

A Handbook on the WTO TRIPS Agreement

Edited by Antony Taubman, Hannu Wager and Jayashree Watal



CAMBRIDGE

A HANDBOOK ON THE WTO TRIPS AGREEMENT

This handbook describes the historical and legal background to the TRIPS Agreement, its role in the World Trade Organization (WTO) and its institutional framework, and reviews the following areas: general provisions and basic principles; copyright and related rights; trademarks; geographical indications; patents; industrial designs, layout-designs, undisclosed information and anti-competitive practices; enforcement of intellectual property rights; dispute settlement in the context of the TRIPS Agreement; TRIPS and public health; and current TRIPS issues. It contains a guide to TRIPS notifications by WTO Members and describes how to access and make use of the official documentation relating to the TRIPS Agreement and connected issues. Furthermore, it includes the legal texts of the TRIPS Agreement and the relevant provisions of the WIPO conventions referred to in it, as well as subsequent relevant WTO instruments.

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PREFACE

At the heart of the World Trade Organization (WTO), as an international organization, is a set of rules that regulate trade between nations: a body of agreements which have been negotiated and signed by governments of the majority of the world's trading nations, with the aim of promoting transparency, predictability and non-discrimination in trading relations. These agreements, covering trade in goods, trade in services and trade-related aspects of intellectual property rights, help to define and inform the multiple roles of the WTO, in administering the trade agreements, providing a forum for trade negotiations, handling trade disputes, monitoring national trade policies, providing technical assistance and capacity building for developing countries, and cooperating with other international organizations. Understanding these agreements and their practical, policy and legal contexts therefore provides significant insights into the WTO as an institution, its activities and international role, its partnerships with other organizations, and the way in which WTO Member governments identify and pursue their national interests through this intergovernmental forum.

When, in 1994, at the end of the Uruguay Round of trade negotiations, governments settled on the cluster of agreements that created and defined the WTO, the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights, or the TRIPS Agreement, was part of the package. The TRIPS Agreement was not negotiated as a stand-alone treaty, and did not enter into legal force on its own, but is one of the multilateral trade agreements (MTAs) that are integral to the overarching Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization. This status means that when the TRIPS Agreement entered into force in 1995, it was as part of a composite set of trade agreements that are together binding on countries that choose to join the WTO as Members. The WTO Agreement also made disputes between Members about trade and intellectual property subject to the same dispute settlement mechanism as is used for a wide range of trade issues. But the TRIPS

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Agreement also incorporated significant elements of the established multilateral intellectual property agreements administered by the UN specialized agency for intellectual property, the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO). Hence the TRIPS Agreement has a dual character – an important element of international trade law, it also draws heavily on, and builds upon, the established heritage of international intellectual property (IP) law.

The TRIPS Agreement has also come to the fore in a wide range of international policy discussions – ranging over public health, biodiversity, the environment, and human rights, and other debates concerning policy settings for innovation, knowledge-based economic growth and technology diffusion. The need for a practical knowledge of TRIPS, its provisions and its institutional context therefore extends beyond the traditional circle of trade negotiators and IP lawyers, and this *Handbook* has been prepared to serve the needs of this wider community of legislators, diplomats, policy-makers, other government officials, representatives of civil society and industry, practitioners, journalists, students and other interested parties in the general public.

This publication is the latest in a series of WTO *Handbooks*, aimed at providing a non-technical overview of key elements of the WTO system. As a *Handbook* on the TRIPS Agreement, it provides a general account of the Agreement itself, and describes its objectives, principles and other provisions. The TRIPS Agreement has not been a static document since its entry into force in 1995, and the *Handbook* reflects the evolving context of TRIPS, in particular:

- While the *Handbook* is not a legal textbook, and it does not explore questions of legal interpretation, it does describe some of the experience in analysing and interpreting the TRIPS Agreement in the context of dispute settlement.
- The *Handbook* provides an overview of the institutional framework within the WTO that administers the TRIPS Agreement, in particular the TRIPS Council.
- And the *Handbook* gives an update of some of the key developments, such as the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health and the ensuing amendment to TRIPS, and ongoing negotiations and policy discussions within the WTO.

The *Handbook* is up to date at the time of writing, but readers should be aware that some of the processes it describes are dynamic, and several

PREFACE XXI

passages have been highlighted as areas where further developments may potentially have occurred since mid-2011.

For reasons of space and brevity, the *Handbook* concentrates on the text of the TRIPS Agreement and on TRIPS-related developments within the WTO itself and does not describe in detail the important discussions and debates in other international policy processes and organizations that have dealt with TRIPS; a very brief description is provided to assist the reader to understand this broader context of TRIPS, but this is not intended to give authoritative guidance, which can instead be obtained from the organizations concerned.

Prospective readers should not pick up this Handbook expecting close legal analysis of TRIPS provisions, nor authoritative statements about the implications or impact of the TRIPS Agreement, nor extensive descriptions of the complex policy debates that surround the TRIPS Agreement. There is a vast academic, policy and legal literature concerning the TRIPS Agreement, its interpretation, and these related issues; this Handbook does not venture into this territory that has been widely explored and mapped by many expert authors. Instead, this Handbook seeks to give the reader an accessible, non-technical overview of the Agreement, and describes how to access and make use of some of the key official documentation that relates to the TRIPS Agreement and related issues. The initiative to publish this Handbook responds to the practical feedback received from countless active participants in technical cooperation, and readers are encouraged to provide further feedback to the address ipd@wto.org for possible use should there be a future decision to produce a revised and updated edition.

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Chapter VII: Roger Kampf Chapter VIII: Hannu Wager Chapter IX: Roger Kampf Chapter X: Antony Taubman Appendices 1–2: Hannu Wager

The joint editors Antony Taubman, Hannu Wager and Jayashree Watal express thanks to all contributing authors and to those involved in the production process, particularly Karla Brepsant and Karyn Russell.

DISCLAIMER This publication provides a general, non-technical introduction to the TRIPS Agreement, and to the related work of the World Trade Organization, to assist in promoting general understanding and awareness, including for training courses and educational activities. It should not be viewed as advancing any form of legal interpretation or any policy position, and no views or analysis in this publication should be attributed to the World Trade Organization, its Secretariat or its Members.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AOC appellation d'origine contrôlée AOP appellation d'origine protégée

BATF Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms
CBD Convention on Biological Diversity

CESCR United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

CMO collective management organization

CTM Community trademark
DSB Dispute Settlement Body

DSU Dispute Settlement Understanding

FDI foreign direct investment

FTA free trade area

GATT General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade GATS General Agreement on Trade in Services

GI geographical indication

GSPOA Global Strategy and Plan of Action on Public Health, Innovation and

Intellectual Property

ICESCR International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

INAO Institut National d'Origine et de la Qualité

intellectual property right

IP intellectual property

IPR

PGI

IPIC Intellectual Property in Respect of Integrated Circuits

LDC least-developed country
MFN most-favoured-nation
MTA multilateral trade agreements
MTO Multilateral Trade Organization
PDO Protected Designation of Origin

R&D research and development RTA regional trade agreement TK traditional knowledge

TRIPS Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights
UNCTAD United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

Protected Geographical Indication

XXIV LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

UNDESA United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNEP United Nations Environment Programme

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization
UNFCCC United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UPOV International Union for the Protection of New Plant Varieties

WCT WIPO Copyright Treaty

WGTCP Working Group on the Interaction between Trade and

Competition Policy

WHA World Health Assembly WHO World Health Organization

WIPO World Intellectual Property Organization
WPPT WIPO Performances and Phonograms Treaty

WTO World Trade Organization

Introduction to the TRIPS Agreement

A Introduction

1 General

This chapter provides an overview of the TRIPS Agreement. It first explains the historical and legal background of the Agreement and its place in the World Trade Organization (WTO). It then turns to the general provisions and basic principles, as well as other provisions and institutional arrangements, that apply to all the categories of intellectual property rights (IPRs) covered by TRIPS. Chapters II to VII then discuss each of these categories in more detail.

However, in order to understand the TRIPS Agreement it is important to first review the background to the intellectual property (IP) system: what the main forms of IPRs are, why these 'rights' are recognized, and how they are protected. These questions have been at the core of IP policy discussions since the adoption of the earliest IP laws, and continue to spark active debate. This chapter attempts neither to summarize various relevant legal and economic theories, nor to survey the range of views presented in the debate, but merely highlights some of the general concepts and approaches.

IPRs can be characterized as rights given to persons over the creations of their minds. They usually take the form of a limited 'exclusive right' granted under national law to a creator over the use of the creation for a certain period of time. Such a right allows the creator to exclude others from using the creation in certain ways without the creator's authorization. The right holder can then extract economic value from the IPRs by using them directly or by authorizing others to do so.

IPRs are territorial rights, which means that they are valid only in the jurisdiction where they have been registered or otherwise acquired.

IPRs are customarily clustered into two categories: copyright and industrial property.

Copyright can usefully be divided into two main areas:

- 1. Copyright (or 'authors' rights' in some systems) refers to the rights of authors of literary and artistic works (such as books and other writings, musical compositions, paintings, sculptures, computer programs and films). Authors, or those who derive the right from authors (such as publishers), have the right to determine how their works are used for a minimum period of time after the death of the author.
- 2. Copyright in a wider sense also includes related rights (sometimes called 'neighbouring rights'), especially the rights of performers (e.g. actors, singers and musicians) over their performances, producers over phonograms (sound recordings), and broadcasting organizations over broadcasts. These rights are also limited in time.

Industrial property can be divided into two fields:

- 1. The first is the protection of distinctive signs, in particular trademarks (which distinguish the goods or services of one undertaking from those of other undertakings) and geographical indications (GIs, which identify a good as originating in a place where a given characteristic of the good is essentially attributable to its geographical origin). Trademark protection may last indefinitely, provided the sign in question continues to be distinctive; use of the trademark is also often a requirement. A GI can also be protected indefinitely, provided it continues to identify the geographical origin.
- 2. Other types of industrial property are protected primarily to recognize and stimulate technological innovation and industrial design, and to provide the legal framework for the creation of new technologies and products. In this category fall inventions (protected by patents; although, in a number of countries, innovations that could embody lesser technical progress than patentable inventions may be protected by utility models), industrial designs and trade secrets. The protection is usually given for a finite term (now typically twenty years in the case of patents), although trade secrets can be protected as long as they remain secret. Industrial property also includes legal means to suppress acts of unfair competition.

The intellectual property (IP) system is a tool of public policy: generally, it is intended to promote economic, social and cultural progress by stimulating creative work and technological innovation. More specifically, the main social purpose of protection of copyright and related rights is to encourage and reward creative work. It gives an opportunity

for authors and artists to earn their living from creative work. Other than serving as an incentive to authors, copyright essentially provides an economic foundation for cultural industries and the market for cultural products once the rights are licensed or assigned to publishers and producers. Similarly, patents and certain other industrial property rights are designed to provide protection for innovations resulting from investment in research and development (R&D), thus giving the incentive and means to finance applied R&D.

These standard policy objectives are supported by the economic theory that suggests that works and information resulting from creative work and innovation have characteristics of public goods in the sense that they are 'non-excludable' and 'non-rivalrous' in consumption in other words, once created, absent specific measures, none can be excluded from 'consuming' them. In addition, one's use of a work or an invention does not deprive another of its use and it can be freely used by anyone (unless there are specific legal constraints), unlike physical property such as land that can be fenced off. Therefore, in the absence of IP protection, it is difficult for creators to extract economic value from or 'appropriate' the financial returns from their work, or indeed to influence how they are utilized. Thus, from the society's perspective, there is a risk of 'market failure', that is, underinvestment in socially beneficial creative and innovative work. The IP system also allows market-driven decentralized decision-making, where products are created and technology developed in response to demand. The IP system offers a range of options, but does not preclude the need for other forms of financing mechanisms, in particular in areas where the market alone may not provide adequate incentives (for example, contemporary concert music or cures for neglected diseases).

Another objective of IP protection is the transfer and dissemination of technology. A well-functioning IP regime should, other things being equal, facilitate the direct and indirect transfer of technology, by means such as foreign direct investment (FDI), trade and licensing. The legal titles provided by the IP system are used to define and structure the distinct rights and responsibilities in technology partnerships, such as research cooperation or technology sharing or transfer arrangements. One of the purposes of the patent system is to disseminate technological information by requiring inventors to disclose new technology in their patent applications rather than attempt to keep it secret, so that new technology can become part of the common pool of knowledge of mankind and be freely used once patents expire. Improved information

technology tools that facilitate, for example, the availability of patent information on the Internet means that this 'teaching' function of the patent system is becoming increasingly more effective and accessible in practice compared to earlier days.

Trademarks, GIs and other distinctive signs are protected so as to inform consumers and prevent consumer deception. In addition, these forms of IP help to ensure fair competition among producers. They provide an incentive for companies to invest in their reputation through the provision of quality products and services. An equally important objective is to enable consumers to make informed choices between various goods and services.

Reflecting their role as tools of public policy, IPRs are not absolute and unlimited, but are generally subject to a number of limitations and exceptions that aim to balance the legitimate interests of right holders and users. These limitations and exceptions, together with the carefully defined scope of protectable subject matter and a limited term of protection, are intended to maintain an appropriate balance between competing public policy interests so that the system as a whole can be effective in meeting its stated objectives.

2 Historical and legal background to TRIPS

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the legal and institutional foundation for the administration and development of trade relations among its 153 Members, at the multilateral level. It aims to provide fair and stable conditions for the conduct of international trade with a view to encouraging trade and investment that raises living standards worldwide. It is the successor to the former General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT 1947), a multilateral trade agreement that was concluded in that year. Further trade liberalization was pursued under the auspices of the GATT through 'trade rounds' aiming at further tariff cuts and strengthened rules. The Uruguay Round was the eighth round of trade negotiations and by far the most comprehensive. These negotiations were launched in 1986 and completed in 1994.

The main results from the Uruguay Round included a further major reduction of customs tariffs worldwide, and the liberalization of, and development of better rules governing trade in textiles and agriculture – two areas previously largely excluded from the GATT. The trading system was also extended into new areas of trade relations not previously dealt with, notably trade in services and IP. This reflected the growing

economic importance of these two areas and their increased share of international trade. Furthermore, the results included the development of a reinforced and integrated dispute settlement system, which is applicable to any agreements covered by the WTO. The Uruguay Round also resulted in the creation of a new organization – the WTO – to administer the agreements. The Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization ('the WTO Agreement') entered into force on 1 January 1995. The 'GATT' now refers to an updated agreement on trade in goods, dubbed 'GATT 1994' to distinguish it from the earlier GATT, which is only one of a number of agreements annexed to the WTO Agreement.

GATT 1947 included several provisions that made reference to IPRs. For instance, GATT 1947 confirmed that Contracting Parties could have rules on IPRs provided that they were consistent with principles of nondiscrimination. Article III:4 requires treatment for imported products that is no less favourable than that accorded to like products of national origin in respect of all laws, regulations and requirements; this includes IP laws. More specifically, Article XX(d) allows a general exception to the application of GATT obligations with respect to compliance with laws and regulations that are not inconsistent with GATT provisions, including those that deal with patents, trademarks and copyrights and the prevention of deceptive practices. Additionally, Article IX:6 contains a positive obligation on Contracting Parties to cooperate with each other to prevent the use of trade names in a manner that would misrepresent the true origin of a product, or that would be to the detriment of distinctive regional or geographical names of products protected in other parties' territories by national legislation.

In the Tokyo Round of multilateral trade negotiations (1973 to 1979), the one immediately preceding the Uruguay Round, there was a proposal to negotiate rules on trade in counterfeit goods resulting in a draft Agreement on Measures to Discourage the Importation of Counterfeit Goods. However, negotiators did not reach agreement and this subject was not included in the results of the Tokyo Round when it concluded in 1979. Instead, in 1982, pursuant to a work programme agreed by trade ministers, ¹ a revised version of a draft agreement on trade in counterfeit goods

¹ 'The CONTRACTING PARTIES instruct the Council to examine the question of counterfeit goods with a view to determining the appropriateness of joint action in the GATT framework on the trade aspects of commercial counterfeiting and, if such joint action is found to be appropriate, the modalities for such action, having full regard to the competence of other international organizations. For the purposes of such examination, the

was submitted. This draft was referred to a group of experts in 1984, which submitted its report a year later. The group met six times in 1985. It produced a report on Trade in Counterfeit Goods that recommended that joint action was probably needed, but could not decide on the appropriate forum. It left it to the GATT Council to make a decision.

During the early 1980s, negotiators worked on a mandate for negotiations for a new Round, including on aspects of IP. Trade ministers met at Punta del Este, Uruguay, in September 1986, and adopted a decision on future trade negotiations, which included the following mandate under the title 'Trade-related aspects of intellectual property rights, including trade in counterfeit goods':

In order to reduce the distortions and impediments to international trade, and taking into account the need to promote effective and adequate protection of intellectual property rights, and to ensure that measures and procedures to enforce intellectual property rights do not themselves become barriers to legitimate trade, the negotiations shall aim to clarify GATT provisions and elaborate as appropriate new rules and disciplines.

Negotiations shall aim to develop a multilateral framework of principles, rules and disciplines dealing with international trade in counterfeit goods, taking into account work already undertaken in the GATT.

These negotiations shall be without prejudice to other complementary initiatives that may be taken in the World Intellectual Property Organization and elsewhere to deal with these matters.

A negotiating group on 'trade-related aspects of intellectual property rights', or TRIPS, was formed to pursue this mandate. From 1986 to April 1989, the group mainly discussed whether there was a mandate to negotiate rules on IPRs in general, or only on their trade-related aspects. For the developing countries, such 'trade-related aspects' only included trade in counterfeit goods or anti-competitive practices in relation to IPRs. However, in the mid-term review of the overall Uruguay Round negotiations, undertaken in April 1989, a decision was adopted that gave the negotiating group on TRIPS a full mandate.² This decision is the basis for the current structure of the TRIPS Agreement.

CONTRACTING PARTIES request the Director-General to hold consultations with the Director-General of WIPO in order to clarify the legal and institutional aspects involved.² The following is an extract from the mandate: '3. Ministers agree that the outcome of the negotiations is not prejudged and that these negotiations are without prejudice to the views of participants concerning the institutional aspects of the international implementation of the results of the negotiations in this area, which is to be decided pursuant to the final paragraph of the Punta del Este Declaration.

Between the spring of 1989 and the spring of 1990, several detailed proposals were submitted by all the major players: EC, United States, Switzerland, Japan and a group of fourteen developing countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Cuba, Egypt, India, Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Tanzania, Uruguay and Zimbabwe). A composite text, based on these submissions, was prepared by the Chairman of the Negotiating Group in June 1990. From then until the end of the Brussels ministerial meeting in December 1990, detailed negotiations were conducted on every aspect of this text. There were six Chairman's drafts of the agreement between July and November 1990. A revised TRIPS text was then sent to the Brussels Ministerial Conference (MTN.TNC/W/35/Rev.1). There was commonly agreed language for large parts of the agreement, but differences continued on the forum for lodging the agreement and on dispute settlement, as well as on some twenty-five other outstanding issues, mainly relating to some provisions on patents and undisclosed information, copyright, GIs and transition periods. Work continued at Brussels until a sudden breakdown of negotiations in the overall Round due to the failure to reach an understanding on agriculture.

Progress was made on the patent provisions, particularly in autumn 1991 – including on the scope and timing of rights, exceptions from patentability, compulsory licensing/government use, exhaustion of rights, term of protection, protection of test data, transition periods,

- 4. Ministers agree that negotiations on this subject shall continue in the Uruguay Round and shall encompass the following issues:
- (a) the applicability of the basic principles of the GATT and of relevant international intellectual property agreements or conventions;
- (b) the provision of adequate standards and principles concerning the availability, scope and use of trade-related intellectual property rights;
- (c) the provision of effective and appropriate means for the enforcement of trade-related intellectual property rights, taking into account differences in national legal systems;
- (d) the provision of effective and expeditious procedures for the multilateral prevention and settlement of disputes between governments, including the applicability of GATT procedures;
- (e) transitional arrangements aiming at the fullest participation in the results of the negotiations.
- 5. Ministers agree that in the negotiations consideration will be given to concerns raised by participants related to the underlying public policy objectives of their national systems for the protection of intellectual property, including developmental and technological objectives.
- 6. In respect of 4(d) above, Ministers emphasise the importance of reducing tensions in this area by reaching strengthened commitments to resolve disputes on trade-related intellectual property issues through multilateral procedures.'

and the protection of existing subject matter. The question of forum was resolved with the decision to encapsulate the results of the negotiations within a Single Undertaking, which would also establish a new organization, the Multilateral Trade Organization (MTO)/WTO. A Draft Final Act (MTN.TNC/W/FA) was released by the then Director-General of GATT, Arthur Dunkel, on 20 December 1991, and came to be known as the Dunkel Text. Only two changes were made to TRIPS provisions between the 1991 Draft Final Act and the 1993 Final Act: first, introducing the text on the moratorium on so-called 'non-violation complaints' in dispute settlement cases (Article 64.2–3); and, second, to limit the scope of compulsory licensing of semi-conductor technology (Article 31(c)).

3 Place of TRIPS in the World Trade Organization

The TRIPS Agreement is Annex 1C of the Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization ('WTO Agreement') of 15 April 1994, which entered into force on 1 January 1995. The TRIPS Agreement is an integral part of the WTO Agreement, and is binding on each Member of the WTO from the date the WTO Agreement becomes effective for that country. However, the TRIPS Agreement gave original WTO Members transition periods, which differed according to their stages of development, to bring themselves into compliance with its rules (see section D1 of this chapter for transition periods). The Agreement is administered by the Council for TRIPS, which reports to the WTO General Council. The place of the TRIPS Council in the WTO can be seen from Figure I.1.

The Ministerial Conference is the highest decision-making body in the WTO. Its sessions are to take place at least once every two years, during which sessions all matters under the WTO Agreements may be addressed. The General Council constitutes the second tier in the WTO structure. It comprises representatives from all Member countries, usually Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives based in Geneva. It meets some five times in a year. It may adopt decisions on behalf of the Ministerial Conference when the Conference is not in session. The General Council has authority over the Trade Negotiations Committee, which is currently charged with the negotiations mandated by the Doha Development Agenda. The General Council also meets as the Trade Policy Review Body, with its own Chairperson, to carry out trade policy reviews as mandated by the Trade Policy Review Mechanism (Annex 3 of the WTO Agreement), and the Dispute Settlement Body (DSB), with its own

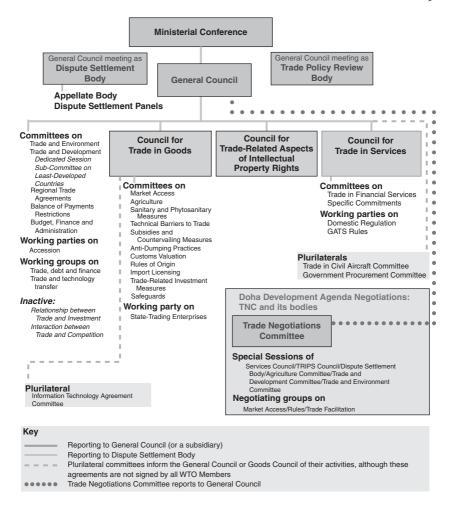


Figure I.1 WTO organizational structure

Chairperson to administer the rules in the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes.

The Council for TRIPS is one of the three sectoral (i.e. subject area) Councils operating under the General Council, the other two being the Council for Trade in Goods and the Council for Trade in Services. It is the body, open to all Members of the WTO, responsible for the administration of the TRIPS Agreement and in particular for monitoring the operation of the Agreement. The Council meets in Geneva formally three to four times a year as well as informally as necessary.

The WTO Agreement serves as an umbrella agreement for the TRIPS Agreement and the other trade agreements annexed to it. It includes provisions on the structure and operation of the WTO. Section E of this chapter explores some of these institutional aspects, namely the crosscutting decision-making and amendment procedures in the WTO Agreement, and discusses the work of the Council for TRIPS.

4 Overview of TRIPS provisions

The TRIPS Agreement is a comprehensive multilateral agreement on IP. It deals with each of the main categories of IPRs, establishes standards of protection as well as rules on administration and enforcement of IPRs, and provides for the application of the WTO dispute settlement mechanism to resolve disputes between Members concerning compliance with its standards. The following is a brief introduction to the various parts of the Agreement.

(a) General provisions and basic principles

Part I of the TRIPS Agreement sets out general provisions and basic principles of the Agreement, such as national treatment and most-favoured-nation (MFN) treatment, and exhaustion of IPRs. These general provisions and basic principles are discussed in section B of this chapter.

(b) Standards concerning the availability, scope and use of intellectual property rights

Part II of the Agreement sets out the minimum standards of IP protection to be provided by each Member in the following fields:

- (1) copyright and related rights (i.e. the rights of performers, producers of sound recordings and broadcasting organizations);
- (2) trademarks, including service marks;
- (3) GIs;
- (4) industrial designs;
- (5) patents, including the protection of new varieties of plants;
- (6) the layout-designs of integrated circuits; and
- (7) undisclosed information, including trade secrets and test data.

Part II also contains provisions on the control of anti-competitive practices in contractual licences. These areas of IP and control of anti-competitive practices will be discussed in Chapters II to VI of this *Handbook*.

In respect of each of these fields of IP, the main elements of protection are defined:

- the subject matter eligible for protection;
- the scope of rights to be conferred;
- permissible exceptions to those rights; and,
- where applicable, the minimum duration of protection.

The TRIPS Agreement sets these standards firstly by requiring compliance with the substantive obligations of the main conventions of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), the Paris Convention and the Berne Convention in their most recent versions. With the exception of the provisions of the Berne Convention on moral rights, all the main substantive provisions of these two conventions are incorporated by reference and thus become obligations between WTO Members under the TRIPS Agreement, separately from the obligations they mostly have to one another directly under those conventions. The relevant provisions are to be found in Articles 2.1 and 9.1, which relate, respectively, to the Paris Convention and to the Berne Convention.

The TRIPS Agreement then adds a substantial number of additional obligations on matters where the pre-existing conventions were silent or were seen as being inadequate. The TRIPS Agreement is thus sometimes referred to as a 'Berne-plus' and 'Paris-plus' agreement. As explained later in Chapter II, the TRIPS provisions on related rights contain certain references to the Rome Convention. The Section on the protection of layout-designs of integrated circuits, explained in Chapter VI, incorporates most of the substantive provisions of the Treaty on Intellectual Property in Respect of Integrated Circuits (IPIC Treaty). Article 2.2 of the TRIPS Agreement contains a safeguard clause, according to which the provisions of the Agreement cannot be understood to derogate from the existing obligations that Members may have to each other under the Paris Convention, the Berne Convention, the Rome Convention or the IPIC Treaty.³

³ Unless otherwise indicated, in this *Handbook*, 'Paris Convention' refers to the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property (the Stockholm Act of 14 July 1967); 'Berne Convention' refers to the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works (the Paris Act of 24 July 1971); 'Rome Convention' refers to the International Convention for the Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms and Broadcasting Organizations, adopted at Rome on 26 October 1961; and the 'IPIC Treaty' to the Treaty on Intellectual Property in Respect of Integrated Circuits, adopted at Washington on 26 May 1989.

(c) Enforcement

Part III of the TRIPS Agreement deals with domestic procedures and remedies for the enforcement of IPRs. The Agreement lays down certain general principles applicable to IP enforcement procedures. In addition, it contains provisions on civil and administrative procedures and remedies, provisional measures, special requirements related to border measures and criminal procedures. These provisions specify, in a certain amount of detail, the procedures and remedies that must be available so that right holders can effectively enforce their rights and also provide for safeguards against the abuse of such procedures and remedies as barriers to legitimate trade. These provisions are discussed in Chapter VII.

(d) Certain other matters

Part IV of the Agreement contains general rules on procedures related to the acquisition and maintenance of IPRs, particularly concerning how applications for IP protection are administered and the kind of appeals or reviews that should be available. These rules are explained below in section C of this chapter.

Part V of the Agreement deals with dispute prevention and settlement. The Agreement makes disputes between Members about the respect of obligations contained in it, whether in the field of substantive standards or in the field of enforcement, subject to the WTO's dispute settlement procedures. Dispute prevention and settlement are discussed in Chapter VIII.

Part VI of the Agreement contains provisions on transition periods, transfer of technology and technical cooperation. Part VII deals with institutional arrangements and certain cross-cutting matters such as the protection of existing subject matter. These two Parts are covered below in section D of this chapter.

B General provisions and basic principles of the TRIPS Agreement

1 Objectives and principles

The general goals of the TRIPS Agreement are set out in its Preamble, and include reducing distortions and impediments to international trade, promoting effective and adequate protection of IPRs, and ensuring that measures and procedures to enforce IPRs do not themselves become barriers to legitimate trade. The Preamble is largely drawn from the Uruguay Round mandates given to the negotiators of the TRIPS Agreement in the 1986 Punta del Este Declaration (reproduced on p. 6) and in the April 1988 mid-term review decision (relevant extract in footnote 2).

The general goals contained in the Preamble of the Agreement should be read in conjunction with Article 7, entitled 'Objectives'. Article 7 reflects the search for a balanced approach to IP protection in the societal interest, taking into account the interests of both producers and users. IP protection is expected to contribute not only to the promotion of technological innovation, but also to the transfer and dissemination of technology in a way that benefits both its producers and users and that respects a balance of rights and obligations, with the overall goal of promoting social and economic welfare.

Article 8, entitled 'Principles', recognizes the rights of Members to adopt measures for public health and other public interest reasons and to prevent the abuse of IPRs, provided that such measures are consistent with the provisions of the TRIPS Agreement.

The Preamble and Articles 7 and 8 express the general goals, objectives and principles of the Agreement. As recognized by WTO dispute settlement panels, they are to be borne in mind when the substantive rules of the Agreement are being examined. The 2001 Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health provides (in paragraph 5(a)) that '[i]n applying the customary rules of interpretation of public international law, each provision of the TRIPS Agreement shall be read in the light of the object and purpose of the Agreement as expressed, in particular, in its objectives and principles'.

2 Minimum standards agreement

As discussed above, the TRIPS Agreement sets out minimum standards of protection to be provided by each Member. Article 1.1 makes it clear that Members may, but are not obliged to, implement in their law more extensive protection than required by the Agreement, provided that such protection does not contravene its provisions. For example, Members may provide for longer terms of protection than that mandated by the TRIPS Agreement but they are not required to do so; however, they cannot do this in a way that conflicts with TRIPS

provisions. For instance, in light of the principle of non-discrimination, longer protection could not be made available only to nationals of one country.

Article 1.1 further clarifies that Members are free to determine the appropriate method of implementing the provisions of the TRIPS Agreement within their own legal system and practice.

Given the long history of international cooperation on IP matters, the national laws in this area are often fairly similar. However, to establish how the law applies in any concrete practical situation, the applicable national law will have to be consulted.

3 Beneficiaries

As in the main pre-existing IP conventions, the basic obligation on each Member is to accord the treatment in regard to the protection of IP provided for under the Agreement to right holders and users of other Members. Article 1.3 defines who these persons are. They are referred to as 'nationals' but include persons, natural or legal, who have a close attachment to a Member without necessarily having the nationality of that Member. The criteria for determining which persons must thus benefit from the treatment provided for under the Agreement are those laid down for this purpose in the pre-existing IP conventions of WIPO referred to in the Agreement, applied of course with respect to all WTO Members whether or not they are party to those conventions. The following clarifies who the beneficiaries are for industrial property rights and for copyright and related rights, as the rules differ slightly between these categories.

(a) Industrial property

Pursuant to Articles 2 and 3 of the Paris Convention, protection is granted in the case of industrial property to natural or legal persons who:

- are nationals of a Member;
- are domiciled in a Member; or
- have real and effective industrial or commercial establishments in a Member.

Pursuant to Article 5 of the IPIC Treaty, similar criteria for determining eligible beneficiaries are applied in relation to layout-designs of integrated circuits.

(b) Copyright

Pursuant to Articles 3 and 4 of the Berne Convention, protection is granted to authors of literary or artistic works who:

- are nationals of a Member:
- have their habitual residence in a Member;
- have their works first (or simultaneously) published in a Member;
- are authors of cinematographic works the maker of which has his headquarters or habitual residence in a Member; or
- are authors of works of architecture erected in a Member or of other artistic works incorporated in a building or other structure located in a Member.

(c) Performers

Pursuant to Article 4 of the Rome Convention, protection is granted to performers whose:

- performance takes place in another Member;
- performance is incorporated in a phonogram as defined below; or
- performance is covered by a broadcast as defined below.

(d) Producers of phonograms

Pursuant to Article 5 of the Rome Convention, protection is granted to producers of phonograms:

- if the producer is a national of another Member;
- if the first fixation of sound (i.e. recording) was made in another Member; or
- if the phonogram was first published in another Member.

In accordance with the provisions of Article 5(3) of the Rome Convention as incorporated into the TRIPS Agreement, a Member may declare that it does not apply either the criterion of fixation or that of publication. The criterion of nationality, however, may not be excluded.

(e) Broadcasting organizations

Pursuant to Article 6 of the Rome Convention, protection is granted to broadcasting organizations:

- whose headquarters are situated in another Member; or
- when the broadcast was transmitted from a transmitter in another Member.

In accordance with the provisions of Article 6(2) of the Rome Convention as incorporated into the TRIPS Agreement, a Member may declare that it will protect broadcasts only if both relevant conditions are met, i.e. that the headquarters of the broadcasting organization are situated in another Member and the broadcast was transmitted from a transmitter situated in the same Member.

4 National treatment and most-favoured-nation treatment

A key principle in the WTO is that of non-discrimination. It applies to trade in goods, trade in services and IPRs. It has two components: national treatment, and most-favoured-nation (MFN) treatment. As regards IPRs, the fundamental rules on national and MFN treatment of foreign nationals can be found in Articles 3 to 5 of the TRIPS Agreement. These rules are common to all categories of IP covered by the Agreement. These obligations cover not only the substantive standards of protection but also matters affecting the availability, acquisition, scope, maintenance and enforcement of IPRs as well as those matters affecting the use of IPRs specifically addressed in the Agreement. While the national treatment clause forbids discrimination between a Member's own nationals and the nationals of other Members, the MFN treatment clause forbids discrimination between the nationals of other Members.

Article 3 of the TRIPS Agreement on national treatment requires each Member to accord to the nationals of other Members treatment no less favourable than that it accords to its own nationals with regard to the protection of IP. With respect to the national treatment obligation, the exceptions allowed under the four pre-existing WIPO treaties (Paris, Berne, Rome and IPIC) are also allowed under TRIPS.

An important exception to national treatment is the so-called 'comparison of terms' for copyright protection allowed under Article 7(8) of the Berne Convention as incorporated into the TRIPS Agreement. If a Member provides a term of protection in excess of the minimum term required by the TRIPS Agreement, it does not need to protect a work for a duration that exceeds the term fixed in the country of origin of that work. In other words, the additional term can be made available to foreigners on the basis of 'material reciprocity'. For example, if Member A provides its own nationals with a copyright term of seventy years, instead of fifty years as required by Article 12 of the TRIPS Agreement, while Member B provides for fifty years, Member A need not protect works from Member B for more than fifty years.