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First Author:	Bradly Condon
Corresponding Author E-Mail:	bcondon@itam.mx
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Translation: Dispute Settlement of the World Trade Organization (WTO)

Author: Bradly J. Condon

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A. Disclaimer

The opinions expressed in this article are the sole responsibility of the author and do not represent the views of the WTO. This article builds on the author's earlier research: B Condon, 'The concordance of multilingual legal texts at the WTO' (2012) 33(6) *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 525-538; and B Condon, 'Lost in Translation: Plurilingual: Interpretation of WTO Law' (2010) 1(1) *Journal of International Dispute Settlement* 191-216.

B. Introduction

1 The legal texts of → *World Trade Organization (WTO)* [MPEPIL] are authentic in English, French and Spanish. All three languages have been used in dispute settlement proceedings before panels and are used in WTO meetings (→ *World Trade Organization, Dispute Settlement (WTO)* [MPEPIL]). Official documents are translated into all three as well, including panel and Appellate Body reports (→ *Report: Dispute Settlement of the World Trade Organization (WTO)*). Differences among the texts of laws, court decisions, and panel decisions may lead to confusion if, for example, lawyers prepare legal arguments based on the Spanish or French text of the laws while their counterparts prepare theirs in English. It is similar for the English, Spanish or French translations of panel reports. There is an additional problem when the original language of a panel report is not English, and the report is appealed. The Appellate Body has not been able to work in Spanish or French. Reviewing a panel's decision on the basis of a translation, which may have been done on a short deadline and might have not been checked by the parties, could lead to the Appellate Body taking issue with a panel on the basis of an incorrect translation. Indeed, failure to consider linguistic differences as a possible source of a dispute can represent an obstacle to resolving a dispute through negotiation. This occurred in a dispute between the Soviet Union and the United States, in which there was a discrepancy between the English and Russian texts regarding the right of innocent passage in Article 22 of the 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (Aceves, 1996, 204).

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C. Issues Raised by Multilingual Processes at the World Trade Organization

2 Differences in the WTO legal texts occur for several reasons. First, time frames for translating negotiated texts are short. Second, when negotiators make last minute changes, they might not be picked up in the translation; for example, when 'should' is changed to 'shall'. Third, once negotiators have reached agreement, the legal texts become untouchable. There is no process in place at the WTO to correct translations following the approval of the legal texts. While Chile and the WTO Language Services and Documentation Division ('LSDD') each proposed a procedure for correcting errors in the legal texts, neither proposal was adopted (Condon, 2012). However, past experience has alerted WTO Members to the need for checking the text of the translations of the negotiated text before the entering into force of a given agreement. For instance, WTO Members, with the assistance of the Secretariat, have established legal scrubbing committees to review translations before the legal text enters into force. One such committee was established for the legal scrubbing of the Spanish text of the Trade Facilitation Agreement.

3 By virtue of Article 33(3) of the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties ('VCLT'), the terms of a plurilingual treaty are presumed to have the same meaning in each authentic text. When a comparison of the authentic texts discloses a difference in meaning that cannot be resolved through interpretation under Articles 31 and 32, Article 33 requires the adoption of the meaning that best reconciles the texts, having regard to the object and purpose of the treaty. These rules of interpretation have been applied in several WTO panel and Appellate Body reports.

4 Most panel and all Appellate Body reports have been written in English and then translated into French and Spanish. Most panel and Appellate Body hearings are conducted in English as well. The WTO Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes ('DSU') leaves open the question of language rights in the dispute settlement process and provides no extra time for translation of panel and Appellate Body reports within the prescribed timetables (Petersmann, 2004, 98). In *Mexico – Anti-Dumping Measures on Rice*, the participants asked to have all written submissions made available to all participants in English and in Spanish. Following consultations with the participants, the Appellate Body Division hearing the appeal issued a Working Schedule that took into account time periods for translation of submissions by the LSDD. However, the time required for the translation of submissions made it impossible to circulate the Appellate Body Report within 90 days from the date the Notice of Appeal was filed. Therefore, the participants agreed in writing to deem the Appellate Body Report to be an Appellate Body Report circulated pursuant to Article 17.5 of the DSU (*Mexico – Anti-Dumping Measures on Rice*, Appellate Body Report, para 7). In two other cases, the Appellate Body was unable to circulate its Report within the period pursuant to Article 17.5 of the DSU, due in part to limited Spanish-speaking staff in the Appellate Body Secretariat and the need to translate documents from Spanish into English for non-

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4 Spanish-speaking Appellate Body Members and staff (*Colombia – Textiles, Appellate Body*
5 *Report*, para 1.12; *Argentina – Financial Services, Appellate Body Report*, para 1.12).
6 Parties have the right to submit their written and oral communications in one of the
7 official languages of the WTO. The Secretariat will then translate them for the panel in its
8 working language. In practice, when a party announces that it will submit in an official
9 language other than that of the panel, the panel's timetables is likely to include a series of
10 deadlines for translation into the panel's working language. (Legal Affairs Division, 2017,
11 75). In *Russia – Pigs*, Russia asked for authorisation to have interpretation in Russian
12 during the oral hearings because its experts did not speak English well enough. Russia also
13 proposed to bear the related costs. There have also been cases in which the parties
14 dispute the accuracy of the meaning and translation of texts in non-official languages. In
15 *Russia – Pigs*, for example, the Panel adopted the following working procedure:
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21 Where the original language of exhibits is not a WTO working language, the
22 submitting party or third party shall submit a translation into the WTO working
23 language of the submission at the same time. The Panel may grant reasonable
24 extensions of time for the translation of such exhibits upon a showing of good
25 cause. Any objection as to the accuracy of a translation should be raised promptly
26 in writing, no later than the next filing or meeting (whichever occurs earlier)
27 following the submission which contains the translation in question. Any objection
28 shall be accompanied by a detailed explanation of the grounds of objection and an
29 alternative translation. Thereafter, the Panel will rule as promptly as possible on
30 any objection to the accuracy of a translation (Working Procedures of the Panel,
31 *Russia – Pigs* (EU), para. 9).
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36 5 WTO panel and Appellate Body reports have become longer and more complex, but the
37 time allowed for translation has remained the same. This means that pieces of the reports
38 are distributed to different translators and then assembled and harmonized to produce
39 the final version within the allotted time. There is no formal procedure in place to review
40 and correct translations of panel and Appellate Body reports. It is done internally before
41 circulation. An experienced reviser carefully reviews the translation as a whole. Queries
42 from the translators or reviewers are also communicated to the Secretariat team
43 responsible for assisting the panel or Appellate Body division while the translation or
44 revision process is taking place. Translators seek to use consistent terminology over time.
45 However, languages evolve over time and the terminology that panels and the Appellate
46 Body choose may differ from past usage (→ *Translation of Reports: Dispute Settlement of*
47 *the World Trade Organization (WTO)*).
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52 6 WTO jurisprudence has become a very important part of WTO law (*US – Stainless Steel*
53 *(Mexico)*, Appellate Body Report, paras 158-162). However, unlike the legal texts, there is
54 no provision that provides that the reports are 'authentic' in English, French and Spanish,
55 and there is no rule of interpretation that applies to multilingual jurisprudence. Thus, it is
56 unlikely that differences between the original language version and translated versions of
57 jurisprudence could be raised as a legal argument in WTO disputes in the same way as
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4 discrepancies between authentic legal texts. Moreover, such differences can be resolved
5 by referring to the original version of the report, rather than the translation.
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8 7 Differences between authentic texts also have implications in domestic legal systems.
9 Countries adopt and implement treaties in their official languages. Thus, for example,
10 where there is a difference between the English and Spanish texts, English-speaking and
11 Spanish-speaking countries will adopt and implement different texts of the WTO
12 agreements in question. This in turn can affect the interpretation and application of WTO
13 norms by legislators, administrative agencies and national courts, potentially giving rise to
14 disputes with other WTO Members regarding the consistency of national law with WTO
15 obligations.
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21 **D. Typology of Linguistic Differences in Legal Texts of the World Trade Organization**

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23 8 It is useful to categorize differences in the legal texts, since the procedural solutions to
24 resolve differences may be different for different categories. Some differences are
25 substantive, while others are merely superficial differences that can be attributed to
26 differences in the way that languages express the same idea. However, it is not always
27 possible to categorize differences as superficial or substantive in the absence of a dispute
28 that involves the specific legal provision in question. That is, it is not possible to predict how
29 superficial or substantive a difference may prove to be when a panel or the Appellate Body
30 applies the legal provision in the context of a dispute or when the provision is the subject
31 of negotiations among WTO Members.
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36 9 Substantive differences in translated legal texts at the WTO can be categorized as follows:
37 (1) simple errors; (2) difficulty of translating ambiguous terms; (3) harmonization problems,
38 ie phrases that are identical across different legal documents in one language differ in
39 another; and (4) different placement of terms in the different languages, which creates
40 ambiguity.
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43 10 The category of simple errors is not as simple as its name implies. For example, there
44 have been some discussions regarding the correct translation of 'should' and 'shall' in
45 Spanish, among both negotiators and translators. 'Should' can be translated in Spanish as
46 'deberá' or 'debería'. In the WTO legal texts, translators chose to translate 'should' as
47 'deberá', rather than 'debería'. This choice was made because 'should' generally connotes
48 a positive, though non-obligatory, term in English. In Spanish, 'debería' has a negative
49 connotation, in the sense that it does not matter whether the action is taken and implies
50 permission to do opposite. In Spanish, 'deberá' has a more positive connotation that more
51 closely reflects the manner in which 'should' is used in the legal texts. In English, 'should' is
52 generally not mandatory, whereas 'shall' generally is mandatory. However, Article 11 of the
53 DSU provides that a panel 'should make objective assessment of the matter before it', which
54 has been interpreted as a mandatory due process provision (*EC – Poultry*, Appellate Body
55 Report, para. 133; *Chile – Price Band System*, Appellate Body Report, para. 173; *Thailand –*
56 *Cigarettes (Philippines)*, Appellate Body Report, para. 147). Thus, in this context, 'should'
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4 means 'shall'. The French text uses '*devrait*' and the Spanish text uses '*deberá*', which both
5 mean 'should'. In this example, there is no error in translation. Rather, the issue came to
6 light as a result of subsequent interpretations of this provision in WTO disputes, which
7 considered that such a due process provision must be mandatory by its very nature.
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11 11 Difficulty translating ambiguous terms differs from the preceding category, since these
12 are not examples of errors in translation. For example, Article 4.1(c) of the Agreement on
13 Safeguards defines the term 'domestic industry' using different terminology in Spanish
14 (*una proporción importante*) than it does in French (*une proportion majeure*) and English
15 (a major proportion). Another example is Article XX(g) of the General Agreement on Tariffs
16 and Trade ('GATT') which requires that conservation measures be 'made effective in
17 conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption'. The French and
18 Spanish equivalents of the term 'made effective' are less ambiguous: '*sont appliqués*' and
19 '*se apliquen*'. In *China – Raw Materials*, the Appellate Body referred to the French and
20 Spanish terms to confirm that Article XX(g) does not contain an additional requirement
21 that the conservation measure be primarily aimed at making effective the restrictions on
22 domestic production or consumption (*China – Raw Materials*, Appellate Body Report, para.
23 356).
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29 12 In the category of harmonization problems, phrases that are identical across different
30 WTO agreements in one language diverge in another. This category of translation problem
31 is more closely related to the category of simple errors than to the category of ambiguous
32 terms. For example, many agreements draw upon GATT terminology, using the same
33 phrases in other agreements as those used in GATT to express similar obligations or
34 exceptions. In English and French, Article 4.1 of the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects
35 of Intellectual Property Rights ('TRIPS') and GATT Article I:1 use the same wording to
36 express a key part of the most-favoured-nation ('MFN') obligation: shall be accorded
37 immediately and unconditionally/ *seront, immédiatement et sans condition, étendus*.
38 However, the Spanish text uses different phrases in the two provisions to express the
39 same obligation: '*será concedido inmediata e incondicionalmente*' (GATT Art I:1) and '*se*
40 *otorgará inmediatamente y sin condiciones*' (TRIPS Art 4.1). The meaning is the same, but
41 if a Spanish-speaking lawyer does not compare authentic texts, the distinct manner of
42 expressing the obligation in different Spanish texts could give the erroneous impression
43 that a different meaning is intended. Similarly, TRIPS Article 27.2 incorporates some
44 language from GATT Article XX. In English and French, TRIPS Article 27.2 uses the same
45 form of the word necessary as in GATT Article XX, but in Spanish there is a small variation:
46 'necesarias' in GATT and 'necesariamente' in TRIPS. Article 9.1, paragraphs (a) and (b), of
47 the Agreement on Agriculture refers to export subsidies provided by 'governments or
48 their agencies', in English, and by '*les pouvoirs publics ou leurs organismes*', in French.
49 Article 1.1(a)(1) the Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures ('SCM') defines
50 a subsidy as a financial contribution 'by a government or any public body', in English, and
51 '*des pouvoirs publics ou de tout organisme public*', in French. However, in Spanish, Article
52 9.1, paragraphs (a) and (b) of the Agreement on Agriculture use the phrase '*por los*
53 *gobiernos o por los organismos públicos*'. SCM Agreement Article 1.1(a)(1) uses the phrase
54 '*de un gobierno o de cualquier organismo público*'. In *US – Anti-Dumping and*
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4 *Countervailing Duties (China)*, China argued that, since the same term ‘*organismo público*’
5 is used in both provisions in Spanish, this term should be given the same interpretation in
6 both. However, the Appellate Body rejected this argument, since specific terms may not
7 have identical meanings in every agreement. Where the ordinary meaning of a term is
8 broad, its interpretation may differ in different agreements where those agreements have
9 different contexts and objects and purposes (*US – Anti-Dumping and Countervailing Duties*
10 *(China)*, Appellate Body Report, paras 330-331).
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13 In the category of different placement of words the ambiguity arises from the
14 translation, not from the use of constructive ambiguity in the negotiation phase. However,
15 this category is different in nature from the first and third categories, since it does not
16 involve simple translation errors or harmonization problems. This category is more closely
17 related to the second category, since it increases the difficulty involved in the translation
18 process. In this case, the difficulty may arise due to structural differences between
19 different languages. For example, in Annex 1.1 of the Agreement on Technical Barriers to
20 Trade (‘TBT’), in English the location of the word ‘requirements’ creates an ambiguity
21 regarding whether the requirements refer only to labelling. In French, the equivalent
22 word, ‘prescriptions’, appears to refer to packaging, marking or labelling. In Spanish, the
23 equivalent word, ‘prescripciones’, refers to all of the terms in the list: terminology,
24 symbols, packaging, marking or labelling.
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31 14 In addition to the foregoing categories, other problems may arise as a result of the
32 ongoing evolution of trade law and the ongoing evolution of the working languages. These
33 other problems include: (1) generic terms that are susceptible to evolutionary
34 interpretation; (2) terms that have special meaning in accordance with VCLT Article 31(4);
35 (3) false cognates, ie words that appear similar but that have a different meaning in
36 different languages, such as ‘doctrine’ in common law and ‘*doctrina*’ in Spanish; (4) words
37 in the original language that have no equivalent in the other languages, eg
38 liability/responsibility; (5) the need to use the terms used in old laws and precedents to
39 express the same idea in new laws.
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43 15 In addition, differences in language usage among countries that use different
44 terminology in the same language can be a source of debate regarding the correct choice
45 of terminology. These ‘intra-linguistic differences’ can also lead to the use of different
46 terms to express the same idea in different parts of translated texts, if the task of
47 translating a text is distributed among different translators and there is no editing process
48 to harmonize usage across texts (Prieto Ramos, 2011). For example, Mexican law refers to
49 *cuota compensatoria* as an all-inclusive term for countervailing duties and antidumping
50 duties, whereas other Spanish-speaking countries use two separate terms, as do the
51 authentic Spanish legal texts of the WTO.
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58 **E. Linguistic Differences in Dispute Settlement System of the World Trade Organization**

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4 16 The experience to date in the WTO dispute settlement system suggests that the
5 multilingual nature of the WTO Agreements does not make treaty interpretation
6 significantly more difficult than it would be with a text authentic in one language only. In
7 practice, the Appellate Body and the parties to disputes often treat the English text as if it
8 were a 'master' text. When the Appellate Body uses dictionaries in its comparison of
9 authentic texts, it uses dictionaries of all three languages. The practice of the Appellate
10 Body has been to use the French and Spanish texts to confirm the interpretation of the
11 English text, which appears to be an implicit application of supplementary means of
12 interpretation under VCLT Article 32. Only where there is a difference of meaning
13 between the texts has the Appellate Body applied VCLT Article 33 to reconcile the
14 difference in meaning between the texts (*US – Countervailing and Anti-Dumping Measures*
15 (*China*), Appellate Body Report, paras 4.76-4.77).

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21 17 Panels appear less likely to treat English as a master text, particularly when they use
22 text comparison to resolve ambiguities in the three authentic texts. Like the Appellate
23 Body and the parties to disputes, panels often refer to the French and Spanish texts to
24 confirm their interpretation of the English text.

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27 18 The Appellate Body has taken the view that the customary rules of treaty
28 interpretation reflected in Article 33 of the VCLT require the treaty interpreter to seek the
29 meaning that gives effect, simultaneously, to all the terms of the treaty, as they are used
30 in each authentic language, but also to make an effort to find a meaning that reconciles
31 any apparent differences, taking into account the presumption that they have the same
32 meaning in each authentic text (Condon, 2010). Indeed, consulting the different authentic
33 texts may be viewed as an interpretative tool that assists in determining the ordinary
34 meaning of treaty terms in their context, in light of the object and purpose, rather than a
35 source of conflicting texts of treaty terms (McNair, 1961). The presumption in VCLT Article
36 33(3) and the obligation in VCLT Article 33(4) to adopt the meaning that best reconciles
37 the texts require the treaty interpreter to avoid conflicting interpretations.

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42 19 In its commentary on the draft Article that was later adopted as VCLT Article 33(3), the
43 International Law Commission made several observations. Paragraph 1 expressed the
44 general rule of the 'equality of the languages and the equal authenticity of the texts in the
45 absence of any provision to the contrary' (International Law Commission, 1966, 224). The
46 rule in paragraph 1 dates from at least 1836 (McNair, 1961, 432). While some treaties
47 designate one language as authoritative in the case of divergence, this is not the case with
48 the covered agreements of the WTO.

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52 20 The plurality of the authentic texts of a treaty is 'always a material factor in its
53 interpretation', but the International Law Commission stressed that in law there is only
54 one treaty accepted by the parties and one common intention even when two authentic
55 texts appear to diverge (International Law Commission, 1966, 225). The effect of the
56 presumption in paragraph 33(3) is to entitle each party to use only one authentic text of a
57 treaty at the outset (Aust, 2000, 205; Villiger, 2009, 458). Moreover, this presumption
58 makes it unnecessary for tribunals to compare language texts on a routine basis;

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4 comparison is only necessary when there is an allegation of ambiguity or divergence
5 among authentic texts, which rebuts the presumption (Kuner, 1991, 954). A duty of
6 routine comparison would imply the rejection of this presumption (Kuner, 1991). The
7 practice of the Appellate Body and WTO panels supports the view that routine comparison
8 is not necessary, as does the practice of many domestic courts and other international
9 tribunals (Kuner, 1991).
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13 21 In practice, most plurilingual treaties contain some discrepancies between the texts.
14 Discrepancies in the meaning of the texts may be an additional source of ambiguity in the
15 terms of the treaty. Alternatively, when the meaning of terms is ambiguous in one
16 language, but clear in another, the plurilingual character of the treaty can facilitate
17 interpretation. Because there is only one treaty, the presumption that the terms of a
18 treaty are intended to have the same meaning in each authentic text ‘requires that every
19 effort should be made to find a common meaning for the texts before preferring one to
20 another’ (International Law Commission, 1966, 225). Regardless of the source of the
21 ambiguity, ‘the first rule for the interpreter is to look for the meaning intended by the
22 parties to be attached to the term by applying the standard rules for the interpretation of
23 treaties’ in VCLT Articles 31 and 32. The interpreter cannot just prefer one text to another
24 (International Law Commission, 1966, 225).
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30 22 The Appellate Body does not consider the French and Spanish texts in all cases. From
31 1996 to 2018, it considered more than one authentic text in only 26 of 139 Appellate Body
32 reports, or 18.7 percent of all reports. There is no correlation between the year of the
33 appeal and the consideration of the three authentic texts. There is no correlation between
34 the official language/s of the appellant or appellee and the comparison of authentic texts
35 in Appellate Body reports or between the frequency of text comparison and the level of
36 economic development of the parties. There is insufficient data to determine whether
37 there is a correlation between the languages spoken by Appellate Body members and staff
38 and the consideration of the three authentic texts.
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42 23 The presumption in VCLT Article 33 means that there is no duty to compare the
43 authentic texts in all cases, so the practice of the Appellate Body is consistent with Article
44 33 as a matter of law. Nevertheless, when the Appellate Body does apply Article 33, it
45 does so in an inconsistent fashion and fails to distinguish between the different rules
46 contained in paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 33. The Appellate Body frequently interprets
47 one text by reference to another, which is permissible but is not established explicitly in
48 Article 33. The Appellate Body and the parties to disputes often refer to the French and
49 Spanish texts to confirm their interpretation of the English text. Van Damme characterizes
50 the practice of using other authentic texts to confirm the interpretation of the English text
51 as ‘supplementary means of interpretation’ (Van Damme, 2009, 335).
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56 24 In panel reports issued from 1999 to 2019, one or more parties or the panel compared
57 the authentic texts of a WTO Agreement in 74 out of 175 panel reports, or 42.3 percent of
58 reports. Text comparison occurs in panel reports both more often and more consistently
59 than in Appellate Body reports. Like the Appellate Body, panels and the parties to disputes
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4 often refer to the French and Spanish texts to confirm their interpretation of the English
5 text. However, the manner in which panels use the comparison of authentic texts is more
6 varied than in Appellate Body reports. In some cases, the parties use only one other text
7 to support their interpretation of the English text, while in other cases they use both of
8 the other texts. In one case, one party used the Spanish text to support its interpretation
9 of the English text, while the other party used the French text to support the opposite
10 interpretation of the same English text (*US — Export Restraints*, Appellate Body Report,
11 Footnote 60). This variation in the practice of parties also occurs before the Appellate
12 Body.
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17 25 If the application of VCLT Article 33 is a material part of treaty interpretation when the
18 treaty is authentic in more than one language, and reflects the customary rules of treaty
19 interpretation, the failure to apply Article 33 in all cases could be considered inconsistent
20 with at least the spirit of Article 3.2 of the DSU. However, the presumption in Article 33
21 means that there is no duty to compare the authentic texts in all cases, so the practice of
22 the Appellate Body is consistent with Article 33 as a matter of law.
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28 **F. Conclusion**
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30 26 The experience to date in the WTO suggests that the plurilingual nature of the WTO
31 Agreements does not make treaty interpretation significantly more difficult than it would
32 be with a text authentic in one language only. The terms of a plurilingual treaty are
33 presumed to have the same meaning in each authentic text, which means that a treaty
34 interpreter need not compare the authentic texts as a routine matter as a matter of law.
35 Nevertheless, routine comparison of authentic texts is good practice in the WTO context,
36 since there are several linguistic discrepancies that could affect the interpretation of WTO
37 provisions. However, language issues also arise with respect to the accuracy of translation
38 of documents whose original language is not an official WTO language, such as Chinese or
39 Russian. Translation of panel and Appellate Body reports into other official languages can
40 also be a source of discrepancies. While these discrepancies can be resolved by referring
41 to the original language in which the report was drafted, they still have the potential to
42 cause difficulties. Language issues also arise in dispute settlement hearings and
43 consultations. For example, a WTO Member may wish to use its own interpreters in
44 consultations and in dispute settlement hearings for the benefit of members of its
45 delegation that are not fluent in the language of the meeting or hearing. However, since
46 WTO Members are entitled to choose the members of their delegations, such procedural
47 issues can be resolved on an ad hoc basis. In addition, when WTO Members prepare oral
48 arguments in one official language and deliver them in a different official language, there
49 can be disagreements regarding the manner in which interpreters translate the oral
50 arguments. Translation issues also arise in negotiations, for example when negotiators
51 agree on a translation but the WTO official translation diverges from the translation that
52 negotiators agreed. Awareness of the potential for misunderstandings arising from
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language and translation issues is essential to avoid unnecessary obstacles to their solution.

G. Acknowledgements

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