

Why Finland should adopt the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration

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Introduction

Finland has excellent attributes to serve as a place for an international arbitration, being widely recognized for its political neutrality and stability, respect for the rule of law and freedom from corruption. Few other countries can compare to Finland in these respects. It is a modern, socially advanced and highly democratic country with first class hotels and excellent transportation and telecommunication facilities. It has an outstanding and well established (founded in 1911) arbitral institution in the Arbitration Institute of the Finland Chamber of Commerce (the “**FAI**”).² Finland is also, like Sweden, exceptionally well located to attract disputes between parties from Eastern Europe, Russia, China and Asia, on the one hand, and parties from Western Europe and the Americas, on the other.

Yet, Finland has failed to attract users of international arbitration and has, instead, lost to other countries, notably Sweden, the economic and reputational benefits that hosting those disputes generate, obliging many Finnish companies to resolve their disputes abroad. A major reason for this failure is, undoubtedly, a lack of confidence by foreigners and international arbitral institutions (whether justified or not) in Finland’s legal infrastructure for arbitration, that is, Finland’s arbitration law and court system and their ability and willingness to facilitate and support arbitration and recognize and enforce arbitral awards.

This paper will focus on the first of these points, namely, the need for Finland to modernize its arbitration law and to make it attractive to foreign users of international arbitration and international arbitral institutions. Specifically, this paper will

explain why Finland should adopt, without significant change, the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration (1985), as amended in 2006 (the “**UNCITRAL Model Law**” or “**Model Law**”), by answering the following ten questions:

1. What is international commercial arbitration?
2. What is the importance of international commercial arbitration today?
3. Why is the seat or place of an international arbitration important?
4. What criteria do parties and arbitral institutions use in selecting a seat or place of arbitration?
5. Why should Finland want to be a popular place or seat for arbitration?
6. What is wrong with Finland’s arbitration law?
7. How can a country become attractive as a place for international arbitration?
8. How can Finland become a more attractive place for international arbitration?
9. What are the benefits for Finland of adopting the UNCITRAL Model Law?
10. Why should Finland adopt the UNCITRAL Model Law without significant change?

While this paper does not focus on the Finnish court system and the need for it to support arbitration and to recognize and enforce arbitral awards, help by the Finnish judiciary in these respects is essential and should go hand-in-hand with legislative change. Accordingly, the Finnish judiciary should be actively involved in any reform of Finnish arbitration law and be persuaded—hopefully—strongly to support such change.³

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² As recognized by Mr Andrea Carlevaris, Secretary General at the ICC International Court of Arbitration, Paris, in his speech in Helsinki on Helsinki International Arbitration Day (“**HIAD**”), May 26, 2016.

³ One of the reasons for the success of the major reform of France’s arbitration law in 1980 and 1981 (which was one of the inspirations for the UNCITRAL Model Law issued in 1985) was the close involvement of the French judiciary with it. As a result, the French judiciary is widely acknowledged today to support arbitration and to recognize and enforce arbitral awards which undoubtedly helps make France a popular place for international arbitration. The same is true of Switzerland where the Swiss judiciary enjoys a similar reputation of support for arbitration and for enforcement of arbitral awards. Thus, in Switzerland, only around 7 per cent of court challenges to arbitral awards are reported to be successful. Felix Dasser and Piotr Wójtowicz, *Challenges of Swiss Arbitral Awards – Updated and Extended Statistical Data as of 2015* in *ASA Bulletin* (2016) 34, Issue 2, pages 280–300.

1. What is international commercial arbitration?

Arbitration is a form of dispute resolution in which the parties agree to submit their disputes to a third party or a tribunal for a final and binding decision. It differs from litigation in court in that it is based on a contract to arbitrate and the judge or judges (called “arbitrators”) are appointed by the parties themselves or by a third party or institution designated by them, not by the state.⁴ Most commonly, this contract to arbitrate takes the form of an arbitration clause in a commercial contract.

International commercial arbitration is an arbitration between parties from different states relating to a commercial matter or which otherwise implicates international commerce. The most common form of international commercial arbitration is one arising out of a commercial contract between companies incorporated or domiciled in different countries or between a company and a state or state-owned body which has consented to arbitration.

2. What is the importance of international commercial arbitration today?

With the growth of international trade and investment, the number of cross-border commercial contracts containing arbitration clauses and the number of international treaties favoring arbitration have increased, in particular since 1950. As a consequence, there has been a dramatic growth in the number of cases submitted to international arbitration, especially since 1970.

Probably the best known international arbitration institution is the International Court of Arbitration of the International Chamber of Commerce (“**ICC**”) founded in 1923. By 1976, 3,000 requests for arbitration had been filed with the ICC and by 1998 the ICC had received its 10,000th case.⁵ Thus, two-thirds of all cases brought to ICC arbitration by 1998 had arisen in the previous 20 years.⁶

The number of international arbitration cases has continued to increase. Currently, the ICC is receiving 900 cases (as from 2016) per year. Other international arbitration institutions, like the American Arbitration Association’s International Centre for Dispute Resolution (“**ICDR**”), the London Court of International Arbitration (“**LCIA**”) and the main international arbitral institution in the Nordic countries—the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce (“**SCC**”)—, are seeing similar increases in the number of cases that they receive (see Table 1 below):

As one authority has put it:

“Arbitration is now the principal method of resolving disputes involving states, individuals and corporations. This is one of the consequences of the increased globalization of world trade and investment.”⁷

There are a number of widely-acknowledged reasons why arbitration has become so important for resolving international business disputes, as follows:

- international arbitration provides a neutral forum for the settlement of disputes⁸ instead of having them decided in the court system of one of the parties;

Table 1 – Growth of Arbitration Cases

INSTITUTION	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
ICC	521	593	599	663	817	793	796	759	767	791	801
AAA/ICDR	580	586	621	703	836	888	994	996	1165	1052	1064
LCIA	118	133	137	221	285	267	237	277	301	302	332
SCC	100	141	170	176	216	197	199	177	203	183	181
TOTAL	1319	1453	1527	1763	2154	2145	2226	2209	2436	2328	2378

⁴ Roy Goode, *Commercial Law*, Second Edition, 1995, Penguin, page 1176.

⁵ Craig, Park, Paulsson, *International Chamber of Commerce Arbitration*, Oceana (Third Edition, 2000) (hereinafter “**Craig, Park, Paulsson**”), page 2.

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ Redfern and Hunter in *International Arbitration*, Sixth Edition 2015 (hereinafter “**Redfern & Hunter**”), page 1.

⁸ Neutral in terms of the place of arbitration, the nationality of the arbitrators, the procedure of arbitration and the language of arbitration.

- it enables the parties to choose their own judges (or “arbitrators”), having specific subject matter or legal expertise;
- it provides for a flexible procedure which the parties can tailor to the needs of a specific dispute;
- because of the 1958 New York Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards (the “**New York Convention**”)⁹, an international arbitration award can be enforced around the world more easily than a national court judgement; and
- unlike a proceeding before a national court, an international arbitration is a private proceeding and can, in addition, be made confidential if the parties so agree, thus enabling sensitive cases to be resolved without the glare of publicity.

3. Why is the seat or place of an international arbitration important?

The selection of the arbitral seat has rightly been described as “a decision with very significant legal and other consequences”¹⁰, as the seat of an arbitration will, among other things, influence or determine the following:

- the law which governs the arbitration, including the validity of the arbitration agreement and the arbitrability of any dispute;
- the courts that can exercise supervisory and supportive powers in relation to the arbitration¹¹; and
- the law that applies to any action to set aside or annul an arbitral award.¹²

Further, the seat of arbitration often determines, or at least influences, the nationalities or background of the arbitrators, the location of hearings and meetings, and the arbitral procedure, such as where there are imperative local legal norms to be respected.

The seat will normally be chosen by the parties in their arbitration clause or agreement but, failing this, may be selected by an arbitral institution¹³ or the arbitral tribunal.¹⁴

4. What criteria do parties and arbitral institutions use in selecting a seat or place of arbitration?

A 2015 international arbitration survey concluded that the three most important reasons given by users for selecting a certain seat were, in the following order:

- neutrality and impartiality of the local legal system;
- national arbitration law; and
- track record for enforcing agreements to arbitrate and arbitral awards.¹⁵

Similarly, in another study also conducted in 2015,¹⁶ the “key features of a safe seat were said to be: the level of experience and independence courts had in relation to arbitration (including how developed case law was in the area)”, along with the other criteria including “neutrality, speed, low corruption levels, good facilities, infrastructure and accessibility.”

According to other assessments of the criteria that parties value when selecting a seat of arbitration, the following attributes were put forward:

- modern and liberal arbitration law (e.g. one based on the UNCITRAL Model Law) and a judiciary supportive of arbitration and willing to enforce arbitral awards;
- ratification of the New York Convention (as practically all major trading nations have done), as this will facilitate international enforcement of any award;
- “neutrality” of the country in the sense that it is not the country of domicile or nationality of any of the parties to the dispute;
- availability of suitable rooms for hearings and hotel accommodations for the parties, their advisers and witnesses; and
- convenience and geographical accessibility with good communications and support facilities, such as transcription services, interpreters and the like.¹⁷

⁹ The New York Convention has been ratified by Finland and about 155 other countries.

¹⁰ Gary B. Born, *International Commercial Arbitration*, Wolters Kluwer (Volume II, Second Edition, 2014) (hereinafter “**Born**”), page 2055.

¹¹ Lew, Mistelis and Kröll, *Comparative International Arbitration Law*, Kluwer Law International, 2003 (hereinafter “**Lew, Mistelis & Kröll**”), page 172.

¹² Born, pages 2055-63.

¹³ Born, page 2067.

¹⁴ Lew, Mistelis & Kröll, page 172.

¹⁵ White & Case and Queen Mary School of International Arbitration, University of London, *2015 International Arbitration Survey: Improvements and Innovations in International Arbitration* (hereinafter the “**2015 Survey**”), page 14.

¹⁶ IBA Arb 40 Subcommittee, *The Current State and Future of International Arbitration: Regional Perspectives*, 2015, page 70.

¹⁷ Born, pages 2054-2063; Loukas A. Mistelis, *Part I: International Commercial Arbitration, Chapter 19: Arbitral Seats – Choices and Competition* in Stefan Kröll, Loukas A. Mistelis, *International Arbitration and International Commercial Law: Synergy, Convergence and Evolution*, pages 377-378.

A major reason why Switzerland has been a leading place of international arbitration (as mentioned below) has been its arbitration law:

“Switzerland is internationally recognized as ‘one of Europe’s, and the world’s, leading centres for international arbitration’. One of the main reasons for this success is certainly the country’s arbitration-friendly legislation.”¹⁸

Traditionally, the most popular places for an international arbitration have been Paris, Switzerland (Geneva or Zurich,) London, the United States (New York or Washington, D.C.), Singapore, Hong Kong and, in the Nordic countries, Stockholm.¹⁹ In this regard, a 2015 International Bar Association (“**IBA**”) study noted the following regarding Stockholm’s popularity as a seat of arbitration:

“Stockholm was also a popular choice, especially among the Nordic practitioners, and it was mentioned as being popular for disputes involving Russian and Chinese parties.”²⁰

However, with the steady growth of international commercial arbitration worldwide, other places of arbitration are gaining in importance, in particular following the modernization of their national arbitration laws.

5. Why should Finland want to be a popular place or seat for arbitration?

If Finland develops as an acceptable place for the conduct of an international arbitration, this will have multiple benefits for the country.

First, to the outside world, it will promote the image of Finland as a modern country which respects the rule of law and is a good place for the conduct of international business and, where necessary, legal proceedings. As a consequence, it will strengthen Finnish companies’ bargaining position to propose Helsinki as a place of arbitration for any future disputes, when they negotiate contracts with foreign parties. In the same vein, it will encourage international arbitral institutions (such as the ICC) and foreign parties to consider the selection of Helsinki as a good, neutral place of arbitration, where Finnish parties are not involved in the dispute.

Second, the increased selection of Helsinki as a place of arbitration will benefit the Finnish economy. It will promote more travel to, and business in, Finland, generating revenue for Finnish airlines and hospitality services, such as hotels, restaurants and conference facilities. As more arbitral and related court proceedings will be taking place in Finland and be subject to Finnish law, they will benefit the Finnish legal profession and associated personnel like foreign language interpreters and providers of transcription services.

¹⁸ Kaufmann-Kohler and Rigozzi, *International Arbitration: Law and Practice in Switzerland*, Oxford 2015, page 29.

¹⁹ Born, page 2026 and the 2015 Survey, page 12.

²⁰ IBA Arb 40 Subcommittee, *The Current State and Future of International Arbitration: Regional Perspectives*, 2015, page 70. Ironically, the growth of Stockholm as a popular place for resolving disputes involving Russian and Chinese parties appears to have resulted from an event not in Sweden but in Finland, namely the Helsinki Final Act of August 1, 1975, which was adopted by, among others, the U.S.S.R., the United States and numerous other Western countries including Finland. The participating states to the Helsinki Final Act expressly acknowledged that arbitration was an appropriate means of settling commercial disputes and that:

“provisions on arbitration should provide for arbitration under a mutually acceptable set of arbitration rules, and *permit arbitration in a third country...*” (emphasis added)

(See *Conference on Security and Co-Operation in Europe Final Act*, Helsinki 1975, available at <http://www.osce.org/helsinki-final-act>). Thereafter, pursuant to an exchange of letters between the American Arbitration Association and the U.S.S.R. Chamber of Commerce and Industry, an “Optional Clause for Use in U.S.-U.S.S.R Trade” became effective on January 12, 1977 (*American Arbitration Association-U.S.S.R. Chamber Of Commerce and Industry: Optional Arbitration Clause For Use In U.S.-U.S.S.R. Trade*, 16 I.L.M. 444, 1977). Two key elements of this clause are that it provides that (1) any arbitration would take place in Stockholm, Sweden (whereas Soviet parties had previously insisted on arbitration in Moscow), and (2) the arbitration would be under the UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules with the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce (“**SCC**”) as appointing authority (whereas Soviet parties had previously insisted on arbitration before the Foreign Trade Arbitration Association Commission of the U.S.S.R. Chamber of Commerce and Industry). Thereafter, not only were disputes between Soviet (and, subsequently, Russian) parties, on the one hand, and U.S. or other Western parties, on the other, often settled in Stockholm pursuant to this clause but, after communist China became active in international trade and investment in the 1980s, Chinese parties adopted the Soviet (and Russian) practice of having disputes with Western parties settled in Stockholm under the UNCITRAL Rules with the SCC as appointing authority as well. As a consequence and because of Sweden’s favorable statutory and judicial framework for arbitration, Stockholm became an attractive venue for arbitrations involving Chinese as well as Russian parties:

“Since the 1970’s, promoted by the US-USSR Optional Clause Agreement, and subsequently through the increased use of Stockholm as a venue for international arbitrations involving Chinese parties, Sweden and the Arbitration Institute of the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce have become an attractive place of international commercial arbitrations. This development could not have taken place without a well-functioning statutory and judicial framework.” (Emphasis added) (Jernej Sekolec and Nils Eliasson, *The UNCITRAL Model Law on Arbitration and the Swedish Arbitration Act: A Comparison* in Lars Heuman and Sigvard Jarvin (eds.) *The Swedish Arbitration Act of 1999, Five Years on: A Critical Review of Strengths and Weakness*, JurisNet 2016, page 171.)

6. What is wrong with Finland's arbitration law?

The Finnish Arbitration Act is relatively old compared to the arbitration laws in other countries as it dates from 1992. For example, all the other Nordic countries have modernized their arbitration laws since then.²¹ As the Finnish Act is old, it fails to address issues that are now commonplace in modern arbitration laws such as the principle of *compétence-compétence*, the autonomy of the arbitration clause, and the power of an arbitral tribunal to issue interim measures of protection. Apart from these matters, the Finnish Act stands in marked contrast to the best international standards, as reflected in the UNCITRAL Model Law, e.g. by imposing a rather strict and anachronistic writing requirement for arbitration agreements, containing various references to the Finnish Code of Judicial Procedure applicable to proceedings before the Finnish state courts (with respect to the challenge of arbitrators and the determination of the costs of arbitration), and allowing an arbitral award to be declared "null and void" on certain policy grounds regardless of any time limit (instead of allowing an award to be set aside only in a setting aside action brought within a specified time limit).²²

The Finnish Arbitration Act provides in Articles 53 and 55 more grounds for denying recognition and enforcement of foreign arbitral awards than the UNCITRAL Model Law (Article 36) which reflects Article V of the New York Convention. Thus, although Finland ratified the New York Convention in 1962, its domestic arbitration legislation is not, in fact, in compliance with it.

Furthermore, as relatively few international arbitrations take place in Finland, few international arbitration cases have been heard in the Finnish courts and, as such courts have limited experience in dealing with international arbitration cases, there is uncertainty about how international arbitration issues will be resolved by the Finnish court system.

Thus, if Finland wishes to develop its reputation as an acceptable seat of arbitration, it must engage in a wholesale reform of its international arbitration law.

The proponents of the Finnish Arbitration Act claim that the Act is "to a large extent compatible with" the Model Law²³ and see no need for a total reform of Finnish arbitration law.²⁴ But, with all due respect, Finland is not recognized by UNCITRAL as having adopted the UNCITRAL Model Law²⁵, although 73 states (103 jurisdictions) have been so recognized according to UNCITRAL.²⁶ In Scandinavia, these countries include both Denmark and Norway, the arbitration acts of which are based on the Model Law and apply to both international and domestic arbitrations.

What those distinguished scholars opposed to a wholesale reform of Finnish arbitration law fail to recognize or give weight to,²⁷ is that it is not just the content of Finnish law which must be modernized – *it is the perception of Finnish arbitration law by international arbitral institutions and foreign users of arbitration that must be fundamentally changed. Without this, Finland cannot hope to succeed in attracting many more international arbitrations to its shores (see discussion under questions 7 and 8 below).*

The reality is today that international arbitral institutions such as the ICC, perhaps the world's most important international arbitral institution, are unlikely to fix Finland as a place of arbitration.²⁸ In fact, the ICC has not done so once over the years 2005-2015 (see Table 2 below). At the same time, over the same period, the ICC has fixed Sweden as a place of arbitration 12 times and Denmark as a place of arbitration 10 times (see Table 2 below).

21 The arbitration laws of Denmark and Norway date from 2004 and 2005, respectively. Sweden adopted its Arbitration Act in 1999 and a revised Swedish Act is expected to enter into force in 2016. According to the terms of reference of the committee tasked with reviewing the Swedish Arbitration Act, "the primary motivation behind the review is to make arbitration in Sweden *even more attractive for both Swedish and international actors*" (emphasis added), Anja Havedal Ipp, *Time to Upgrade: Review of the Swedish Arbitration Act*, Kluwer Arbitration Blog. In this regard, Sweden proposes to go even beyond the Model Law to make itself attractive and provide that Swedish court proceedings:

"for setting aside awards should be conducted in English if a party so requests. According to this proposal, written submissions, written evidence and written examinations may be presented and conducted in English. The court's decisions, however, would still be rendered in Swedish – with a simultaneous English translation if requested." (Translations of most arbitration-related court decisions are already available at the Swedish Arbitration Portal (<http://www.arbitration.sccinstitute.com/swedish-arbitration-portal>)). Anja Havedal Ipp, *Time to Upgrade: Review of the Swedish Arbitration Act*, Kluwer Arbitration Blog.

22 The author is grateful to Ms. Heidi Merikalla-Teir, Secretary General, FAI, and Mr. Mika Savola, a Partner at Hannes Snellman Attorneys Ltd., Helsinki, for the comments on the Finnish Arbitration Act in this paragraph.

23 Gustaf Möller, *National Report for Finland* (2014) in Jan Paulsson and Lise Bosman (eds.) *ICCA International Handbook on Commercial Arbitration* (Kluwer Law, 2014) page 1.

24 Gustaf Möller, *Behovet av en översyn av Finlands lag om skiljeförfarande*, JFT 5-6/2015 [The Need to Review Finland's Arbitration Act].

25 The list of countries that have adopted the UNCITRAL Model Law is available at http://www.uncitral.org/uncitral/en/uncitral_texts/arbitration/1985Model_arbitration_status.html.

26 *Ibid.*

27 Gustaf Möller, in the work cited at footnote 24.

28 This has been confirmed in a telephone conversation with the ICC.

Table 2 – Arbitral Seats Fixed by the ICC Court

YEAR	DENMARK	FINLAND	NORWAY	SWEDEN
2005	0	0	0	1
2006	0	0	0	1
2007	0	0	0	4
2008	1	0	0	0
2009	0	0	0	0
2010	3	0	0	1
2011	3	0	0	3
2012	1	0	1	1
2013	0	0	0	0
2014	1	0	0	0
2015	1	0	0	1
TOTAL	10	0	1	12

The parties select the place of arbitration more often than institutions do²⁹ and they can be expected to have shown no greater inclination to select Finland as a place of arbitration than institutions. On the other hand, because of their generally greater current knowledge of arbitration laws and practices in different countries, arbitration institutions are more sophisticated in selecting places of arbitration than parties.

While Finland is not being chosen as a place of arbitration (at least by the ICC), Finnish parties are increasingly involved in ICC arbitrations and doubtless in other forms of international arbitration as well. Table 3 below shows 114 Finnish parties to have been involved in ICC arbitrations over the period 2005 to 2015.

As (1) Finnish parties are increasingly involved in international arbitrations, (2) Finland is not generally accepted by foreign users as a satisfactory place for an international arbitration, and (3) there are perceived to be satisfactory places nearby, Finnish parties are obliged to agree increasingly to arbitration abroad.

Thus, international cases that might otherwise be seated in Finland (because they involve a Finnish party or arbitrator or because Finland would be perceived as a neutral place of arbitration) take place elsewhere and, in particular, in its neighbour, Sweden. This is a loss for Finland's image and its economy, for Finnish companies doing business abroad and for the Finnish legal profession.

Table 3 – Number of Finnish Parties in ICC Arbitrations

YEAR	CLAIMANTS	RESPONDENTS	TOTAL
2005	8	2	10
2006	3	8	11
2007	3	3	6
2008	6	6	12
2009	8	3	11
2010	10	7	17
2011	10	2	12
2012	4	4	8
2013	8	7	15
2014	1	5	6
2015	1	5	6

²⁹ According to the ICC, in 88% of ICC cases in 2015 the place of arbitration was chosen by the parties and in 12% by the ICC Court. *ICC Dispute Resolution Bull.* 2016, n°1, page 9.

7. How can a country become attractive as a place for international arbitration?

The conditions for becoming attractive as a place for arbitration (assuming the country has already ratified the New York Convention, as almost all major trading nations, including Finland, have done) have already been alluded to (see answer to question 4 above). From a legal stand-point, they include:

- a modern, liberal, and well-recognized or accepted arbitration law;
- a corruption-free judiciary which is supportive of arbitration and willing to recognize and enforce arbitration awards, as demonstrated by a substantial body of case law; and
- a geographically convenient location with good facilities for hearings, technical support (transcription services and interpreters), accommodation, transportation and telecommunications.

The above elements are recognized as the desired infrastructure for an international arbitration. They enable parties to have the confidence and trust necessary to accept to conduct an arbitration at a given place.

As one authority has stated:

*“The most important factor is the formal legal infrastructure at the seat (62%), including both the national arbitration law but also the track record in enforcing agreements to arbitrate and arbitral awards in that jurisdiction and its neutrality and impartiality.”*³⁰ (Emphasis added)

Similarly, as another authority has stated:

*“Often most important, the arbitral seat must have both national arbitration legislation and courts that are supportive of international arbitration. As discussed above, both the arbitration legislation and the so-called procedural law of the arbitration (also sometimes referred to as the *lex arbitri* or curial law) are almost always that of the arbitral seat³¹.... Selecting an arbitral seat where arbitration legislation supports and facilitates the arbitral process, rather than obstructs or invalidates it, is essential.”*³² (Emphasis added)

While having a favorable infrastructure is essential to attract arbitrations, the Finnish arbitration community will need also actively to promote the advantages and desirability of conducting international arbitrations in Finland—a process that the FAI has already started and is actively pursuing.

As the current Secretary General of the ICC’s International Court of Arbitration has recently stated:

“Entering the number of the most popular destinations for international arbitration is often the result of coordinated measures, such as appropriate legislative and judicial reforms and the creation of dynamic and reliable arbitral institutions.”

The abovementioned analysis and observations show that *it is possible to ‘brand’ a jurisdiction and to enhance its reputation as an arbitration centre*, but also that there are clear limits to the results such an effort can achieve. These limits seem to rest *on the perceived neutrality and impartiality of the legal system of the seat and on the active support of the local arbitration community.*³³ (Emphasis added)

8. How can Finland become a more attractive place for international arbitration?

Finland must make itself attractive to international arbitral institutions and foreign legal practitioners and their clients who make use of international arbitration.³⁴ As stated in answer to question 6, *it is the perception of international arbitral institutions and foreign users of Finland’s laws, judiciary and general infrastructure for arbitration that is critical if they are to be persuaded to agree to site arbitrations in Finland*. At the same time, they must be convinced of this without (much) study—ideally, by only a glance—as it is a notorious fact that business people (and their lawyers) typically give minimal attention to an arbitration clause in a business contract. In fact, it is almost the last thing they think about with the result that such a clause is commonly referred to as the “midnight clause”.

30 Loukas A. Mistelis, *Part I: International Commercial Arbitration, Chapter 19: Arbitral Seats- Choices and Competition* in Stefan Michael Kröll, Loukas A. Mistelis, et al. (eds), *International Arbitration and International Commercial Law: Synergy, Convergence and Evolution* (Kluwer Law International, 2011), page 367.

31 Born, page 2056.

32 Born, pages 2056-57.

33 Andrea Carlevaris, *The Geography of International Arbitration – Places of Arbitration: The Old Ones and the New Ones*, a paper delivered at the 2015 Conference of the Queen Mary School of International Arbitration.

34 The perception of Finnish users is not that important, as they can be presumed to prefer Finland as it will be most convenient for them.

As a leading German authority, Professor Dr. Klaus Peter Berger, has described the situation:

“From an international perspective, arbitration laws are geared not so much to the domestic lawyer who is familiar with his or her legal system *but to the foreign party that expects an easy-to-read and easy-to-work-with arbitration law for its arbitration in a third, ‘neutral’ country.* It is for this reason that in the contemporary legal climate of international arbitration, *‘consumer satisfaction has assumed far greater importance than theoretical or structural purity’.*

*Thus, the law has to be familiar to the foreign practitioner. He has to recognize the law as a well-known set of rules and provisions, thus mitigating the fear of any local particularities hidden in the statute or in the commentaries.”*³⁵ (Emphasis added)

How does one convince a foreign party? As the legal environment is the most important consideration in selecting a place of arbitration,³⁶ the most obvious way to begin is by adopting an arbitration law that is universally recognized as representing the best practice in the field – the UNCITRAL Model Law – and familiar to everyone.

As a leading authority on international arbitration has stated, the Model Law is “the baseline for any state wishing to modernise its law of arbitration”.³⁷ As another authority has stated:

“Aware of the importance of the legal environment to the parties’ choice of the place of arbitration, numerous countries have in the last years enacted or revised their arbitration laws in order to keep abreast of modern arbitration standards and to attract more international arbitration proceedings. The UNCITRAL Model Law has played a decisive role in this process. In fact, this legal instrument was purposely conceived to assist states in reforming and modernizing their laws on arbitral procedure so as to take into consideration the specific features and needs of international commercial arbitration.”

UNCITRAL’s Explanatory Note to the Model Law describes its contents as follows:³⁸

“The Model Law covers all stages of the arbitral process from the arbitration agreement to the recognition and enforcement of the arbitral award and reflects a worldwide consensus on the principles and important issues of international arbitration practice. It is acceptable to states of all regions and the different legal or economic systems of the world. Since its adoption by UNCITRAL, the Model Law has come to represent the accepted international legislative standard for a modern arbitration law and a significant number of jurisdictions have enacted arbitration legislation based on the Model Law.”³⁹

The opponents to the adoption of the UNCITRAL Model Law in Finland seem to rely on the Swedish example, as Sweden attracts a significant number of international arbitration proceedings, yet it is not a Model Law country. But this is not a justified comparison. Adoption of the Model Law has not been an imperative for Sweden, just as it has not been an imperative for England, France or Switzerland, as each has been a well-established place for arbitration for decades, having laws and a judicial system that are known, and have long been accepted by, users of international arbitration. Furthermore, there exists in each of these countries a substantial body of case law providing foreign users with information as to how local courts will deal with international arbitration issues.

Moreover, the current Swedish Arbitration Act has its own deficiencies or issues. At least a dozen of these are identified in an English language summary of a report of a Swedish parliamentary committee appointed in 2014 to review the country’s arbitration law.⁴⁰ These deficiencies or issues include: that Swedish courts have concurrent jurisdiction with an arbitral tribunal to determine the arbitral tribunal’s jurisdiction⁴¹; the lack of provisions dealing with multi-party proceedings; and the failure to designate a single court with exclusive jurisdiction to consider applications for setting aside arbitral awards (as envisaged by the UNCITRAL Model Law⁴²).

35 Klaus Peter Berger, *Comment: An Outside Perspective in the conference of “Preventing and Managing International Commercial Disputes: Towards a EuroMed Alternative Dispute Resolution Infrastructure”* held in Rome (Italy), September 2007, available at <http://www.adrmeda.org/romeconference07/materials/ArbitrationinMEDACountries.pdf>.

36 Redfern & Hunter, page 271.

37 Redfern & Hunter, page 168.

38 Fernando Dias Simões, *Chapter 2: The Global Market of International Commercial Arbitration* in *Commercial Arbitration between China and the Portuguese-Speaking World*, Kluwer Law International 2014, page 67.

39 Holtzmann, Neuhaus, Kristjansdottir & Walsh, *A Guide to the 2006 Amendments to the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration*, Wolters Kluwer, page 793.

40 Official Government Report “Översyn av lagen om skiljeförfarande. Betänkande av Skiljeförfarandeutredningen” (SOU 2015:37), Summary pp.25-38

41 See for this provision, the author’s *Comment on Section 2 of the Swedish Arbitration Act of 1999 Dealing with the Right of Arbitrators to Rule on Their own Jurisdiction* comprising Chapter 2 of *The Swedish Arbitration Act of 1999, Five Years On: A Critical Review of Strengths and Weaknesses*, edited by Lars Heuman and Sigvard Jarvin, Juris Net, LLC, New York, 2006, pp. 45-59.

42 Article 6 and UNCITRAL, Report of the Secretary-General: *Analytical Commentary on Draft Text of a Model Law on International Arbitration*, A/CN.9/264 (25 March 1985, Vienna – p.20, para. 2).

For these reasons, Sweden is not a good model for Finland to follow on this subject. Conversely, a more suitable point of comparison, Norway, has appreciated the importance of being recognized as having adopted the UNCITRAL Model Law:

“the [Norwegian] Arbitration Act implements the UNCITRAL Model Law [...] indeed, obtaining such status was an important consideration for the legislature.”⁴³

9. What are the benefits for Finland of adopting the UNCITRAL Model Law?

As the Model Law is the dominant model law dealing with international commercial arbitration,⁴⁴ the main advantage of adopting it is that it will make Finland instantly recognizable around the world as having a modern and internationally acceptable law of arbitration and thus attractive to international arbitral institutions and foreign users of international arbitration. Another benefit is that it will relieve Finland from having to draft its own new arbitration law. All that would be required is translation of the Model Law into Finnish and Swedish. Further, as the Model Law has been applied and interpreted for decades by courts in the countries which have already adopted it, Finnish courts will benefit immediately from the existing body of case law which has interpreted the Model Law. This case law should be helpful given the limited experience of Finnish courts in dealing with international arbitration cases until now.

One of the main reasons countries have adopted the Model Law has been precisely to attract international arbitrations as can be seen from reports from the following countries active in international trade and investment which have done so: Germany, Singapore, Hong Kong and Australia.

A. Germany:

The German Ministry of Justice explained some of the reasons for adopting the UNCITRAL Model Law, as follows:

“If we want to reach the goal that Germany will be selected more frequently as the seat of international arbitrations in the future, *we have to provide foreign parties with a law that, by its outer appearance and by its contents, is in line with the framework of the Model Law that is so familiar all over the world.* This is necessary, in particular, in view of the fact *that in negotiating international contracts, usually not much time is spent on the drafting of the arbitration agreement. The purpose of the Model Law, to make a significant contribution to the unification of the law of international arbitration, can only be met if one is willing to prefer the goal of unification instead of a purely domestic approach* when it comes to the question of the necessity and the scope as well as to the determination of the contents of individual rules.”⁴⁵ (Emphasis added)

When the Commission formed by the German Federal Ministry of Justice started its work on a new arbitration law, two major decisions were agreed early:

“1. *Germany would accept the UNCITRAL Model Law literally and with as few modifications as possible in order to assure transparency for the non-German users of the law to whom the UNCITRAL Model was well known throughout the world.* 2. The law would be applicable both to domestic and to international arbitration in Germany to avoid the well-known difficulties arising from the distinction between these two.”⁴⁶ (Emphasis added)

As a result, today Germany has not only one of the most advanced arbitration laws but one which is also readily understandable and usable by foreign legal practitioners and their clients.

⁴³ K. Mrybakk and A. Ryssdal, National Report for Norway (2009) in Jan Paulsson and Lise Bosman (eds) ICCA International Handbook on Commercial Arbitration, Kluwer Law International 1984, Supplement No. 54, March 2009) page 1.

⁴⁴ Born, page 139.

⁴⁵ See Born, pages 138-139 referring to Bundestags-Drucksache No. 13/5274 of 12 July 1996, reprinted in K.P. Berger, The New German Arbitration Law 140 (1998), quoted in K.P. Berger, *The New German Arbitration Law in International Perspective*, 26 Forum Int'l 4 (2000). See also M. Krimpenfort, *Vorläufige und sichernde Maßnahmen in schiedsrichterlichen Verfahren* 4-5 (2001).

⁴⁶ Böckstiegel, Kroll and Nacimiento, *Arbitration in Germany, The Model Law in Practice*, Wolters Kluwer Law & Business, Foreword, Prof. Dr. G. Hermann.

B. Singapore:

Over the last years, the Singaporean government has been particularly responsive to legal developments in the field of international arbitration, emphatically promoting Singapore as an international arbitration center by showing a disposition to amend its laws whenever necessary.⁴⁷ The city-state has built a privileged reputation in the arbitration community for its capacity to update and improve arbitration legislation within a matter of months.⁴⁸ In Singapore, the Parliamentary Secretary, Ministry of Law, explained the rationale for the adoption of the Model Law in its International Arbitration Act 1994 as follows:

“Firstly, the Model *provides a sound and internationally accepted framework* for international commercial arbitrations. Secondly, *the general approach of the Model Law will appeal to international businessmen and lawyers*, especially those from Continental Europe, China, Indonesia, Japan and Vietnam who may be unfamiliar with English concepts of arbitration. This will work to Singapore’s advantage as our businessmen expand overseas. Thirdly, it will *promote Singapore’s role as a growing center for international legal services and international arbitrations.*”⁴⁹ (Emphasis added)

As one commentator has said “the overriding focus was to promote Singapore as an international arbitration centre, including amongst international businessmen and lawyers... unfamiliar with English concepts of arbitration.”⁵⁰

C. Hong Kong:

Accessibility is another important reason why a country should adopt the Model Law. For example, the Hong Kong Law Reform Commission concluded that “the Model Law... has the advantage of making [Hong Kong] law *internationally recognizable and accessible*” (emphasis added) and that:

“[the] primary reason for recommending the adoption of the Model Law... *is the need to make knowledge of our legal rules for international commercial arbitration*

*more accessible to the international community... We are convinced that it is much better [to avoid changes than] trying to improve what is already the result of many years work by an international group of experts.”*⁵¹ (Emphasis added)

Since its adoption of the Model Law in 2010, Hong Kong has seen an increase in international arbitration proceedings seated in its territory, being listed for the first time in 2015 among the most favored arbitration seats.⁵²

D. Australia:

John Hatzistergos, a prominent Australian politician and former solicitor, has described the advantages of the Model Law not just for international arbitration (Australia adopted it in 1989), but also for domestic arbitration. He recalled that “the UNCITRAL model law reflects *the accepted world standard* for arbitrating commercial disputes” (emphasis added) before explaining that:

“There are a number of good reasons for adopting the UNCITRAL model law as the basis for the domestic law. First, *the UNCITRAL model law has legitimacy and familiarity worldwide*. It has provided *an effective framework* for the conduct of international arbitrations in many jurisdictions, including Australia, *for over 24 years*. It provides a *well-understood procedural framework* to deal with issues such as the appointment of arbitrators, jurisdiction of arbitrators, conduct of arbitral proceedings and the makings of awards, and *therefore is easily adapted to the conduct of domestic arbitrations*. Indeed, jurisdictions such as New Zealand and Singapore have based their domestic arbitration legislation on the UNCITRAL model law, and it has proven appropriate.

Second, basing domestic commercial arbitration legislation on the UNCITRAL model law creates *national consistency in the regulation and conduct of international and domestic commercial arbitration*. The Commonwealth International Arbitration Act 1974 gives effect to the model law in relation to international arbitrations. Many businesses, including

47 Stephan Wilske, *The Global Competition for the ‘best’ Place of Arbitration for International Arbitrations – A More or Less Biased Review of the Usual Suspects and Recent Newcomers*, 1 Contemp. Asia Arb. J. (2008) page 50.

48 Singapore’s Minister for Law, K. Shanmugam, said in a public speech in June 2012: “(...) *there is the willpower of the government, the desire to make a change and create the right legislative framework*. So, we took the approach of consulting the industry, putting in whatever changes which were necessary, and in Singapore, *if we come across a problem, if the industry says this needs to be changed, we can change it legislatively within a matter of six to seven months, and we have done it several times. Our Courts are extremely supportive and are pro-arbitration*. But, as I shared this yesterday with a smaller group, *if we see a decision, and we have seen a couple that we feel that are not the most arbitration-friendly, not welcomed by the industry, we got on it and we legislatively changed it. And over a period of time, there is a framework, a system where both the Courts and the legislature work together. We don’t try to be thought leaders, because we don’t believe that we are at that stage in the arbitration sector, but we take the best practices around the world and we say we will incorporate from here. We consult very closely, regularly, with the industry both within Singapore and outside Singapore.*” (emphasis added and accessed 27 June 2016) – Singapore Ministry of Law, *Speech by Minister for Law, Mr K Shanmugam, at the Opening Plenary of the 21st Congress of the International Council for Commercial Arbitration*, available at <https://www.mlaw.gov.sg/news/speeches/speech-by-minister-for-law-mr-k-shanmugam-at-the-opening-plenary-of-the-21st-congress-of-the.html>.

49 Singapore Parliamentary Reports, vol. 63, col. 627 on the sitting of October 31, 1994.

50 Mohan R. Pillay, *The Singapore Arbitration Regime and the UNCITRAL Model Law*, Arb Int’l, Vol 20, no.4, pages 355 and 360.

51 Law Reform Commission of Hong Kong, *Report on the Adoption of the UNCITRAL Model Law of Arbitration*, pages 6 and 11 (1987).

52 The 2015 Survey, page 12. In a similar survey conducted in 2010, Hong Kong did not appear on the list of preferred seats. Queen Mary University of London, *2010 International Arbitration Survey: Choices in International Arbitration*, page 17.

legal ones, operate domestically and internationally, and one set of procedures for managing commercial disputes makes sense. Thirdly, *practitioners and courts will be able to draw on case law and practice in the Commonwealth and overseas to inform the interpretation and application of its provisions.*⁵³ (Emphasis added)

10. Why should Finland adopt the UNCITRAL Model Law without significant change?

While a number of factors are important in making a country attractive as a seat for international arbitration, the first one that should be taken into account is whether the country has a modern and liberal arbitration law, as explained above. Thus, the easiest and most efficient way for Finland to enhance its acceptability as a place for international arbitrations is to adopt—and, most importantly, to be recognized by UNCITRAL as having adopted—the UNCITRAL Model Law. Enacting the Model Law would make Finnish arbitration law as acceptable and welcoming to international arbitration as the laws of the most modern and popular centres of international commercial arbitration.

To optimize the positive perception that adoption of the Model Law would have in the international community, Finland must adopt the Model Law without significant change. Any departures from the Model Law are likely to be viewed with suspicion by the international community—the sole audience which really matters in so far as attracting international arbitrations is concerned—and risk undermining the positive impression that adoption of the Model Law would make.⁵⁴

The reports of Germany, Singapore and Hong Kong (in answer to question 9 above), all stress the importance of adopting the UNCITRAL Model Law with little or no change.⁵⁵

Adopting the Model Law with little or no change is especially important for a country like Finland which is not a major business center and which is little known in the field of international arbitration. Given the existence of well-established centers for international arbitration nearby (*e.g.* Stockholm) and the intense competition among countries to attract international arbitrations (not least by Sweden), reform of Finland's arbitration law will be completely unnoteworthy unless Finland adopts the Model Law without significant change. Finland should adopt the latest and best international practice (*i.e.* the Model Law) and acknowledge, like Singapore, that:

“We don't try to be thought leaders, because we don't believe that we are at that stage in the arbitration sector, but take the best practices around the world”.⁵⁶

and incorporate them into Finnish law.

Indeed, if Finland is serious about wishing to attract international arbitrations (as is hoped), Finland should not just adopt the Model Law, as some 73 states are reported already to have done, but consider what additional measures it might take to make Finland attractive for international arbitrations. For example, as mentioned in footnote 21 above, Sweden is not just updating its already widely accepted arbitration law but is envisaging that Swedish court proceedings to set aside arbitral awards should be conducted in English if a party so requests. In the interests of Finland's image abroad and its economy, Finland should be thinking of similar or other initiatives to make it attractive for international arbitrations and not limit its reform to adoption of the Model Law.

⁵³ NSW, Parliamentary Debates, Legislative Assembly, 12 May 2010, 22432-35 (Hon John Hatzistergos, Attorney-General). Accessible at www.parliament.nsw.gov.au.

⁵⁴ This point was emphasized by Mr. Andrea Carlevaris of the ICC in his speech in Helsinki on HIAD, May 26, 2016.

⁵⁵ Indeed, if Finland should depart significantly from the Model Law, it would repeat the mistake it made in 1992 when UNCITRAL refused to recognize Finland as a Model Law country. Since then, as we have seen, international arbitral institutions and international legal practitioners and their clients have generally shunned Finland as a place for an international arbitration. As Finland had (unlike *e.g.* Norway, see answer to question 8 above) neglected to attach importance to foreign or international perceptions of its law on arbitration – taking instead an inward-looking approach – it has lost to Sweden and other established arbitration centers cases that could otherwise have come to Finland.

⁵⁶ See footnote 48 above.

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