Institute, The University of Manchester and the British Library. Funding comes from 24 institutions including governments, non-profit organisations and research centres. The abstracts of all papers are available or the entire article when the publisher has made them freely available, as is sometimes required by the organisation funding the research. This database, in English, does not allow a search selection by language, in light, presumably of the preponderance of English in the field. Other sites, such as a similar but broader aggregating database, WorldWideScience.org, offer multi-language searches and provide translations into and from many languages. However, as these are powered by automatic translation, they are clearly for reference purposes to allow scientists and doctors to understand the general content of papers published in other languages but do not reflect the actual usage of these expressions in a given language or the conscious decision of an interpreter or translator to transpose the expression, keep the original Latin or explain the quotation. Only the original occurrence of the term or phrase as used in English appears in this list.

²⁴ <http://europepmc.org/>

Table 3 Medicine's Latin Roots

LATIN (and Greek) Roots	Translation	Example (explanation)
Nouns and Prefixes		
aden(o)	gland	adenocarcinoma (cancer that begins in glandular cells)
chondr(o)	cartilage	chondrocyte (cells that make up cartilage)
cost-	rib	intercostal (<i>adj</i> found between the ribs)
hepat-	liver	hepatology (branch of medicine, study of liver and closely related organs)
hidro-	perspiration	hyperhidrosis (increased perspiration)
myel-	marrow	myelitis (inflammation of the spinal cord or bone marrow)
oculus	eye	ocular (<i>adj.</i> relating to the eye, ocular trauma)
path-	disease	pathology (study of disease)
thromb(o)-	clot	thrombus (blood clot)
viscer(o)	internal organ	visceral (<i>adj.</i> relating to internal organs, visceral fat)
Suffixes		
-algia	pain	neuralgia (nerve pain)
-itis	inflammation	appendicitis (inflammation of the appendix)
-osis	condition, disease, or increase	leucocytosis (excessive increase in number of white blood cells)
-plasty	surgical correction, plasty repair of	rhinoplasty (plastic surgery of the nose)
-tomy	incision into	gastrectomy (cutting out of the stomach, full or partial removal)

Table 4 Medical Expressions in Latin

EXPRESSION	Translation	N° of occurrences	Example in use
<i>per os</i>	by mouth	6957 ²⁵	However, results of the larval bioassay demonstrated that the Bm79 deletion resulted in a complete loss of <i>per os</i> infection. (Dong, et al., 2014)
<i>nil per os</i> (NPO)	nothing by mouth (Instructions for patient care, generally prior to surgery)	1714	Traditionally, patients are kept <i>nil-per-os</i> /nil-by-mouth (NPO/NBM) prior to invasive cardiac procedures, yet there exists neither evidence nor clear guidance about the benefits of this practice. (Hamid, et al., 2014)
<i>causa mortis</i>	cause of death	58	It is known that cardiorespiratory manifestations, as cardiac arrhythmias, arterial hypertension and hypotension, pulmonary edema and circulatory failure are the main " <i>causa mortis</i> " of scorpion envenomation. (Silva, et al., 2013)
<i>compos mentis</i>	of sound mind	106	I wanted to get back to work and I wanted to get normal and I don't think, without the medication to keep my mood down, not down in a bad way, but to keep me on a level plane and <i>compos mentis</i> , if you want for a better way of describing it, I think it'd have taken a hell of a lot longer, without that (Alderson, Foy, Glidewell, & House, 2014)
<i>Ubi pus, ibi evacua</i>	Where [there is] pus, evacuate [it].	13	While the established treatment has changed over the last few decades, the old principle ' <i>ubi pus, ibi evacua</i> ' has

²⁵ The search variables being limited, it was not possible to perform a search for "*per os*" excluding "*nil*". Upon examination of the search results, occurrences of "*nil per os*" were found in the results returned for "*per os*". The original raw figures returned for "*per os*" (8671) then were taken and the occurrences of "*nil per os*" (1714) subtracted from them for a total number of hits for "*per os*" minus "*nil*" of 6957.

			maintained its relevance.[our italics] (Ateschrang, et al., 2011)
<i>(Medice) Cura te ipsum</i>	(Physician) heal thyself!	11	not a single doctor wanted to write down and sign his opinion on unnecessary therapy. Finally I understood one thing “ <i>Medice cura te ipsum</i> .” Which in this case meant: “Vesna, take things into your own hands, take responsibility for yourself.” I made my decision. (Andrijević-Matovac, 2010)
<i>Ars longa, vita brevis</i>	Art is long, life short.	60	As the surgeons put it, ‘A good surgeon knows how to operate, a great one knows when to operate’. Hopefully we get this balance right in practice, but it is a fine line. We go back to Hippocrates and, ‘ <i>Ars longa, vita brevis</i> ’. (Davies, 2012)
<i>Hic locus est ubi mors gaudet succurrere vitae</i>	This is the place where death delights in helping life. (inscribed on Morgues and dissection rooms)	3	<i>Hic locus est ubi mors gaudet succurrere vitae</i> : the utility of morphologic disciplines in the study of cetaceans’ pathology (title) (Di Guardo, 2011)
<i>Primum non nocere</i> or alternately <i>primum nil nocere</i>	First do no harm	1017 65 Total: 1082	Vitamin D treatment and toxicity: <i>primum non nocere</i> (title) [our italics] (Joshi & Bhatia, 2014)
<i>Mens sana in corpore sano</i>	A sound mind in a healthy body	16	Exercise and brain protection: <i>mens sana in corpore sano</i> . Exercise exerts a number of protective effects that increase the resistance of the brain to ischemic injury and

			neurodegeneration. (Iadecola & Anrather, 2011) [our italics]
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Conclusions from medical corpus analysis

The analysis of the body of medical and scientific texts shows a number of interesting trends. All of the expressions selected do appear, although with variable frequency, ranging from three mentions for the expression *Hic locus est ubi mors gaudet succurrere vitae* to well over 6,000 for *per os*. The number of times the expressions are used seems to vary according to the type of expression. The first two expressions in the list *per os* and *nil per os* are by far the most prevalent. These could be compared to the terms of art defined by Nolan for legal Latinisms, when that is the official or generally accepted phrase or terminology used. However, even in the example cited for *nil per os* two forms are given, “*nil-per-os*/nil-by-mouth (NPO/NBM)”, one Latinate and one English, possibly for clarity, for those not initiated or possibly because of the different use of Latinisms in different English-speaking countries.

The complete phrases used appear in less technically oriented articles; the use of *cura te ipsum* is found in a very colloquial personal account of a doctor’s battle with breast cancer, told in the first person, involving little medical terminology and no references to research studies, figures or epidemiology. In several cases cited, the Latin expression figures in the title of the paper or the heading of a section of the paper, as was the case for *primum non nocere* and *mens sana in corpore sano*. This seems to suggest that these expressions are used for rhetorical effect; the author assumes that they are evocative for readers, that upon reading the title the Latin will speak to and possibly impress them. However, as the entire paper or section following the title goes into detail to explain the meaning behind it, nothing hinges upon understanding the single appearance of the phrase, *i.e.* nothing is lost if the reader does not know the expression. We can conclude that these expressions do appear in the corpus of medical literature but are not of great importance.

There is one exception to that conclusion, the phrase which appears most often, *primum non nocere*, with a total of 1082 occurrences in its two forms (alternately *primum nil nocere*). This phrase, commonly attributed to Hippocrates (translated therefore from ancient Greek into Latin, and often translated into English as “First, do no harm”) is associated with the Hippocratic oath and looms large in popular culture. Catto opines that this has to do with how modern the essence of the Oath remains. Although Western medicine no longer follows the four-humour based view of health that the Greeks believed, for modern doctors faced with complex questions made only more complex by advances in the field, “guidance on the ethical principles of medical practice is as necessary today as ever” (Catto, 2014).

Another phrase in particular merits slightly more explanation. *Medice, cura te ipsum* was selected to go in the medical Latin section because of the mention of physicians and healing. It is however an example of Latin’s connection to religion, as it is known because it is a quotation from the Bible, Jesus’ answer to followers in Nazareth, referring to a proverb (Luke 4:23, King James Version). This seems a good illustration of the fact that phrases and maxims in Latin reflect the speaker’s culture and education and are used for references that they assume they share with their audience more than to make a point as an expert. This is also evidence of the fact that fields of expertise are not cordoned off and irrevocably separate; a doctor could be a learned linguist, too or a nuclear physicist may also be a well-versed in the history of the Middle Ages. As interpreters, we should never underestimate our speakers.

As far as Latin expressions in scientific fields are concerned, we judge them to be present, of interest for audiences (therefore important to interpreters) and devices that say something about the speaker’s or writer’s culture and style. They can be placed squarely under the heading of General Culture, one of the most important and to our minds most amorphous fields in which interpreters are required to show their expertise.

EVERYDAY LATIN

Introduction

The first two sections of this work have been devoted to legal Latin and medical Latin, respectively. These fields are generally considered two of the four major fields in which Latin has left an indelible trace, along with religion and philosophy (Rogersen, 2012). While we believe that although it is certainly necessary to deal with the Latin present in these LSP (Language for Specific Purposes), for interpreters an overview of the Latin expressions used in “everyday language” is just as useful.

On the basis of our experience, we feel that it is precisely when the interpreter is not mentally prepared or able to anticipate what is coming next that a moment of linguistic virtuosity or difficult Latinism can easily throw him or her off balance. Therefore, in a way, those Latinisms that pertain to the everyday language that the interpreter is not usually wary of can be even more difficult than the ones belonging to a very technical field, for which the interpreter will have prepared in advance. It could be argued that an omission on the part of the interpreter in such a situation is likely to have less serious consequences than an omission of a technical Latinism in a legal or medical context. However, one should not forget that the expressions present in speeches analysed below, which we indicate as pertaining to “everyday language” as opposed to those used in LSP, are subject to the same categorisation applied to the other Latin expressions (see pp. 12.13). This means that some Latinisms may indeed be used by the speakers for the sole purpose of showing off their cultural background or of underlining a point by quoting notable historical figures, but in other situations he or she may instead opt for terms of art or phrases in order to illustrate a point or a line of reasoning that would lose all its meaning should an omission or a mistake occur.

In this section of the thesis the focus will be on Latin expressions that can be found in “everyday language” speeches. The first part is devoted to a literature review, while the second part

includes a text analysis similar to the one provided for the legal Latin section, in order to show the kind of situations in which an interpreter might encounter Latin expressions in ordinary speeches. In the third part, we provide the readers with remarks on the potential pitfalls and some do's and don'ts regarding Latin expressions in interpreting.

Past and present

The interest in Latin's legacy and in particular in Latin expressions is clear in the plethora of publications and websites available on the Internet. It is not a trend that dates back exclusively to recent times. On the contrary, William Walker's *Dictionary of English and Latin Idioms* was published in 1670, and in 1712 a sixth edition was published. In the centuries following Walker's work, many tried to produce a comprehensive dictionary of Latinisms, including William Robertson, with his *A Dictionary of Latin Phrases* (1824) and A. M. M. Stedman with his *A Vocabulary of Latin Idioms and Phrases* (1894). The trend continued in the 20th century (Leonard Dale's *Latin Idioms and Phrases*, 1933 and James Morwood's *Dictionary of Latin Words and Phrases*, 1998).

It might be argued that nowadays Latin expressions can be found with no effort on the internet. Such an assumption is hardly proven wrong. In the past years lists of Latin maxims and phrases have flourished on the internet, and it is often easier to just type in the words and find the translation, rather than look for and go through an old, dusty dictionary. However, an interpreter might not have the luxury of taking the time to check whatever maxim or phrase is thrown out in the heat of the battle.

Latin in popular culture

The interest in "dead languages" is visible not only in dictionaries and collections of phrases, but also in other, more surprising, fields, such as cinema and literature. Perhaps the most famous example of Latin being actively used in films is the well-known scene from Monty Python's 1979 *Life of Brian*, in which the protagonist is caught writing graffiti that reads *Romanes eunt domus*,

intended to be Latin for “Romans go home” but that is grammatically incorrect in a myriad of ways. He is punished by a centurion not for his rebellious act but for his bad grammar. Jokes and cultural references figure in many speeches and can constitute a significant difficulty for interpreters; this is just one of many that we would do well to remember.

More recently, in 2004, Mel Gibson directed *The Passion of the Christ* entirely in Latin and Aramaic. It seems that initially the director did not even want subtitles but in the end was persuaded that most audiences would not understand what the characters were saying. Having made a film that was made in “two dead languages” was apparently a point of pride for Gibson (The Economist, 2003). As every character, from Christ, Mary and other leading roles played by major name actors down to the minor speaking roles, spoke in a language that the actors themselves did not speak, such a linguistic commitment on the director’s part required the services of a team of language coaches over the course of several years (Scobas, 2012).

While many people are more than happy to have buried their painful memories of Latin in school, others seem to have a soft spot for it. The first two books of the Harry Potter series, for instance, have been translated into Latin (Rowling & (P. Needham, Trans), 2003). The famous series of young adult fantasy fiction includes seven books that have been best-sellers, and although the publishers did not hold out the same hopes for the English books’ poorer (Latin) relations, both Rowling and her editor said that their aim was to make classes more exciting for those students still interested in classics (Reynolds, 2001). Rowling herself studied some Latin at university and her books are peppered with Latinate proper names, pseudo-Latin terminology in the form of spells and references to classical myths. This could in part account for a renewed interest and enrolment in Latin courses, although the figures cited in new stories do not paint a complete picture of the educational situation in any of the countries concerned (Lane, 2012) (Poole, 2003) (Hu, 2008).

The traditional link between Latin and scholarship has left its mark on educational institutions; for example the motto of the University of Exeter, where Rowling herself studied, is *Lucem seguimur*, meaning “We follow the light”. This is a tradition common to a number of secondary schools and

universities, not only her fictitious Hogwarts. One of this paper's authors can write on her *CV* that she is a graduate *magna cum laude* of her university, and as an *alumna* of that institution continues to receive updates and news from her *alma mater*²⁶. These specific usages do not always translate between languages, (they are in fact sometimes incorrect or loose use of Latin vocabulary itself); the more specific details of the reasons for this and its extent could not be covered in the scope of this paper but would make an interesting area for further research.

For those scholars who are something like fluent in the language, the Finnish broadcasting company YLE broadcasts a bulletin in Latin, “Nuntii Latini” every week, “heard around the world on short or medium wave and via satellite on Radio Finland” (YLE, n.d.); it is also available via podcast. Some people also try to create modern Latin equivalents for words that appeared only many centuries after the language stopped being actively used, with the champion of this sort of intellectual challenge being the Vatican. All encyclicals, a category of church document, are written in Latin, as well as other official papal documents. In 2004, the Vatican-based Latinitas Foundation published a new edition of their 1992 *Lexicon Recentis Latinitatis*, an attempt to modernise the Latin language with the introduction of Latin neologisms.

On the other hand, many people have opposed and many still do oppose the use of Latin in modern languages. As mentioned earlier in this work, George Orwell was one prominent and well-respected authors to speak out against the use of Latin in English. More recently, in the UK some local authorities have forbidden the use of certain Latin terms and published a list of banned words with equivalents considered more suitable, such as “for this special purpose” (alternative for *ad hoc*) and “existing condition” or “state of things” for *status quo* (Hastings, 2008).

Both in French and English, Latinisms are *de facto* used. Abbreviations are often derived from Latin expressions that in most cases have been forgotten; *inter alia*, examples include *e.g.* (*exempli*

²⁶ *CV*, *curriculum vitae*, ‘course of life’ or resume; *magna cum laude* – ‘with great praise’, or with honours ; *alumna/alumnus* (for male) – ‘nursling, pupil’ to mean former student; *alma mater* – ‘generous mother’ to mean the educational institution that one attended

gratia), etc. (*et cetera*), i.e. (*id est*), *AD* (*anno Domini*), *cf.* (*confer*), as well as *CV* (*curriculum vitae*).

Strictly speaking, this probably does not pose a problem to interpreters: in most cases abbreviations are used only in writing. There are however longer formulas used in speeches that interpreters need to know (Nolan, 2012, p. 262). A Latinism that comes up unexpectedly in an otherwise “normal” speech can pose a challenge not only because of the virtual impossibility of seeing it coming, but for other reasons too.

Pitfalls: Pronunciation and neologisms

One major issue is pronunciation: after discussing it for centuries, scholars have not yet agreed on the pronunciation of Latin during the Roman Empire and the purpose of the present work is surely not to decide which pronunciation system is to be considered the most correct one today. However, pronunciation of Latin is indeed relevant to interpreters because even in the case that the interpreter actually knows the Latinism, he or she might not grasp it if the pronunciation differs completely from the one known to the interpreter.

In principle, Latin pronunciation is taught in two ways, divided along a geographical boundary: Germany and English speaking countries follow one approach, whereas Romance-language countries follow a different one. The differences concern the pronunciation of certain consonants – especially *c* (Janson, 2004, p. 4). Pronunciation of single letters is not the only issue. The length of vowels is significant: vowels can be short or long, as indicated in Latin dictionaries by a small sign over the vowel itself (a *macron* for a long vowel, a *breve* for a short one). The vowel length determines which syllable is stressed (*ibid.*, p. 180). However, in reality it is even more complicated: a quote pronounced by a French speaker hardly resembles the very same one uttered by an Italian speaker, although it could be reasonably assumed that both were taught the same pronunciation rules. This is because the French speaker will inevitably tend to put the accent on the last syllable of the word, whereas an Italian would tend to follow Italian prosody. English-speakers will tend instinctively to follow their own rules of pronunciation, and so on and so forth. One

colleague recalled a particularly sticky situation in which he stopped for a moment to ask himself which language was being spoken by a delegate who until a moment before had been giving an ordinary speech in impeccable English. The phrase in question that was almost impossible to decipher for an Italian interpreter was “Ubi major, minor cessat” pronounced “the English way”.

Other pitfalls may include Latin neologisms, often represented by existing quotations that are paraphrased according to the need of the speaker. Also, Latin idiomatic expressions in particular can be handled differently by different speakers and therefore must be dealt with by the interpreter in different ways: the speaker may decide to provide his or her audience with a translation or not, or to announce that he or she is going to give a quotation, hence giving not only the quotation but also the name of the author (also subject to the rules of pronunciation mentioned in the previous paragraph). Interpreters will have to choose their own strategy. According to Nolan, if a translation is not provided by the speaker, one should not feel obliged to translate it for the audience (Nolan, 2012, p. 263).

Methodology – Everyday Latin

The first sub-section of this portion of the paper was devoted to a short informative and theoretical background on everyday and idiomatic Latin. The second and third sections consist in a “practical guide” to everyday Latin as present in modern English and French languages.

The following list of twenty Latin expressions represents a sample of some Latinisms that interpreters may come upon while working. It was drawn up after a comparative analysis of the Latin expressions included in the Oxford Dictionary List of Foreign Words and Phrases – for English– and the ones included in the *Grand Robert de la langue française* – for French. Only the expressions that appeared in both dictionaries and are not included in the analysis of legal Latin figure in the list. The selected twenty expressions are accompanied by the Oxford Dictionary translation.

The third and final part of this section on everyday Latin in French and English consists in an analysis aimed at verifying the presence of the selected expressions in speeches made during debates

held in plenary sessions at the European Parliament. The European Parliament website²⁷ provides the full text of the above-mentioned speeches only for the three most recent four-year terms. The analysis then is of speeches given from 1999 to the present.

The European Parliament database was selected for a number of reasons, among them consistency with the previous analysis on legal Latin. Moreover, we consider it be a reliable source of speeches. It is also a multilingual website, although the speeches are only transcribed in the original language of the speaker and in English. No official translation in the other languages of the EU is provided.

For each expression the number of results in both English and French in the European Parliament database is indicated and one example taken from the most recent speech is provided. Any translations of the expression in other languages is also noted.

²⁷ <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/plenary/en/debates.html#sidesForm>

Table 5 Everyday Latin

ab initio	from the beginning
ad infinitum	endlessly; forever (literally ‘to infinity’)
a fortiori	more conclusively (literally ‘from a stronger [argument]’)
carpe diem	make the most of the present time (literally ‘seize the day!’)
de profundis	expressing one's deepest feelings (literally ‘from the depths’)
deus ex machina	an unexpected event that saves an apparently hopeless situation (literally ‘god from the machinery’)
in absentia	not present (literally ‘in absence’)
in extremis	in an extremely difficult situation; at the point of death
in situ	in the original or appropriate position
ipso facto	by that very fact or act
mea culpa	an acknowledgement that something is one's fault (literally ‘by my fault’)
memento mori	something kept as a reminder that death is inevitable (literally ‘remember (that you have) to die’)
modus operandi	a way of doing something (literally ‘way of operating’)
modus vivendi	an arrangement that allows conflicting parties to coexist peacefully (literally ‘way of living’)
persona non grata	a person who is not welcome somewhere
primus inter pares	the senior or representative member of a group (literally ‘first among equals’)
pro rata	proportional; proportionally (literally ‘according to the rate’)
quid pro quo	a favour or advantage given in return for something (literally ‘something for something’)
sine die	(of proceedings) adjourned indefinitely (literally ‘without a day’)
sine qua non	a thing that is absolutely essential (literally ‘without which not’)
terra incognita	unknown territory

Table 6 Occurrences of Everyday Latin in Speeches

EXPRESSION	OCCURRENCE	EXAMPLE	TRANSLATION (or ORIGINAL)
ab initio	2	That might lead to the proposed system being paralysed <i>ab initio</i> , without any benefits flowing from it, either for those making asylum applications or for those implementing the law. (Ribeiro e Castro, 2003 Sept 23)	
ab infinitum	0		
a fortiori	8	Therefore, what I am advocating, and I was clear – and I hope this House will be able to back this one of these days, because it is almost a question of logic – that what has happened with cohesion policy, what has happened with the EAFRD, should, logically, even <i>a fortiori</i> , also be approved for workers. (Fernandes, 2011 Dec 15)	original: até por maioria de razão
carpe diem	0		
de profundis	1	We could not have expected anything better from the Italian Government, supported by a boorishly Communist left and by a deceitful and hypocritical centre-left. As you can see, we have other reasons for not considering the Europe of these treaties as ours and for hoping that we will soon be celebrating the <i>De profundis</i> of the ridiculous Prodi Government. (Romagnoli, 2007 Oct 23)	
deus ex machina	3	This really is such an obvious measure, and I see Mr Hatzidakis as the <i>deus ex machina</i> of this need to avoid marine pollution hazards. (Fatuzzo, 2000 Nov 30)	

in absentia	29	I would like to thank and congratulate the rapporteur, Mr János Áder, who is today represented by Mr Seeber, as well as the Committee on the Environment, Public Health and Food Safety, for the excellent work carried out on this proposal; and, <i>in absentia</i> , congratulate Mr Áder on his new responsibilities at the very highest level in his home country. (Dalli, 2012 June 13)	
in extremis	13	We do not want to see ourselves in a situation like that in 2008, when we debated the package of measures adopted <i>in extremis</i> by Commissioner Borg. (Fraga Estévez, 2011 May 9)	
in situ	99	Surely, at a time of EU-enforced austerity, <i>in situ</i> apparatus should be used, rather than creating new, expensive departments. (Sinclair, 2012 June 12)	
ipso facto	11	By doing this, it seems to me that the European Union is easing its conscience on the cheap, thereby justifying <i>ipso facto</i> the social consequences of its economic policy of deregulation. (Vergiat, 2011 Sept 28)	
mea culpa	8	Mr President, clearly this is a very idealistic wish, but in its work programme for 2013, the Commission should, first and foremost, have shown a great degree of modesty and here and there even thrown in a <i>mea culpa</i> . (Vanhecke, 2012 July 4)	
memento mori	0		
modus operandi	116	Support for social businesses brings economic advantages, but it is primarily	

		in the very nature of their activities and their <i>modus operandi</i> to help to build a more cohesive, democratic and active society that contributes to job creation. (Angelilli, 2012 Nov 19)	
modus vivendi	23	Given the current situation in Egypt and the fact that the Christian minorities there are very much afraid – it is said that 1 million Christians are preparing to leave – and given the constitutional process in Egypt and the 15 million Copts who established a <i>modus vivendi</i> with the Muslims which lasted centuries and now live in completely different circumstances, it is clear that major and dramatic developments lie ahead and that we must begin taking action today, particularly as these circumstances could lead to high levels of migration. (Brok, 2012 Apr 17)	
persona non grata	10	Having visited the EU observation mission at the administrative borderline of the occupied territories, I want to use this debate to also invite the Presidency to join me in expressing concern that the head of our mission has been declared <i>persona non grata</i> by the proxy authorities. (Howitt, 2012 July 4)	
primus inter pares	6	Indeed, Egypt co-chairs the Euro-Mediterranean Parliamentary Assembly and, with Egypt, we have defined a European Neighbourhood Policy, which strengthens political dialogue and integrates us with Egypt – <i>primus inter pares</i> as Egypt is within the Arab League – to promote peace and stability. Egypt is instrumental in	

		helping us in that task. (Nicholson, 2006 April 6)	
pro rata	16	As a result of the directive, he now has <i>pro rata</i> rights with full-time workers. (Hughes, 2011 Nov 16)	
qui(d) pro quo	31	Such an approach enables a <i>quid pro quo</i> whereby more progress earns more aid. (Tannock, 2012 Oct 25)	
sine die	10	The Council's failure to endorse their fulfilment of the technical criteria and its postponement <i>sine die</i> therefore send out a worrying message, and this House clearly states as much in its resolution. (López Aguilar, 2011 Oct 12)	
terra incognita	2	This service is uncharted territory – <i>terra incognita</i> – and breaks with some of the previous fundamentals of budgetary law and staffing law. (Gräßle, 2010 Oct 19)	

Conclusions from corpus analysis for everyday Latin

This text analysis shows that:

- not all selected expressions were used in the debates held during the plenary sessions at the European Parliament in the period 1999-2014; specifically, out of 20 selected expressions, 3 were not found in the database;

- for the 17 expressions that were found in the speeches, the number of occurrences varied greatly. In some cases the expression was found only once (*de profundis*), whereas in others as many as 89 times (*in situ*);

- as the translation of the full text in other languages is not available, the cross-analysis to verify the presence of the expression in other languages was limited to English and the original language. Only in one case, that of the expression *a fortiori*, was the Latinism not present in the original, where the idea was expressed in Portuguese, but was present in the English translation. In all other cases the Latin expression was present both in the original language and in English;

- as the examples show, the expressions are used in very different contexts. This illustrates the danger for the interpreters mentioned previously who may not always be ready for an expression that belongs to a language different than the one being spoken. The speaker's choice of a Latinism can be compared to the decision to employ a word or an expression in English when speaking in a different language, either because the speaker feels that the given concept does not have an equivalent in the given language or because he or she believes that the English expression (or German, or French, or Italian) adds a touch of sophistication to the discourse (Bouché, 1994, p. 254).

This text analysis shows that in most cases there is no need to translate the Latin expression. As mentioned in the literature review at the beginning of this section, pronunciation can sometimes pose problems. The interpreter should therefore be careful to “transpose” the Latin expression in the target language with the pronunciation that is considered mainstream in the target language.

CONCLUSIONS

The impetus behind this paper was personal interest in the topic paired with difficulties that we ourselves as interpreting students encountered in our preparation for classes and in our training. The theoretical sections of this thesis allowed us to look at the subject in greater depth and to feel better prepared when in the booth. We also analysed the implications and specific potential pitfalls for interpreters in these sections.

The analyses serve a dual purpose:

- to verify the presence of a number of expressions in real speeches and documents used by interpreters either when working in the booth or in preparing for a conference
- to show the use in context of a number of expressions.

This allowed us some basis from which to consider the interpretation strategies for Latin expressions.

The corpus analyses of all three fields showed that Latin is indeed still present in modern English and French. As we imagined, the extent of their use varies by field and depends on the type of Latinism used, ranging from terms to expressions or quotations.

However, we can draw some general conclusions applying to all three areas with respect to the strategy chosen for the interpreting process. Provided that the interpreter hears and recognises the expression, he or she is then faced with a choice: leave the expression in Latin and simply “transpose” it by pronouncing it appropriately for Latin in the target language, or translate it. Because the translated versions of the texts available for legal sources almost exclusively left the Latin in the target language, we conclude from our text analysis that the best solution is often to leave the expression in Latin, with some notable exceptions that mainly concern the French language and legal Latin terms. To put the basic guideline most succinctly, we would say that the Latinism should not be translated in the target language if the interpreter considers it to be current usage; otherwise, the interpreter should translate it or provide an explanation. The interpreter could also be faced with a third type of situation in which the speaker uses a Latin expression and then translates it: in this case,

it would be advisable to do the same, that is, repeat the Latin expression and translate it. This is what is possible in the best case scenario. The interpreter might not hear the expression or simply not know what it means. In this case the options are more limited: the interpreter can leave it out or try to understand its meaning from context and provide an explanation.

It was not possible to include all fields where Latin is present in this work. A historical examination of Latin in philosophy and religion would be an interesting follow up on this research. From what we learnt in the Medical Latin section we also think that an examination of the effectiveness of interpreter training that includes Latin in preparation, or even specific studies of interpreter performance measured before and after exposure to simple instruction or lists of basic Latin would be interesting fields for further examination. Further research could also involve surveying interpreters to see what their experiences with Latin have been; this would make it possible to chart trends, highlight the importance of particular expressions and follow rises and falls in the use of Latin in international conferences. Their real life experience could also provide a more complete idea of which strategies are employed most often by working interpreters.

Perhaps most importantly, with this work, we hope to have provided readers with a tool to deal with the challenge posed by Latin expressions.

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