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The Implementation and Lasting Effects of the Multilateral Instrument

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The Implementation and Lasting Effects of the Multilateral Instrument

Why this book?

Action 15 of the BEPS Project “The Multilateral Convention to Implement Tax Treaty Related Measures to Prevent Base Erosion and Profit Shifting” – the Multilateral Instrument (MLI) – is a multilateral convention that swiftly modifies the application of existing bilateral tax treaties without the need to renegotiate each treaty individually. It does not replace the existing tax treaties but rather modifies their application with the aim to reduce the opportunities for tax avoidance by multinational enterprises, counter treaty abuse and improve the dispute resolution mechanism, providing flexibility according to the different treaty policies and positions chosen by countries. The MLI was finalized in November 2016, and a first signing ceremony was held in Paris on 6 June 2017. A total of 76 jurisdictions signed it at this first ceremony. In the meantime, it has grown to cover almost 100 jurisdictions. The aim of this book is to provide tax authorities, policymakers, courts and practitioners with an overview of the countries’ positions and experiences regarding the impact of the MLI on their tax treaty network, as well as other issues on the implementation of the convention with respect to policy options, reservations, and legal and constitutional concerns.

The book comprises 34 national reports from countries across the globe and is the outcome of an alternative non-physical interaction between national reporters and authors. This was due to the special COVID-19 situation lived during 2020, serving as a substitute for the prepared conference on the MLI that should have taken place from 2 to 4 July 2020 in Rust, Burgenland, Austria. A general report highlights the most important findings.

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Preface

In recent years, several important developments have taken place with respect to anti-tax avoidance measures under the law of double taxation conventions. Following developments and recommendations from the OECD/G20 Base Erosion and Profit Shifting [hereinafter BEPS] Project, the OECD and UN tax treaty models and their commentaries were updated in 2017. The purpose was to include substantive rules strengthening the aim of double tax agreements so that they not only eliminate double taxation but also prevent tax evasion and avoidance. The intent was also to preclude the creation of opportunities for non-taxation and likewise improve the dispute resolution mechanism. The new model tax conventions will guide the negotiations and the scope of new bilateral tax conventions.

For its part, in order to update the more than 3,000 bilateral tax treaties that are currently in force, Action 15 of the BEPS Project “The Multilateral Convention to Implement Tax Treaty Related Measures to prevent Base Erosion and Profit Shifting” – Multilateral Instrument [hereinafter MLI] – proposed an innovative solution via a multilateral agreement that intends to modify the application of existing tax treaties without the need to renegotiate each treaty bilaterally. The MLI is the available tool to country members of the Inclusive Framework on BEPS providing governments an efficient and flexible option to modify tax treaties in a synchronized manner mainly on anti-BEPS measures. The MLI was finalized in November 2016, and the first signing ceremony was held in Paris in 2017, entering into force on 1 July 2018. The impact of the MLI on a certain bilateral tax treaty depends on the MLI positions (reservations, notifications or options) of both treaty partners upon deposit of the respective instruments of ratifications.

This book brings together 34 national reports from experts in international tax law with strong knowledge in the OECD/G20 BEPS Project developments where they discuss their countries’ positions and experiences regarding the impact of the MLI in their countries’ tax treaty network. They also consider other issues that have arisen on the implementation of the MLI with respect to policy options, reservations and legal and constitutional concerns from a critical point of view, giving insights to current flaws and potential improvements.

We are very grateful to the general reporters, Pasquale Pistone and Nevia Čičin-Šain, and all national reporters. They displayed enormous discipline in completing their national reports, taking into account the guidelines provided. The special circumstances that existed during 2020 obligated sus-

pending the conference that should have taken place in Rust, Burgenland, Austria, from 2 to 4 July 2020. The national reporters and other participants would have had the opportunity at that time to discuss and exchange points of views on their research. As a replacement, the editing team from WU (Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien) found the way to supply the physical interaction by requesting authors to exchange comments on other reports. We are grateful for these extra efforts that surely enriched the content and outcome that is presented in this book.

This project was conducted with the kind support of the Austrian Central Bank (OeNB Jubiläumsfonds) [hereinafter OeNB]. We are grateful to the OeNB for the funding received under the project entitled “Das Multilaterale Instrument und seine Auswirkungen” (project number: 18656). We would like to express our sincere thanks to IBFD for its cooperation and the swift realization of this publication project. Ms Jenny Hill and Ms Margaret McKinney contributed greatly to the completion of this book by editing and polishing the texts for the authors, for whom English is – to a great extent – a foreign language.

Above all, we would like to especially thank research and teaching assistants of the Institute for Austrian and International Tax Law, Mr Cristóbal Pérez Jarpa and Mr Martin Klokár, and members of the secretariat, Ms Renée Pestuka and Mrs Layomi Gunatilleke-Jester, who were responsible for the coordination of the activities that supplied the physical conference and for the editing, organization and preparation of the publication of this book. Without their dedication and talent for organization, the success and the completion of this book would not have been possible.

Vienna, March 2021

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Chapter 1

The Implementation and Lasting Effects of the Multilateral Instrument: General Report

Pasquale Pistone and Nevia Čičin-Šain

1.1. Party to the MLI

The Multilateral Convention to Implement Tax Treaty Related Measures to Prevent Base Erosion and Profit Shifting [hereinafter Multilateral Instrument or MLI] as a product of Action 15 of the OECD’s BEPS Project, the main focus of which was to transpose results of the BEPS Project into bilateral tax treaties worldwide, stirred up the international tax community. The originality of this instrument laid in the fact that it supposedly allowed “countries to swiftly modify their tax treaty networks”¹ by signing and ratifying just one multilateral convention instead of renegotiating the whole treaty network.

All members of the BEPS Inclusive Framework committed themselves to implement the four minimum standards, two which relate to treaty modifications, namely, the minimum standard for the prevention of treaty abuse under Action 6 and the minimum standard for the improvement of dispute resolution under Action 14. However, they were not obligated to sign the MLI in order to implement their commitments to meet the minimum standards. Some countries already had these minimum standards while others preferred to negotiate them bilaterally. Yet, the MLI was promoted as the instrument that provides the fastest way for steering the vast number of bilateral tax treaties towards convergence. According to the OECD, as of November 2020, there are 95 signatories to the MLI which will, in return, apply to over 1,700 “matched agreements” that would become so-called Covered Tax Agreements [hereinafter CTAs] once the MLI enters into force for both contracting jurisdictions.²

1. *OECD Multinational Convention (MLI) (2017)*, Explanatory statement to the multilateral convention to implement tax treaty related measures to prevent base erosion and profit shifting, p. 1, paragraph 5, Treaties & Models IBFD [hereinafter *Multilateral Convention*, Explanatory statement].

2. See <http://www.oecd.org/ctp/treaties/bahrain-signs-landmark-agreement-to-strengthen-its-tax-treaties.htm> (accessed 1 Dec. 2020).

One of the goals of this book is to provide empirical evidence that is needed to understand to what extent the MLI truly attained its proclaimed goal. The said analysis revolves around the question as to which formal but also substantial extent is the MLI actually being used around the world. It will cover not only the quantitative analysis in terms of the number of parties to the MLI but also the qualitative one in terms of the scope of the implemented substantive provisions of the MLI.

Namely, in an attempt to gain the maximum endorsement possible, the MLI maintained a large degree of flexibility. The jurisdictions retained the possibility to choose whether and which tax treaties will be covered by the MLI, to opt-into certain provisions, to make a reservation on others (all but the minimum standards) and to make options between offered alternatives. This, almost excessive, flexibility in the attitude of jurisdictions towards the content of the MLI led to an extreme complexity of its clauses.

Since the MLI is a piece of international law, it must abide by its rules and principles. The MLI does not function in the same way as an amending protocol to a single existing treaty, but it rather operates as a two-tiered structure that is composed of the underlying covered tax agreement and the changes brought to it by the MLI. These changes will only be operational if both contracting jurisdictions of the underlying covered tax agreement consent to them by matching not only their will to include the bilateral tax agreement but also by matching their will in terms of the scope of the desired alterations to be brought to it by the MLI via the system of reservations and options. If there is a mismatch between the wills of the contracting jurisdictions either in terms of whether to cover their respective tax agreement or with respect to the substantive scope of the provisions, the changes that the MLI intended to bring to the underlying agreement will be unsuccessful. Consequentially, the complexity of the MLI generated by its “desire to please everyone” ultimately can play against its effectiveness and undermine its reputation as being a “quick fix” that allows a swift modification of the network of tax treaties.

On top of analysing the reception of the MLI in general, the authors sought to pursue another goal in this report and that is to analyse its geographical spread. In addition, it was necessary to identify the drivers behind the policy options made by the reporting countries. In order to determine the impact of the MLI on the tax treaty networks of countries in the same (sub) region, the authors adopted, on occasion, a “regional bird’s eye-view” in their analysis. Authors assumed that countries will be guided by two main, mutually opposing, goals when shaping their attitude towards the MLI. On

the one hand, there is the political obligation to discourage tax treaty abuse in the face of the international tax arena and the desire to remain attractive for businesses, on the other hand. Indeed, the analysis of the national reports confirmed that countries can be placed somewhere on the spectrum between total reluctance and great enthusiasm. It also revealed an array of other potential drivers for (non)implementation of the MLI such as, for instance, low administrative capacity to conduct MLI measures in practice, existence of similar domestic rules, etc.

Brazil is a prominent example of a country that opted not to sign the MLI despite being committed to BEPS measures as an OECD key partner and BEPS Framework member. The views shared in that country report offer valuable insight into the criticisms against the MLI as the instrument of choice for updating the tax treaty networks according to the BEPS standards.³ In this respect, one of the reasons against adhering to the MLI is that it can undermine the equilibrium upon which the existing bilateral tax treaties have been concluded. Namely, even though the MLI purports to be tailor-made, the fact remains that it offers “a limited amount of clothes” that a country needs to select from. If a country has a treaty policy that deviates from the provisions in the MLI, it will result in non-adjustability issues. Additionally, reticent countries see the MLI as an instrument that inevitably affects the allocation of taxing rights. Other reasons for not becoming a party to the MLI can be not to reveal too much the desired tax positions in the negotiation process. Many countries still prefer to keep their positions secret and to use them as leverage in the negotiation process. Revealing them through the notifications to the Depositary would result in them losing their bargaining power, so many of them still prefer to negotiate in a discrete, bilateral way.

All of these reasons can indeed lead to the result that the MLI is not as effective in practice as the OECD purports it to be in the short term. Nevertheless, the authors claim that the true value of the MLI needs to be evaluated in the medium to long term. In terms of its substantive content, the MLI has the power to produce a significant effect on the future tax treaty networks since the anti-BEPS measures it contains can become a “new norm” in international tax law. Even countries that do not sign the MLI will, in their bilateral negotiations, adhere to this new paradigm that it sets either on their own initiative or because their treaty partner adopted

3. See Chapter 6: Brazil, section 6.1.1.

the standards into its own treaty network.⁴ In this respect, the MLI should be praised as an impressive attempt to enhance coordinated bilateralism in tax treaty matters in a way that goes well beyond model conventions. Unlike the existing OECD/UN Model Conventions, the MLI is not soft law but an international agreement that creates an actual hard law obligation to comply with its content. In this sense, it is a great step forward for international tax law standards.

The text of the MLI was approved in November 2016 and opened for signing at the end of the same year. Almost all countries represented in this book (except Brazil) opted for the MLI as the preferred tool for changing their respective tax treaty networks. Moreover, they signed the instrument as early as on the signing ceremony on 7 June 2017.

However, the adherence to the MLI differed greatly from region to region. The authors observed that, in the South American region, only five out of 13 jurisdictions are signatory parties of the MLI.⁵ The driving factors for the adherence to the MLI varied between those five signatories. Some of the countries viewed the MLI as a time-saving tool replacing the very lengthy renegotiation processes⁶ and as an effective tool to fight aggressive tax planning.⁷ Others pursued an additional country-specific agenda, for instance, the need to standardize the country's tax treaty network considering that, in the past, tax treaties were interpreted arbitrarily by the tax authorities which resulted in different treatment of various treaty partners.⁸

In Europe, the high uptake of the MLI was expected since many of these countries are members of the OECD. However, as will be demonstrated in other chapters, this initial enthusiasm needs to be nuanced when taking a closer look to the number of CTAs listed or reservations made. In Eastern Europe, country reports demonstrate a variety of attitudes to the MLI that span from cautious to (overly) enthusiastic. A very interesting example of polar opposite attitudes towards the MLI between two neighbouring countries is the case of the Czech Republic and Slovakia. While the former nominally became party to the MLI but announced early on that it would

4. D. Duff & D. Gutmann, *General Report*, in *Reconstructing the treaty network* p. 38 (IFA Cahiers, vol. 105A, IBFD 2020), Books IBFD.

5. See Chapter 9: Chile, section 9.1.2. Four of the five jurisdictions signed the Convention on the day of the signing ceremony (Argentina, Colombia, Chile and Uruguay), and Peru signed the MLI one year later, on 27 June 2018.

6. See Chapter 9: Chile, section 9.1.1.

7. See Chapter 8: Canada, section 8.1.1.

8. See Chapter 2: Argentina, section 2.1.1.

put all possible reservations out of fear of the instrument's complexity,⁹ the latter demonstrated great zeal and openness towards the MLI.¹⁰ Other jurisdictions in the region used the signing of the MLI to send a political message to the international community of them being a cooperative and modern tax jurisdiction. Whether this political enthusiasm, however, shall be coupled with sufficient administrative capacity to conduct all of the novel measures in reality remains to be seen.¹¹

On the African continent, the adherence to the MLI is relatively low. Of the 55 African states, only 13 have currently signed the MLI. Some reporters offer clues as to the reasons behind this: lacking administrative capacity and low number of double tax treaties. This might reflect the “wait-and-see” approach before finalizing the options. A country that stands out is South Africa. It is the only African country that, as a non-OECD member, fully participated as a G20 country in the process of priority setting in the BEPS Project.¹²

Some large countries, such as China, found the MLI to be an effective tool to update its existing treaties on an equal footing. Becoming an MLI signatory was considered to be in line with the need to improve international tax norms and establish a fair, multilaterally beneficial tax environment at home and abroad. On the other hand, it was also recognized that the provi-

9. The country expressed caution with regard to new anti-avoidance provisions creating too many uncertainties and problems in practical application and a strong preference for bilateral negotiations over the MLI. *See* Chapter 12: Czech Republic, section 12.6.

10. For Slovakia, the adoption of the MLI was absolutely a clear-cut decision. The country considered the MLI as the most feasible way for smaller jurisdictions to implement outcomes of the BEPS Action Plan into their double taxation conventions. This resulted not in just a wide coverage in terms of numbers of covered tax treaties but also in the adoption of the individual provisions in the fullest extent possible (except for arbitration). *See* Chapter 30: Slovakia, section 30.7.3.

11. For example, for Serbia, signing the MLI was politically motivated. Serbia is neither an EU Member State nor an OECD member country so, according to the Serbian report, the zeal to adhere to the MLI was somewhat surprising. The signing was used to show the European Union and the international community Serbia's willingness to upgrade its standards in taxation. *See* Chapter 29: Serbia, section 29.1.1.

12. South Africa holds an official observer status at the OECD, is on the shortlist of prospective member countries and is one of the OECD's five Key Partner countries. It is an associate in six OECD bodies and projects and a participant in 15 (OECD website, “South Africa and the OECD”, available at <https://www.oecd.org/southafrica/south-africa-and-oecd.htm> (accessed 5 Jan. 2021)). This includes membership of the Steering Group: Inclusive Framework for BEPS Implementation (OECD website, “Composition of the 2019-2020 Steering Group of the Inclusive Framework on BEPS”, available at <https://www.oecd.org/tax/beps/steering-group-of-the-inclusive-framework-on-beps.pdf> (accessed 5 Jan. 2021)).

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