

General Assembly

World Trade Organization

Thomas Short and Ethan Roerink

Co-Chairs

GOVERNOR'S SCHOOL MODEL UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE XXVI





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World Trade Organization

Letter from the Chairs

Dear Delegates and Sponsors,

Welcome to the WTO committee at GSMUN XXVI! Thomas Short and Ethan Roerink, your chairs, are very excited to chair and get to know you all. The topics that you, as a delegate, will debate in this committee cover two critical issues in the present-day international trade landscape. As a delegate, you will need to come up with unique and viable solutions to more adequately enforce intellectual property rights and address agricultural tariffs.

Thomas Short is a sophomore at Maggie Walker and is looking forward to co-chair the WTO committee! This is his third year doing MUN, and his second time helping with GSMUN. Outside of MUN, Thomas likes to play soccer and volleyball, play guitar, and read. He is also a part of the Economics and Investment club and he loves learning about history. Most importantly, Thomas is looking forward to meeting all of you and running a great committee!

Ethan Roerink, a sophomore at Maggie Walker, is thrilled to serve as a co-chair for the WTO committee. This year is his second year participating in Model UN at Maggie Walker. In addition to Model UN, Ethan plays on the Maggie Walker Golf Team and is a member of the Maggie Walker Spanish Club and Economics and Investment Club. Ethan is also the secretary of the First Tee of Greater Richmond Junior Advisory Board, where he helps to run golf events and enjoys teaching younger children how to play golf. He is very excited to help run this committee!

In order to have a good committee, you should come prepared to discuss many facets of international trade and have possible solutions for both committee topics. You should understand intellectual property rights and how they are and should be enforced. In addition, you should have an understanding of tariffs and non-tariff measures, their functions, and their effects on world trade. The committee background guide should be used as a jumping off point for you all to engage in deep and thoughtful research and analysis. This committee will be a double delegation, so each delegation only needs to produce one position paper that is formatted in 12-point Times New Roman font, double spaced, and cited in the Chicago Manual Style (CMS) format. All papers must comply with Maggie Walker's honor code, and thus must not contain any plagiarism or cheating, including the use of Chat-GPT and other AI tools. Your position paper must be emailed to the chairs by 5 PM on the day of the conference.

At GSMUN, a huge part of our mission is charity. The partner charity for GSMUN XXVI is the Leukemia and Lymphoma Society, a nonprofit organization dedicated to researching cancer and providing support to patients. Many items will be for sale during the conference, with the proceeds going to charity. Bring money to buy baked goods, merchandise, and other goodies! If you have any questions or concerns do not hesitate to email your chairs at gsmunxxvi.wto@gmail.com. Good luck writing your position papers and we are looking forward to seeing you this March!

Your Chairs,

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Thomas Short gsmunxxvi.wto@gmail.co

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Ethan Roerink

World Trade Organization (WTO) Committee Overview

Background

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland and assists in negotiating, overseeing, and administering trade agreements, as well as aiding countries in resolving trade disputes. The WTO is composed of 164 members, which represent 98% of international trade.¹ The WTO seeks to facilitate free trade while preventing dangers from reaching consumers and countries themselves.² In 1948, twenty-three countries signed the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the predecessor to the World Trade Organization.³ GATT had a similar set of rules to the WTO and focused mainly on trade in goods, while the WTO focuses on trade in goods, trade in services, and intellectual property. GATT eventually led to several rounds of further negotiations that discussed topics such as trade barriers, agriculture, and intellectual property rights. The 1986-1994 Uruguay Round negotiations established the WTO on January 1, 1995.4

The World Trade Organization covers three main areas: goods, services, and intellectual property. GATT focuses on the global trade in goods, the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) covers the global trade in services, and the WTO Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) addresses the protection and enforcement of international intellectual property (IP) rights.⁵

The top WTO decision-making body is the Ministerial Conference, meeting biannually. Below the Ministerial Conference in the WTO hierarchy is the General Council, which consists mostly of Ambassadors and meets several times each year. It also serves as the Trade Policy Review Body and the Dispute Settlement Body, which focus on transparency within the WTO and resolving disagreements between WTO members, respectively.⁶ The Goods Council, Services Council, and TRIPS Council rank below the General Council and focus on their respective topics, in addition to there being various committees that focus on more specific areas under the specialized councils.⁷ Currently, Dr. Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala serves as the Director-General of the WTO.⁸

<u>Topic I: Enforcement of Intellectual</u> <u>Property Rights</u> History of the Issue

The World Trade Organization defines intellectual property rights as rights granted to people for their intangible creations. Typically, IP rights grant the creator exclusive control over their works for a limited time period, allowing the creator to profit from them. The WTO distinguishes two types of IP rights: copyright-related rights and industrial property rights. Copyright-related rights protect literature, artistic works, and recordings. Industrial property rights differentiate products and protect innovation. Sign-protection industrial property rights (trademarks and geographical indications) differentiate brands and products, while the other industrial property rights (patents, industrial designs, and trade secrets) protect innovation.9

Over the past century and a half, there have been several significant international intellectual property rights agreements. In 1883, the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property established a general framework for industrial patent and IP protection. Currently, 177 nations are subject to the agreement.¹⁰ Three years later, in 1886, the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works created international copyright protection for works of literature and arts. Currently, more than 180 countries have agreed to the Berne Convention.¹¹

The Madrid System for the International Registration of Marks is another set of agreements that covers intellectual property rights. It is comprised of two parts: the Madrid Agreement and the Madrid Protocol. The Madrid Agreement was established in 1891 with the purpose of creating a single trademark registration system. However, some concerns existed surrounding potential defects in its structure. Individuals and companies were forced to register in their home nation before the international trademark was established and protected, which was more complicated than an international registration process. There were also trademark fee discrepancies between countries and the Agreement, further complicating the process. Additionally, the trademark examination period was only 12 months, which did not always give countries enough time to fully process the trademark.

These concerns led to the establishment of the Madrid Protocol in 1989.¹² Under the Madrid Protocol, countries are permitted to alter the international trademark registration fees to match their national fees, removing discrepancies. The Madrid Protocol also extends the examination period for trademarks to 18 months to give countries more time to look over the trademark. Despite the Madrid Protocol solving several key issues with the Madrid Agreement, the system is still more complicated than a unified international system could be because individuals and organizations still must register in their home country. Currently, more than 100 countries have adopted the Madrid System.¹³

The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) went into effect in 1995 following the Uruguay Round of negotiations and protects holders of all forms of intellectual property rights, including copyrights, trademarks, geographical indications, industrial designs, patents, electronic circuit designs, and trade secrets.¹⁴ TRIPS is officially overseen by the WTO and requires all 164 members to enforce international IP rights.¹⁵

The Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement (ACTA) was a failed attempt at protecting IP rights. Outside of the WTO, 37 countries negotiated ACTA as a potential extension to TRIPS. ACTA focused on recent developments in the enforcement of IP rights caused by digitalization. When the countries completed negotiations in 2010 and released the official text in 2011, thirty-one countries signed ACTA.¹⁶ However, Japan was the only nation to officially ratify ACTA, and therefore ACTA could not be effective due to the requirement that at least 6 countries ratify it before May 1, 2013.¹⁷

ACTA was not ratified by most signatories due to several ethical concerns over privacy rights and personal data protection regarding the enforcement of ACTA.¹⁸ ACTA would require online service providers (OSPs) to grant IP right holders the personal information of citizens who have allegedly broken digital IP laws, leading to some individuals claiming that ACTA threatened privacy rights.¹⁹ Others claimed that ACTA posed a great threat to national sovereignty by making it significantly more difficult for countries to establish their own IP policy. In addition, some people believed that ACTA was inherently undemocratic because of its negotiation outside of existing international organizations.²⁰

Current Status of the Issue

In recent years, international intellectual property counterfeiting and piracy has seen dramatic increase. In Marq Vision's 2023 State of Brand Protection Report, 74% of companies facing counterfeit versions of their products stated that the volume of counterfeits has increased since COVID.²¹ According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the trade of pirated goods increased to 3.3% of world trade in 2016. OECD also states that footwear and clothing accounted for a significant amount of pirated goods in 2016 (22% and 16%, respectively).²² Muso, a firm specializing in the research of piracy, found that there were 215 billion visits to piracy websites in 2022, 18% higher than in 2021. According to Muso, film and TV piracy in 2022 were 36% and 9% higher than in 2021—though film piracy was still below pre-pandemic levels. According to Muso, illegal streaming websites are the most common sources of film and TV piracy.²³

Counterfeiting can negatively affect brands. IncoPro, a company focusing on IP and brand piracy, found that 52% of consumers lost trust in a brand and 64% of consumers lost trust in online marketplaces after purchasing a fake good online.²⁴ The U.S. Chamber of Commerce's Global Innovation and Policy Center and NERA Economic Consulting estimated that the global movie and TV industries respectively lose 40-97.1 and 39.3-95.4 billion USD in revenue per year to digital piracy.²⁵

Many countries struggle with intellectual property enforcement. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce's 2023 International IP Index found that only 23 of the 55 countries in the index had an enforcement score-which represents the amount of IP rights infractions, legal remedies given to IP right holders, and border surveillance-of 50% or higher and only 11 countries in the index had an enforcement score of 75% or higher. The average score in the enforcement category was 50.10%, and ranged from 7.42% to 96%.²⁶ On March 7, 2022, the Russian Federation issued a decree stating that patent holders from 39 nations considered "unfriendly to Russia" are no longer legally entitled to any profits from the production and sale of their inventions by Russian businesses. This decree effectively allows Russian firms to sell products patented by foreign firms without any legal repercussions. This is likely to result in increased counterfeiting and piracy and reduced enforcement of IP rights.²⁷

Digitalization is also expected to further change intellectual property. In the IP Trend Monitor Study 2021, 89% of IP professionals surveyed expect digitalization to change IP management to a large degree or completely. Further digitalization may necessitate a new international IP rights agreement.²⁸

Analysis and Solutions

As the global economy continues to digitize and counterfeiting rises, it is imperative that the member-states of the World Trade Organization better enforce international intellectual property rights. There are many different ways in which the WTO can address this growing issue.

A major international IP rights agreement has not been fully established since 1995. With the rise in digitalization since then, existing agreements have become technologically outdated. Technological advancements since 1995 could be addressed by a new WTO-facilitated international IP rights agreement. This agreement could build upon the successes and failures of past agreements, such as the Madrid System, TRIPS, and ACTA. In addition to covering digital IP rights, a new agreement could look for ways to address counterfeiting and piracy. While implementing this solution, however, it is important to consider the ethics of this agreement. National sovereignty, privacy protection, and consumers' rights must be considered.

Sending aid to developing countries, whether financial or educational, could be a viable solution, however, the WTO has pledged in the past that it is not a development organization and therefore cannot offer development assistance. For aid to be sent, it would need to be sent by individual countries or an external organization such as the World Bank.²⁹ Although sending IP experts and lawyers to less-developed countries to educate and train individuals and organizations how to file and obtain certifications of IP rights may address the issue, the WTO is unable to directly provide this form of support; it would need to be done through a third party.³⁰

The WTO could also run a publicity campaign to spread awareness of counterfeiting and pirating. If more consumers are educated on how to identify fake goods on online marketplaces, they will be less likely to unintentionally purchase a fake good. This will lead to increased trust in brands and online marketplaces, which is beneficial to the global economy. Consumer education could also decrease usage of illegal streaming websites, as individuals may be less tempted to use them once they know the consequences.³¹

Questions to Consider

- 1. How should international intellectual property rights be best protected and enforced while maintaining national sovereignty?
- 2. What role could ACTA, TRIPS, and other past agreements play in identifying a solution to best enforce intellectual property rights?
- 3. How should the WTO respond to developments in the realm of intellectual property since TRIPS was agreed to in 1995?
- 4. Should a new international intellectual property rights agreement be established? If so, what provisions should it contain, and what provisions should it not contain?
- 5. Should the WTO establish a press campaign to inform the public about intellectual property rights? If so, what should the campaign focus on?

Further Research

- 1. <u>https://www.wto.org/</u>: The World Trade Organization's website, which provides information about the WTO.
- 2. <u>https://www.wto.org/english/thewto</u> <u>e/whatis e/tif e/agrm1 e.htm</u>:

Provides an overview of the three main areas the WTO focuses on.

- <u>https://www.wto.org/english/tratop</u> <u>e/trips_e/intel1_e.htm</u>: Provides information about intellectual property rights.
- 4. <u>https://www.internationalpropertyrig</u> <u>htsindex.org/</u>: The International Property Rights Index 2022, which provides information about different countries' degrees of protection for intellectual and physical property rights.
- <u>https://www.uschamber.com/assets/</u> <u>documents/GIPC_IPIndex2023_Full</u> <u>Report_final.pdf</u>: The U.S. Chamber of Commerce International IP Index 2023 Eleventh Edition, which provides information about the current status of intellectual property rights.
- <u>https://www.nyulawglobal.org/global</u> <u>ex/International Trademark Law1.ht</u> <u>ml</u>: Provides an overview of the Madrid System.
- 7. <u>https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_</u> <u>e/trips_e/intel2_e.htm</u>: Provides an overview of the TRIPS Agreement.
- 8. <u>https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/R41107.</u> <u>pdf</u>: A Congressional Research Service report on ACTA.

Topic II: Reformation of Agricultural Tariffs

History of the Issue

Tariffs are taxes that are placed on specific goods by a government to accomplish many goals in the landscape of international trade, such as protecting domestic industries, combating dumping measures, raising funds for the government, and growing developing industries. Tariffs accomplish these things by incentivizing consumers to buy domestic products because tariffs placed on foreign exporters force foreign exporters to raise their price. Domestic producers have an advantage because they can charge a lower price for comparable goods.³² Tariffs are traditionally higher on agricultural items than on other internationally traded goods.³³

In addition to tariffs, other trade measures are used to achieve a similar effect. Quotas limit the amount of a good that can be imported to the quota-imposing nation. This means that domestic producers sell more products in that market due to not being restricted in the same ways that foreign producers are. An embargo is a trade measure that countries use to outright ban the trade of a certain good or set of goods with another country. This can be used to fulfill economic goals similar to quotas and tariffs, but it can also be used to fulfill international political goals. A sanction is a trade measure that governments use to hinder another country's economy. This is usually in an effort to impose restrictions on a country that is seen as having unreasonable and aggressive international policies.³⁴

Exporting governments use certain tactics to increase the viability of their exporting firms and grow these exporting firms so they can provide jobs that benefit their economy. One of these tactics is called dumping. Dumping is a strategy that can be applied when a foreign exporter first arrives in a domestic market. The foreign exporting firm can drop prices so low that domestic firms cannot compete. This drives all domestic competition out of business and establishes the exporting firm as a monopoly that now has control over the domestic market. This practice can be subsidized by the government in order to incentivize the growth of exporting firms. The government can help pay for the initial losses that the company would have made while the company is dropping the price.³⁵ An effective counter to this strategy is the implementation of tariffs. Tariffs prevent foreign exporters from dropping the prices too low or else they would lose too much money. Using tariffs in this way is called anti-dumping.³⁶ Another one of these strategies that increases export revenue is called export subsidies. To implement this strategy, governments

subsidize the exports of certain goods. This lowers the prices of that good in foreign markets due to increased competition and negatively affects foreign producers.³⁷ Governments are partial to this strategy, as the exporter creates jobs as it grows. Countervailing is a tactic by which governments increase tariffs to negate the benefits of subsidization.³⁸

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was an agreement signed in 1947 to reduce global trade barriers and revive global trade after World War II. GATT functioned as a precursor to the World Trade Organization (WTO) and set up the frameworks for many rounds of negotiations.³⁹

The Uruguay round was a set of negotiations that lasted from 1986-1994 that covered almost every trade dispute of the time. The Uruguay Round involved 123 countries by the time it was over.⁴⁰ One of the many agreements to come out of the negotiations was the Uruguay Round Agreement on Agriculture (URAA) which outlined three main aspects of the international trade of agricultural products: market access, domestic support, and export subsidies. Market access covers trade barriers such as tariffs, quotas, and other non-tariff barriers. Domestic support encompasses the practice of governments subsidizing domestic farmers and incentivizing them to produce more food. Export subsidies cover the strategy of governments subsidizing the export of agricultural products. The URAA provided rules for each of the three aspects in order to reduce international trade barriers and make international trade more fair. and also included a provision that set up further meetings to address the three main aspects of agricultural trade in addition to other problems that may arise in international agricultural negotiations. These conferences were later held in Seattle (1999) and Geneva $(2000).^{41}$

Despite the URAA being the most comprehensive and important international

agricultural policy agreement, there are still new talks and initiatives made to target current issues. The Doha Round was another large round of negotiations that focused on many international trade problems including high agricultural tariffs. Developing nations depend on agricultural exports to support their populations but cannot compete with large agricultural industries supported by subsidies and tariffs. The Doha Round eventually failed to come to any major agreements.⁴² The Nairobi Package was another agreement that was made in 2015 that banned the use of export subsidies for agricultural trade. Developed countries removed using export subsidies immediately with the exception of certain agricultural goods, while developing countries were given more leniency.43

High tariffs have many effects on farmers and the world as a whole. Tariffs lower the global prices of goods that they are placed on while raising the domestic price. This happens because domestic firms have greater price control due to lower competition. After the tariffs, there is a decreased global demand for the affected goods, so the price is lowered. The lowered price harms poor farmers in developing nations who want to export their crops because the crops sell for less money. If the affected goods are inputs used to make finished products, foreign manufacturers are at an advantage because they have access to the lower global price.⁴⁴ Tariffs reduce global trade because they incentivize domestic production and discourage importation.⁴⁵

Tariffs and non-tariff measures can also damage the relationships between countries. A tariff placed on a country's exports might provoke them, and an embargo or sanction could be placed in retaliation upon a country as a result of their international policy, possibly leading to further conflict or a trade war, which is a situation where countries implement trade barriers to harm the other country's economy.⁴⁶ Additionally, high tariffs can lead to poverty for people in the tariff-imposing country. This happens because tariffs increase the domestic price for a good. People who have lower incomes spend a higher percentage of their income on food than those with a higher income. If food prices are higher because of tariffs, then those with a lower income must spend more money on food. This can lead people to poverty, where they remain trapped due to high food prices.⁴⁷

Current Status of the Issue

The mean global agricultural tariff rate is very high compared to the average global tariff rate. In 2014, the average agricultural tariff rate was exceeding 10%, while the average global tariff rate in all sectors was 2.9%.⁴⁸ The entities that imposed the highest tariffs were India, Mexico, and a group of the biggest agricultural importing countries.⁴⁹ According to the National Agricultural Law Center, agricultural tariffs are higher than other tariffs in 90% of countries. In South Korea, for example, the agricultural tariff rate was 79% while the average non agricultural tariff rate was only 4%.⁵⁰

In addition to the agricultural tariff rate being very high, non-tariff measures also hit the agricultural industry particularly hard. The WTO found that non-tariff measures were more restricting on the agricultural sector than on the manufacturing sector. The WTO also found that non-tariff measures were found to have a higher tariff rate equivalence than 55% of tariffs. Non-tariff measures affect different regions independently. In Mexico, high non-tariff measures on oils and fats led to a 30% increase in price. In Southeast Asia this was a 49% increase and in South Africa a 90% increase.⁵¹

In modern day international trade, there are two main schools of thought: protectionism and free trade. Protectionism is a trade philosophy where a government uses policies to restrict international trade to boost domestic industry. Tariffs and non-tariff measures are protectionist tools used to stop foreign competition and protect domestic producers. This has many benefits, such as the creation of more jobs, enhanced national security, stronger domestic firms, and the ability to grow small industries.⁵² Protectionism also has many drawbacks, such as higher prices, lower choices for consumers, limited technological advancements, and cultural isolation.⁵³ On the other hand, free trade is a philosophy where countries are allowed to trade freely with each other and the producers are those that have the lowest opportunity cost. This concept is known as comparative advantage, and leads to faster growth and development as each producer only has to focus on producing one thing. Free trade leads to lower prices everywhere due to increased competition and greater global supply, and allows for weak domestic businesses to be crowded out by strong foreign firms, leading to a greater possibility of unemployment. Free trade also incentivizes multinational firms to go where labor is cheap, leading to unemployment where labor is expensive and exploitation where labor is cheap.54

Analysis and Solutions

Global agricultural tariffs continue to remain a problem for people all over the world. The WTO must reach a united stance on agricultural tariffs. There are several viable solutions to target this problem.

One of these solutions is a significant reduction in tariffs and non-tariff measures. A reduction in tariffs and non-tariff measures would lead to an increase in agricultural exports all over the world, with the exception of the EU. The EU would experience a slight decrease in agricultural exports due to lower demands for its meat exports. This change would help almost all nations across the world export more agricultural goods, but it would benefit India, Brazil, Japan, and other leading agricultural importers the most. In addition, all countries around the world would see an increase in imports. Removing tariffs removes the penalties that consumers have to pay to consume imported goods.⁵⁵ Another benefit to this solution would be a reduction in prices all across the world. Lower tariffs incentivizes both exportation and importation, which leads to more trade and competition, leading to lower prices. Freer trade also leads to more growth, efficiency, and innovation throughout the world.⁵⁶

The solution of reducing tariffs and non-tariff measures has many merits but also many drawbacks. Liberalization of agricultural trade would lead to a slight decrease in global agricultural output of 0.1%. This would happen because agricultural production would move to areas with the highest comparative advantage. Agricultural production would increase in these regions but decrease in other regions.⁵⁷ Another widespread disadvantage to decreasing or removing agricultural trade barriers would be a heightened dependency on global trade. Within a free trade system, countries end up only producing goods that they have the comparative advantage in producing. This means that a country has to depend on trade with others for all other resources.⁵⁸ If a food-producing country suddenly was unable to produce food, this would mean widespread food security problems for the whole world.

Another possible solution involves maintaining or increasing agricultural trade barriers. This would have many positive effects on the domestic economies of the countries that impose the trade barriers. Trade barriers protect domestic industries from foreign competition and increase domestic employment. Protecting domestic industries is especially important in agriculture because it increases a country's food security. If the protectimodern-daytry were to stop trading with other countries, it would be able to sustain its population from a food standpoint. This gives it an advantage over countries with free trade policies because the countries that do not produce food would not be able to sustain their populations if placed in the same situation. Another advantage of trade barriers

and strong domestic industries is high employment. High employment increases the economic efficiency and output of a country.⁵⁹ Tariffs also give the importing government some extra money to spend on things that can boost the economy, address market failures, or protect national security. Tariffs can give a government incentives to implement protectionist policies.

Similar to the previous solution, this solution also has drawbacks. The biggest drawback are the costs to the consumer. In the country that imposes tariffs, consumers have to deal with less competition. Less competition leads to higher prices and lower quality. The consumers ultimately pay the price of the high tariffs and non-tariff measures.⁶⁰ In addition to this, domestic tariffs harm impoverished foreign farmers. These foreign farmers and farming economies need to export their crops in order to make money. Trade barriers drive these exporting farmers out of potentially lucrative markets and force them to lower their prices in markets without as many trade barriers.

Questions to Consider

- 1. How should the problem of agricultural trade barriers be addressed?
- 2. How widespread should non-tariff measures be allowed to be? What are the benefits and drawbacks of non-tariff measures?
- Does using tariffs as anti-dumping or countervailing measures have a positive or negative effect?
- 4. What effects do dumping and export subsidies have on both domestic and global economies?
- 5. Does protectionism, free trade, or a combination of the two have a better

effect on the international trade environment?

- 6. In a world with limited tariffs, how should the problem of weak domestic firms being crowded out by larger, foreign firms be addressed?
- 7. In a world with high agricultural tariffs, how should the problem of impoverished foreign farmers be addressed?

Further Research

- 1. <u>https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/gatt_e/gatt_e.htm</u>: The section of the World Trade Organization's website that provides information about GATT.
- <u>https://www.ers.usda.gov/amber-waves/2021/june/how-the-removal-of-tariffs-would-impact-agricultural-trade/</u>: A USDA article that explains the effects of agricultural tariffs and provides a simulation of what would happen if they were to be removed.
- 3. <u>https://nationalaglawcenter.org/basic</u> <u>s-of-international-trade-tariffs/</u>: A web page that explains how tariffs work, how they affect agriculture, and the different types of tariffs.
- <u>https://www.wto.org/english/res_e/b</u> ooksp_e/agric_agreement_series_3_e. pdf: A WTO-published paper that provides key information about the URAA and how the WTO handles agricultural issues.
- 5. <u>https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/agric_e/negoti_e.htm</u>: A WTO web page that provides information about recent WTO agricultural agreements and on agricultural issues that are currently being debated.

Endnotes

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2. "What Is the World Trade Organization?," World Trade Organization, accessed July 30, 2023, https://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/tif_e/fact1_e.htm.

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11. Wex Definitions Team, "Berne Convention," Cornell Law School Legal Information Institute, last modified November 2021, https://www.law.cornell.edu/wex/berne_convention.

12. Vicenç Feliú, "UPDATE: International Trademark Law – the Madrid System," Hauser Global Law School Program, last modified March/April 2021, https://www.nyulawglobal.org/globalex/International_Trademark_Law1.html.

13. Danielle Carvey, "Madrid Protocol vs Madrid Agreement," IP-Coster, last modified March 27, 2023, https://www.ip-coster.com/academy/details/madrd_protocol_vs_madrid_agreement.

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16. U.S. Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service, *The Proposed Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement: Background and Key Issues*, by Shayerah Ilias, R41107 (July 19, 2012), 2-4.

17. "Conclusion of the Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement (ACTA) by Japan," Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan, last modified October 5, 2012, https://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/economy/i _property/acta_conclusion_1210.html; *Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement*, 22-23, accessed July 30, 2023, https://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/economy/i_property/pdfs/acta1105_en.pdf.

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