

**TRADE, ENVIRONMENT, AND SUSTAINABLE  
DEVELOPMENT: A PRIMER**

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# Trade, Environment, and Sustainable Development: A Primer

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Free trade policy is designed to let markets allocate resources to their most efficient uses, while environmental policy seeks to manage and maintain the earth's resources efficiently. Conflicts can and do arise where the same resources are subject to both trade efforts to allocate and environmental efforts to manage and maintain. This conflict must be reconciled; both trade and environmental policies are too important to conflicts persist. Yet many environmentalists still believe that the economic system, including trade, is the enemy, and many trade and development experts still believe that the environment is not a fundamental part of the economy, but rather a luxury to be added on later, when it can be afforded.

The trade and environmental communities have different backgrounds and professional "cultures." Economic principles, such as efficiency and comparative advantage, guide trade experts while environmental experts are informed more by the biological sciences and ecological principles.

On the other hand, most environmental professionals appreciate the need to internalize environmental costs. Many now see that market-based strategies often may be more efficient than command and control strategies in achieving this goal. In addition to the common language of cost internalization, both the trade and environmental cultures use law to help implement their goals and to resolve disputes.

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Given time, it seems reasonable to expect that both trade and environmental policy makers will adopt sustainable development as a primary goal. As the Environmental Protection Agency's Trade and Environment Committee noted last summer, "On the most fundamental level, trade and environmental policy must meet in the concept of sustainable development. Both trade policy and environmental policy serve that concept as their ultimate goal."<sup>1</sup>

The problem, of course, is that time is running out. By the end of the twenty-first century world population is expected to double to 12 billion people, and the world economy of sixteen trillion dollars is expected to reach eighty trillion dollars.<sup>2</sup> Scientists have detected record levels of ozone-depleting chemical chlorine monoxide over the New England region of the United States and Canada. This discovery raises fears that a new hole in the ozone layer may be opening, exposing large numbers of people to harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation.<sup>3</sup> Assuming that the present rate of growth in greenhouse gases remains constant, we have already committed the earth to a mean global warming of between 1.5 degrees and 8 degrees Fahrenheit (1.5 degrees to 4.5 degrees Celsius).

Even with the most optimistic projections of technological advancement, these growth trends in population and the economy almost certainly cannot be sustained. Still more troubling is that the standard of living today's development already appears to be overextending the ecological capacity that sustains us all. "Further growth beyond the present scale," according to World Bank senior economist Herman Daly, "is overwhelmingly likely to increase costs more rapidly than it increases benefits, thus leading to a new era of uneconomic growth that impoverishes rather than enriches."

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1. See EPA Trade and Environment Committee, Minutes of Aug. 5, 1991 Meeting (unpublished minutes on file with CIEL-US). The GATT Secretariat has, however, denied any linkage between trade and the achievement of sustainable development. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment 3 (undated advance copy on file with author) [hereinafter GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment]. The GATT Secretariat views trade as a mere "magnifier" of the existing policies. *Id.* Thus, if a country has sound environmental policies in place, trade will promote them. *Id.* "Alternatively, if such policies are not in place, the country's international trade may contribute to a skewing of the country's development in an environmentally damaging direction, but then so will most of the other economic activity in the country." *Id.* The Secretariat does not view this "magnifier" effect as a direct relationship between trade and the goal of sustainable development. *Id.*

2. See GEORGE HEATON ET AL., *TRANSFORMING TECHNOLOGY: AN AGENDA FOR ENVIRONMENTALLY SUSTAINABLE GROWTH IN THE 21ST CENTURY* 1 (1991).

3. See Cathy Sawyer, *Ozone-Hole Conditions Spreading*, WASH. POST, Feb. 4, 1991, A1.

4. See Dean Edwin Abrahamson, *Global Warming: The Issue, Impacts, Responses* (THE CHALLENGE OF GLOBAL WARMING 10 (Dean Edwin Abrahamson ed., 1989)).

enriches."<sup>5</sup> Daly believes that "[t]his is the fundamental wild fact that far has not found expression in words sufficiently ferocious to assault successfully the civil stupor of economic discourse."<sup>6</sup>

As the critical scientific and policy debate about the limits of the ecosystem continues, it is necessary to reconcile the legal relationships between trade agreements and environmental agreements. They can remain at odds if we are to achieve sustainable development and long-term international economic prosperity. Accordingly, this Article surveys provisions within the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)<sup>7</sup> and other trade agreements relevant to environmental concerns. It then reviews several international environmental agreements and U.S. laws for possible friction with those trade provisions. The Article concludes by briefly discussing issues and options for reducing or eliminating such friction.

## II. PROVISIONS WITHIN TRADE AGREEMENTS RELEVANT TO ENVIRONMENTAL AGREEMENTS AND CONCERNS

The GATT provides the legal framework under which almost all trade among nations occurs. A number of regional (e.g., the European Free Trade Association) and bilateral trade agreements (e.g., the United States-Canada Free Trade Agreement) co-exist with the GATT.

GATT and these other agreements seek to provide a secure and predictable international trading environment while fostering greater economic efficiency and growth through trade liberalization. The GATT preamble accordingly recognizes "that . . . trade and economic endeavor

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5. HERMAN DALY & JOHN COBB, FOR THE COMMON GOOD: REDIRECTING THE ECONOMY TOWARDS COMMUNITY, THE ENVIRONMENT, AND A SUSTAINABLE FUTURE (1989).

6. *Id.*

7. General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, *opened for signature* Oct. 30, 1947, 61 Stat. A3, 55 U.N.T.S. 187 [hereinafter GATT]. GATT was signed in 1947 by 23 countries and its rules, which provide the basic structural framework in which trade and environment interact, went into force on January 1, 1948. The United States became a contracting party to GATT by executive agreement and proclamation. See Protocol of Provisional Application of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, Oct. 30, 1947, 61 Stat. pt. 6, at A2051 U.N.T.S. 308; Proclamation No. 2761A, 12 Fed. Reg. 8863 (1947). Despite the fact that the Senate has never explicitly consented to GATT, nor has Congress formally approved or implemented the agreement, GATT is generally accepted as a binding treaty obligation of the United States. See John H. Jackson, *Changing GATT Rules* (Nov. 7, 1991) (memorandum to the Trade and Environment Committee of the EPA); Robert Hudec, *The Legal Status of GATT in the Domestic Law of the United States, in THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY AND GATT* 187, 199 (Meinhard Hilf et al. ed., 1986).

should be conducted with a view to raising standards of living, . . . opening the full use of the resources of the world and expanding t. . . production and exchange of goods . . . .”<sup>8</sup> Free trade proponents argue utilizing the “comparative advantage” of individual countries ma. . . the welfare of all. The economic activity spawned by trade, howev. . . both positive and negative consequences for the environment viewed in the context of sustainable development.

## A. GATT

The GATT consists of three major parts: Part I (articles I which contains the most-favored-nation and tariff concession oblig. . . Part II (articles III to XXIII), sometimes referred to as the “conduct,” which contains the majority of the GATT’s substantive sions and the exceptions to its obligations; and Part III (articles X XXXVIII), which contains the procedural mechanisms for imple. . . the other obligations and provisions contained within the GATT

### 1. GATT’s General Trade Principles and Their Environm. Implications

#### a. *The Most-Favored-Nation-Principle*

Article I’s most-favored-nation principle (MFN) ensures th. . . contracting parties do not discriminate among imported products basis of their national origin. The MFN obligation requires th. . . contracting party extend immediately and unconditionally any p. . . or advantage it provides to a product to like products from, or d. . . for, all GATT contracting parties. The MFN obligation applies: 1) customs, duties, and charges related to imports and exports; 2) th. . . ods of levying all such duties and charges; 3) rules, regulations, an. . . cedures connected with importation and exportation; and 4) i. . . taxes, charges, laws, regulations, restrictions, and rules affecting. . . ternal sale or offering for sale, purchase, transportation, warehou. . . storage, distribution, or use of a product.<sup>10</sup>

Because the MFN principle requires that the parties treat. . . products equally, it seemingly prohibits a contracting party from. . . trade restrictions to address the differences in environmental sou.

8. GATT, *supra* note 7, pmb1, 61 Stat. at A11.

9. See JOHN H. JACKSON, *THE WORLD TRADING SYSTEM: LAW AND POLIC. . . INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC RELATIONS* 40 (1989).

10. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. I, 61 Stat. at A12; see also Jeanne J. Grimmett, *mental Regulation and the GATT*, Aug. 1991, at 3-4 Cong. Res. Service, No. 91-285-.

Such differences may be caused by differences in production methods (PPMs) that exist between like products originating from nations with high environmental standards and from nations with low environmental standards or lax enforcement.<sup>11</sup> Thus, an importation ban such as the European Community's ban on animal furs caught in leghold traps—or a tax on a product of one contracting party, imposed because the PPM used in creating that product was environmentally harmful, would appear to run afoul of the MFN.<sup>12</sup>

Additionally, the MFN obligation has been found to apply to labeling schemes that are not marks of origin, including “eco-labeling” programs.<sup>13</sup> Therefore, government labeling requirements relating to PPMs that grant market access or indirectly provide market advantages may also conflict with this GATT provision.

### b. *The National Treatment Principle*

Article III's national treatment principle requires that a contracting party treat like foreign and domestic products equally once they have met tariffs and other import requirements.<sup>14</sup> Additionally, article III requires that any measure taken under its guise may not be applied to protect the domestic industry.

As the GATT Secretariat has noted so eloquently:

Production and consumption activities in other countries can also be a source of domestic environmental concern. Pollution may be spilling over borders and harming either the regional environment (acid rain)

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11. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 10 (“In principle it is not possible under GATT's rules to make access to one's own domestic market dependent on the domestic environmental policies or practices of the exporting country.”); Grimrind, *supra* note 10, at 16; WORLD WILDLIFE FOUNDATION, THE GENERAL AGREEMENT ON TRADES AND TRADE, ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (1991) [hereinafter WWF]; ROBERT REPETTO, ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES IN RELATION TO GATT 1 (1991).

12. See *supra* note 11; Council Regulation 3254/91, 1991 O.J. (L 308) 1-2.

13. *United States—Restrictions on Imports of Tuna*, 50-51, GATT Doc. DS21/R (September 1991) (finding *inter alia* that certain provisions of U.S. law that protect dolphins in the Eastern Tropical Pacific Ocean, as applied to imports of Mexican tuna, violated the United States obligations under GATT) [hereinafter *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*]; see also generally R. Housman & Durwood Zaelke, *The Collision of the Environment and Trade: The GATT Tuna/Dolphin Decision*, 22 ENVTL. L. REP. 10,268, 10,273-74 (1992). The Tuna/Dolphin Panel upheld the particular labeling provisions before the panel because the provisions allowed importers of dolphin-safe tuna the option of disclosing its environmental character, but did not require unsafe or safe tuna to bear certain labeling to be sold. *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra*, at 51. The panel implied that if the labeling requirements had required certain labeling, they would have violated the GATT. *Id.*

14. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. III, 61 Stat. at A18.

or the global commons (ozone depletion). Or land development projects may be threatening the extinction of an animal or plant species, and uncontrolled fishing may be depleting fish stock in the seas. It is not unreasonable that the government of a country concerned by such practices would seek to see them changed—and that it would find it difficult to accept that this would not be possible. . . . *principle it is not possible under GATT's rules to make access to a country's own market dependent on the domestic environmental policies or practices of the exporting country.*<sup>15</sup>

Article III as applied appears to prohibit a nation from imposing tariffs, levies, or other import restrictions to protect the competitiveness of a domestic industry that internalizes environmental costs in its product cost. Foreign competitors whose product costs do not reflect environmental costs associated with the production of their products gain a competitive advantage over the domestic products.<sup>16</sup>

While article III restricts a contracting party from imposing more stringent regulations on imported products than on domestic products, article III does allow a contracting party to impose the same internal regulations applying to domestic products upon imported products at the point of importation. In order to qualify as a "point of importation," the regulation must further apply directly to the product. A restriction must alter or affect the physical or chemical makeup of the product. A restriction failing to qualify as a point of importation regulation is a quantitative restriction and thus violates GATT's general obligation. Thus, a contracting party that distinguishes among imported products based on the environmental soundness of the exporting party's products is vulnerable to attack under article III.<sup>18</sup>

While article III allows point of importation regulations, it should be read narrowly to permit only those restrictions that apply directly to and affect the physical and/or chemical composition of, the product at the point of importation.<sup>19</sup> It is as yet unclear as to what level of effect article III requires a regulation to make in the product. For example, must a

15. GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 8-10 (emphasis original).

16. GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 11; *Tuna Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 50; see also Grimmett, *supra* note 10, at 16; WWF, *supra* note 11, at 12.

17. See *supra* note 14 and accompanying text. This provision raises the issue of whether required product content labeling requirements, that relate to, but do not affect, the content of a product, could violate article III.

18. Housman & Zaelke, *supra* note 13, at 10,276.

19. *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 41.



hormones. The only differences between the natural hormone-beef and the all-natural beef is the level of hormones present and these hormones came to be present. Whether natural hormone-beef and all-natural beef are "like" products and must be regulated similarly or are not "like" products and may be regulated differently is unclear.

### c. *The Prohibition of Quantitative Restrictions*

GATT article XI prohibits quantitative restrictions such as bans, and licensing schemes on imported or exported products. XI contains several narrow exceptions that allow departure from general proscription, such as the application of standards to internationally-sold commodities and agricultural products.<sup>25</sup> Even when exceptions permit a quantitative restriction, the contracting parties still observe the MFN and national treatment obligations in imposing it.<sup>26</sup>

Applying the strict prohibition against quantitative restrictions hamper environmental initiatives that are not directly intended to protectionist devices in the common sense of the term. By broadly prohibiting non-tariff barriers, the ban on quantitative restrictions also prevents a contracting party from instituting environmental restrictions such as a conservation ban or limit imposed on exports of resources (unless it can be justified as an article XX exception).<sup>27</sup> Examples of environmental protections that could conflict with the prohibition of quantitative measures include the United States law banning the exportation of growth timber harvested from federal lands.<sup>28</sup>

While the quantitative restriction prohibition may restrict the options available to a contracting party, such constraints sometimes

25. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. XI(2), 61 Stat. at A33. Other than through a specific exemption, the only way a quantitative restriction can conform with the GATT is by falling within one of the public policy exceptions set out in article XX.

26. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. XIII, 61 Stat. at A40, art. XIV, 61 Stat. at A41. An extensive prescriptions regarding the non-discriminatory administration of quantitative restrictions.

27. See Grimmett, *supra* note 10, at 19; WWF, *supra* note 11, at 14. Article XXIV exceptions are discussed *infra* at notes 42-43 and accompanying text.

28. 16 U.S.C. §§ 620(a), (c), (e), 489(a), 491(a), 493(5) (Supp. I 1990); see also *L. Protectionism*, WALL ST. J., Sept. 6, 1990, at A14; Dori Jones Yung, *Weyerhaeuser's An Endangered Species*, BUS. WK., July 16, 1990, at 51. The Forest Resources Conservation and Shortage Relief Act of 1990, Pub. L. No. 101-382, (codified at 16 U.S.C. § 488 (Supp. I 1990)) is intended "to ensure sufficient supplies of certain forest resources or which are essential to the United States" while simultaneously requiring that action to meet this objective conform with the obligations of the U.S. under GATT.

tion affect the content, appearance, value, or performance of a product in order to fall within article III? If a content difference is required, it is unclear whether, and to what degree, the difference must be discernable. This limitation appears to exclude from article III point of importation regulations all environmental regulations that govern the PPM of a product, as opposed to the product itself.<sup>20</sup> Even those environmental production process standards that encourage efficiency and free trade, such as Canadian regulations requiring paper products to contain a certain percentage of recycled materials, could be found to violate the prohibition on PPM regulations.<sup>21</sup> Because Canada lacks a sufficient supply of recyclable wastes, these paper product regulations would actually encourage increased free trade.<sup>22</sup>

Similarly, to qualify for article III treatment, a point of importation regulation must apply equally to "like" domestic and imported products.<sup>23</sup> But there is no guide as to how to determine when similar products are "like" products. For example, the European Community's ban on beef produced using hormones restricted the importation of both beef produced with natural hormones and beef produced with synthetic hormones.<sup>24</sup> Beef produced with synthetic hormones may not be "like" beef made without hormones. Beef made with artificially-provided natural hormones, however, has no chemicals not found in beef made with

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20. See Grimmett, *supra* note 10, at 16; Frederick L. Kirgis Jr., *Effective Pollution Controls in Industrialized Countries: International Economic Disincentives, Policy Responses, and GATT*, 70 MICH. L. REV. 860, 893-901 (1972); WWF, *supra* note 11, at 12; Durwood Ziegl et al., *Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environmental Protection* (1992) (paper prepared for the Trade & Environment Comm., Nat'l Advisory Council on Environment & Technology, EPA) [hereinafter *Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environmental Protections*]. If, however, a PPM has an effect on the product, then the PPM will be GATT consistent. PPMs that do not actually affect the product are not, unless otherwise provided for, consistent with GATT.

21. *Imposition of Recycled Paper Regulations Would Force Imports From U.S., India Says*, 14 Int'l Environ. Rep. (BNA) 462, 462-63 (1991) [hereinafter *Imposition of Recycled Paper Regulations*]. While the Canadian regulation appears to regulate the content of the paper, if it requires a certain percentage of the material to be derived from recycled materials, and there is a discernable difference between paper made from recycled materials and that made from virgin materials, the regulation will be deemed a production process regulation. See Joint Session of Trade and Environment Experts, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, *The Applicability of the GATT to Trade and Environmental Concerns* 13, C/O ENV/EC/TD (91) 66 (Oct. 24, 1991) [hereinafter *OECD, Joint Session*] (noting the distinction between PPMs that affect the product and those PPMs that do not affect the product is often times a difficult, yet seminal, distinction). If a content difference is required, it is unclear to what extent that difference must be discernable.

22. See *Imposition of Recycled Paper Regulations*, *supra* note 21.

23. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. III, 62 Stat. at 3680.

24. See Council Directive 88/146, 1988 O.J. (L 70) 16.

vide an environmental benefit. In some instances the trade distortion caused by imposing quantitative restrictions can exacerbate the very environmental harms the trade measures were intended to minimize or eliminate. The Indonesian ban on exports of unprocessed timber provides an illustration. The intent of the Indonesian ban was to remove development pressures causing the unsustainable use of dwindling forest resources. In practice, the export ban has been cited as having caused discriminatory preference to accrue to local, inefficient sawmills, yielding a lower rate of output per unit of log input, resulting in increased levels of environmental degradation.<sup>29</sup>

## 2. Other GATT Articles and Their Impact on Environmental Agreements and Concerns

In addition to the GATT's general principles, many of the GATT's other articles could cause friction between trade and environmental policies.

### a. *Article II: Maximum Tariff Barriers*

Article II establishes the negotiated maximum tariff levels, as provided in the accompanying annexes to the GATT, for national products.<sup>30</sup> This article also prohibits the imposition of import surcharges exempting the scheduled items from all other duties and/or charges imposed in connection with importation. Article II(2)(a), however, provides exceptions to the maximum tariff levels for: 1) any charge impos-

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29. See Carlos Alberto Primo Braga, *Tropical Forests and Trade Policy: The Case of Indonesia and Brazil 19 (1991)* (paper presented at the Symposium on Int'l Trade & the Environment sponsored by Int'l Trade Division, Int'l Economics Dep't, World Bank). Despite the quantifiable short-term environmental harms from the Indonesian export ban, the long-term environmental effects—including the environmental gains made through the reduction of poverty from increased profits to the local areas of production—of the ban are difficult to quantify. ROBERT REPETTO, *THE FOREST FOR THE TREES? GOVERNMENT POLICIES AND THE MANAGEMENT OF FOREST RESOURCES* (World Resources Institute ed., 1988).

From the Indonesian experience, one scholar argues that the failure of trade policies to create environmental protections in Indonesia demonstrates that trade policies are, generally, not an appropriate vehicle for creating environmental protections. See Braga, *supra*. Factors and nuances, however, make it difficult to extrapolate the overall effectiveness of trade restrictions in creating environmental protections from this one example and work against this scholarly conclusion. Whether or not trade policies are actually appropriate mechanisms for creating environmental protections, the ability of the author to draw this conclusion from the isolated example of Indonesia's ban on unfinished timber exports must be questioned. The Indonesian example involved the unilateral use of export bans that resulted in the creation of inefficient local industries that, in the absence of any domestic conservation initiatives, had incentives to increase their long-term sustainable production capabilities. See *id.*

30. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. II, 61 Stat. at A13.

on an import, consistent with the national treatment principle, equivalent to an internal tax imposed on the like domestic products from which the like domestic and imported products are derived. 2) antidumping or countervailing duties applied consistent with GATT; and 3) fees or charges, in accordance with article VII (value for customs purposes), commensurate with the costs of services rendered.<sup>31</sup>

In essence, article II in its current form is environmentally neutral. While article II does not provide a mechanism that would allow environmental regulations to satisfy the GATT's other obligations, article II does not prohibit the use of antidumping measures or countervailing duties to equalize the environmental standards subsidy provided to industries of nations with lower environmental standards, nor does it prohibit the application of internal environmental regulations to imported products at the point of importation.<sup>32</sup>

The only deviation from the environmental neutrality of article II occurs in the case of products that appear on the article's annexed list of scheduled items. If a product is listed, such as tropical timber, the contracting party cannot levy new import taxes or other charges on such products, such as a sustainable use tax, that does not conform with the listed negotiated charges.<sup>33</sup>

#### b. *Article VI: Antidumping and Countervailing Duties*

Article VI condemns the practice of dumping—when one contracting party introduces products into the markets of another contracting party at less than the normal value of the products—if it causes or threatens material harm to a domestic industry or retards the development of a domestic industry.<sup>34</sup> Article VI also sets the ground rules by which contracting parties may impose antidumping duties on imported products and may apply countervailing duties to offset bound subsidies relating to imported products.<sup>35</sup> The Subsidies Code negotiated in the Tokyo Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations significantly elaborates upon the scope and details of article VI.<sup>36</sup>

31. See *id.* art. II(2), 61 Stat. at A13.

32. As has been explained, however, other provisions of GATT, such as the Most-Favored-Nation clause in article II, would likely bar such environmental regulation.

33. See REPETTO, *supra* note 11, at 1.

34. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. VI, 61 Stat. at A23.

35. *Id.*

36. An analysis of the environmental implications of article VI and article XVI regarding subsidies can be found *infra* in section II.3.b.

c. *Article X: Transparency and Equal Access to Review Processes*

Article X requires transparency (that is, public access) in publishing and administering all regulations affecting trade.<sup>37</sup> This requirement applies to all laws, regulations, rules, judicial and administrative rulings of general or precedential application to requirements, restrictions or prohibitions, on imports or exports, or affecting the sale, offering for sale, purchase, distribution, transportation, insurance, warehousing, inspection, exhibition, processing, mixing or other use, of such imports or exports.<sup>38</sup> In addition, article X requires transparency and equal access to judicial and administrative review procedures related to such actions and/or requirements.

Article X grants importers and exporters equal access to information and review processes of contracting parties with regard to trade. Article X does not, however, provide affected citizens or consumers access to information or recourse to review procedures when imports or exports allegedly cause them environmental harm. Moreover, the transparency requirements in article X do not apply to the GATT's own information and review processes.

d. *Article XII and Article XIII: Developing Countries Balance of Payment*

Article XII, as elaborated in the Declaration on Trade Measures Taken for Balance of Payment Purposes from the Tokyo round, and article XIII provide certain limited exceptions to the other GATT obligations for import restrictions imposed by developing countries as a result of their concern over their balance of payments.<sup>39</sup>

The developing country allowances in articles XII and XIII give developing nations greater leeway in enacting measures to protect infant industries. This increased leeway can assist these nations in achieving sustainable patterns of growth by minimizing pressures on fledgling industries to overutilize natural resources in order to ensure their short-term survival.

e. *Article XVI: Subsidies*

Article XVI embodies the GATT's general aversion to trade-distorting subsidies. While article XVI does not itself prohibit the use of such subsidies, its provisions form the basis of the challenge and coun-

37. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. X, 61 Stat. at A30-31.

38. See *id.*

39. See *id.* art. XII, 61 Stat. at A34, art. XIII, 61 Stat. at A40.

vailing duties provisions developed in the GATT Subsidies Code.

f. *Article XIX: Emergency Measures Provisions*

Article XIX allows a contracting party to impose emergency restrictions to protect a domestic industry that is seriously threatened by imports.<sup>41</sup> If an environmental regulation so burdens a domestic industry as to place it in jeopardy, article XIX allows the contracting party to adopt measures to protect its industry. The procedural and political costs of invoking article XIX, however, significantly diminish its value as a bridge between trade and environmental concerns.

g. *Article XX: Policy Exceptions*

Article XX establishes limited exceptions to the contracting party's general obligations under the GATT for measures based on national security considerations.<sup>42</sup> These exceptions do not exempt measures that constitute arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination between countries or that are disguised restrictions on international trade. In a challenge to a contracting party's action, the party seeking to invoke article XX to justify its departure from the GATT's general obligations bears the burden of proving that the action: 1) was justified and not arbitrarily applied; and 2) is proportional in scope (i.e., "necessary") to the concern giving rise to the action so as to meet the objectives of the exceptions.<sup>43</sup>

i. *Article XX(b): Human, Animal, and Plant Life or Health*

Article XX(b) provides an exception for measures "necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health."<sup>44</sup> The Tuna/Dolphin Panel held that article XX(b)'s exception is available only for measures to protect safety, and preservation initiatives within a contracting party's jurisdiction, and not within the global commons (or within the jurisdiction of a third party state).<sup>45</sup>

40. See *id.* art. XVI, 61 Stat. at A51. The provisions of the Subsidies Code, and its environmental implications, are further elaborated on *infra* section II.3.b.

41. *Id.* art. XIX, 61 Stat. at A58.

42. *Id.* art. XX, 61 Stat. at A60-61.

43. *Id.* art. XX, 61 Stat. at A60-61; see also Piritta Sorsa, GATT and Environmental Issues and Some Developing Country Concerns (1991) (paper presented at the Symposium on Int'l Trade & the Env't, sponsored by Int'l Trade Division, Int'l Economics Dept. Bank).

44. *Id.* art. XX(1)(b), 61 Stat. at A61.

45. See *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 45-46. It is, however, unclear from the Panel's report whether this jurisdictional limitation applies to the scope of the action, or to the location of the individual or species protected. The Panel based its decision on the fact that article XX(1)(b) did not extend "extrajurisdictionally" upon a somewhat erroneous

The GATT dispute panel report addressing Thai restrictions on taxes on imported cigarettes interpreted the term "necessary" as used in article XX(b) to require that: 1) no reasonably available alternative measure consistent with the GATT existed, and 2) the measure taken was the least trade restrictive measure of all available alternatives.<sup>46</sup> Elaborating on these requirements, the Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report noted that the United States had not demonstrated to the Panel—as required of a party invoking an article XX exception—that it had exhausted all options reasonably available to it to pursue its dolphin protection objectives through measures consistent with the GATT, including, in particular, the negotiation of international cooperative arrangements relating to dolphin protection.<sup>47</sup> Moreover, even assuming that an import prohibition was the only measure reasonably available to the United States, the panel felt that the United States' measure could not be considered necessary within the meaning of article XX(b) because of its unpredictable application.<sup>48</sup>

The limitations that recent GATT dispute panel reports have placed on the use of article XX(b) negatively impact many measures currently proposed by environmental groups. The goal of article XX(b) is to provide the contracting parties with the ability to take measures they feel necessary to preserve and protect the lives of humans, animals, and plants.

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understanding of the negotiating history of the article. Cf. Steve Charnovitz, *Exploring the Environmental Exceptions in GATT Article XX*, 25 J. OF WORLD TRADE 37, 38-47 (1990) (providing an excellent discussion of the negotiating history of article XX). Because the *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report* has not, as yet, been adopted by the contracting parties, the panel's decision is not binding. Absent any changes to the GATT, it is likely, however, that if a future panel was confronted with similar issues, the panel would apply the same reasoning as the *Tuna/Dolphin Panel*.

46. *Thailand - Restrictions on Importation of and Internal Taxes on Cigarettes, Report of the Panel adopted 7 November 1990*, BISD (37th Supp.) 200-23 para. 74 (1990) (in a dispute concerning Thai prohibitions on the importation or exportation of tobacco and tobacco products the panel held that, although smoking constituted a serious risk to human health, Thailand's measures were not necessary for protecting human life because alternative measures consistent with the GATT, could have been adopted instead).

47. See *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 46. Unfortunately, the *Tuna/Dolphin Panel* failed to recognize that the United States and the other ETP nations have involved in ongoing efforts to reach an agreement on the conservation of dolphins since the 1970s. See INTER-AMERICAN TROPICAL TUNA COMMISSION, 1977 ANNUAL REPORT 10 (1978); INTER-AMERICAN TROPICAL TUNA COMMISSION, 1987 ANNUAL REPORT 8-9 (1987).

48. *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 46. The United States had linked its maximum incidental dolphin taking rate which the Mexican tuna fleet had to meet during a particular period to be able to export tuna to the United States to the taking rate actually recorded for U.S. tuna fleet during the same period. Consequently, the Panel believed that Mexican authorities could not know whether, at a given point of time, their policies conformed to the United States' dolphin protection standards. The Panel considered that a limitation on trade based on such unpredictable conditions could not be regarded as "necessary" to protect the health or life of dolphins. *Id.*

species. Thus, article XX(b) would allow a ban, for example, on importing a product that was hazardous to life or health.<sup>49</sup> Although XX(b) still allows a safe haven for many important environmental treaties by limiting the application of the exception to domestic restrictions and by placing added requirements on the term "necessary," recent decisions have diminished the ability of article XX(b) to reconcile environmental and international trade policies and laws. First, for a restriction to be "necessary" under article XX(b), according to the Tuna/Dolphin Panel, the restriction must be preceded by an effort to find an international agreement to create the environmental protection desired. This requirement creates an obstacle to environmental protection because it substantially hinders the ability of the contracting parties to take unilateral actions, actions which frequently serve an important role in forcing the evolution of environmental protections gained from international agreements.<sup>51</sup> Moreover, the Tuna/Dolphin Panel decision requiring what is essentially a good faith attempt to enter into an agreement restricts the ability of contracting parties to act quickly when they perceive a developing environmental threat, given the typically lengthy period of time needed to negotiate an international agreement.

Second, the Tuna/Dolphin Panel's decision creates uncertainty to the extent to which a contracting party's environmental standards must be justified. One reading provides that by forcing contracting parties to set their environmental measures at a fixed level of protection "necessary" to achieve the goal of the exception, which is the protection and preservation of the species, the panel implicitly equates some degree of scientific certainty with "necessity." Adopting this approach obviously would limit the ability of the contracting parties to take precautionary actions in the face of the scientific uncertainty that often accompanies early analyses of environmental threats.<sup>52</sup> This limitation appears

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49. See Grimmett, *supra* note 10, at 19. Such a ban could still be challenged as a discriminatory restriction on trade and would receive careful scrutiny under the necessity standards discussed in this section. *Id.*; see also GATT, GATT ACTIVITIES 1989, at 100-01 (1990) (discussing Chile's response to a United States ban on certain Chilean grapes and grape products).

50. See *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 46.

51. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 25 (discussing the success of unilateral environmentally-based trade restrictions, such as the U.S. threats to restrict Japanese imports of hawksbill sea turtles shells, in affecting other nations' behavior).

52. A prime example of a threat whose abatement could be hindered by a requirement of scientific uncertainty is global warming. Despite general scientific agreement that global warming is occurring, the sheer complexity of the problem makes uncertain what restrictions will produce. See generally Durwood Zaelke & James Cameron, *Warming and Climate Change: An Overview of the International Legal Process*, 5 AMERICAN INT'L L. & POL'Y 249 (1990) (if a high degree of scientific certainty is required to meet



conflict with the internationally recognized precautionary principle that has developed in the field of international environmental law.<sup>53</sup>

An alternative, and somewhat less restrictive, reading of the panel's "necessity" standard provides that the panel primarily based its concern with the U.S. standard on the arbitrary nature of the trade measure and not on the underlying environmental protection.<sup>54</sup> Under this reading, as long as the trade measure effectuating an environmental protection is not arbitrary, i.e., is set at a definitive and predictable level, article XX(b) is not concerned with the scientific justifications for the underlying environmental policy.

Third, the panel found that article XX(b) did not extend to the "extrajurisdictional" measures of a contracting party.<sup>55</sup> This jurisdictional

XX's necessity requirement, contracting parties will find it difficult to make such showings will be hindered in their ability to combat global warming and other problems that require a precautionary approach.

53. See Lothar Gündling, *The Status in International Law of the Principle of Precautionary Action*, 5 INT'L J. OF ESTUARINE & COASTAL L. 23 (1990); Margaret Spring, *Fish Famine: International Fisheries Management and the Precautionary Principle* (1992) (prepared for CIEL-US).

54. See *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 45.

55. See *id.* The panel conspicuously fails to use the term "territorial" in describing parameters of article XX(1)(b). While the Panel's decision on the limits of a party's jurisdictional ability to act is unclear, it is possible that an action taken extraterritorially, but within the jurisdiction of a contracting party, falls within article XX. This raises the significant issue as to what are the "jurisdictional" limitations on a nation's actions. There are a number of different bases that provide a state with the jurisdiction to prescribe law. See RESTATEMENT (THIRD) OF THE FOREIGN RELATIONS LAW OF THE UNITED STATES §§ 402 (basis of jurisdiction to prescribe), 404 (universal jurisdiction) (1990). Section 402 of the *Restatement* provides:

Subject to [the limitations on a state's jurisdiction set out in] § 403 a state has the jurisdiction to prescribe law with respect to

- (1)(a) conduct that, wholly or in substantial part, takes place within its territory;
- (b) the status of persons, or interests in things, present within its territory;
- (c) conduct outside its territory that has or is intended to have substantial effect within its territory;
- (2) the activities, interests, status, or relations of its nationals outside as well as within its territory; and
- (3) certain conduct outside its territory by persons not its nationals that is directed against the security of the state or against a limited class of security interests.

*Id.* § 402.

Section 403 limits these jurisdictional bases in cases where the exercise of jurisdiction is unreasonable based on a list of factors, including, for example, the extent of the link between the territory of the state and the act in question, and "the likelihood of conflicts with relations of another state." *Id.* § 403(1), (2)(a)-(h).

In addition to the jurisdictional basis for regulation set out in section 402, all states exercise universal jurisdiction, without limitation, to regulate certain types of conduct, such as piracy, slave trade, genocide, certain acts of terrorism, and war crimes. See *id.* § 404. These are universal jurisdiction have developed as a matter of customary law and additional acts su

limitation imposed on the exception further restricts the scope of XX(b)'s exception. Most importantly, this jurisdictional limitation strains a contracting party from unilaterally protecting the at-risk resources of the global commons, such as the ozone, ocean water and at-risk species inhabiting common areas such as the high sea

ii. Article XX(g): Conservation of Exhaustible Natural Resources

Article XX(g) provides an exception to GATT obligation for measures "relating to the conservation of exhaustible natural resources: measures are made effective in conjunction with restrictions on production or consumption."<sup>57</sup> The GATT dispute panel in its report "Canada—Measures Affecting Exports of Unprocessed Herring Salmon" stated that any trade measure taken under article XX(g) be "primarily aimed at" conserving the resource.<sup>58</sup> Under this standard, trade measures aimed at preserving a resource need not be necessary to preserve the resource, but instead need only to be: 1) primarily aimed at preserving the resource; 2) taken in conjunction with domestic restrictions on the use of the resource; and 3) primarily aimed at rendering a domestic restriction effective.<sup>59</sup>

As with article XX(b), prior to the Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report

to universal jurisdiction (including protection of the environment) can be added in this fashion. *Id.* § 404 cmt. a.

As applied, these principles give a state the jurisdiction to prescribe laws with respect to the conduct of foreign branches of domestic corporations and in limited circumstances extraterritorial acts of affiliated foreign entities. This is the case where the regulation is primarily aimed to further major national interests of the regulating state, or where the national protection which the regulation is a part can only be successful if it is applied to foreign subsidiaries. § 414. The United States also recognizes the jurisdiction of a state to regulate anti-competitive agreements or conduct occurring outside the territory of a state if the intent of the agreement or conduct is to affect commerce and some effect results, or where the conduct has a substantial effect on the commerce of a state and the exercise of jurisdiction is not unreasonable. § 415.

In the sphere of the environment, states are obligated to take measures to ensure that activities within their jurisdiction or control conform with accepted international standards and are conducted so as not to cause significant injury to the environment of another state beyond the limits of national jurisdiction. *Id.* § 601. The obligations imposed on a state under section 601 implies, at least indirectly, that states have the jurisdiction to prescribe measures to meet these obligations.

56. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 29.

57. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. XXI(g), 61 Stat. at A61.

58. *Canada - Measures Affecting Exports of Unprocessed Herring and Salmon*, Report of the Panel adopted 22 March 1988, Gatt Doc. L/6268, BISD (35th Supp.) 98, 114, para. 3.1 (1988).

59. *Id.*

many viewed article XX(g) as a mechanism for allowing contracting parties environmental protection actions that would otherwise be in conflict with their obligations under other provisions of the GATT. The Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report, however, interpreted the scope of article XX(g) much more narrowly, finding that article XX(g), like article XX(b), did not apply to measures extending beyond a party's jurisdiction.<sup>60</sup> Actionally, the Panel narrowed the scope of article XX(g) by reading article XX(g)'s "primarily aimed at" test to require many of the more stringent requirements that the Panel applied under article XX(b)'s "necessity" test. By merging to a certain extent article XX(g)'s "primarily aimed at" requirements with article XX(b)'s stricter "necessity" requirements, the tuna dolphin panel diminished the ability of the contracting parties to use article XX(g) to harmonize environmental restrictions with their GATT obligations.<sup>61</sup>

### iii. Article XX(h): Intergovernmental Commodity Agreements

Article XX(h) provides an exception to GATT liability for the actions of the contracting parties taken pursuant to obligations incurred under any international commodity agreement.<sup>62</sup> Article XX(h) provides a precedential model for the creation of a similar exception for actions taken to accomplish obligations incurred under international environmental agreements. Because article XX(h) only allows actions taken in accordance with international agreements, the creation of an environmental XX(h) would not allow the contracting parties to act unilaterally.

### h. *Article XXII and Article XXIII: Dispute Resolution Procedures*

Articles XXII and XXIII provide the basis for the GATT's dispute resolution procedures. Article XXII allows the parties in dispute to consult informally without needing to invoke a formal GATT proceeding. Article XXIII sets forth two alternative methods for the formal resolution of GATT disagreements: subsection (1) provides for a process of exchanging written representations, while subsection (2) provides for

60. As with the Tuna/Dolphin Panel's decision on article XX(1)(b), it is, however, not clear from the decision whether this limits the exception to domestic actions to protect domestic resources, or whether an extraterritorial action taken to protect a domestic resource is allowed under article XX(1)(g).

61. See *Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environmental Provisions*, *supra* note 20, at 7 (discussing interplay of "primarily aimed at" and "necessity" standards).

62. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. XX(1)(h), 61 Stat. at A61.

63. See *id.* art. XXII, 61 Stat. at A64.

process of submission to the contracting parties to establish a panel.<sup>64</sup>

While these dispute resolution mechanisms have been enhanced by the Tokyo Round's Understanding Regarding Notification, Consultation, Dispute Settlement and Surveillance,<sup>65</sup> both the formal and informal dispute resolution mechanisms contained in articles XXII and XXIII are quite opaque, precluding affected interests from overseeing the dispute resolution process.<sup>66</sup> This is of considerable concern to environmentalists, who traditionally have sought standing to challenge environmentally-related government actions in domestic courts and often participate in the shaping of environmental policies.

#### i. *Article XXIV: State and Local Laws*

Article XXIV:12 mandates that each contracting party take "such reasonable measures" to ensure that the obligations provided for in the GATT are complied with at sub-national levels, including the local, regional, state, and local governments.<sup>67</sup> The "reasonable measures" has been interpreted to require that a contracting party must take all available measures except those that are outside its "jurisdiction" or "the constitutional distribution of power," to bring the sub-national obligations into compliance with the contracting party's GATT obligations.

A great number of environmental laws and regulations, especially within the United States, exist at the sub-national level. Local, state, and regional environmental laws and regulations that do not comply with the GATT cause a contracting party to violate its GATT obligations. In the United States, such a conflict raises constitutional questions; attempts to enforce GATT obligations that trespass on local or state environmental regulations could be challenged on the grounds that they exceed the constitutional limits of federal power. While the recent formulation of the "reasonable measures" test appears to avoid the p

64. *Id.* art. XXIII, 61 Stat. at A64.

65. The Tokyo Round is discussed in section III.3.d. *infra*.

66. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 19.

67. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. XXIV(6), 61 Stat. at A67-68.

68. See GATT, *United States—Measures Affecting Alcoholic and Malt Beverages*, Report of the Panel 97 (Feb. 7, 1992).

69. Before the recent GATT panel decision upholding Canada's challenge of laws that place non-tariff barriers to imports of Canadian beer, it was clear that GATT imposed obligations at the sub-federal level, although the extent of these obligations was not clear. See Clyde H. Farnsworth, *U.S.-Canada Rifts Grow Over Trade*, N.Y. TIMES (1992), at A1; *Territory v. Ho*, 41 Haw. 565 (1957) (GATT applicable to state law) *supra* note 7, at 219-25; JACKSON, *supra* note 9, at 68 (discussing GATT's obligations at the sub-national level).

for constitutional conflict, it does establish a very broad scope for terms "all reasonable measures." For example, the federal government can make aid money normally provided to the states contingent upon states adopting certain policies.<sup>70</sup> Presumably, if a state or local environmental measure violated the GATT obligations of the U.S. to meet "reasonable measures" test, the federal government would have to tempt measures including, but not limited to, conditioning aid to the federal government entity's compliance with GATT. The heightened burden imposed on federal contracting parties to bring their sub-federal environmental measures into line with the contracting party's GATT obligations could not only jeopardize existing sub-federal environmental laws but also could have a significant chilling effect, preventing the enactment of important new protections.<sup>71</sup>

j. *Article XXV: Waiver of Obligations*

Under article XXV, a contracting party's specific GATT obligations may be waived by a two-thirds majority of the votes cast.<sup>72</sup> Article XXV's waiver provision potentially could be a means for ensuring GATT-compatibility of some, if not all, of the existing international agreements on the protection of the environment.<sup>73</sup> The "prevailing view," however, is that article XXV waivers do not substitute for revising the GATT's rules when necessary.<sup>74</sup> Thus, waivers for existing environmental agreements are "not a ready way around GATT obligations.

Even if an article XXV waiver did function as a ready way of bringing the GATT and existing environmental agreements into accord thereby reconciling trade and the environment, a number of serious issues concerning the impact of such a waiver on environmental protections must be addressed. For example if such a waiver is viewed as a "one shot deal," waiving existing agreements could hamper the creation of effective and enforceable environmental agreements in the future. Moreover, the waiver of the GATT's obligations as to these treaties implies that environmental rules are somehow subservient to those of international trade—a conclusion that the discussion of conflict of trade rules in section IV.A.B of this article shows may be inappropriate.

70. The federal government used such a funding device to encourage the states to their drinking ages to twenty-one years of age.

71. See accordingly Letter from James E. Doyle, Attorney General of Wisconsin, to Honorable Stanley Gruzynski, State Representative 3-5 (Oct. 3, 1991) (on file with author).

72. See GATT, *supra* note 7, art. XXV.

73. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 12.

74. *Id.*

75. *Id.*

3. Tokyo Instruments and Their Impact on Environmental Agreements and Concerns
  - a. *The Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade: The Standards Code*

The Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade,<sup>76</sup> commonly as the "Standards Code," is intended to ensure that the testing and application of technical regulations or standards relating to health, safety, consumer and environmental protection, and other police power purposes do not create unnecessary barriers to trade. In accordance with GATT article XXIV's transparency mandates, the Standards Code requires contracting parties to notify other parties of such standards and conditions where they differ from international standards or are adopted in the absence of any international standard and are expected to have an effect on trade.<sup>77</sup> After notification, the other parties may comment on the measures.

Signatories confronted with a challenge to a regulation may choose between justifying the regulation under GATT or under the code. There has never been a formal dispute resolution under the Standards Code. Consequently it is difficult to determine how the Code's procedural and substantive terms would apply, although the United States did not face a *threat* of a Standards Code challenge to cause the European Community to soften its import ban on beef produced with hormones.<sup>78</sup>

Nevertheless, the Standards Code generally follows article XXIV and thus incorporates many of the same difficulties now being faced by environmental regulations seeking to come within article XXIV. For instance, despite the fact that contracting parties may invoke the Code's dispute resolution mechanisms to examine PPMs, the Code is silent on whether trade restrictions based on PPMs fall within it.

While the Standards Code generally follows GATT's article XXIV, the environmental scope of the Code allowances are arguably broader than those of GATT article XXIV's exceptions. The Code explicitly mentions the environment; thus environmental regulations that might fall within article XXIV's purview may come within the Code's allowances. For example, if it is determined that the Standards Code regulates PPMs,

76. GATT Doc. L/4907, BISD (26th Supp.) 8 (1980).

77. Between 1980 and 1990, 211 notifications took place in which the acting party claimed that the objective of the standard was protection of the environment. GATT Secretariat, *Trade and the Environment*, *supra* note 1, at 23. 167 other notifications have been made under similar grounds such as the protection of health, safety, and consumer protection.

78. See Werner P. Meng, *The Hormone Conflict Between the EEC and the United States Within the Context of GATT*, 11 MICH. J. INT'L L. 819, 824-27, 835-39 (1990).

Code's broader environmental scope might allow for a wider range of environmental PPM regulations.

b. *The Agreement on Interpretation and Application of Articles VI, XVI, and XXIII of the GATT: The Subsidies Code*

The Agreement on Interpretation and Application of articles XVI, and XXIII of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade,<sup>79</sup> the "Subsidies Code," substantively expands GATT article XVI's provisions to encourage the parties more forcefully to eliminate subsidies in any form of domestic trade regulation. The Subsidies Code requires signatories to ensure that their use of subsidies does not harm the trading interests of other signatories and authorizes countervailing duties when subsidized imports threaten material harm to domestic industries.<sup>80</sup>

Pursuant to the GATT, as expanded upon by the Subsidies Code, a contracting party that subsidizes a domestic industry to reduce any additional costs its domestic industry must bear because of stricter environmental standards will likely violate its GATT obligations.<sup>81</sup> If a contracting party subsidizes its industries to mitigate internalized environmental costs, the industries' exports could be subject to the imposition of countervailing duties by other contracting parties seeking to eliminate the subsidy. The Canadian Government's subsidizing reforestation efforts and the development of sustainable forestry practices, for example, might conflict with the Code.<sup>82</sup>

In addition to effectively precluding contracting parties from subsidizing their industries for the costs of complying with higher environmental standards (at least where the industries are export-oriented), the Subsidies Code also makes it difficult for a contracting party to institute countervailing measures under article VI to combat the subsidies resulting from lower environmental standards.<sup>83</sup>

Although the language of article VI does not explicitly bar coun

79. BISD (26th Supp.) 56 (1980).

80. *See id.*

81. *See* GATT, INDUSTRIAL POLLUTION CONTROL AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE (1971); Grimmett, *supra* note 10, at 16; JACKSON, *supra* note 9, at 209.

82. *Five Year Development Agreement Reached*, 14 Int'l Envtl. Rep. (BNA) 185, (1991).

83. OECD, Joint Session, *supra* note 21, at 17. Three rationales are offered against countervailing measures for environmental standard subsidies: 1) the subsidy is put in place at the production level and thus should be removed at the production level and not by measuring the trade level that will only cause further distortions; 2) allowing countervailing measures to environmental standards subsidies makes the continuation of a party's GATT "rights" contingent on certain environmental behaviors and thus contradicts the unconditional nature of a party's GATT "rights"; and 3) allowing a party to countervail for environmental stand

vailing measures, the Subsidies Code limits a party's ability to take such countervailing measures.<sup>84</sup> Pursuant to the Subsidies Code, to commence a countervailing measure against a party subsidizing its domestic industry, the challenging party must show that a subsidy exists and that it causes harm to the industry of the challenging party. This provision has two important implications for the use of countervailing duties and anti-dumping rules to address differences in environmental protection between contracting parties.

First, whether a contracting party's failure to regulate adequately its domestic industry is an implicit subsidy to that industry is not answered.<sup>85</sup>

Second, a party seeking to prove an implicit environmental subsidy or "eco-dumping" would have a difficult task establishing the necessary elements to impose measures in compliance with the Code.<sup>86</sup> For a measure to be considered an "injury," allowing the aggrieved party to institute a counter-measure, the harm must fall within the the Subsidies Code's definition of "injury." It is unclear whether harm that stems from environmental standards subsidies falls within the Subsidies Code's definition of injury. For example, the Subsidies Code defines "injury" as relating to certain types of economic harms felt by a specific industry of one contracting party as a result of a subsidy provided by another contracting party to its domestic industry. This definition fails to take into account the many non-economic and attenuated economic harms which environmental standard subsidies may inflict on populations outside of the industrial realm.

Moreover, the GATT Secretariat has indicated that for a contracting party to prevail on a claim that another party's lower environmental standards are a subsidy to its industries, the challenging party would have to prove not only that the environmental standards were causing a cognizable injury to the challenging party's industries, but also that the standards were too low given the other party's per capita income.

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subsidies allows that party to unilaterally determine the appropriate level of environmental protections for another party. *Id.*

84. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 19.

85. See Piritta Sorsa, Environment—A New Challenge to GATT? 28 (June 1991) (script prepared for the 1992 *World Development Report*) [hereinafter Sorsa, Environment—A New Challenge to GATT?]; see also Kenneth S. Komoroski, *The Failure of Government to Regulate Industry: A Subsidy Under GATT*, 10 Hous. J. INT'L L. 189, 209 (1988).

86. See Sorsa, Environment—A New Challenge to GATT?, *supra* note 85, at 21 (*infra* section II.B.2.c. (discussing the U.S.'s proposed S.984, known as the International Deterrence Act (1991))).



its environment's physical characteristics.<sup>87</sup> This balancing test fails to conform with the GATT's usual method of finding a subsidy, which does not look to mitigating factors. Additionally, the Secretariat's balancing formula for environmental subsidies is slanted towards allowing developing nations to maintain even lower environmental standards. This balance fails to comport with the Uruguay Round's efforts to eliminate preferences to developing countries.<sup>88</sup>

c. *The Agreement on Import Licensing Procedures*

The Agreement on Import Licensing Procedures<sup>89</sup> seeks to ensure that contracting parties do not use import licensing and registration schemes to erect protectionist barriers to free trade. The Agreement establishes requirements that parties must follow in their national procedures for submitting, reviewing, and granting importation licenses for products entering their markets. The Agreement also limits the penalties that may be administered for violations (including omissions and misstatements) of such national licensing requirements.

A number of national and international environmental protection requirements that attach to import licenses, such as the United States' Resources Conservation and Recovery Act,<sup>90</sup> arise from stringent information and documentation regimes that must be followed strictly to avoid substantial penalties. There have been no challenges to such programs under the Agreement on Import Licensing Procedures that would shed light on applying the Agreement in an environmental context.

d. *The Understanding Regarding Notification, Consultation, Dispute Settlement, and Surveillance*

One of the GATT's most important goals is to provide a forum for peacefully resolving trade conflicts. The Understanding Regarding Notification, Consultation, Dispute Settlement, and Surveillance<sup>91</sup> establishes the procedural framework for handling disputes between contracting parties arising under the terms of the GATT. Because these procedures place a priority on easing the political difficulties that can arise in a

87. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 19.

88. See *supra* section II.4.g.

89. GATT Doc. BISD (26th Supp.) 154 (1980) (open for signature Apr. 12, 1979).

90. See 40 C.F.R. § 262.20 (1990) (imports of hazardous waste). The Department of Transportation licensing schemes for the transportation of wastes in the United States were in conjunction with the Environmental Protection Agency's regulations under RCRA and are equally applicable. See 49 C.F.R. §§ 171-179 (1990).

91. GATT Doc. L/4907, BISD (26th Supp.) 210-18 (1980) (adopted on Nov. 18, 1980).

tinational dispute, they include a number of provisions geared to allowing the parties to negotiate freely, unbridled by the spotlight of public attention and oversight.

Because the Understanding cloaks its dispute resolution process, its process contrasts sharply with the American system of citizen access to information and public participation and oversight. Areas of difference between these two systems arise from: 1) the closed nature of the dispute resolution process, including its exclusion of interested and non-governmental organizations from presenting information to GATT dispute panels; 2) the embargo of papers submitted by the parties to GATT panels; and 3) the embargo of panel decisions for a period of time to allow for negotiations to take place.

Moreover, decisions resulting from the dispute resolution process are based solely on the terms of the GATT. Therefore, the dispute resolution process and the ensuing decisions suffer from the environmental limitations embodied within the GATT as a whole.<sup>92</sup>

#### 4. Instruments Under Negotiation in the Uruguay Round: Their Impact on Environmental Agreements and Concerns

Now in its fifth year, the Uruguay Round of the GATT has been called the "most ambitious effort ever to reorganize the world's trade system."<sup>93</sup> The ambitious goals of the Round have jeopardized its chances to come to an agreement, leading some to characterize the GATT as "General Agreement to Talk and Talk."<sup>94</sup>

The underlying intent of the Uruguay Round is to liberalize trade by removing the remaining barriers to free and fair trade. There is a tension between liberalization *per se* and either environmental degradation or environmental preservation and remediation. Rather, the process is to create mechanisms by which trade is liberalized implicate the environment. The one hundred and five parties (GATT's one hundred and two original members joined by three developing nations) participating in the Uruguay Round are discussing fifteen primary negotiating goals, of which at least five implicate the environment.<sup>95</sup> The latest expression of the Uruguay Round progress towards an agreement among the parties is the GATT's

92. See Konrad von Moltke, *International Trade and Environmental Imperatives: Dispute Resolution and Transparency* 2 (Jan. 20, 1992) (unpublished manuscript on file with author).

93. *GATT Bargaining Goes Down to the Wire*, WALL ST. J. Mar. 6, 1992, at A1.

94. *Id.*

95. See generally Lori Wallach, *The Dec. 20, 1991 Uruguay Round "Final Ac*

riat's *Draft Final Act Embodying the Results of the Uruguay Round Multilateral Trade Negotiations*, commonly known as the "Dun draft."<sup>96</sup>

#### a. *Tariff Reductions*

The tariff reductions being negotiated in the Uruguay Round apply exclusively to imports. During the course of these negotiations, emphasis also has been placed on "tariffication," the replacement of quotas in the agricultural sector with tariffs.<sup>97</sup>

Reducing tariffs effectively decreases the price of commodities and products in the importing nation. In certain instances, tariff reductions could cause the cost of products at market to reflect their true costs more accurately, including their environmental and natural resource costs, reducing the competitiveness of environmentally unsound products and increasing consumer-based environmental protections.<sup>98</sup> However, price reductions that cause the cost of the imported product to fall below that of competing products, can cause an increase in demand for the resource, increasing, in turn, incentives to exploit the resource in an unsustainable fashion.<sup>99</sup> This is perhaps best exemplified by the reductions in tropical timber tariffs currently being negotiated: if the tariffs on unprocessed logs are abolished (as appears probable) then the demand for these goods in timber-consuming nations could create increased pressure to over-exploit already dwindling areas of remaining tropical forests.<sup>100</sup>

Reducing tariffs, however, also could increase access for products from developed countries to the markets of developing countries, thereby potentially alleviating some of the development pressure on developing countries' natural resources.<sup>101</sup> Additionally, tariff reductions that eliminate escalating tariff schemes—schemes that place higher tariffs on value-added products—could encourage developing countries to shift production from unfinished raw goods (such as uncut logs) to value-added products.

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Worse Than Expected on Environmental, Health and Consumer Issues (Dec. 26, 1991) (non-verbatim memorandum to Environmental, Health and Consumer Advocates, on file with *Public Citizen*).

96. GATT Secretariat, *Draft Final Act Embodying the Results of the Uruguay Round Multilateral Trade Negotiations*, Dec. 20, 1991, at C.1, L.2-11, 23, MTN/TNC/W/FA (1) [hereinafter *Draft Final Act*]; see also Keith Bradsher, *Trade Plan Criticized, Stalling WTO Talks*, N.Y. TIMES, Dec. 24, 1991, at D2.

97. *Draft Final Act*, *supra* note 96, at C.1, L.2-11, 23; see also Bradsher, *supra* note 96, at D2.

98. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 25.

99. *Id.*

100. *Id.*

101. *Id.*

ucts (such as tables and chairs) that require less natural resources provide the same amount of economic value.<sup>102</sup>

b. *Reduction of Agricultural Subsidies*

One of the top priorities of the United States and certain other developed countries in the Uruguay Round is to reduce agricultural supports, export subsidies, and border controls.<sup>103</sup> Agricultural subsidies, like all other forms of subsidies, create trade distortions that result in inefficient use of resources.

In developed countries, specific area agricultural subsidies have been a major factor in their specialization of agricultural activities. Specialization has caused distortions in the natural development of agricultural markets because of preferences to development within those subsectors that have caused environmental harms.<sup>104</sup> Thus, assuming unanticipated negative environmental results do not outweigh anticipated benefits, eliminating agricultural subsidies in developed countries should have a positive environmental effect.

In developing nations, the effects of agricultural subsidies are more uncertain and will vary to a large extent from country to country depending on the manner in which each nation removes such subsidies. Generally speaking, however, environmentalists have expressed concern that if demand remains constant, eliminating agricultural subsidies will increase prices and give farmers added incentive to till greater areas of marginal lands.<sup>105</sup>

The overall environmental balance of eliminating agricultural subsidies will be decided to a large extent by the treatment of the Round

102. *Id.*

103. Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at L.2-11, 31-34. While the United States and other developed countries are seeking reductions in agricultural subsidies, the split among nations of the European Community with regard to such reductions has been one of the sticking points in the Round. See *GATT Bargaining Does Down to the Wire*, *supra* note 96, at D2.

104. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 32-33. Environmental commodity support programs:

encourage monocultural, chemical-intensive cropping of . . . a handful of . . . 'gram' commodities. These rules penalize beneficial, multi-year crop rotations that provide natural sources of fertilizer and biological means of pest control. With limited exceptions, subsidized crop insurance and credit programs impose no environmental conditions, and often make heavy agrichemical use a pre-condition for assistance.

CENTER FOR RESOURCE ECONOMICS ET AL, FARM BILL 1990, at 8 (1991). The environmental effects of these farming practices include increased soil erosion, poisoning of water and waterways, and the increased use of marginal lands. *Id.* at 8-15.

105. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 27.

to domestic agricultural support measures taken to reduce the degraded effects of current agricultural production methods.<sup>106</sup> Examples of such support measures include the United States' conservation reserve program, which provides subsidies to retire vast amounts of farmland as a soil conservation measure,<sup>107</sup> and the European Community's Common Agricultural Policy provisions granting subsidies to set aside environmentally sensitive farmlands.<sup>108</sup> Many Uruguay Round participants have expressed the view that such measures, provided they meet certain criteria, should be excluded from the agricultural subsidies the Round is considering eliminating.<sup>109</sup> In this vein, the Draft Uruguay Round Decision on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures now under negotiation draws a parallel to article XX's exceptions and establishes guidelines to ensure that contracting parties' sanitary and phytosanitary measures are both necessary for the protection of human, animal, or plant life and not arbitrary or unjustified barriers to trade.<sup>110</sup>

### c. *Liberalized Trade in Natural Resource Products*

Another major goal of the developed nations in the Uruguay Round is to remove trade barriers to the free flow of natural resources and natural resource-derived products. Ongoing negotiations in the natural resource-derived products group have focused on liberalized trade in fisheries, forestry, minerals, and non-ferrous metals.<sup>111</sup> The developed nations in this group have aimed their efforts at eliminating developing countries' domestic export controls. Meanwhile, the developing nations' agenda in this group has focused on increasing access for their products in the markets of the developed countries.<sup>112</sup>

106. *Id.* at 28.

107. See Food Security Act of 1985, Pub. L. No. 99-198, § 1231, 99 Stat. 1354, (1985). Subject to certain limited exceptions, the conservation reserve program prohibits production of commodities on highly erodible lands and pays farmers for setting aside such lands for a ten year period. See 16 U.S.C. §§ 3811-36 (Supp. 1991). The conservation reserve program currently protects more than 34 million acres of the United States' most fragile lands. See CENTER FOR RESOURCE ECONOMICS ET AL., *supra* note 104, at 14.

108. See 1985 O.J. (L 93) 1, as amended 1990 O.J. (L 353) 12; 1991 O.J. (C 104) 1 (proposed arable land set asides); see also D. BALDLOCK & D. CONDOR, REMOVING LAND FROM AGRICULTURE: THE IMPLICATIONS FOR FARMING AND THE ENVIRONMENT (1987).

109. GATT, *The Uruguay Round and the Environment*, GATT FOCUS, Oct. 1991, at [hereinafter *Uruguay Round and the Environment*].

110. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at L.36-7; GATT Secretariat, Trade and Environment, *Factual Note by the Secretariat* 14-15 GATT Doc. L/6896 (Aug. 1991) [herein *Factual Note*].

111. See *Ministerial Declaration*, GATT Doc. L/5424, BISD (29th Supp.) 9, 20-21 (1982) (adopted Nov. 29, 1982); WWF, *supra* note 11, at 26.

112. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 26.

If this group is successful in forging an agreement that remove port controls and/or increases market access for developing natural resource-derived products, it is possible that demand for these products will increase creating disincentives to sustainably manage these natural resources.<sup>113</sup>

#### d. *Technical Barriers*

Yet another goal of the Uruguay Round is the curtailing of tariff, or technical, barriers to trade.<sup>114</sup> Increased emphasis on removing technical barriers to trade, including labeling requirements, can conversely affect the ability of the contracting parties to adopt environmental or conservation-oriented policies and laws. Under the rules now discussed in the Uruguay Round, where international technical standards exist, parties are obligated to adopt these standards subject to narrow exceptions.<sup>115</sup> Even where no international standard exists, the rules now proposed in the Uruguay Round would require that technical standards be "not-more trade restrictive than necessary." This "not-more restrictive than necessary" requirement would limit the ability of the parties to adopt appropriate environmental standards substantially.<sup>117</sup>

The agreement now being negotiated further would require governments to take affirmative action to bring standards adopted at the sub-federal level into compliance with the GATT.<sup>118</sup> By exposing a contracting party to countervailing measures for the sub-federal violation, this proposed rule could severely limit the ability of state and municipal governments to regulate local environmental concerns. However, the Uruguay Round's proposed rules on technical barriers also require the parties to take steps to ensure that non-government organizations, such as those that certify products with a "green approval," also function in conformity to the rules against technical barriers that the parties adopt.<sup>119</sup> The proposed rules also would subject technical barriers to full GATT enforcement mechanisms, including countervailing duties and dispute resolution procedures.<sup>120</sup>

113. *Id.*

114. *See* Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at G.1-27; *Factual Note*, *supra* note 110.

115. *See* Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at G.1-5.

116. *Id.* at G.2.2.

117. *See* Steve Charnovitz, *Trade Negotiations and the Environment*, 15 Int'l L. E. (BNA) 144, 145 (1992) [hereinafter *Trade Negotiations*].

118. Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at G.5.

119. *Id.* at G.5.

120. *Id.* at G.18.

### e. *Trade in Tropical Products*

Beyond the Uruguay Round's general attention to eliminating barriers to trade in natural resource-derived products and to agricultural subsidies, the participants are negotiating similar proposals in the specific context of tropical products and resources.<sup>121</sup> The negotiations on tropical products, focusing mainly on plant-derived foods, but also including tropical timber, tobacco, and natural rubber, seek to reduce tariffs on these products and eliminate non-tariff barriers to their trade.<sup>122</sup>

As discussed above,<sup>123</sup> the expected environmental effects of tariff reductions are somewhat mixed. These reductions ultimately may produce benefits to the environment. The environmental effects of tariff reductions, however, may not be as benign in tropical regions where many of the food products—coffee and coconut palms, for example—that could experience demand-driven production intensification are grown on cleared forest lands.<sup>124</sup>

### f. *Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights*

The negotiation of Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) has been one of the more contentious areas under consideration in the Uruguay Round.<sup>125</sup> Developed countries, recognizing the trade distorting effects resulting from the lack of effective intellectual property protections, are looking to the TRIPS negotiations to provide international protections against widespread "pirating" of intellectual property from these countries' research organizations and industries.<sup>126</sup> Developing nations, many of which continue to lack effective domestic intellectual property protection mechanisms, have sought to trade concessions on a TRIPS agreement for greater access to developed nations' markets for their TRIPS products, as well as for concessions in other areas of the Round.<sup>127</sup> Additionally, some developing countries have argued that the need to stimulate domestic development justifies lower levels of intellectual property rights protection in developing countries and have sought to distinguish intellectual property rights and trade issues.<sup>128</sup>

121. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 28.

122. *Id.*

123. See *supra* section II.4.a.

124. WWF, *supra* note 11, at 28.

125. Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at 57-90; see also Frank Emmert, *Intellectual Property in the Uruguay Round Negotiating Strategies of the Western Industrialized Countries*, 11 *MICHIGAN J. INT'L L.* 1317, 1319-21, 1354-56, 1372 (1990).

126. Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at 57-90.

127. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 29-30.

128. See Emmert, *supra* note 125, at 1354-56.

The TRIPS agreement could have two significant environmental ramifications. First, certain environmental organizations feel that stronger intellectual property protections will hamper the transfer of environmentally-sound technologies to developing countries, especially in light of the transfer goals of the Montreal Protocol and the global environmental agreement currently being negotiated.<sup>129</sup> It is likely, however, that such protections would actually assist the development and transfer of such technologies, although developing countries may find themselves in need of financial assistance to pay for the costs of such technologies. In general, evolving environmentally-friendly technologies are owned by private entities. Unless these technologies are secure from "pirates," private parties investing in their development will be reluctant to transfer these technologies to much of the developing world.

Second, industries in developed countries are increasingly turning to biodiverse ecosystems, such as tropical rain forests, as resource bases and to the indigenous peoples who live in these ecosystems for their knowledge about the resources these ecosystems hold.<sup>130</sup> Whether or not the contributions of indigenous discoverers, preservers, and protectors and national governments that preserve these ecosystems, will require some form of intellectual property recognition to give economic value to their efforts is at issue in the Uruguay Round's negotiations.<sup>131</sup> An agreement providing tangible benefits to these indigenous peoples would encourage national governments to encourage the preservation of these ecosystems and indigenous cultures, whereas the failure of the Round to reach such an agreement could frustrate ongoing conservation and protection efforts substantially.<sup>132</sup>

Under the current Dunkel draft text, life forms, including plants and animals, may be patented; however, countries may elect to limit patent protection to only microorganisms.<sup>133</sup> Countries can also elect to exclude inventions from intellectual property protections for reasons of morality or of endangering human, animal, or plant life or health. Some countries not requiring intellectual property protections for biotechnology

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129. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 30 (discussing the view that intellectual property protections could hinder environmental technology transfer). Additionally, it is difficult to determine how many of the environmental technologies that must be transferred to assist in developing sustainably are protected by intellectual property regimes.

130. See Robert Weissman, *Prelude to a New Colonialism*, THE NATION, Mar. 18, 1993, 336-38.

131. See *Factual Note*, *supra* note 110, at 17; Weissman, *supra* note 130, at 336.

132. See Weissman, *supra* note 130; WWF, *supra* note 11, at 29.

133. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at Y, Annex III.

134. *Id.* at 69.



eries, the Dunkel draft fails to ensure the protection of the contributions of indigenous peoples. Similarly, the Dunkel draft leaves a substantial loophole for countries to continue to "pirate" technologies by allowing for the denial of intellectual property protections for moral, life, health, safety, and conservation goals. While this loophole may allow developing countries to obtain existing environmentally friendly technologies inexpensively, it does little to ensure the international availability of these technologies and stifles the competitive impetus for companies to invest in developing new technologies that may be environmentally beneficial.

#### g. *The "Development Policy"*

Throughout its history, the GATT has accorded developing nations special privileges to accommodate their development needs. This commitment, called the "Development Policy," permits developing nations to use trade restrictions, including import curbs and export limits, that are unavailable to other contracting parties.<sup>135</sup> Developed countries used the Uruguay Round to encourage developing countries to relinquish many, if not all, of these special privileges.<sup>136</sup>

While reducing the barriers to trade can have certain environmental benefits,<sup>137</sup> if the Development Policy is rescinded, the inability of these nations to provide protections to fledgling industries could cause these industries to adopt practices aimed at short-term survival as opposed to long-term sustainability.<sup>138</sup> The ultimate environmental effect of this proposal is difficult to discern at this time.

#### h. *Subsidies and Countervailing Measures*

In an effort to provide greater clarity and to reduce international trade conflicts, early negotiations in the Uruguay Round attempted to classify a range of subsidies into three general categories: permissible subsidies, "proceed at the risk of domestic countervailing duty proceeding subsidies, and prohibited subsidies.<sup>139</sup> Subsidies for environmental purposes were placed in the permissible, or "no-action" category—the so-called "green box."<sup>140</sup>

Acquiescing to the United States' demands to eliminate what

135. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 29. The Development Policy appears in the balance of payments provisions of GATT articles XII and XIII.

136. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at B.1, R.1-4.

137. See *supra* section II.A.4.a.

138. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 29.

139. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at I.1, 3, 5; *Factual Note*, *supra* note 110, at 1.

140. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at 92-94; see also WWF, *supra* note 11, at 29.

U.S. perceived to be an overly permissive loophole for subsidies. Dunkel draft deletes the green box, rendering virtually all environmental subsidies vulnerable to challenge.<sup>141</sup> Only subsidies for "clearly defined environmental and conservation programs that provide public payment to agricultural producers would be classified as unactionable."<sup>142</sup>

Approving the Dunkel draft's text on subsidies would impair the ability of the contracting parties to assist their industries in becoming more environmentally sustainable. The types of programs made vulnerable by the draft's text include Canada's program of subsidizing the development of sustainable forestry practices.

### i. *Harmonization of Environmental, Health, and Safety Standards*

One of the most environmentally important negotiations undertaken in the Uruguay Round is the negotiation of harmonized health and environmental standards.<sup>143</sup> The Uruguay Round's negotiations on harmonizing standards have been premised on three principles: 1) parties adopt strict principles of national treatment in standard-setting and enforcement; 2) parties' decisions to permit or restrict the availability of a new product or technology may only be based upon "sound scientific evidence;"<sup>144</sup> and 3) international agencies, such as Codex Alimentarius,<sup>145</sup> are the only legitimate sources of scientific information.

Harmonization of standards could produce either more stringent

141. See *Trade Negotiations*, *supra* note 117, at 146-47.

142. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at L, pt. A, Annex 2; see also *Trade Negotiations*, *supra* note 117, at 147.

143. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at G.1-27; see generally Wallach, *supra* note 117, at 147.

144. Although sound science is an important part of setting appropriate environmental, health, and safety standards, even with the most reliable scientific information, standard setting still relies heavily upon extrapolation from existing data. Thus, sound science does not eliminate the need for policy decisions to be made based upon scientific evidence. Even with sound science countries must still make risk assessment and management decisions. Sound science is not a panacea for the conflicts between trade and environmental policy. See *Trade Negotiations*, *supra* note 117, at 146.

145. Codex Alimentarius Commission is the primary international standard-setting body dealing with food products. See Daphne Wysham, *The Codex Connection: Big Business and the GATT*, 251 THE NATION 770, 770-72 (1990); WWF, *supra* note 11, at 30-31. Codex is the development of harmonized regulations pertaining to animal, vegetable, and other food products. Codex is administered by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization and is co-financed by the World Health Organization. See Wysham, *supra*. Membership in the Codex Commission is made up of officials appointed by member-nation governments. For example, the United States delegation is headed up by a White House appointee from the Department of Agriculture. *Id.* Codex delegations also, generally, include appointees from the respective regulated industry sectors. *Id.*

146. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at G.1-5.

lenient standards.<sup>147</sup> If existing levels of protection do not diminish the process, harmonizing environmental, health, and safety standards could have significant environmental and trade benefits. By providing unified standards, harmonization would diminish the burdens that a plethora of sometimes widely divergent national standards have imposed on internationally-traded products.<sup>148</sup> Moreover, harmonized standards that raise the environmental, health, and safety standards of nations with lower levels of existing protections would bring much needed protection to many nations.

Additionally, whether or not industries actually migrate to nations with lower environmental standards,<sup>149</sup> harmonized standards would move the incentive for industries to do so. Developing nations, however, fear that raising standards to the level of the developed world would impede increased market access for their products and would deprive them of the ability to choose increased levels of development as opposed to higher levels of environmental quality.<sup>150</sup>

In contrast, if harmonized standards are set at the level of the country with the lowest standard—the least common denominator approach—environmental protection in countries with higher standards will suffer.<sup>151</sup> And the strict harmonization of standards could hamper the evolution of environmental protections by removing the ability of individual contracting parties to push environmental standards forward.

The harmonization provisions of the Dunkel draft, with their strong bias towards international standards (and consequently, against domestic standards that are more stringent than international standards) appear

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147. Affidavit of Joan Claybrook at 29-30, *Public Citizen v. Office of the United States Trade Representative*, 782 F. Supp. 139 (D.D.C. 1992) (No. 91-1916).

148. See U.S. COUNCIL FOR INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS, AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO ENVIRONMENT AND TRADE ISSUES (statement presented to Carla A. Hills, U.S. Trade Representative and William W. Reilly, Administrator, Environmental Protection Agency) 1, 6 (27, 1991). Cf. David Robertson, Trade and the Environment Harmonization and Technical Standards, Oct. 10, 1991 (paper presented at the symposium on Int'l Trade & the Env't, sponsored by Int'l Trade Division, Int'l Economics Dep't, World Bank) (noting that harmonization is not necessary for increased trade efficiencies and may not provide environmental benefits).

149. See generally Patrick Low & Alexander Yeats, Do Dirty Industries Migrate? (1991) (unpublished manuscript, on file with author); Robert Lucas, et al., Economic Development, Environmental Regulation and International Migration of Toxic Industrial Pollutants, 1960-1988 (Nov. 1991) (unpublished manuscript, on file with author). See also *infra* note 150.

150. See Gene Grossman, *In Poor Regions Environmental Law Should Be Appropriate* N.Y. TIMES, Mar. 1, 1992, at C11 ("Attention to environmental issues is a luxury poor countries can't afford").

151. WWF, *supra* note 11, at 30-31; Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environmental Protections, *supra* note 20, at 9.

152. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 30.

adopt an approach that more closely resembles a lowest common denominator approach.<sup>153</sup> This raises serious concern that if the Dunkel draft is accepted, the harmonizing that will occur under the draft's process will compromise existing environmental protections. For example, the United States' Delaney Clause<sup>154</sup> prohibits the use of any food additive that have a cancer risk level greater than zero. The Delaney Clause's zero risk factor is substantially more stringent than both international standards and other United States cancer risk standards and could be jeopardized by the proposed Uruguay Round provision on harmonization.<sup>155</sup>

Another problem with the Dunkel draft is that its delegation of environmental, health, and safety standard-setting to international authorities rather than to democratically elected representatives could undermine developing democratic processes in many nations. This approach conflicts with the traditional processes of public participation and accountability in nations (including the United States) with established democratic schemes of governance.<sup>156</sup> Additionally, there are considerable procedural obstacles to effective peer review of these international standards, such as the lack of a "paper trail" of the decision-making process. For example, environmentalists note that the Canadian pesticide standards, which were harmonized under the United States-Canada Free Trade Agreement, would not have been so compromised if the process of harmonization had gone through the democratic parliamentary process.<sup>157</sup>

#### j. *Trade in Services*

Article XIV in the draft Agreement on Trade in Services covers exceptions to the general obligations set out in the agreement.<sup>158</sup> To a large extent these exceptions parallel the public policy exceptions in GATT's general obligations contained in GATT article XX.<sup>159</sup> C

153. See *Trade Negotiations*, *supra* note 117, at 146.

154. 21 U.S.C. § 348(c).

155. See *Trade Negotiations*, *supra* note 117, at 146.

156. See WWF, *supra* note 11, at 30-31; Wysham, *supra* note 145, at 770-72. For example, Codex panels are heavily lobbied by national constituencies that include disproportionate representation from the industrial sectors the panels regulate. See *id.* Codex panel decisions are not exposed to external peer review and do not provide a paper record that discloses "sound science" behind the decision so as to allow independent evaluation of the decision. *id.*

157. See Steven Shrybman, *Trading Away the Environment*, 9 WORLD POL'Y J. 1 (1992).

158. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at 18, art. XIV, 103 Annex II.

159. See *supra* notes 42-43 and accompanying text.

countries have proposed that article XIV should not only allow the parties to take measures necessary to protect human, animal, and plant life and health but should also allow for measures which are necessary for "sustainable development and environment," "cultural values," and "conservation of exhaustible natural resources."<sup>160</sup> These expanded definitions would allow a wider range of environmental measures to conform with the GATT in the services area and would provide a precedent for future efforts aimed at minimizing the frictions between trade and environmental concerns. These expanded definitions are, however, not reflected in the Uruguay Round's proposed final agreement on trade in services.<sup>161</sup> Moreover, although the Dunkel Draft's services text includes an exception for life and health that parallels the GATT's article XXIII exception, the Draft does not provide a conservation exception paralleling the GATT's article XX(g).

#### k. *Dispute Resolution*

The dispute resolution rules being negotiated in the Uruguay Round would change the existing GATT dispute resolution framework significantly. First, under the proposed rules, unless a consensus of the parties is reached, all panel reports are automatically adopted sixty days after publication.<sup>162</sup> This change would reverse the current rule, which requires a consensus of the parties to adopt the decision of a dispute resolution panel. By making the adoption of panel reports virtually automatic, the proposed rules would minimize the ability of the parties to block such an adoption thereby exacerbating the potential for direct conflicts between GATT obligations and environmental protections.

Second, the Uruguay Round dispute resolution proposal would expand the reach of the GATT's dispute resolution mechanisms, including the application of countervailing sanctions and the availability of dispute panels, to include sub-federal level trade restrictions explicitly.<sup>163</sup> This proposal would expose a host of sub-federal level environmental regulations to potential GATT challenges.

Third, the proposed dispute resolution rules strengthen the enforcement of GATT obligations by: 1) increasing the burden on parties defending against a GATT challenge by requiring them to rebut the inference that a breach of a GATT obligation entails an injury to cl

160. See *Factual Note*, *supra* note 110, at 18.

161. See Draft Final Act, *supra* note 96, at 18 art. XIV, 102 Annex II.

162. See *id.* at S.12.

163. See *id.* at S.18.

lenging parties;<sup>164</sup> and 2) affirmatively charging parties that GATT obligations with either complying with their GATT obligations or facing trade sanctions.<sup>165</sup> Strengthening the GATT's enforcement powers would exacerbate the already existing potential for direct conflict between the GATT and environmental initiatives.

### 1. *Multilateral Trading Organization*

The final proposed text of the Uruguay Round would establish a Multilateral Trading Organization (MTO).<sup>166</sup> The proposed MTO would adopt the GATT as it exists after the Tokyo and Uruguay Rounds as its rules and would have in all territories of the member states the same capacity, privileges, and immunities as needed to carry out its functions under these rules.<sup>167</sup> By expanding the obligations of all the GATT member states to include the obligations contained in the Tokyo and Uruguay Round agreements and understandings, creating an MTO as proposed would expand the powers and scope of GATT significantly. Additionally, the creation of an MTO might re-start the GATT's process of making the GATT later-in-time than most environmental law agreements.<sup>168</sup> Finally, some scholars have noted that instituting an MTO without mentioning the environment represents a waste of substantial opportunity to bring about the overall greening of GATT. Proponents of the MTO regard it as too late in the negotiation of the Uruguay Round to begin discussing the environment. A compromise view that would make a "Green Round" of the GATT the first item on the MTO's agenda currently is being discussed.<sup>170</sup>

### 5. Other GATT Activities

#### a. *The Working Group on the Export of Domestically Prohibited Goods and Other Hazardous Substances*

In 1982, the contracting parties agreed to examine measures

164. *See id.* at S.3.

165. *See id.* at S.16.

166. *See id.* at 95.

167. *See id.* at 92, 95.

168. For a discussion of the effects of the "later in time rule" *see supra* section IV.A. The adoption of the MTO might make GATT later-in-time, it would not necessarily make GATT more specific than these environmental laws and treaties. Under conflicts of laws analyses, if an earlier treaty or law is more specific than a later treaty, then the earlier treaty is not trumped by the later treaty.

169. *See Trade Negotiations, supra* note 117, at 147-48.

170. *Id.*

trol the export of products that are prohibited from sale in domestic markets yet are allowed to continue as exports.<sup>171</sup> This agreement evolved into the GATT Council's creation of the Working Group on the Export of Domestically Prohibited Goods and Other Hazardous Substances in 1989. This working group examines the trade-related aspects of ongoing international work, such as the Basel Convention,<sup>172</sup> to regulate the flow of such goods and substances among the contracting parties.<sup>173</sup>

The working group currently is considering a Draft Decision on Products Banned or Severely Restricted in the Domestic Markets. This draft covers all products (including hazardous wastes) that a contracting party determines present a serious and direct danger to human, animal, or plant life or health, or the environment within the contracting party's territory, and which are banned or severely restricted within the contracting party's domestic markets.<sup>175</sup> The draft also includes provisions requiring the contracting parties to notify the GATT Secretariat of all such banned or restricted products for which no similar controls of exports have occurred.<sup>176</sup> In an effort to avoid conflict and duplication, the draft does not apply to substances covered under other international regimes (such as the Basel Convention) to which a contracting party is a signatory.<sup>177</sup>

An agreement allowing the contracting parties to make efforts to regulate trade in hazardous and otherwise restricted substances could provide substantial environmental protections, as well as allowing in national environmental agreements pertaining to similar matters greater ability to conform with GATT's mandates. If the working group can assist the contracting parties in forging such an understanding, however, then domestic initiatives, such as the ban on exporting domestically prohibited pesticides Congress considered in the 1990 farm bill, would appear to violate the GATT.<sup>178</sup>

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171. See *Uruguay Round and the Environment*, *supra* note 109, at 3.

172. See section III.A.3. *infra*.

173. BISD (36th Supp.) 402, 403 (1990).

174. See *Uruguay Round and the Environment*, *supra* note 109, at 4.

175. See *Factual Note*, *supra* note 110, at 9.

176. *Id.*

177. *Id.*

178. Grimmett, *supra* note 10, at 19. See also S. 2830, 101st Cong. 2d Sess. (1990); 3950, 102d Cong. 1st Sess. (1990). The provisions in both the House and Senate bills would have banned the export of domestically prohibited pesticides were dropped at a conference.

b. *The Group on Environmental Measures and International Trade*

The Group on Environmental Measures and International Trade was established at the November 1971 GATT Council meeting. For the ensuing twenty years, the group has been dormant. However, as a result of pressure from European Free Trade Association member states and other countries, the group has recently convened.<sup>179</sup> The group's current agenda is to consider: 1) trade provisions contained in existing multilateral environmental agreements; 2) multilateral transparency of national environmental laws and regulations that are likely to have effects on trade; and 3) trade effects of newly developing domestic and international "eco" packaging and labeling requirements.<sup>180</sup> Additionally, the group is discussing a GATT contribution to the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development.<sup>181</sup> Believing that the GATT is not the appropriate forum for such discussions, certain GATT participants, most notably the developing nations, were against convening the group.<sup>182</sup>

Given the group's early emphasis on the impact of environmental protection on trade, environmental groups have expressed fears that the group will focus on subjugating environmental protections to trade agreements as opposed to finding some way of reconciling the concerns of trade and environmental interests. At this time, it is unclear to what extent these fears are justified.

**B. The Environmental Implications of the NAFTA and the CFI**

Although the vast majority of trade occurs under the umbrella of GATT, a wide range of additional regional and bilateral trade agreements have a hand in determining patterns of national and international resource use. With the emergence of rival trading blocs, including the more integrated European Community and the possibility of an Association of South East Asian Nations free trade area, bilateral and multilateral trade agreements increasingly will play a major role in determining the competitiveness of domestic industries in world markets.<sup>183</sup>

179. See *Factual Note*, *supra* note 110, at 4-6; *GATT to Focus on Trade and Environment Link*, *GATT Focus*, Oct. 1991, at 1.

180. See GATT Secretariat, *Trade and the Environment*, *supra* note 1, at 10; *GATT to Focus on Trade and Environment Link*, *supra* note 179, at 1.

181. *GATT to Focus on Trade and Environment Link*, *supra* note 179, at 1.

182. *Id.*

183. See Stuart Auerbach, *Bush Stresses U.S. Commitment to Asia*, *WASH. POST*, 1992, at A23; *ASEAN Endorses Free-Trade Area*, *WALL ST. J.*, Oct. 9, 1991, at A-12.



context of resource consumption patterns in the Americas, the most important of these agreements are the United States/Canadian Free Trade Agreement (CFTA) and the ongoing negotiation of a trilateral North American free trade agreement among the United States, Canada, and Mexico (NAFTA).

## 1. NAFTA

Joint efforts between President Bush and Mexico's President Salinas to craft a Mexico/United States free trade agreement began in September of 1990.<sup>184</sup> On February 5, 1991, after Canada expressed a desire to be included in the Mexico/United States negotiations, the bilateral United States/Mexico talks became the current trilateral NAFTA negotiations.<sup>185</sup>

The creation of a trilateral trade agreement between the United States, Canada, and Mexico would form the world's largest market, incorporating 360 million consumers and a total output of \$6 trillion. NAFTA seeks to eliminate trade barriers and to reduce market distortions and hence economic inefficiencies between the United States and its two largest and third-largest trading partners, enabling a free and fair trade block.

Environmentalists have subjected NAFTA to intense scrutiny. Proponents of NAFTA argue that NAFTA and its negotiations will provide Mexico with both the impetus and the resources to address its environmental difficulties.<sup>188</sup> But its critics argue that absent significant changes in Mexico's environmental practices, NAFTA will open the way for U.S. industries to escape U.S. environmental requirements by moving their

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184. See Arlene Wilson et. al, *North American Free Trade Agreement: Issues for Congress*, Mar. 25, 1991, at 1, Cong. Res. Service, No. 91-282-E (1991). Official dialogue between Bush and Salinas administrations concerning a potential MFTA commenced in June of 1990 with the issuance of a joint statement in support of negotiation of an MFTA. *Id.* In a letter of Aug. 21, 1990, President Salinas proposed that negotiations commence. *Id.* In response to a Mexican President's letter, President Bush notified the Senate Finance Committee and House Ways and Means Committee of the intent to enter into negotiations. *Id.* at 1-2.

185. See Executive Office of the President, Response of the Administration to Issues Raised in Connection with the Negotiation of a North American Free Trade Agreement, May 1, 1991, at 1 [hereinafter May 1 Plan].

186. *Id.*

187. *Id.* Taking Mexico as an example, in 1989 Mexico was the United States' third largest trading partner with a turnover (exports plus imports) of approximately \$52 billion. See *Is Mexico-U.S. Free Trade Agreement?*, Jan. 7, 1991, at 5. In the same year, the United States was Mexico's largest trading partner, accounting for 66% of all Mexican exports and 62% of all Mexican imports. *Id.*

188. See William K. Reilly, *Mexico's Environment Will Improve With Free Trade*, WASH. ST. J., Apr. 19, 1991, at A15 (Mr. Reilly is the administrator of the U.S. EPA); May 1, 1991, *supra* note 185, at 1-3.

operations to Mexico.<sup>189</sup> They also argue that increasing economy in Mexico without proper environmental controls will only exacerbate Mexico's environmental problems.<sup>190</sup> Mexico's environmental problems are already surfacing in the Southwestern region of the United States. Additionally, they criticize the U.S. decision to deal with environmental issues on a parallel track rather than as an integrated part of NAFTA. Environmentalists point out that both the United States and Canada, for the most part, have lived up to their obligations under the CFTA terms of the CFTA's trade enforcement provisions; in contrast, the United States and Canada both have failed to live up to their obligations under the Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement because it lacks effective enforcement provisions.<sup>193</sup>

In an effort to reassure environmentalists from all three N

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189. See Bruce Stokes, *Greens Talk Trade*, NAT'L J., Apr. 13, 1991, at 862, 864-65; *North American Free Trade Agreement: Issues for Congress*, July 12, 1991, at 47-48; comprehensive data regarding the potential flight of U.S. businesses south of the border to avoid more stringent U.S. environmental regulation is lacking, such pollution migration already be occurring. There have been reports that at least forty Southern California manufacturers have relocated all or part of their operations to Mexico to avoid the Southern California Air Quality District's standards that require the use of low-emission paints, varnishes, and solvents. See Robert Reinhold, *Mexico Proclaims an End to Sanctuary for Polluters*, TIMES, Apr. 18, 1991, at A20; GENERAL ACCOUNTING OFFICE, U.S.-MEXICO TRADE AGREEMENT: U.S. WOOD FURNITURE FIRMS RELOCATED FROM LOS ANGELES AREA TO MEXICO TO AVOID THE CHAIRMAN, *Comm. on Energy and Commerce, House of Representatives*, GAO/91-191, 1-4 (Apr. 1991).

In addition to the environmental questions raised by the NAFTA, labor groups argue that the NAFTA will cause a migration of American jobs to Mexico and will hurt U.S. industries as Mexican industries become more competitive. See Gary Lee, *Lobbyists Clash Over Trade Accord*, WASH. POST, Apr. 28, 1991, at A4, A6; George W. Grayson, *Mexico Begins to Act Like a Competitor*, WALL ST. J., Sept. 27, 1991, at A11.

190. See Stokes, *supra* note 189, at 864-66.

191. See LESLIE KOCHAN, *THE MAQUILADORAS AND TOXICS: THE HIDDEN COSTS OF PRODUCTION SOUTH OF THE BORDER* 7 (1989). *Issues Relating to a Bilateral Free Trade Agreement with Mexico: Hearings Before the Subcomm. on Western Hemisphere and Foreign Affairs of the Senate Comm. on Foreign Relations*, 102d Cong., 1st Sess. 11 (Statement of Michael McCloskey, Chairman, Sierra Club [hereinafter McCloskey]). Environmentalists claim that communities on both sides of the U.S./Mexican border are seriously depleted and poisoned by the improper disposal of wastes, largely from the maquiladora industries. *Id.* Liver and gall bladder cancer incidence rates from communities that get their drinking water from the Rio Grande have been found to be significantly higher than the U.S. national averages. KOCHAN, *supra* at 7. Santa Cruz County, Arizona, was forced, on at least one occasion, to declare a state of emergency after millions of gallons of raw sewage from Mexico were released into its water treatment system. *Mexico's Maquiladora Free Trade, or Foul Play?*, E: ENVIRONMENT MAGAZINE, July/Aug., 1991, at 36-37. The hepatitis rate in Nogales, Arizona, a community downstream of certain Mexican maquiladoras, has shot up to 20 percent over the national average. *Id.*

192. See Stokes, *supra* note 189, at 865.

193. Shrybman, *supra* note 157, at 107.

participant countries, the United States Trade Representative, in conjunction with other American and Mexican governmental agencies, released a comprehensive review of U.S.-Mexican environmental issues predicated upon the assumption that "increased economic activity likely to translate into greater environmental protection."<sup>194</sup> Environmentalists point out that economic growth in the U.S.-Mexican border region, caused by the expansion of the *maquiladora* industry, has failed to bring about environmental benefits and in fact has caused increased environmental degradation.<sup>195</sup> To ensure that the environmental effects of NAFTA are known and addressed, environmentalists have also commenced litigation to have an environmental impact statement prepared for the NAFTA negotiations.<sup>196</sup>

## 2. CFTA

The concerns over NAFTA have been heightened by problems arising from CFTA. Challenges to domestic environmental laws as non-tariff trade barriers and harmonization by reducing environmental standards under CFTA have underscored the weaknesses of negotiating trade agreements without regard to environmental issues.

The CFTA has functioned both as a sword to attack more stringent domestic environmental regulation and as a shield to protect less stringent environmental and health standards. For instance, both U.S. and Canadian entities have used the CFTA and GATT prohibitions on non-tariff trade barriers to challenge the other nation's domestic environmental laws. In the CFTA's first dispute resolution panel decision, the panel found the provisions of the Canadian Fisheries Act, which require that all fish caught for commercial purposes in Canadian waters must be landed first in Canada for biological sampling, to violate the CFTA. While the biological sampling requirement clearly restricted trade, the requirement was intended to provide accurate and reliable data to ensure adequate fisheries management over already-depleted stocks of herring and salmon in Canada's Pacific coast waters.<sup>198</sup> The U.S. Non-Ferrous

194. *Id.*

195. *Id.*

196. See *Public Citizen v. United States Trade Representative*, 782 F. Supp. 139 (D.I. 1992), *appeal docketed*, No. 92-5010 (D.C. Cir. Feb. 14, 1992) (dismissing litigation requires an environmental impact statement for the NAFTA and Uruguay Round negotiations plaintiff's lack of standing).

197. *In re Canada's Landing Requirement for Pacific Coast Salmon and Herring*, Canada-U.S. Trade Commission Panel, Oct. 16, 1989, 2 TCT 7162; see also Shrybman, *supra* note at 99.

198. See Shrybman, *supra* note 157, at 99.

Metal Producers Committee has challenged Canadian environmental and safety programs in lead, zinc, and copper smelters as unfair practices under the CFTA.<sup>199</sup> Conversely, in U.S. Federal court the Canadian asbestos industry and the Canadian government challenge EPA regulations that would phase out production, importation, and use of asbestos as violations of CFTA and GATT.<sup>200</sup>

Moreover, harmonization as required under CFTA arguably resulted in lower environmental standards and reduced import protection at the border.<sup>201</sup> For example, Canadian pesticide regulations are set using the U.S. risk-benefit model rather than the more stringent precautionary model previously used in the Canadian regulations.<sup>202</sup>

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199. See PUBLIC CITIZEN, FACT SHEET #3—TRADE DISPUTES, at 2. Acid rain is largely caused by the mixing of sulfur dioxide emissions from human sources with water in the atmosphere to create rain showers high in sulfuric acid content, has been linked to damage to streams and fisheries in Canada. See Drew Lewis & Williams Davis, Joint Report of Special Envoys on Acid Rain 26 (Jan. 1986). The principal sources of Canada's acid rain are non-ferrous metal smelting plants in Ontario and Quebec, however, Canada receives significant "exports" of sulfur dioxide emissions from U.S. based industries as well. *Id.*; Sibley, *A Canadian Perspective on the North American Acid Rain Problem*, 4 N.Y.U. ENV'T & COMP. L. 529, 530 (1983). To combat its acid rain problems Canada offers incentives to lead zinc and copper smelters for the purchase and installation of scrubbers which collect sulfur dioxide emissions. The U.S. Non-Ferrous Metals Producers Committee has challenged this Canadian program under the CFTA as a non-tariff barrier to trade. See PUBLIC CITIZEN, FACT SHEET #3—TRADE DISPUTES, *supra* at 2.

200. See *Corrosion Proof Fittings v. EPA*, 947 F.2d 1201, 1209, (5th Cir. 1991) that Canadian parties lacked standing, despite their GATT rights, to assert substantial injury that U.S. asbestos regulations violated U.S.'s binding obligations under GATT; see also *Amicus Curiae for the Government of Canada* at 16-19, *Corrosion Proof Fittings v. EPA*, 947 F.2d 1201 (5th Cir. 1991).

201. See Shrybman, *supra* note 157, at 105; PUBLIC CITIZEN, FACT SHEET #3—TRADE DISPUTES, *supra* note 199, at 2.

202. See Shrybman, *supra* note 157, at 105; PUBLIC CITIZEN, FACT SHEET #3—TRADE DISPUTES, *supra* note 199, at 2. Schedule 7 of Chapter 7 of the CFTA deals specifically with pesticides. The schedule provides that the U.S. and Canada must "work toward developing common guidelines, technical regulations, standards and test methods for pesticide regulation." The schedule follows the precautionary principle in licensing pesticides under the Pest Control Act, and requires the pesticides to be demonstrated as safe prior to registration. See Vigod, *The Canada-U.S. Free Trade Agreement: Selling the Environment Short*, ENV'T & COMP. L. JOURNAL (forthcoming 1992) (on file with CIEL-US). In contrast the United States licenses pesticides under the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act, which provides a risk-benefit approach to registration decisions. *Id.* The parties also committed to working together to achieve equivalence in "the process for risk-benefit assessment." Moving away from a risk-benefit approach has weakened Canadian pesticide regulations. See PUBLIC CITIZEN, FACT SHEET #3—TRADE DISPUTES, *supra* note 199, at 3; Vigod, *supra*. Prior to the CFTA Canada had registered twenty percent fewer active pesticide ingredients and seven times as many pesticide products than the U.S. See PUBLIC CITIZEN, FACT SHEET #3—TRADE DISPUTES, *supra* note 199, at 3. Now Canada finds itself having to increasingly accept imports of pesticide products made from compounds that were not among those listed prior to the CFTA. *Id.*

dition, a "streamlined" random meat inspection system to further CFTA goal of reducing trade restrictions replaced inspection of Canadian meat at the U.S. border.<sup>203</sup> A 1990 U.S. Department of Agriculture proposal to end U.S. meat inspections along the Canadian border as part of the CFTA<sup>204</sup> was abandoned in 1991.<sup>205</sup>

Perhaps the most environmentally devastating effect of the CFTA has been its elimination of Canadian controls over the exportation of energy to the United States.<sup>206</sup> Under chapter 9 of the CFTA, both the United States and Canada have agreed to eliminate regulatory controls over energy development and trade. To further facilitate the development of energy for export markets, chapter 9 also accords special status to subsidies for oil and gas exploration and development. While energy development subsidies are protected from challenge, programs that provide subsidies for energy conservation remain vulnerable to challenge.

The energy development incentives set out in the CFTA run counter to the intent, if not the letter, of previously-negotiated international agreements, specifically those concerning ozone depletion and air pollution.<sup>207</sup> Moreover, these incentives pose obstacles to ongoing international efforts to address the threat of global warming. The CFTA's tilt towards increased energy development to meet rising U.S. consumption demands has spawned the development of a number of environmentally destructive Canadian-based energy mega-projects.<sup>208</sup>

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203. 54 Fed. Reg. 273 (1989) (to be codified at 9 CFR pts. 327 & 381); see also U.S. GENERAL ACCOUNTING OFFICE, REPORT TO CONGRESSIONAL REQUESTERS: FOOD SAFETY SUES USFDA SHOULD ADDRESS BEFORE ENDING CANADIAN MEAT INSPECTIONS, GRCED-90-176, 1-2 (1990) [hereinafter FOOD SAFETY].

204. 55 Fed. Reg. 26,695 (1990) (to be codified at 9 CFR pts. 312, 322, 327 & 381); see FOOD SAFETY, *supra* note 203, at 1-2.

205. 56 Fed. Reg. 52,218 (1991) (to be codified at 9 CFR pts. 312, 322, 327 & 381).

206. Shrybman, *supra* note 157, at 98.

207. *Id.*

208. See *id.* The two most destructive mega-projects are the Arctic Gas Project and James Bay Hydroelectric Project. The Arctic Gas Project entails the construction of a 1 mile long natural gas pipeline traversing the arctic permafrost—one of the world's most and fragile ecosystems. *Id.* The James Bay Project involves the extension of hydroelectric capacity that will "reshape a territory the size of France and flood an area the size of the state of Vermont." *Id.* The James Bay Project threatens to destroy the culture of the Northern and Inuit peoples and will have a devastating effect on whales, seals, birds, caribou and other species. *Id.* at 98-99. In the past, projects like James Bay and the Arctic Gas Project have been prevented by Canada's National Energy Board. Today, however, The National Energy Board's regulatory mandate has been virtually eliminated by the CFTA. *Id.* at 9

### III. THE EFFECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTIONS ON TRADE

#### A. Trade Aspects of International Environmental Protections

##### 1. The Montreal Protocol on Substances That Deplete the Ozone Layer<sup>209</sup>

The Montreal Protocol on Substances That Deplete the Ozone Layer<sup>210</sup> (the Protocol), first negotiated in 1987 and substantially in June of 1990,<sup>211</sup> provides for eliminating, by the year 2000, CFC and other chemicals harmful to the ozone layer. The consequences of depletion range from health effects, such as increased incidence of cancer and cataracts, to reductions in yield of food crops.<sup>212</sup>

The Protocol controls both the production and consumption of CFCs and other ozone-depleting substances. Several of the Protocol's key enforcement provisions directly implicate trade.<sup>213</sup> First, the Protocol restricts parties from trading in CFCs and CFC-related products with non-parties.<sup>214</sup> Second, the Protocol restricts trade in CFCs and related products between parties.<sup>215</sup> Third, the Protocol contains a number of provisions assisting developing countries in meeting their obligations under the Protocol, including lengthened timetables for the phase-out of controlled substances, financial assistance, and technology transfer incentives.<sup>216</sup>

##### a. *Trade with Non-Parties*

To encourage countries to participate in the Protocol and to encourage industries that produce and use CFCs from migrating to party states, the Protocol establishes three tiers of trade regulations for restricted products between parties and non-parties. The first tier of restrictions applies directly to trade in the controlled substances between parties from importing controlled substances from non-parties.

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209. This section is substantially derived from Donald M. Goldberg, *Provisions of the Montreal Protocol Affecting Trade* (Jan. 16, 1992), CIEL-US Working Paper.

210. The Montreal Protocol on Substances That Deplete the Ozone Layer, adopted and opened for signature Sept. 16, 1987, entered into force Jan. 1, 1989, 26 I.L.M. 154 [hereinafter Protocol].

211. See Dale A. Bryk, *The Montreal Protocol and Recent Developments to Protect the Ozone Layer*, 15 HARV. ENVTL. L. REV. 275, 283-297 (1991).

212. See WORLD RESOURCES INSTITUTE, *WORLD RESOURCES 1990-1991*, at 62-63.

213. See Goldberg, *supra* note 209.

214. See Protocol, *supra* note 210, art. 4, 26 I.L.M. at 1554-55.

215. *Id.* art. 2, 26 I.L.M. at 1553.

216. *Id.* art. 5, 26 I.L.M. at 1555-56.

January 1, 1993, parties to the Protocol also may not export control substances to non-parties.<sup>217</sup> The Protocol's second tier of restriction applies to products that contain controlled substances.<sup>218</sup> In June 1991, the parties adopted an annex, which lists products containing controlled substances.<sup>219</sup> This annex became effective in December of 1991 and those parties that did not object must ban import of such products by June 1992. The third tier of restrictions envisioned by the Protocol would apply to products made with, but not containing, controlled substances. The Protocol requires the parties to conduct a feasibility study on banning imports from non-parties of substances made with, but not containing, controlled substances by January 1, 1994.<sup>220</sup>

Because the Protocol phases out trade in controlled substances among the member states while simultaneously banning the import "like" products from non-party states, there is a period during which non-party states will be precluded from exporting products containing controlled substances to party states that continue to be able to trade such products among themselves. Thus, if the GATT contracting parties apply the Protocol's import restrictions against imports from other contracting parties that are not parties to the Protocol, these import restrictions would appear to violate GATT's non-discrimination obligations. Similar GATT non-discrimination issues arise from the Protocol's limitations on exports of controlled substances to non-parties. Moreover, should parties enact restrictions that apply to imported products made with, but not containing, controlled substances, such restrictions would be prohibited restrictions that could violate GATT's article III (governing national treatment) and article XI (prohibiting quantitative restrictions).<sup>222</sup>

Using these trade restrictions to accomplish the Protocol's goals, as discussed extensively during the Protocol's negotiation in 1987.<sup>223</sup> The parties agreed to use trade restrictions because they feared that the parties' industries could not internalize the costs of complying with the agreement while competing with industries in non-party countries that did not have to bear these costs. In practice, however, efforts to eli-

217. *Id.* art. 4(2), 26 I.L.M. at 1554.

218. *Id.* art. 4(3), 26 I.L.M. at 1554.

219. Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer, London 1990, annexes A, B, UNEP/OzL.Pro.2/3 at 31.

220. *See* Protocol, *supra* note 210, art. 4(4); 26 I.L.M. at 1555.

221. *See* GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 11; OECD, Trade and Environment, *supra* note 21, at 23; Goldberg, *supra* note 209.

222. *See supra* note 164.

223. *See Report of the Ad Hoc Workup Group on the Work of its Third Session*, U.N. Environment Program, at 17-18, UNEP/WG.172/2 (1987).

nate the use of CFCs and other controlled substances in many it have led to the discovery of less expensive and more efficient sut for these products. Nevertheless, at the time of the agreemen trade restrictions were deemed essential incentives to encourag tries to join the Protocol, and they continue to play a major role serving the integrity of the Protocol.

These discussions also addressed the compatibility of these t strictions with the GATT.<sup>224</sup> A legal expert from the GATT Sec advised the Protocol's negotiators that these measures would be c ble with the GATT by virtue of article XX's exceptions because t ditions present in the party nations would be substantially differe those in non-party nations—allowing the parties to draw non-a distinctions between products from party nations and non-pa tions.<sup>225</sup> In light of the findings of the Tuna/Dolphin Panel Rep conclusion may have to be reexamined.

### b. *Special Provisions for Developing Countries*

The Protocol contains a number of provisions with trade i tions to assist developing countries in meeting their obligations ur Protocol. First, the Protocol permits developing countries to d ten years their phase-out of controlled substances.<sup>226</sup> Second, the col establishes a Multilateral Fund to provide developing countr their industries with technical and financial assistance necessary f pliance with the Protocol.<sup>227</sup>

These special provisions for developing countries could run certain GATT obligations, especially in view of the Uruguay Rou phasis on eliminating preferences to developing countries.<sup>228</sup> Fo ple, a developing nation receiving financial assistance fro Multilateral Fund and then passing it on to its industries to p “clean” technologies could be in violation of the GATT's pro against subsidies.

## 2. Convention on International Trade in Endangered Spec Wild Fauna and Flora

In recognition of global threats to the world's biodiversity, ti

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224. *Id.* at 18.

225. *Id.*

226. See Protocol, *supra* note 210, art. 5(1), 26 I.L.M. at 1555.

227. See *id.*, art. 5(3), 26 I.L.M. at 1555.

228. See Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environment tions, *supra* note 20, at 20.



vention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora<sup>229</sup> (CITES) seeks to control or eliminate trade in plant and animal species which are now, or may become, threatened with extinction. Because the intent of CITES is to alleviate trade-driven pressure on a species, its trade-related provisions are necessary to the achievement of its goal.

The level of the trade restriction CITES places on trade in a species is proportional to the degree of the threat to the species. CITES classifies each regulated species by its degree of "endangeredness" and establishes corresponding levels of trade restrictions through a listing system consisting of three Appendices.<sup>230</sup> Parties may propose changes to the categorization of a species as well as additions and deletions to the Appendices.<sup>231</sup>

Appendix I includes species that currently are threatened with extinction.<sup>232</sup> The threat of extinction to an Appendix I species need not be linked with trade demands on the species. CITES defines commercial trade broadly to include transactions in the species and species-derived products that have even nominal commercial aspects.<sup>233</sup> Such commercial trade is prohibited.<sup>234</sup> Noncommercial trade is allowed only if trading the species will not be detrimental to the survival of the species. Before an export country may grant a permit for non-commercial trade in a species, the import country must issue an import permit.<sup>236</sup>

Appendix II lists species which are not currently threatened with extinction but may become threatened unless trade in the species is strictly regulated.<sup>237</sup> The exporting country may grant export permits for Appendix II species where the country's scientific authorities determine that the export will not be detrimental to the survival of the species.<sup>238</sup>

Appendix III consists of those species that any party has identified as requiring protection to prevent the species' demise from trade-driven

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229. Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, Mar. 3, 1973, 27 U.S.T. 1087, 993 U.N.T.S. 243, [hereinafter CITES]. CITES currently has 113 parties. See Fish & Wildlife Service, U.S. Dept. of Interior, *CITES Update #12: February 1992*, at 1, FWS/OMA TRE 1-02g (Feb. 1992).

230. See CITES art. II.

231. See *id.* arts. XV, XVI.

232. *Id.* art. II(1).

233. *Id.* art. I(b),(c).

234. *Id.* art. III(3).

235. *Id.*

236. *Id.* art. III(3).

237. *Id.* art. II(2).

238. *Id.* art. IV(2).

overexploitation and for which the co-operation of the other parties is needed to control the threat to the species.<sup>239</sup> Appendix III listing applies to only those populations of a species found within those countries that have classified the species as an Appendix III species.<sup>240</sup> An Appendix III listing enables the contracting parties to address localized threats to extinction to sub-populations of species where these threats do not affect other sub-populations of the species. Trade in Appendix III species between parties that have not listed the species as Appendix III species is allowed so long as a certificate of origin accompanies the species product.<sup>241</sup>

While parties must conform to these mandates, the agreement does not limit the ability of a party to adopt unilaterally stricter protection standards. Parties are required to enforce the provisions of CITES in their dealings with non-parties.<sup>242</sup>

A number of CITES provisions pose potential areas of friction with the GATT's obligations.<sup>243</sup> Because CITES allows a party to restrict trade in non-domestic species through trade restrictions, such trade restrictions in light of the Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report, would not appear to conflict with article XX's exceptions for conservation of exhaustible natural resources and protection of species health and life. If the provisions do not qualify for an article XX exception, then a CITES party imposing trade restrictions against products of a GATT party that is not a CITES party could be violating the GATT's prohibition against quantitative restrictions.<sup>244</sup>

### 3. The Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal

To avoid the high costs of domestic disposal of hazardous wastes caused by stringent environmental laws and regulations, industrialized countries increasingly have sought to export these wastes to developing countries with lower environmental standards. International negotiations to address the environmental and social implications of this practice led to the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal<sup>245</sup> (the Bas

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239. *Id.* art. II(3).

240. *Id.*

241. *Id.* art. V(3).

242. *Id.* art. X.

243. See Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environmental Regulations, *supra* note 20, at 21.

244. *Id.*

245. Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous W

vention). The Basel Convention seeks to control international trade hazardous wastes so that baseline health and safety standards are met all countries. Because the Convention is intended to restrict trade wastes, the trade provisions are central to achieving the Convention goals.

The Basel Convention permits the parties' transboundary movement of hazardous wastes in only three circumstances: (1) where the exporting party lacks the technical capacity, necessary facilities, or siting capacity to ensure the environmentally sound disposal of the wastes in question; (2) where the wastes in question are required as a raw material for recycling and recovery industries in the importing nation; or (3) where the party performs transboundary shipment and disposal in accordance with the particular requirements established in the convention.<sup>246</sup>

The Basel Convention prohibits the export of wastes to nations that have prohibited the import of such hazardous wastes, to non-parties, and to the Antarctic region. Parties that choose to prohibit the import of hazardous wastes must inform the other parties of this decision.<sup>247</sup> Parties may only permit the shipment of hazardous wastes if the shipment is authorized in writing by the importing country.<sup>248</sup> The exporting party must provide prior notification of any shipment.<sup>249</sup> A party that chooses instead to allow the import of such wastes must not allow the import of any wastes that it has reason to believe will not be managed in an environmentally-sound manner.<sup>250</sup> The exporting party has the burden of ensuring that any exports of wastes that it permits are, in fact, managed in an environmentally-sound manner.<sup>251</sup>

If a shipment of hazardous waste is found to have violated the Convention's terms, then the exporting country must either return the waste itself or ensure that the exporter or generator returns the waste. If the return of the waste is impracticable, the exporting country must provide for its disposal in accordance with the requirements of the convention.

The requirements that the Basel Convention places on trade in hazardous and toxic wastes impose conditions on trade in such wastes that

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Their Disposal, *opened for signature* Mar. 22, 1989, 28 I.L.M. 649 (1989) (The agreement enters into force May 1992) [hereinafter Basel].

246. *Id.* art. 4(9)(a).

247. *Id.* art. 4(1)(a).

248. *Id.* art. 4(1),(5),(6).

249. *Id.* art. 6(1).

250. *Id.* art. 4(2)(g).

251. *Id.* art. 4(2)(e),(8).

252. *Id.* art. 9(2).

appear to violate the GATT's trade obligations.<sup>253</sup> Additionally, to many of the conditions imposed on exporting countries are designed to protect the welfare of individuals and the environment in importing countries "extrajurisdictionally," they would appear to fall outside the scope of the article XX exceptions. Similarly, the prohibition on export to the Antarctic region may not be justifiable under article XX. The prohibition on trade with non-parties is most troublesome. For this provision to come within article XX, the discrimination against non-parties would need to be justified on the basis of domestic health, safety, or conservation concerns in the exporting country.

#### 4. Proposed International Agreements<sup>254</sup>

The interaction between the spheres of international trade and environmental protection is becoming a topic of discussion in a number of international fora, including the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) and the inter-governmental negotiations on climate change and protection of biodiversity. This section summarizes the current discussions within the biodiversity and climate change negotiations and UNCED, which will culminate at the 1992 conference in Rio de Janeiro.

##### a. *The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development*

The UN General Assembly uses UNCED to devise strategies for reversing environmental degradation while promoting "sustainable and environmentally sound development in all countries." Envisioned as a follow-up to the landmark 1972 UN Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm, the conference is intended to produce two non-binding comprehensive documents to guide the world towards environmental clean-up and sustainable development. "Agenda 21" is to be a program of action—covering a panoply of topics from desertification to environmental accounting—for dealing with environmental degradation and promoting sustainable development over the next twenty years. The participants planned to draft an "Earth Charter" that would serve as a set of principles governing human behavior in the biosphere. Discussion of trade issues in the UNCED process has been limited. Only in the final Preparatory Committee (PrepCom IV) meeting, held in

253. See Frictions Between International Trade Agreements and Environmental Protections, *supra* note 20, at 22.

254. This section was substantially derived from a research memorandum prepared by David Downes, General Counsel, CIEL-US.

York from March 2 to April 3, 1992, did the parties attempt to deal with the issues in draft decision documents.

At PrepCom IV, delegates still could not come up with unbracketed texts. Indeed, delegates could not even agree on "Earth Charter" as a title for the statement of principles; the draft is entitled the "Rio Declaration." Many major issues remain unsettled. Among the biggest obstacles to agreement is conflict over the extent to which developed countries should provide additional financial resources and should take special measures for transferring environmentally appropriate technology to the developing world.

In the closing sessions of PrepCom IV, language explicitly dealing with the interrelationship of trade and environment made its way into the proposed texts. This language may yet be revised, since informal discussions of the contents of documents will continue sporadically through April and May and since delegations will continue to negotiate during their first days in Rio.

#### i. UN Background Studies Prepared for UNCED

Two UNCED background studies explicitly discuss trade and environment.<sup>255</sup> The first is a briefing text prepared for government delegations by the UNCED Secretariat on the international economy and environment and development, which includes discussions of the relationship of international trade and sustainable development, as well as several of the major areas of potential conflict between international trade and environmental law.<sup>256</sup> The report begins by acknowledging "underlying presumption of trade theory" that trade "at prices which reflect real resource cost" leads to the most efficient allocation of resources and the maximization of economic welfare generally.<sup>257</sup> Aside, it notes that there are exceptions to this rule, including trade in hazardous products, but it does not assess the validity of measures straining the export of hazardous substances under the GATT.<sup>258</sup>

The report notes that it is unclear whether provisions in inter-

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255. A third background report, focusing on the impact of international environmental regulation on trade, is being prepared by C&M International Ltd. of Washington D.C. It was not yet available as of this writing. See LEGAL TIMES, Jan. 13, 1992, at 5; Telephonic Interview with Offices of C&M International Ltd. (Feb. 5, 1992).

256. *The International Economy and Environment and Development: Report of the Secretary-General of the Conference, Preparatory Committee for United Nations Conference on Environment and Development*, 3d Sess., UN Doc. A/CONF.151/PC/47 (1991) [herein UNCED Sec't Int'l Econ. Report].

257. *Id.* at 4.

258. *Id.*

tional environmental agreements for trade measures against nations—aimed at discouraging “free riders” who benefit from an agreement’s success without paying the costs of compliance—are consistent with GATT obligations.<sup>259</sup> It also acknowledges the related issue of determining “the appropriate forum for the resolution of trade disputes arising from the application of such global agreements.” The report concludes that at least one issue appears settled: that the GATT requires such trade measures to be “proportional to the environmental objectives which are sought to be achieved.”<sup>261</sup>

Regarding domestic environmental laws, the report states that a “generally accepted proposition” is that environmental standards may differ among countries and that therefore “differences in standards cannot be a basis for valid trade restraint.”<sup>262</sup> It supports this view by arguing that differences in environmental “conditions” make up for international specialization in production and thus contribute to efficiency and to “sustainability.”<sup>263</sup> Obviously, this argument does not take into account the externalization of environmental costs under one country’s environmental standards that could result in a production process which, although it produces products that appear to be cheaper, is in all more costly and less efficient than production in a country with stricter environmental standards.

In discussing the trade implications of national standards that regulate the process by which a product is produced, however, the report concludes that it is reasonable to impose such standards on imports at least where the production process degrades common resources and affects the importing as well as the exporting country.<sup>264</sup> As to whether such measures are consistent with GATT, the report merely notes that GATT does not “explicitly” allow them.<sup>265</sup>

The second UNCED background study discussing trade and the environment was prepared at the request of the UN General Assembly by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) for the UNCED PrepCom.<sup>266</sup> The report states that “trade liberalization will induce shifts in production, leading to a more efficient and su-

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259. *Id.* at 7.

260. *Id.*

261. *Id.*

262. *Id.* at 6.

263. *Id.*

264. *Id.* at 7.

265. *Id.* at 8.

266. *Report of the Secretary-General of the UNCTAD, submitted to the Secretary-General of the Conference Pursuant to General Assembly Resolution 45/210, Preparatory Comm.*

ble use of environmental resources throughout the world," if "in countries production and end-use prices incorporate the full cost of source use (the Polluter-Pays and User-Pays Principles)."<sup>267</sup> Thus, a rational trade policy ultimately may include, for example, increased intervention in energy markets in order to address global warming. By the same token, it will mandate removing some trade barriers to prevent allocating the real costs of resource use, such as the agricultural protectionism of developed countries.<sup>269</sup>

The UNCTAD trade report urges further study of the interrelationship of trade and environment, including both "the effects of trade liberalization on the environment," particularly with regard to removing developed countries' agricultural subsidies, and the "impact of environmental regulations on trade," including trade-related provisions of international environmental agreements, particularly in light of developing countries aspiring to further development.<sup>270</sup> The report tentatively concludes that trade measures based on environmental grounds should conform to three principles. First, they should not result in arbitrary discrimination between countries "where the same conditions prevail and should not serve as disguised trade barriers."<sup>271</sup> Second, trade-restrictive measures should be "proportional" to the environmental objectives of those measures.<sup>272</sup> Third, the "precautionary principle" "tighten[ing] acceptable risk margins"—should guide the setting of environmental standards and "corresponding trade measures" so that "lack of full scientific certainty" does not hinder "the prevention of environmental hazards."<sup>273</sup>

## ii. General Positions of Governments

Although trade policy is an aspect of the "cross-sectoral" issue of the international economy which PrepCom IV is to consider, in the early stages, governmental delegations to UNCED have devoted relatively little attention to the interrelationship of international trade and environmental policy.<sup>274</sup> Developed countries, especially the United States, l

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the U.N. Conference on Environment and Development, 3d Sess., Agenda Item 2B, U.N. A/Conf.151/PC/48 (1991).

267. *Id.* at 14 (emphasis added).

268. *Id.*

269. *Id.*

270. *Id.* at 15.

271. *Id.* at 16.

272. *Id.*

273. *Id.* at 7, 16.

274. Telephone interview with Tahar Sadoc, UNCED Secretariat (Jan. 3, 1991).

tended to argue that trade issues should be addressed at GATT. The United States has stated that, "We look to the GATT to define trade measures can properly be used for environmental purposes." To the extent that they have addressed the issue, developing countries, in particular, countries sometimes termed "newly industrialized countries"—have expressed concern that stringent environmental regulations may function as protectionist trade barriers, with a particularly noticeable effect on the exports of developing countries.<sup>276</sup>

India, for instance, has argued for strict limits on the imposition of trade restrictions on environmental grounds, stating that even "legitimate environmental considerations "cannot justify restrictive trade practices except when these are introduced in terms of specific provisions in an internationally accepted environmental convention."<sup>277</sup> A UN General Assembly resolution on UNCED reflects this concern, stating that incorporating environmental considerations into development policy should not be used as a pretext for creating unjustified barriers to trade.<sup>278</sup>

At PrepCom IV, language was inserted into draft documents that, if approved, would significantly implicate the interrelationship of international trade policy and measures for environmental protection. Although the twenty-seven principles enunciated in the "Rio Declaration," which was pushed through in the closing hours of the session, was Principle 12 on trade and environment, which expresses a viewpoint with obvious consequences for global environmental protection.<sup>279</sup> Principle 12 was uncontroversially adopted by noting that "[t]rade policy measures for environmental purposes should not constitute a means of arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination or a disguised restriction on international trade

275. Preparatory Committee for the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development, Statement by the U.S. Delegation on International Economics and Trade, In Economic-Environmental Accounting, and Economic Instruments (Aug. 1991) (on file with authors).

276. See, e.g., *Principles on General Rights and Obligations: Chairman's Consultative Draft*, Preparatory Committee for the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, ¶¶ 86, 89, U.N. Doc. A/Conf.151/PC/WG.III/L.8 (1991) (statements of Solomon Islands and Singapore).

277. *Id.* ¶ 85.

278. See G.A. Res. 228, U.N. GAOR, 44th Sess., U.N. Doc. (1989).

279. Late drafts of some sections of Agenda 21 contained similar proposed language, e.g., *Protection of Oceans, All Kinds of Seas Including Enclosed and Semi-Enclosed Coastal Areas and the Protection, Rational Use and Development of Their Living Resources*, Preparatory Committee for the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, 4th Sess., Agenda Item 2, at 35, U.N. Doc. A/Conf. 151/PC/WG.II/L.25/Rev. (including handwritten amendments "as adopted at Plenary April 3, 1992, 9:30 p.m.).

280. *Principles on General Rights and Obligations: Draft Principles Proposed by the Chairman: Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*, Preparatory Committee



The next sentence reflects the holding of the GATT panel in the Tun Dolphin Panel decision, stating that “[u]nilateral actions to deal w environmental challenges outside the jurisdiction of the importing cou try should be avoided.”<sup>281</sup> Similarly, the final sentence, drawing or again from the Tuna/Dolphin Panel’s rationale, states tl “[e]nvironmental measures addressing transboundary or global enviro mental problems should, as far as possible, be based on an internatio consensus.” This language, taken literally, places an almost impossi burden on the proponents of international environmental agreeme containing trade-related enforcement measures since it is almost impos sible to achieve an international consensus.<sup>282</sup> Indeed, even the United N tions does not include every nation-state.

### iii. General Comments of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

A number of NGOs involved in UNCED from both North & South strongly criticize the ramifications of current trade policy trea for environmental protection and sustainable development. The Wo Wide Fund for Nature complained that GATT’s “narrow focus” on “e ralization of world trade” blinds it to environmental and natural source costs of traded products that are currently externalized.<sup>283</sup> called on the PrepCom to analyze the GATT’s potential impact on c rent and future international agreements for environmental protect and to suggest GATT reforms that will ensure that GATT provisions not hamper countries’ ability to protect the environment and deve sustainably.<sup>284</sup> The Poverty and Affluence Working Group, a coalit of seventy NGOs, has also urged that UNCED analyze “how trade p ractices distort the environment and development . . . [and] ensure that e ronmental and development policy [supersede] trade policy” so as correct current trade practices that encourage uneconomic and enviro mentally destructive exploitation of the natural resources of the South

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United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, 4th Sess., Agenda Item 3, U.N. Doc. A/Conf. 151/PC/WG.III/L.33/Rev.1 (1992).

281. *Id.*

282. Although the sentence by its terms includes *all* environmental measures, whether not they pertain to trade, the context within Principle 12 suggests that it is intended to rec only those environmental measures that relate to trade.

283. *See UNCED Must Recognize Role of Trade* (Sept. 3, 1991) (press release from W Wildlife Fund).

284. *Id.*

285. *See Third World Resurgence*, No. 14/15 at 34 (1991). The term “south” is use refer to developing countries and the term “north” refers to developed countries.

Similarly, in a statement to UNCED, thirty-eight environment and development NGOs from twenty-five countries ask that any decision at the Uruguay Round conform to "the principles of sustainable development which will hopefully [sic] be elaborated at the U. meeting."<sup>286</sup>

#### iv. Forestry Principles

Originally, delegations to the PrepCom were to negotiate a convention to preserve forests, to be ready for UNCED's consideration in June, 1992. It is extremely unlikely, however, that anything more than a non-binding statement of general principles on forests will be ready at that time. While the discussion of timber trade has raised the issue of the interrelation of trade and environment more explicitly than in most contexts, mutually inconsistent provisions on trade policy in a bracketed draft text that came out of the third PrepCom meeting illustrate that there is as yet no agreement on how to deal with trade with regard to forests.<sup>287</sup> Some proposed language would, for instance, encourage "subsidies or incentives encouraging sound practices," while another proposed clause would provide that "[t]rade on forest products must be consistent with international trade law and practices as established for example in [GATT] and its subsidiary agreements."<sup>288</sup> NGOs have commented on trade-related issues, with one Malaysian group arguing that UNCED "must ensure that countries reserve the right and freedom to ban the export of forest products for conservation purposes, and not support efforts to label such moves as an obstacle to trade."<sup>289</sup>

#### v. Technology Transfer and Intellectual Property Rights

The terms for transfer of environmentally appropriate technology from North to South have been intensely debated in the UNCED process, with little progress toward agreement so far. Developing countries

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286. See Third World Network, NGO Statement on Some Key Issues for UNCED (1991) (statement to UNCED from 38 environment and development NGOs from 25 countries drafted at a meeting in Penang, Malaysia, 25-30 July 1991).

287. See, e.g., *Land Resources: Deforestation, A non-legally binding authoritative set of principles for a global consensus on the management, conservation and sustainable use of all types of forests*, Preparatory Committee for the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, 3d Sess., Agenda Item 3, ¶ 14 U.N. Doc. A/Conf. WG.I/CRP/14/Rev.1 (1991) [hereinafter *Land Resources: Deforestation*].

288. See *id.*

289. See Ling & Khor, Principles for an UNCED Consensus on Forests, Third World Network Briefing Papers for UNCED No. 4, at 16 (1991).

insist that developed countries must help them obtain the technology needed to comply with obligations under any new international agreements for environmental protection. In general, they ask that developed countries make special efforts to transfer appropriate technology by providing funds and by transferring such technology on preferential and non-commercial terms.<sup>290</sup> Developed countries are reluctant to make commitments to any more funding, especially in the absence of developing countries clearly committing to new environmental protection measures. And preferential technology transfer or funding potentially conflicts with GATT obligations barring discriminatory treatment in form of subsidies.

In this context, developing countries are concerned that protection of intellectual property rights (IPR), an issue now under discussion in the Uruguay Round's TRIPS negotiations, may hamper the transfer of environmentally appropriate technology. These concerns implicitly conflict with the United States' effort in GATT negotiations and in bilateral relations to strengthen IPR protection worldwide,<sup>291</sup> an effort reflected in the United States' comments in the UNCED process.<sup>292</sup> A number of developing countries, as well as many NGOs, also are increasingly concerned that genetic resources from wild and domesticated tropical ecosystems

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290. See, e.g., *Draft Decision proposed by the Vice-Chairman, Mr. B.S. Utheim (Norway) on the basis on informal consultations: Transfer of Technology*, Preparatory Committee for United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, 3d Sess., Agenda Item 2 (a):(d), 2(a):(g), 8, U.N. Doc. A/Conf. 151/PC/L.53 (1991) (bracketed text calling for various measures to transfer patents on environmentally sound technology to developing countries on non-commercial terms); *China and Ghana: Draft decision: Financial resources*, Preparatory Committee for the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, 3d Sess., Agenda Item 2(c), ¶¶ (b), (g), U.N. Doc. A/Conf. 151/PC/L.41 (1991) (G-77 proposal for provision of financial resources and transfer of technology).

291. See Keith Bradsher, *U.S. and China Reach Accord on Copying*, N.Y. TIMES, Jan. 1992, at D1, D14 (reporting that China agreed to United States demands for strengthening intellectual property protection); Hans Peter Kunz-Hallstein, *The United States Proposal for a GATT Agreement on Intellectual Property and the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property*, 22 VAND. J. TRANSNAT'L L. 265, 267 (1989); Richard A. Morford, *Intellectual Property Protection: A United States Priority*, 19 GA. J. INT'L & COMP. L. 336, 337-39 (1991) (describing United States pursuit of improved protection of intellectual property in foreign countries through bilateral consultations and Section 301 actions under United States international trade law).

292. See Preparatory Committee for the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development, Statement by the U.S. Delegation on Technology Cooperation (Aug. 30, 1991) (stating that "[t]echnology has been adapted most successfully in those countries where the business environment . . . offer[s] adequate protection for intellectual property"); UN Conference on Environment and Development, U.S. Statement on UNGA U.N. Doc. A/Conf. 151/PC/67 "Environmentally Sound Management of Biotechnology: Background and Issues" (Aug. 22, 1991) (stating that "intellectual property rights have been key to advances in technology . . . [and] must be respected").

are transferred freely to developed countries, while commercially valuable substances and technology derived from those resources by Northern industry are rendered expensive or unaffordable for developing countries by IPR. Some developing countries are calling for the reduction or abolition of IPR, at least in the South, over products derived from natural or traditional genetic resources.<sup>293</sup>

On the other hand, legal and economic scholars, as well as environmental and human rights NGOs and representatives of indigenous peoples, have called for the creation of property rights over biological resources that would enable governments or individuals with biological resources in a diverse territory to earn some return from the use of that biodiversity to create new products—a creative use of IPR-like concepts that many believe could stimulate preservation of natural resources that are currently imperilled. Advocates for indigenous peoples also have urged governments to recognize some form of intellectual property rights in traditional knowledge of the biological resources of their natural environment—so far without success.<sup>294</sup>

#### b. *Negotiations on a Biodiversity Convention*

In a process paralleling the preparations for UNCED, an Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee with a Secretariat staffed by UNEP is overseeing negotiations on a convention to protect biodiversity. These negotiations were supposed to result in a draft convention ready for the consideration of delegates in Rio in June, 1992, but the betting is fifty-fifty that a convention of any significance will be completed by that time.<sup>295</sup> In large part, negotiations appear to have snagged on the same two issues that have hampered progress at UNCED: trade in biotechnology (although its relevance in the context of conservation of biodiversity is less clear than in other areas) and allocating financial resources for conservation measures.

So far, there has been little discussion of trade issues in the negotiations.<sup>296</sup> Trade policy has arisen only implicitly in discussions of

293. See *Land Resources: Deforestation*, *supra* note 287, ¶ 8(h) (draft of forest convention including bracketed text calling for "sharing of technology and profits of bio-technological products, for example pharmaceutical, derived from [biological resources of forests]").

294. See, e.g., *Intellectual Property Rights for Indigenous Peoples in the Context of Sustainable Development, Trade, and Conservation of Biodiversity* (1991) (proposed resolution to be presented to UNCED PrepCom III in Geneva).

295. Interview with UNEP Inter-Governmental Negotiating Committee for a Convention on Biological Diversity Secretariat for Working Group II (January 6, 1992).

296. Telephone Interview with Eleanor Savage, Department Negotiator, United States Department of State (Dec. 12, 1991); Interview with UNEP Inter-Governmental N

ing or compensating for the use of developing countries' genetic resources, i.e., the genetic variety found in wild and domesticated plant and animal species which may have commercial value in pharmaceutical, agricultural, and other applications. For instance, the Mexican delegation has suggested that the rights to any product derived from the biological resources of a developing country should be in the public domain, at least in the source country. The fourth draft convention, dated December 16, 1991, reflects this view, providing that "countries of origin of genetic material or providing genetic material subject to biotechnological research [should] be exempted from royalties on patents relating to products of such research."<sup>297</sup> As such a rule would create different levels of IPR protection for similar imports from different countries, its validity in light of GATT's prohibition of discriminatory treatment is unclear. The fifth draft of the convention takes a more ambiguous position, including bracketed language providing that contracting parties shall promote "priority access" to biotechnology for the countries upon whose genetic resources that biotechnology is based. Whether providing for such priority access violates the GATT's trade rules would depend on the nature of the measures taken.<sup>298</sup>

There are several other provisions in the fifth draft convention which implicate trade. Article 16 provides that contracting parties shall facilitate other parties' access to natural genetic resources on mutually agreed-upon terms and conversely that parties shall promote access to countries that are sources of natural genetic resources to commercial derivatives of those resources. This language appears to provide for free trade in biological resources and their derivatives. Bracketed language in article 17, which covers technology transfer, provides for "preferential and concessional" transfer of technology—an approach which, as mentioned above,<sup>299</sup> raises questions under GATT standards.

In past years, a number of developing countries have attempted to restrict the export of plant samples from developing countries to the

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Committee for a Convention on Biological Diversity Secretariat for Working Group II (January 6, 1992).

297. *Fourth Revised Draft Convention on Biological Diversity*, UNEP Inter-Governmental Negotiating Committee for a Convention on Biological Diversity, Art. 17 bis, ¶ 1 [hereinafter 4th Draft Biol. Diversity Conv.]. This draft was prepared for use in the negotiations in Nairobi on Feb. 6-15, 1992.

298. *See Fifth Revised Draft Convention on Biological Diversity*, UNEP Inter-Governmental Negotiating Committee for a Convention on Biological Diversity, UNEP/Bio.Div./INC.5/2, art. 20, ¶ 2 [hereinafter 5th Draft Biol. Diversity Conv.]. This draft was prepared for use in the negotiations in Nairobi in May 1992.

299. *See supra* Part I.E.

veloped world. These countries are concerned that such exports are then sold back to developing countries at a vastly higher price—outcompensing the contributor of the genetic resources.<sup>300</sup> Developed as well as developing countries have imposed both de jure and de facto restrictions on export of plant genetic resources.<sup>301</sup> As yet, these related issues have been addressed through little more than gene agreements requiring parties to “facilitate access [for other parties] to genetic resources for environmentally sound purposes.”<sup>302</sup>

### c. Negotiations on a Climate Change Convention

Like the biodiversity convention negotiations, the goal of the climate change negotiations (organized by an Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for a Framework Convention on Climate Change) is to produce a convention ready for delegates' consideration at Rio in June. As in other UNCED-related contexts, little explicit discussion of trade has occurred so far. Trade has been implicated for the most part only in the context of requests for technology transfer on “preferential, concessional and non-commercial terms,” including the waiver of patents as against developing countries—policies which would raise questions under GATT's prohibition of discrimination and subsidies.<sup>303</sup> Of particular interest, however, is that the draft negotiating text includes language drastically curtailing the possibility of enforcing a climate change control agreement through trade-related sanctions of the kind employed by the Montreal Protocol. Article II, Principle 6 of the draft would allow “barriers to trade on the basis of claims related to climate change” only if based on a decision of the Conference of the Parties and only if “consistent with GATT.” Even broader is the language of draft Principle 7, which provides “[m]easures taken to combat climate change should not introduce trade distortions inconsistent with GATT or hinder the promotion of a free and multilateral trading system.”<sup>305</sup> In light of the GATT bureau's

300. See Eric Christensen, *Genetic Ark: A Proposal to Preserve Genetic Diversity for Future Generations*, 40 STAN. L. REV. 279, 301 (1987) (quoting Mooney, *The Law of the Sea, Other Development and Plant Genetic Resources*, 1983: DEV. DIALOGUE 24, 39).

301. See C. FOWLER & PAT MOONEY, *SHATTERING: FOOD, POLITICS & THE LOSS OF GENETIC DIVERSITY* 193-96 (1990).

302. See 5th Draft Biol. Diversity Conv., *supra* note 298, art. 16, ¶ 2.

303. See *Revised Consolidated Text Under Negotiation*, Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for a Framework Convention on Climate Change, 5th Sess., Agenda Item IV.2.3, U.N. Doc. No. A/AC.237/Misc.20 (1992).

304. See *id.* at art. II, ¶ 6.

305. *Id.* art. II, ¶ 7.

current interpretation of the GATT, such language could seriously hamper international efforts to control global warming.<sup>306</sup>

## B. Unilateral Environmental Protections

Many domestic environmental protections in the United States and other countries rely heavily upon trade measures to ensure their effectiveness or to ensure that domestic industries that must meet more stringent environmental standards are not disadvantaged competitively by the standards.<sup>307</sup> Certain of these measures are summarized below.

### 1. Current Environmental Laws

#### a. *The Endangered Species Act*

To friend and foe alike, the Endangered Species Act<sup>308</sup> (ESA) is one of the strongest U.S. laws protecting the environment. The ESA is best known for its provisions proscribing the domestic "taking" of an endangered species or the destruction of such species' habitat.<sup>309</sup> The ESA also bars any person or entity subject to U.S. jurisdiction from importing or exporting any species listed by the Secretary of the Interior as endangered or any product derived from such a species.<sup>310</sup> While the ESA's prohibitions applying to endangered species generally apply to threatened species as well, the Secretary of the Interior, through the Fish and Wildlife Service, may promulgate special rules excepting threatened species from some or all of these provisions.<sup>311</sup> Listing of a species under the purposes of the ESA does not necessarily correspond to the international listing of a species under CITES. Species listed as endangered or threatened include both domestic and extraterritorial species, and a species need not be protected in its habitat country for the species to receive protection under the ESA.<sup>312</sup>

The ESA's import and export bans may conflict with the GATT's non-discrimination obligations in terms of the ESA's treatment of distinct population segments. For these provisions to comply with the GATT, they would have to be justified under article XX. If, however,

306. See Donald Goldberg, *INC: Watch Out for GATTzilla*, *ECO*, Feb. 27, 1992 at 4.

307. See Melinda Chandler, *Recent Developments in the Use of International Trade Restrictions as a Conservation Measure for Marine Resources*, in *FREEDOM FOR THE SEAS IN THE 21ST CENTURY: A NEW LOOK AT OCEAN GOVERNANCE AND ENVIRONMENTAL HARMONY* (J. Van Dyke et al. eds., forthcoming 1992).

308. Endangered Species Act of 1973, 16 U.S.C. §§ 1531-1534 (1988).

309. *Id.* § 1538(a).

310. *Id.* § 1538(d).

311. *Id.* § 1533(a)(3).

312. *Id.* § 1533(b).

the species being protected is not found in the United States, these provisions would seem to violate the United States' GATT obligation. Article XX has been read as not extending "extrajurisdictionally

b. *The Marine Mammal Protection Act*

One of the primary goals of the Marine Mammal Protection Act (the MMPA) is to reduce the incidental killing of marine mammals, particularly dolphins, during commercial fishing operations. To achieve this goal, the MMPA establishes a regulatory program that sets nationwide standards for U.S. tuna fleet fishing practices.<sup>314</sup> This regulatory program is strictest in the Eastern Tropical Pacific Ocean (ETP), where schools of tuna tend to swim in the waters below pods of dolphins. Under this program, foreign tuna fishing fleets operating in the ETP must meet similar standards to be able to import their tuna to the United States. For a foreign tuna fleet to be able to export its tuna and tuna products to the United States, the Secretary of Commerce must certify: one, that the foreign fleet operates under a regulatory program that is comparable to that of the United States and two, that during a given period of time the foreign fleet's adjusted average rate of incidental taking of marine mammals did not exceed 1.25 times the unweighted average of the United States for that same period of time.<sup>315</sup> Additionally, intermediary nations that import tuna from nations that have not obtained comparability cannot import their tuna and tuna products into the United States.

The recent Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report found these MMPA and intermediary restrictions to violate the GATT's prohibitions contained in article III (national treatment) and article XI (quantitative restrictions). Additionally, the Panel Report held the MMPA's provisions to fall outside the scope of article XX because they were both extrajurisdictional in nature and not "necessary" within the meaning of article XX.<sup>317</sup>

c. *The Magnuson Fishery Conservation and Management Act*

The Magnuson Fishery Conservation and Management Act (the Magnuson Act) establishes a national program for conserving and

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313. Marine Mammal Protection Act of 1972 (current version at 16 U.S.C. §§ 1371-1377 (1988)).

314. *Id.* § 1374(h).

315. *Id.* § 1371(a)(2)(B)(II).

316. *Id.* § 1371(a)(2)(C).

317. See Housman & Zaelke, *supra* note 13, at 10,272-73.

318. 16 U.S.C. §§ 1801-1882 (1988).



aging fisheries resources, including domestic, migratory, and anadromous stocks. To a large extent, the Magnuson Act was motivated by fears that foreign fishing fleets were depleting U.S. fisheries.<sup>319</sup> The Act establishes for the United States a 197-mile-wide exclusive fishery zone abutting the United States' territorial sea.<sup>320</sup>

Under the Magnuson Act, trade figures most directly in the provisions govern foreign fleets' access to fishery stocks claimed by the United States. No foreign vessel may fish in U.S. waters unless it has obtained a permit to do so.<sup>321</sup> Foreign vessels operating in United States waters are required to, *inter alia*: 1) have a U.S. observer on board the vessel during their time in these waters; 2) reimburse the United States for the costs of the observers; 3) take no more than their allocated share of the fishery resource; and, 4) abide by all other rules and regulations applying to them promulgated under the Act.<sup>322</sup> The Act requires the Secretary of Commerce to establish total allowable levels for foreign fishing catches from U.S. fisheries.<sup>323</sup> In establishing these levels, the Secretary is to look at several factors, including the extent to which the foreign government helps or hinders the United States' development of export markets for its fishery products.<sup>324</sup> Foreign fleets that violate the Act's provisions may be subject to an embargo on all fishery imports to the United States pursuant to section 8 of the Fishermen's Protective Act.

The Magnuson Act appears to establish conditions for trade that may violate GATT's non-discrimination obligations and quantitative restriction prohibition. While these measures at first glance would seem to qualify for article XX's exception for measures to conserve a domestic exhaustible resource, to qualify for article XX a measure must not be applied in a discriminatory or arbitrary manner. Because the Act limits certain of its conservation conditions with what seem to be trade protectionist standards, these provisions may not come within article XX's exception and thus may violate the GATT.

#### d. *The Dolphin Protection Consumer Information Act*

In an effort to encourage consumer-driven, market-based protection

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319. *Id.* § 1801(a)(4); see also MICHAEL BEAN, *THE EVOLUTION OF NATIONAL WILDLIFE LAW* 387-88 (1983).

320. 16 U.S.C. § 1811.

321. *Id.* § 1821(a).

322. *Id.* § 1821(c)(2)(D).

323. *Id.* § 1821(e)(1).

324. *Id.*

325. *Id.* § 1821(e)(2).

of dolphins, the Dolphin Protection Consumer Information Act (DPCIA) specifies labeling standards that allow qualifying tuna products to carry the terms "dolphin safe" on their packaging. The Act makes it a violation of section 5 of the Federal Trade Commission Act for any producer, importer, distributor, or seller of tuna product to include on its label the terms "dolphin safe" or any equivalent statement unless the manner in which the tuna was harvested meets certain standards for dolphin protection.<sup>327</sup>

The recent Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report decision found that the DPCIA complied with the GATT because the DPCIA establishes voluntary standards that did not restrict a product's access to the market and did not provide a government-supplied market advantage.<sup>328</sup> In contrast, labeling provisions that require an imported product to carry a label that can only be obtained by meeting certain standards that apply directly to the product but instead to the product's PPM appear to violate the GATT's obligations.<sup>329</sup>

#### e. *The Pelly Amendment*

The Pelly Amendment,<sup>330</sup> also known as section 8 of the Fishermen's Protective Act,<sup>331</sup> seeks, *inter alia*, to provide a means to ensure that the unsustainable fishing practices of foreign fishing fleets do not jeopardize American fishery stocks or harm American fishing fleets. The Pelly Amendment works in conjunction with certain other American laws, such as the MMPA and the Magnuson Act, which are designed to ensure the use of sustainable fishing practices by enabling the President to increase the trade sanctions against foreign fishing fleets that continually violate these laws. Under the Pelly Amendment, the President of the United States has the discretionary authority to embargo all fish exports from another nation upon notice from the Secretary of Commerce that that nation has violated one or more of these American laws for a certain period of time.<sup>332</sup>

The Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report found that the Pelly Amendment complied with the GATT's provisions only because the President

326. *Id.* §§ 1361, 1385 (Supp. 1991).

327. *Id.* § 1385(d).

328. *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 49-50.

329. See Housman & Zaelke, *supra* note 13, at 10,271.

330. *codified at* 22 U.S.C. § 1978 (1988).

331. Fishermen's Protective Act of 1967, 22 U.S.C. §§ 1971-1980 (1988).

332. *Id.* § 1978.

not invoked his powers under the Amendment.<sup>333</sup> Actually applying Pelly Amendment's embargo provisions to another party's fisheries imports, however, would appear to violate GATT nondiscrimination obligations.

## 2. Pending Environmental Legislation

In addition to existing United States environmental laws that impede trade, a number of pending bills and resolutions raise trade concerns. Certain of these measures are summarized below.

### a. *The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade for the Environment Act of 1991 (S.59)*

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade for the Environment Act of 1991 (S.59) was introduced by Senator Moynihan. It would require a comprehensive study of the impact of international trade on international environmental agreements. S.59 would also require a study of foreign environmental laws, foreign governments' compliance with international environmental agreements, and foreign environmental laws that restrict trade. Further, S.59 would require the United States Trade Representative to provide a statement of the efforts being undertaken to make the GATT more environmentally sound. Additionally, S.59 requires that foreign trade practices diminishing the effectiveness of international agreements aimed at preserving species be treated as unjustifiable trade practices under the Trade Act of 1974, and it allows the United States to adopt measures to retaliate against the foreign party's practices.

The study provisions of S.59 would in no way conflict with GATT obligations. S.59's provisions with regard to the justifiability of foreign actions that diminish international protections of species, however, would appear to conflict with the GATT's obligations if adopted.

### b. *House Concurrent Resolution 246*

House Concurrent Resolution 246 (H.Con.Res. 246), introduced by Representative Waxman for himself and 25 other representatives, would express the will of the House and Senate regarding the relationship between trade agreements and U.S. health, safety, labor, and environmental laws. H.Con.Res. 246 calls upon the President to initiate and conduct discussions within the Uruguay Round to make GATT compatible with the MMPA and other American health, safety, labor, and environmental

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333. *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 43.

laws. H.Con.Res. 246 also expresses Congress' resolve to reject any trade agreement implementing any trade agreement, including both the Uruguay Round and the NAFTA, if such agreement jeopardizes U.S. environmental, safety, labor, or environmental laws.

Because H.Con.Res. 246 is merely a statement of congressional resolve, it cannot conflict with the GATT. Nevertheless, H.Con.Res. 246 provisions do raise substantial implications for the GATT and for trade policy generally. H.Con.Res. 246 calls upon the President to expand the scope of the debate in the Uruguay Round negotiations, which are along and already fraught with difficulty. Moreover, this statement of Congress that it will not adopt any trade legislation that could undermine American social protections places additional burdens on the negotiation of NAFTA and the Uruguay Round instruments. Despite the concerns of the trade community, adopting H.Con.Res. 246 would be an important statement that Congress does not intend to allow free trade to jeopardize the U.S.' commitment to environmental protection at home and abroad.

c. *International Pollution Deterrence Act of 1991 (S.984)*

The International Pollution Deterrence Act of 1991 (S.984), introduced by Senator Boren, seeks to level the playing field for international trade by removing what many perceive to be subsidies to foreign countries in the form of lower national environmental standards. The purpose of S.984 is to ensure that all products sold in U.S. markets fully reflect environmental costs, at least to the extent that U.S. laws require environmental internalization.

S.984 amends the countervailing duty provisions of U.S. trade law to establish that the failure to impose and enforce effective environmental protections amounts to a subsidy which can be subjected to a countervailing duty. The costs the manufacturer or producer would have to incur to comply with the U.S. environmental laws imposed on like domestic products would determine the amount of the subsidy provided by the countervailing duty. Additionally, S.984 would allocate fifty percent of the monies paid through the countervailing duty provision to a fund that would be distributed by the Agency for International Development to assist developing countries in purchasing U.S. pollution control equipment. The other fifty percent of the countervailing revenues would be allocated to a fund administered by the Environmental Protection Agency ("EPA") that would assist U.S. companies researching and developing pollution control technologies. S.984 would require the E

create an index for the top fifty U.S. trading partners to compare each country's pollution control standards to U.S. standards.

S.984 would have a number of trade ramifications. Using countervailing duties to mitigate environmental standards subsidies appears to violate GATT articles I, II, and III, as well as the countervailing duty provisions of the GATT and the Subsidies Code. And subsidies paid both to U.S. companies to create environmental technologies and to developing countries to purchase U.S. environmental technologies could allow other parties to institute countervailing measures to mitigate the subsidies.

### 3. Sub-National Level Environmental Laws

In addition to the national-level environmental protections implicating trade, the United States system of governance reserves a wide latitude of powers to state and local governments to legislate environmental protections. Certain of these sub-national level protections implicate trade as well. For example, at least nine states and twenty-five municipalities have adopted legislation that restricts the sale and use of CFCs as products or in consumer products.<sup>334</sup> A number of states have introduced legislation to control the flow of agricultural research information and products, including ten states that have enacted controls over Bovine Somatotropin (BST) or beef hormones.<sup>335</sup> Hawaii has enacted legislation to provide funds to help establish and operate small business medical incubator research facilities.<sup>336</sup>

Many of these sub-national provisions seem to be inconsistent with the GATT's obligations. As discussed above,<sup>337</sup> a recent GATT panel found that U.S. state laws regulating imported beer violated GATT. It would appear that state environmental laws conflicting with GATT's obligations would suffer the same fate.

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334. See Special Committee on Global Climate, *1990 Annual Report on Global Climate Change*, 1990, ABA SECTION ON NATURAL RESOURCES, ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENTAL LAW, NATURAL RESOURCES, ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENTAL LAW: 1990 THE YEAR IN REVIEW 237 (1991).

335. See Biotechnology Special Committee, *1990 Annual Report on Biotechnology*, in ABA SECTION ON NATURAL RESOURCES, ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENTAL LAW, *supra* note 1 at 203, 207-10 (1991) [hereinafter *Biotechnology Report*].

336. H.B. 1144, 15th Leg., 1990 Sess., 1990 Haw. Sess. Laws Act 290 (to be codified in Haw. Rev. Stat. §§ 137-93; see also *Biotechnology Report*, *supra* note 335, at 209).

337. See *supra* section II.A.2.i.

338. See *supra* note 69 and accompanying text.

#### IV. OPTIONS FOR REDUCING OR ELIMINATING FRICTION BETWEEN ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTIONS AND TRADE AGREEMENTS

Again, the goal of free trade policy is to allow markets to allocate the use of resources, while the general goal of environmental policy is to manage and maintain the earth's resources efficiently. This article has demonstrated that when the same resources are the subject of both trade and environmental policies, conflict often results. Yet the ability of free trade and environmental policy to accomplish their respective goals largely depends on their mutual ability to reconcile these conflicts. In the long term, if economic development from expanded trade erodes the world's resource base, trade may find itself with no natural resources left to allocate. Contemporaneously, improving environmental protection and the standard of living around the globe in many instances requires the economic resources that economic growth attended by expanded trade can provide. Moreover, the ability of the global community to adopt international agreements that encourage state participation and discourage "free riders" appears at this time to depend on the trade measures within these agreements.

What follows is a brief discussion of certain options to reconcile trade and environmental concerns and to move each of these discussions closer to the mutually reinforcing goal of sustainable development. This discussion focuses on the legal predicates for and ramifications of these options.

##### A. Application of Treaty Law

Perhaps the most obvious question that arises regarding how to reduce or eliminate the friction described above is whether there is an ability to reconcile conflicting terms of international trade agreements and national environmental agreements.<sup>339</sup>

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339. This analysis assumes that GATT is an international treaty. See RESTatement (THIRD) OF FOREIGN RELATIONS LAW OF THE UNITED STATES, *supra* note 55, § 102 (defining international agreement). If the GATT is not, in fact, an international treaty, then the most that could be said for the GATT's role in international law is that insofar as the extent that states abide by them, are customary law. See *id.* § 102 (1)(a), (2); *id.* § 102 (3). If frictions arise between a customary law, GATT, and an international environmental agreement, the agreement would modify the customary law among the parties. *Id.* reporter's notes. Moreover, because the United States, and other states have repeatedly refused to strictly comply with the GATT, its status as customary law, especially as to these dissenting states, is unclear. *Id.* cmt. d. Regardless of whether or not GATT is customary law, unless the

Article 30 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties provides general rules governing the relationship of successive treaties. Under article 30, when the provisions of two treaties conflict, the later-in-time provision prevails as between parties to both unless one treaty expressly specifies otherwise.<sup>341</sup> If a State is party to only one treaty then under article 30(4)(b) only that treaty governs.<sup>342</sup>

Thus, as between States that are parties to both the GATT and Montreal Protocol, paragraphs 4 and 4 *bis* of the Montreal Protocol which ban the import of substances produced with, but not containing the controlled substances listed in Annexes A and B of the Protocol would prevail over inconsistent provisions of the GATT. (This ignores, of course, the legal opinion the negotiators of the Montreal Protocol obtained from the member of the GATT Secretariat regarding the consistency of the proposed provisions of the Protocol with the GATT.) Not that paragraphs 1 through 3 *bis* of the Protocol presumably would not be inconsistent with the GATT even when applied against States that are not parties to the Protocol because the paragraphs pertain to products rather than processes.

This leaves the problem of non-parties. Specifically, the issue is whether a party to the GATT can be bound by a subsequent environmental agreement to which it is not a party that contains inconsistent trade provisions. Article 34 of the Vienna Convention states that a subsequent treaty cannot bind non-party States without their consent. Article 38 recognizes a limited exception to article 34 if the treaty becomes customary international law.<sup>344</sup> Thus, a GATT contracting party that has not signed the Montreal Protocol very well may have a legitimate dispute under the GATT if another contracting party that

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is an international treaty, it would occupy a lower place on the totem pole of international law than an international environmental agreement.

340. Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, *opened for signature* May 23, 1978, U.N.Doc. A/CONF.39/27, 8 I.L.M. 679 (entered into force Jan. 27, 1980), art. 30, 8 I.L.M. 691 [hereinafter Vienna Convention]. For a discussion of the problem of reconciling conflicts between interrelated trade agreements, see Henry R. Zheng, *Defining Relationships Between Interrelated Multinational Trade Agreements: The Experience of the MFA and the GATT*, 25 STAN. J. INT'L L. 45 (1988).

341. See Vienna Convention, *supra* note 340, art. 30, 8 I.L.M. at 691. This rule applies where the two treaties address the same subject matter—which is generally the only situation in which conflicts would arise. The date of a treaty for conflicts purposes is determined by the effective date of the treaty.

342. *Id.* art. 30(4)(b), 8 I.L.M. at 691.

343. *Id.* art. 34, 8 I.L.M. at 693.

344. *Id.* art. 38, 8 I.L.M. at 695; see also RESTATEMENT (THIRD) OF THE FOREIGN RELATIONS LAW OF THE UNITED STATES, *supra* note 55, § 102, cmt. j (discussing treaty incorporation into customary law can bind non-signatories).

also a party to the Protocol bans its products made with CFCs (the Montreal Protocol has become customary law).

## B. Application of International Law: Extrajurisdictional Action

Because the GATT's article XX exceptions now only allow for jurisdictional actions, there is concern as to who has the jurisdictional authority to take actions to preserve the global commons. Under principles of international law, such as the Law of the Sea and the Law of Space, jurisdiction over the commons areas is *sui generis* to the international community; the international community has reserved jurisdiction over these commons areas.<sup>345</sup> Thus, actions taken pursuant to multi-lateral agreements to protect resources in the global commons should fall within article XX. The Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report recognized this principle in a very limited sense by allowing parties to act "jointly to address international environmental problems which can only be resolved through measures in conflict with the present rules of the General Agreement."

Additionally, it may be argued under international law that unilateral trade actions not specifically provided for in an international agreement are permitted under article XX if they are necessary for the party to meet its general obligations under an international agreement.<sup>346</sup> For example, although the Law of the Sea III does not specifically authorize or provide for trade restrictions, if a party adopts a trade restriction to fulfill its obligations to preserve the sea, this trade restriction should not conflict with article XX's jurisdictional requirements.

## C. Advancing the Discourse

Obviously, the foregoing analysis is not an adequate long-term

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345. See, e.g., United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, Dec. 20, 1982, Doc.A/CONF 62/122, 21 I.L.M. 1261 (1982) (noting all rights to the sea are vested in the international community on whose behalf the international community acts) [hereinafter the Law of the Sea]; Law of the Sea has not been entered into force, it is accepted by most countries in the United States as customary international law, with the exception of Part XI governing deep seabed); Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, Including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies, Jan. 27, 1967, 18 I.L.M. 2410, 610 U.N.T.S. 205, arts. I-III (noting that states acting within outer space are subject to the principles of international law) [hereinafter Space Treaty]. This argument might more broadly be phrased to provide that the international community not only has jurisdiction over the global commons, but also has jurisdiction over the global environment.

346. See *Tuna/Dolphin Panel Report*, *supra* note 13, at 50.

347. See, e.g., Law of the Sea, *supra* note 345 (placing responsibilities for preserving and developing the high seas on the parties); Space Treaty, *supra* note 345, art. IX (placing responsibility on parties to conduct their activities in outer space so as to avoid "adverse changes to the environment of Earth").



tion. The law of treaties applies only after two treaties or other international agreements have come into conflict and so does not help avoiding those conflicts in the first place. Moreover, it offers no mechanism for reconciling the legitimate goals of prior treaties with those conflicting treaties coming later in time. Finally, and perhaps more important, it leaves open the question of what to do in disputes where States are not parties to both treaties or agreements.

Some individuals have called for a reexamination of various treaty assumptions, and principles relating to trade and the environment as a way of at least advancing the discourse, if not reconciling the two policy areas. A change in any of the following terms, assumptions, and principles would radically reshape views of trade and environment issues.

### 1. Internalization of Environmental Costs

Many of the options proposed to date to reduce or eliminate friction between trade and environmental concerns have focused on modifying the GATT to permit greater use of trade restrictions to force countries to internalize environmental costs. Any modification to the GATT must overcome considerable procedural and substantive obstacles.<sup>348</sup> United States' environmental laws however, increasingly are turning to environmental cost internalization for both foreign and domestic products. Unless changes are made to the GATT, these U.S. initiatives could precipitate additional conflicts.

#### a. "Like Products"

As noted earlier, GATT articles I, III, XI, and XX pose obstacles using discriminatory tariffs and quantitative restrictions against other countries' PPMs that are perceived to be environmentally unsound. These obstacles could be overcome by reinterpreting the concept of "like products" in the GATT to allow product standards based on PPMs. Environmentalists, who are in favor of allowing environmental PPMs, argue that the contemporary meaning of "product" includes the product life cycle and thus that products with different PPMs are not "like products." For such a reinterpretation to occur, the GATT would have to be amended, or a side agreement or understanding to GATT adopted, setting out the extensive procedural and substantive requirements necessary to implement such a program.<sup>350</sup>

348. See generally Changing GATT Rules, *supra* note 7.

349. See *supra* notes 10-34, 42-61, and accompanying text.

350. See generally Changing GATT Rules, *supra* note 7.

### b. *Countervailing Duties or Antidumping Duties*

The GATT in its current form does not view a party's application of lower standards of domestic environmental protections, allowing a party's industries to externalize their environmental costs, as a subsidy (or dumping when the product is exported). As a subsidy, it could be countervailed by another party whose industries are harmed by the subsidy (or dumping).<sup>351</sup> A number of options have been presented to clarify or interpret GATT articles VI and XVI and the Subsidies Code to permit the imposition of countervailing duties or antidumping duties to counter such practices.<sup>352</sup> Quantifying the effect of differing environmental standards, however, could pose additional administrative problems beyond those already associated with countervailing and antidumping statutes.

#### 2. "Necessary" Under GATT Article XX(b)

As noted earlier, GATT article XX(b) provides a general exception only to those trade measures that are *necessary* to protect human, animal or plant life or health. One way to permit greater use of trade restrictions to enforce internalization of environmental costs might be to give greater consideration to whether a trade restriction is proportional to the environmental benefit in determining whether it is "necessary" under article XX(b).<sup>353</sup> Many trade specialists argue that this approach presents a "slippery slope" that would likely spawn a flood of discriminatory protectionist measures.<sup>354</sup> At the very least, it would likely spark a sharp debate over whether import restrictions based on "consumer preferences" rather than "sound science" are ever legitimate. Environmental protection measures that requiring environmental protections to be justified as "necessary" places too high a burden on environmental actions and diminishes the ability of nations under the precautionary principle to act proactively in the face of scientific uncertainty.<sup>355</sup>

#### 3. Harmonization of Standards

The GATT Standards Code clearly demonstrates that harmonization of standards is a very important goal of the GATT process. Negotiations

351. See *supra* notes 34-35 and accompanying text; see also Komoroski, *supra* note 1, at 12.

352. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 12; OECD Secretariat, *supra* note 21, at 14.

353. See OECD, JOINT REPORT ON TRADE AND ENVIRONMENT 11 (June 1991).

354. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 5.

355. See Eliza Patterson, *International Trade and the Environment: Institutional Structures* 21 E.L.R. 10,599, 10,602-03 (1991).

the Uruguay Round have also made harmonization a high priority, particularly with respect to phytosanitary and sanitary regulations and measures. As discussed above, the effects of harmonizing environmental standards on international trade and the environment largely will be determined by the manner in which harmonization occurs.<sup>356</sup>

If environmental standards are harmonized towards more stringent levels of protection it is possible that certain U.S. domestic laws might not meet these standards. This would require U.S. environmental protections to be strengthened. Should harmonization adopt international standards or a "least common denominator" approach, the United States would have to weaken many of its environmental laws, a path the U.S. Congress and state legislatures may find difficult and undesirable.

#### 4. Procedure

##### a. *Dispute Resolution*

There have been a number of proposals for improving GATT's dispute resolution procedures, including expanding GATT dispute resolution panels to include experts from other disciplines such as environmental scientists and law scholars; creating a "cut-out" mechanism to move trade and environment disputes to an alternative forum for dispute resolution; and improving the ability of trade panels to take into account other areas of concern that relate to trade policy, such as the environment.<sup>357</sup> Expanding the membership of dispute resolution panels to include other disciplines could be achieved under the existing GATT framework and would provide input as to the non-trade effects of GATT decisions. Existing GATT rules, however, would bind these multidisciplinary panels in formulating decisions. Creating new procedures for dispute resolution that would allow GATT panels to take into account other areas of concern, such as the environment, could turn GATT's dispute resolution panels into international overcourts—a role their creators never envisioned for them and to which they consequently are not well suited. Establishing a "cut-out" mechanism for environmental trade disputes would require an agreement of the parties and the creation of a new international tribunal—a difficult process, to say the least.

356. See *supra* notes 143-56, and accompanying text; see generally Charles Pearson & Ibert Repetto, *Reconciling Trade and Environment: The Next Steps* (1991) (paper prepared for the Trade and Environment Committee of the EPA); Wallach, *supra* note 95.

357. See generally von Moltke, *supra* note 92; Patterson, *supra* note 355, at 10,600; STUART HUDSON, *TRADE, ENVIRONMENT AND THE PURSUIT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT* 5-6 (1991).

### b. *Transparency and Public Participation*

The relative secrecy and isolation in which GATT official decisions concerns many critics. They argue that the GATT decisionmaking process should be more open to the international public. Individuals and NGOs can participate in GATT decisionmaking by gaining timely access to GATT documents and decisions<sup>358</sup> and by presenting evidence and arguments to the GATT Council and to resolution panels. Environmentalists view transparency and public participation as integral to the democratic process and to rational decisionmaking.<sup>359</sup> On the other hand, traditional GATT proponents argue with great force that nations have a significant interest in preserving the international order through negotiated settlements of international disputes in order to avoid the influence of publicity. To provide for increased transparency and public participation, the Parties would have to either amend the GATT or agree to a new understanding or side agreement.<sup>360</sup>

### 5. Trade Restrictions as a Tool for Enforcing Environmental Protections

Many policymakers see trade restrictions as a legitimate tool for enforcing international environmental agreements and even for pursuing unilateral environmental objectives. Free trade advocates, on the other hand, argue that trade restrictions are ill-suited as environmental protection devices.<sup>361</sup> They point out that imposing trade restrictions in order to address international tensions and skews the efficient allocation of resources as failing to internalize environmental costs does.<sup>362</sup> Both, they argue, reduce overall welfare. They cannot see using one economic distortion to fight another. Moreover, they find no guarantee that imposing a trade restriction to force internalization of environmental costs will not have a greater distortive effect than the lack of cost internalization. As alternatives they suggest are using side payments and trade concessions to induce adherence to international environmental agreements.<sup>363</sup>

Environmental advocates respond that the effectiveness of e

358. See von Moltke, *supra* note 92, at 26.

359. See Hudson, *supra* note 357, at 5-6.

360. For a more complete discussion of the options for increasing transparency and participation in GATT's decisionmaking see von Moltke, *supra* note 92.

361. GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 16, 34 ("[o]n the basis of economic efficiency, there are almost no circumstances in which such a trade measure would be the 'first best' tool for dealing with such problems.")

362. See Pearson & Repetto, *supra* note 356, at 44-49.

363. See GATT Secretariat, Trade and the Environment, *supra* note 1, at 30-31

mental restrictions is a highly complex question that usually is determined on a case-by-case basis and which does not lend itself well to generalizations. They note that relatively few methods are available to nations to influence the behavior of other nations and conclude that to prevent substantial changes to the central principles of the international legal system and the international order of nation-states, trade measures offer the most cost-effective means of securing compliance with international agreements.<sup>364</sup> Moreover, they note that compensation schemes requiring the international community to purchase protections effectively in developing countries are not appropriate in every instance, and that relying too much on these schemes could prohibit environmental protection from developing effectively.

In an effort to reconcile the trade and environment perspectives, several proposals seek to provide frameworks for determining when trade restrictions are appropriate mechanisms for securing environmental objectives. These frameworks focus on delineating certain factors, such as how integral the trade measure is to the environmental protection and the proportionality of the trade measure to the environmental protection sought, to help make such determinations.<sup>365</sup>

Over the past twenty years, a number of alternative proposals that do not focus upon trade sanctions as the primary enforcement device have been advanced for the enforcement of environmental obligations. Perhaps the most ambitious of these proposals is creating an international environmental court, with all nations submitting to its jurisdiction.<sup>366</sup> A more recent proposal seeks to facilitate the ability of domestic and foreign parties to bring suit in domestic courts of all nations for violations of national and international environmental laws and obligations.<sup>367</sup> These proposals lack substantial backing within the international community, and so trade restrictions continue to be, if not the most, the more, attractive mechanisms for enforcing environmental obligations.

364. See Shrybman, *supra* note 157, at 108.

365. *Id.*

366. See generally Amadeo Postiglione, *A More Efficient International Law on the Environment and Setting up an International Court for the Environment Within the United Nations*, ENVTL L. 321 (1990).

367. See Gephardt *Proposes Enforcement of Foreign Environmental Laws in U.S. Courts*, INSIDE U.S. TRADE, Sept. 13, 1991, at 3; Convention for the Protection of the Environment, Feb. 19, 1974, 1092 U.N.T.S. 279 (establishing equal access and remedy legal regime between Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden); Joel Gallob, *Birth of the North American Transboundary Environmental Plaintiff: Transboundary Pollution and the 1979 Draft Treaty on Equal Access and Remedy*, 15 HARV. ENVTL. L. REV. 85 (1991).

## 6. Mutually Reinforcing Market-Based Protections

Both the trade and environment communities embrace cost internalization through the "polluter pays" principle and through eliminating subsidies, particularly those that directly and negatively affect the environment. Allowing greater opportunity in the GATT for the parties to adopt such market-based measures and increasing the reliance on environmental policies that utilize market-based strategies may be the immediate means to begin reconciling trade and environment cooperation. Caution should be exercised, however, in placing too great a reliance upon market-based strategies.<sup>368</sup> Environmentalists stress that market-based strategies are effective for addressing conventional environmental threats, markets are not effective in dealing with uncertainties such as setting values for natural resources that do not have readily apparent economic uses; in dealing with the risk of irreversible loss cannot be countered through the use of economic resources; or in the costs of unconventional threats whose real harms cannot be established scientifically with sufficient certainty.

Weighing the need for increased reliance upon market-based strategies against the limitations of such strategies, developing market-based strategies probably should be facilitated where they apply to conventional environmental threats, such as conventional nontoxic pollution and to the protection of species that are not threatened with extinction. Where, however, environmental protections apply to unconventional threats (such as the Montreal Protocol or the Basel Convention on Hazardous Wastes), to irreversible effects (such as CITES), or to resources that cannot be easily valued in economic terms (such as wetlands and species), other protections designed to protect against harms caused by market failures should complement market-based strategies.

While market-based strategies increasingly are being incorporated into domestic and international environmental law, full incorporation of these strategies in even conventional areas will require substantial changes to United States environmental laws and to the frameworks of international agreements. Furthermore, for market-based environmental protections to be altogether compatible with the GATT, the GATT rules have to be changed to provide the Parties with mechanisms to internalize environmental costs.

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368. See generally Joel Mintz, *Economic Reform of Environmental Protection: A Comment on a Recent Debate*, 15 HARV. ENV'T'L L.REV. 149, 156-60 (1991).

## V. CONCLUSION

The rate of ozone layer loss is now believed to be occurring twice as fast as scientists estimated only a few years ago. It is estimated that every year over 50,000 species—over 140 per day—vanish from the face of the earth.<sup>369</sup> Over 17 million hectares of forests, an area equivalent to half the size of Finland, are lost each year.<sup>370</sup> Meanwhile, the world population increases at a rate of approximately 92 million people per year—roughly the population of Mexico—with 88 million of these new inhabitants born into the developing world.<sup>371</sup> It is estimated that between 500 million and 1 billion people are under-nourished.<sup>372</sup>

As these figures demonstrate, the world is currently ill-equipped to suffer either environmental policies that diminish the economic resources necessary to meet the needs and aspirations of its burgeoning human population or trade policies that jeopardize the survival of the planet and its natural resources. Thus, the ongoing and largely polarized debate over whether trade policies should serve environmental goals or whether the environment protections must conform to the goals of free trade is woefully misguided. Both trade and the environment must be disciplined to serve the overarching goal of sustainable development.

Past efforts at free trade have paid little attention to the goal of sustainable development. Now free trade must become synonymous with "sustainable trade."<sup>373</sup> In principle, free trade seeks to address social concerns, such as environmental degradation, by applying expanded economic resources gained through increased and more efficient economic activity. But this is no longer sufficient. As World Bank economist Herman Daly has noted, "[F]urther growth beyond the present scale is overwhelmingly likely to increase costs more rapidly than it increases benefits, thus ushering in a new era of 'uneconomic growth' that impoverishes rather than enriches."<sup>374</sup> Any growth, including growth from trade, that is not sustainable must be rejected.

While environmentalists have only recently begun to study trade law and policy, they are mastering the subject and offering construct

369. See Sandra Postel, *Denial in the Decisive Decade*, in LESTER BROWN, STATE OF THE WORLD 1992, at 3 (1991).

370. *Id.*

371. *Id.*

372. *Id.* at 4.

373. Sustainable trade, as a sub-part of sustainable development, is trade and trade policies that meet the needs of the current generation without jeopardizing the resource base for future generations.

374. DALY & COBB, *supra* note 5, at 2.

suggestions for moving trade into the parameters of sustainable development. If the experience in the U.S. is any example, however, many trade community are resisting the need to learn environmental economics, policy, and law. Yet until the trade community makes the effort to understand environmental imperatives and until they embrace sustainable development, trade and the environment will remain at odds and the world will suffer for it.





