



# **Ex post evaluation of the implementation of the Trade Agreement between the EU and its Member States and Colombia, Peru and Ecuador**

Draft Final Report – Vol. II: Annexes

October 2021

Prepared by BKP Economic Advisors

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**EUROPEAN COMMISSION**

Directorate-General for Trade  
Directorate D — The Americas, Agriculture and Food Safety  
Unit D2, Latin America

*European Commission  
B-1049 Brussels*

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Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2021

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## ACRONYMS

AAA	Autoridades Administrativas del Agua (Administrative Authorities for Water, Peru)	DIAN	Dirección de Impuestos y Aduanas Nacionales (Colombian tax and customs authority)
ACP	African, Caribbean, Pacific		
AEO	Authorised Economic Operator	DIGESA	Dirección General de Salud Ambiental (General Directorate of Environmental Health)
AILAC	Asociación Independiente de América Latina y el Caribe (Association of Latin America and the Caribbean)	DNP	Departamento Nacional de Planeación (National Planning Department)
ALA	Autoridades Locales del Agua (Local Water Administrations, Peru)	EC, ECU	Ecuador
AMR	Antimicrobial Resistance	ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ANA	Autoridad Nacional del Agua (National Water Authority, Peru)	EESC	European Economic and Social Committee
ASTAC	Asociación Sindical de Trabajadores Agrícolas Bananeros y Campesinos (Association of Agricultural, Banana and Rural Workers, Ecuador)	EFIC	Estrategia Nacional de Financiamiento Climático (National Strategy for Climate Finance, Ecuador)
BATIS	Balanced Trade in Services	EMA	European Medicines Agency
BAU	Business as usual	ENB	Política y Estrategia Nacional de Biodiversidad del Ecuador (National Biodiversity Strategy)
BIT	Bilateral Investment Treaty		
BTSF	Better Training for Safer Food	ENCA	Estrategia Nacional de la Calidad del Agua (National Strategy for Water Quality)
CAGR	Compound Annual Growth Rate		
CAN	Comunidad Andina de Naciones (Andean Community)	ENCC	Estrategia Nacional de Cambio Climático del Ecuador (Climate Change National Strategy of Ecuador 2012-2025)
CAR	Corporación Autónoma Regional (Regional environmental authority)	ENDB	Estrategia Nacional de Diversidad Biológica al 2021 y su Plan de Acción (National Biodiversity Strategy and its Action Plan)
CAT	Convention against Torture		
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity	EP	European Parliament
CE	Circular Economy	EPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency.
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women		
CEPAL	Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean)	EPI	Environmental Performance Index
CEPF	Critical Ecosystem Partnership Fund	EQ	Evaluation Question
CESCR	Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights	EQS	Estándares de Calidad Ambiental (Environmental Quality Standards)
CGE	Computable General Equilibrium	EU	European Union
CICC	Comisión Intersectorial de Cambio Climático (Intersectoral Commission on Climate Change, Colombia)	EUIPO	European Union Intellectual Property Office
		EUR	Euro
		FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
		FTA	Free Trade Agreement
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora	GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
		GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
		GDP	Gross Domestic Product
CNCC	Comisión Nacional sobre el Cambio Climático (National Commission on Climate Change, Peru)	GESTA	Grupos de Estudio Técnico Ambiental (Environmental Technical Study Groups)
CO, COL	Colombia	GHG	Greenhouse gases
COA	Código Orgánico del Ambiente (Organic Code of the Environment)	GIS	Geographical Indications
CPI	Consumer Price Index	GMOs	Genetically Modified Organisms
CPTPP	Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership	GPA	Government Procurement Agreement
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the <i>Child</i>	GSIM	Global Simulation
CRHC	Consejos de Recursos Hídricos de Cuenca (Cuenca Water Resources Councils)	GSP	Generalised Scheme of Preferences
CRI	Climate Risk Index	GTAP	Global Trade Analysis Project
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	GWP	Global Warming Potential
		HHI	Herfindahl-Hirschman Index
		HRIA	Human Rights Impact Assessment
		HS	Harmonised System
		ICCPR	<i>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights</i>
CSD	Civil Society Dialogue	ICE	Internal combustion engine
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility	ICERD	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
DAG	Domestic Advisory Group		
DANE	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (National Administrative Department of Statistics, Colombia)	ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
DCC	Domestic Consultative Council	ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
DG	Directorate-General	IDEAM	Instituto de Hidrología, Meteorología y Estudios Ambientales (Institute of

	Hydrology, Meteorology and Environmental Studies, Colombia)	PGA	Plan de Gestión Ambiental (Environmental Management Plan)
ILO	International Labour Organisation	PIGCCT	Planes Integrales de Gestión del Cambio Climático Territoriales (Comprehensive Territorial Climate Change Management Plans)
INDECOPI	Instituto Nacional de Defensa de la Competencia y de la Protección de la Propiedad Intelectual ( <i>National Institute of the Defense of Competition and Intellectual Property Protection, Peru</i> )	PLANRES	Plan Nacional de Gestión Integral de Residuos Sólidos (National Plan for Integrated Solid Waste Management 2016-2024)
INEC	Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos (National Institute of Statistics and Census, Ecuador)	PM	Particulate Matter
INEI	Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Informática (National Institute of Statistics and Informatics, Peru)	PNCA	Plan Nacional de la Calidad del Aire (National Plan of Air Quality)
IPR	Intellectual Property Rights	PNCC	Política Nacional de Cambio climático (National Policy on Climate Change of Colombia)
IUU	Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated		
LAC	Latin America and Caribbean	PNGIBSE	Política Nacional para la Gestión Integral de la Biodiversidad y sus Servicios Ecosistémicos (National Policy for the Comprehensive Management of Biodiversity and its Ecosystem Services)
LAIA	Latin American Integration Association		
LDC	Least Developed Country		
LGBTI	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Intersex		
LORHUyA	Ley Orgánica de Recursos Hídricos, Usos y Aprovechamiento del Agua (Law on Water Resources and the Use of Water)	PNN	Parques Nacionales Naturales (System of National Natural Parks)
LULUCF	Land use, land-use change and forestry	POT	Plan de Ordenamiento Territorial (Territorial Ordering Plans)
MAE	Ministerio del Ambiente y Agua (Ministry of Environment and Water, Ecuador)	PRODUCE	Ministerio de la Producción (Ministry of Production)
MENA	Middle East and North Africa	PSB	Program SocioBosque
MERCOSUR	Mercado Común del Sur	RAPEX	Rapid Alert System for dangerous non-food products
MFN	Most-Favoured Nation		
MINAGRI	Ministerio de Desarrollo Agrario y Riego (Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation, Peru)	RASFF	Rapid Alert System for Food and Feed
MINAM	Ministerio del Ambiente del Perú (Ministry of the Environment of Peru)	RBC	Responsible Business Conduct
Min-ambiente	Ministerio de Ambiente y Desarrollo Sostenible (Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development of Colombia)	REACH	Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals
MINCETUR	Ministerio de Comercio Exterior y Turismo (Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism, Peru)	REDD	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
MINCIT	Ministerio de Comercio, Industria y Turismo (Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, Colombia)	RFZ	Forest Reserves Zones
MPCEIP	Ministerio de Producción Comercio Exterior Inversiones y Pesca (Ministry of Production, Foreign Trade, Investments and Fisheries, Ecuador)	RoO	Rules of Origin
MRL	Maximum Residue Limit	SCC	Subsecretaría de Cambio Climático (Secretary of Climate Change, Ecuador)
MSME	Micro, Small, or Medium-sized Enterprise	SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
NDC	National Determined Contributions	SDT	Special and Differential Treatment
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation	SENAGUA	Secretaría Nacional del Agua (Executive Authority of Water Resources, Ecuador)
NTB	Non-Tariff Barrier	SENAMHI	Servicio Nacional de Meteorología e Hidrología del Perú (National Service of Meteorology and Hydrology, Peru)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development	SENASA	Servicio Nacional de Sanidad Agraria (National Service of Agrarian Health, Peru)
OEFA	Organismo de Evaluación y Fiscalización Ambiental (Environmental Assessment and Enforcement Agency)	SERCOP	Servicio Nacional de Contratación Pública (National Procurement Service, Ecuador)
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights	SIA	Sustainability Impact Assessment
OR	Outermost Region	SIC	Superintendency of Industry and Commerce, Colombia
OSCE	Organismo Supervisor de las Contrataciones del Estado (Supervisory Body for State Contracting, Peru)	SIECA	Secretaría de Integración Económica Centroamericana (Secretariat for Central American Economic Integration)
PA	Paris Agreement	SIMAP	Information System for Public Procurement, EU
PAB	Plan de Acción de Biodiversidad (Biodiversity Action Plan)	SINA	Sistema Nacional Ambiental (National Environmental System)
PCDA	Political Cooperation and Dialogue Agreement	SINANPE	Sistema Nacional de Áreas Naturales Protegidas por el Estado (Natural Protected Areas System)
PE, PER	Peru	SINAP	Sistema Nacional de Áreas Protegidas (National System of Protected Areas)
PEN	Peruvian Sol	SISCLIMA	Sistema Nacional de Cambio Climático (National Information System on Climate Change)
		SME	Small or Medium-sized Enterprise

SNGRH	Sistema Nacional de Gestión de Recursos Hídrico (National Water Resources Management System)	TRQ	Tariff Rate Quota
SNI	Sociedad Nacional de Industrias (National Industry Society)	TSD	Trade and Sustainable Development
SPS	Sanitary and Phyto-Sanitary	TULAS	Texto Unificado de Legislación Secundaria, Medio Ambiente (Secondary Environmental Legislation of the Ministry of Environment)
SUNAFIL	Superintendencia Nacional de Fiscalización Laboral (National Labour Inspection Authority, Peru)	UN	United Nations
SVCA	Sistema de Vigilancia y Control Ambiental (Air Quality Surveillance System)	UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
TBT	Technical Barriers to Trade	UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
TED	Tenders Electronic Daily	US	United States
ToR	Terms of Reference	USD	United States Dollar
TRACES	Trade Control & Expert <i>System</i>	VFN	Vegetables, Fruits and Nuts
TRIPS	Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights	WHO	World Health Organization
		WTO	World Trade Organisation

## **ANNEX A: DESCRIPTION OF THE EU-COLOMBIA/PERU/ECUADOR TRADE AGREEMENT**

### *1.1.1 Context of the Agreement Negotiations*

The Andean Community is a regional integration bloc founded in 1969 and currently comprising four countries: Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru<sup>1</sup>. It was established with the signing of the Cartagena Agreement (Andean Subregional Integration Agreement), which aimed at creating a customs union and a common market among the members. The free trade area created by the four members became fully operational in 2006, after Peru was fully incorporated.

EU cooperation with the Andean Community can be traced back to the Andean Community Cooperation Agreement of 1983, which established a Joint European Community–Andean Community Committee. In 1993, the Framework Cooperation Agreement between the European Communities and the Andean Community was agreed and strengthened in 1996 by the Declaration of Rome<sup>2</sup>, which institutionalised the political dialogue between the two Parties. Under this framework, a Political Cooperation and Dialogue Agreement (PCDA) between the EU and Andean Community was adopted in 2003<sup>3</sup>. The 2003 PCDA (which was ultimately withdrawn following the approval of a new PCDA in February 2016<sup>4</sup>) was negotiated with the intention of further promoting cooperation between the Parties on a wide range of topics. Specifically, Article 2 of the PCDA referred to the Parties' objective to work towards creating the conditions under which a feasible and mutually beneficial Association Agreement, including a Free Trade Agreement, could be negotiated.

Negotiations between the EU and the Andean Community for a region-to-region Association Agreement, including political dialogue, cooperation and trade were launched in June 2007. The negotiations were however suspended in June 2008 after disagreements among Andean countries on approaches to a number of key trade issues. A new negotiating format was put in place offering a thematic and geographical split of these negotiations: (i) continued regional negotiations between the EU and the Andean Community as a whole on political dialogue and cooperation (an update of the above-mentioned PCDA, which at the time was awaiting final ratification) and (ii) "multi-party" trade negotiations between the EU and any member of the Andean Community willing to reach an ambitious, comprehensive and balanced Trade Agreement compatible with the WTO. The latter started with three of the Andean Community countries – Colombia, Ecuador and Peru – in February 2009.

At the time of these negotiations, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru (as well as Bolivia) were benefitting from unilateral preferential access to the EU market under the EU's Generalised Scheme of Preferences (GSP), specifically the GSP+ arrangement. However, the three countries faced (unlike Bolivia) the prospect of losing GSP status as a result of the upcoming reform of the GSP: one of the objectives of the proposed reform was to focus the GSP preferences on the countries most in need and specifically, it was anticipated that countries "classified by the World Bank as a high-income or an upper-middle income country during three consecutive years immediately preceding the update of the list of beneficiary countries" would no longer be eligible to benefit from the scheme<sup>5</sup>. Based on this criterion – which was indeed included in the final version of the new GSP Regulation

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<sup>1</sup> Chile was a founding member of the original Andean Pact in 1969 but withdrew in 1976; Venezuela joined in 1973 but withdrew in 2006.

<sup>2</sup> Joint Declaration on Political Dialogue between the European Union and the Andean Community.

<sup>3</sup> COM (2003) 695.

<sup>4</sup> Joint proposal JOIN/2016/04 final of 3 February 2016; see section 2.4.

<sup>5</sup> COM(2011)241, Proposal for a Regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council applying a scheme of generalised tariff preferences, 10.5.2011.

adopted in 2012<sup>6</sup> – Colombia, Ecuador and Peru were expected to no longer be eligible for GSP references as of 2014. This meant that in the absence of a trade agreement with the EU, the three Andean countries were running the risk of losing preferential access to EU markets and facing Most Favoured Nation (MFN) tariffs instead.

The EU, Colombia and Peru reached an agreement on the key elements of a trade deal in March 2010 after nine negotiation rounds. The conclusion of negotiations was formally announced in May 2010 during the VI European Union, Latin America and the Caribbean (EU-LAC) Summit held in Madrid. Peruvian authorities declared at the time that the Agreement was part of a comprehensive trade strategy that sought to turn Peru into an exporting country, consolidating more markets for its products, developing a competitive exportable offer and promoting trade and investment; in this context, they also highlighted that the EU was the main provider of foreign investment in Peru (especially in the telecommunications, energy, mining and financial sectors) and that the Agreement would consolidate free entry for export products such as asparagus, paprika and silver, among others<sup>7</sup>. Colombia's Ministry of Trade declared that the trade agreement with the EU would allow Colombia to achieve a preferential and permanent relationship with a key player in the global economy, which was also Colombia's second largest trading partner and the second largest investor in the country. The Ministry noted that the Agreement would grant duty-free access to the EU market for 99.9% of Colombia's industrial exports and for several agricultural goods such as flowers, tobacco, coffee and processed products, biofuels, palm oil, and most fruits and vegetables, among others. The Ministry also put emphasis on the fact that Colombia achieved a reduction of the tariff for bananas (which would provide preferential access over other EU banana suppliers facing MFN tariff) and that the Agreement would include measures to protect the Colombian dairy sector and give it time to become competitive vis-à-vis European dairy firms.<sup>8</sup>

The EU-Colombia/Peru Trade Agreement was initialled in March 2011, with EU Trade Commissioner declaring that it would 'create a foothold for European business in the area and an anchor for structural reforms in the countries concerned', and noting that the Agreement also 'recognised that the EU's partnership with Colombia and Peru is based on the respect of democratic principles and fundamental human rights'.<sup>9</sup> The Agreement was

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<sup>6</sup> Regulation (EU) No. 978/2012 applying a scheme of generalised tariff preferences and repealing Council Regulation (EC) No 732/2008.

<sup>7</sup> Presidencia de la República del Perú, Press release, 19 May 2020.

<sup>8</sup> Cancillería de Colombia, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Press release, 19 May 2020.

<sup>9</sup> In June 2012, the European Parliament adopted a Resolution on the Agreement, which recognised the economic importance for the EU, Colombia and Peru of the Agreement insofar as it promotes comprehensive economic development and creates new trade and investment opportunities for operators on all sides, welcomed in this context the commitment of the Parties towards sustainable development, and acknowledged the value of the human rights clauses and the TSD Title. However, in order to contribute to the full completion of the objectives, the Resolution also made recommendations on a number of aspects considered to be particularly sensitive in the Peruvian and Colombia domestic contexts. These recommendations related in particular to the improvement of the respect for human rights and labour rights as well as environment protection in Colombia and Peru. Specifically, the Resolution called on Colombia and Peru to ensure the establishment of a transparent and binding roadmap on human, environmental and labour rights, specifying that it should be aimed essentially at safeguarding human rights, enhancing and improving trade unionists' rights and protecting the environment. In response to this, both Colombia and Peru presented action plans aimed at addressing the relevant issues in October 2012. Reflecting concern about the degree to which the roadmap has been implemented, as highlighted in a 2018 European Parliamentary Research Service study (EPRS and ICEI 2018), the need to implement, effectively and through concrete action plans, the specific provisions related to the agreed roadmap was stressed again by the European Parliament in its Resolution of 16 January 2019 on the implementation of the Agreement. See European Parliament resolution of 13 June 2012 on the EU trade agreement with Colombia and Peru (2012/2628(RSP)), and European Parliament resolution of 16 January 2019 on the implementation of the Trade Agreement between the European Union and Colombia and Peru (2018/2010(INI)).

then signed in June 2012 and has been provisionally applied with Peru since March 2013 and with Colombia since August 2013.<sup>10</sup>

In 2013, negotiations resumed with Ecuador for its accession to the Agreement and the negotiations were concluded in July 2014. Ecuador's Ministry of Trade stated at the time that the agreement reached was "a balanced agreement, which maximized opportunities, minimized costs, respected Ecuador's development model and protected Ecuador's sensitive sectors."<sup>11</sup> EU Trade Commissioner declared that Ecuador's accession to the Agreement would provide for a solid and predictable framework for Ecuadorian and European traders and investors and would also contribute to regional integration in one of the fastest-growing markets for European firms in Latin America.<sup>12</sup> The Protocol of Accession for Ecuador was signed in November 2016 and has been provisionally applied since 1 January 2017.

Full entry into force of the Agreement is pending ratification by all EU Member States, which is still ongoing.<sup>13</sup>

Pursuant to article 329 of the Agreement, Bolivia, as a member of the Andean Community, can also seek accession to the Agreement in the future; meanwhile, Bolivia benefits from unilateral preferential access to the EU market under the current GSP+ arrangement which is in place until the end of 2023.

### *1.1.2 Structure of the Agreement*

The EU's Trade Agreement with Colombia, Peru and Ecuador is together with the EU-Korea free trade agreement (FTA) one of the first of a new generation of FTAs, characterised by their comprehensive nature and high level of ambition. The Agreement aims at opening markets for goods, services, investment and government procurement. The Agreement is not only about market access and tariff preferences: it also establishes a set of trade rules (e.g. on non-tariff barriers, competition, and intellectual property rights), which aim to go further than the commitments taken within the framework of the World Trade Organisation (WTO).

The Agreement contains 14 titles, 14 annexes, and joint declarations by the Parties (Box A-1).

The Agreement initially signed in June 2012 by EU, Colombia and Peru was complemented in 2016 by a **Protocol of Accession of Ecuador to the EU-Colombia/Peru Trade Agreement**, which provided for the addition of specific provisions to take account of the accession of Ecuador<sup>14</sup>, but without modifying the overall structure of the Agreement, and for specific market access commitments between the EU and Ecuador.

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<sup>10</sup> By virtue of Article 3(1) of the Council Decision of 31 May 2012 on the signing and provisional application of the Agreement, the EU does not apply provisionally Articles 2 (Disarmament and non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction), 202(1) (provisions on Intellectual Property Rights), 291 (administrative proceedings) and 292 (review and appeal) of the Agreement, pending the completion of the procedures for its conclusion.

<sup>11</sup> "Ecuador cerró su acuerdo con la Unión Europea", El Comercio, 17 July 2014.

<sup>12</sup> European Commission, Press Release IP/14/845, 17 July 2014.

<sup>13</sup> Belgium has not yet ratified the Agreement; for details on the ratification status, see <https://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/documents-publications/treaties-agreements/agreement/?id=2011057>

<sup>14</sup> E.g.: 1. Annotations to the Text of the Agreement; 2. Provisions related to Market Access for Goods (Tariff elimination schedule of the EU party for goods originating in Ecuador; Tariff elimination schedule of Ecuador for goods originating in the EU Party); Annotations to the Annex concerning the definition of the concept of "originating products" and methods for administrative cooperation; Provisions related to Market Access for Trade in Services (a. List of Commitments on Establishment (Commitments of the EU Party and of Ecuador); b. List of Commitments on Cross-Border Supply of Services (Commitments of the EU Party and of Ecuador); c. Reservations regarding Temporary Presence of Natural Persons for Business Purposes: Reservations on Key

Furthermore, the Agreement was amended through the “Additional Protocol to the Trade Agreement between the EU and its Member States, of the one part, and Colombia and Peru, of the other part, to take account of the accession of the Republic of Croatia to the EU,” which was adopted in June 2016. This additional Protocol allowed Croatia to formally become part of the Agreement and provided for the amendment of several parts of the Agreement to account for the accession of Croatia (e.g. the Annexes related to trade in services such as the lists of commitments on establishment and cross-border supply of services, of the reservations regarding the temporary presence of natural persons for business purposes, etc.). It has been applied with Peru since 1<sup>st</sup> May 2017.<sup>15</sup>

#### **Box A-1: Structure of the EU-Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Trade Agreement**

- **Title I:** Initial provisions
- **Title II:** Institutional provisions
- **Title III:** Trade in goods
- **Title IV:** Trade in services, establishment and electronic commerce
- **Title V:** Current payments and movement of capital
- **Title VI:** Government procurement
- **Title VII:** Intellectual property
- **Title VIII:** Competition
- **Title IX:** Trade and sustainable development
- **Title X:** Transparency and administrative proceedings
- **Title XI:** General exceptions
- **Title XII:** Dispute settlement
- **Title XIII:** Technical assistance and trade-capacity building
- **Title XIV:** Final provisions
- **Annexes:**
  - Annex I: Tariff elimination schedules
  - Annex II: Concerning the definition of the concept of originating products and methods of administrative cooperation
  - Annex III: Special provisions on administrative cooperation
  - Annex IV: Agricultural safeguard measures
  - Annex V: Mutual assistance in customs matters
  - Annex VI: Sanitary and phytosanitary (SPS) measures
  - Annex VII: List of commitments on establishment
  - Annex VIII: List of commitments on cross-border supply of services
  - Annex IX: Reservations regarding temporary presence of natural persons for business purposes
  - Annex X: Enquiry points regarding trade in services, establishment and electronic commerce
  - Annex XI: Understanding concerning subparagraph (B) of the definition of ‘services supplied in the exercise of governmental authority’ as referred to in Article 152 of the Agreement.
  - Annex XII: Government procurement
  - Annex XIII List of geographical indications
  - Annex XIV: Mediation mechanism for non-tariff measures
- Joint Declarations by the Parties

Key features of the Agreement can be summarised as follows, Title by Title.

**Title I** of the Agreement contains **general principles, provisions and definitions**, and in particular defines the objectives of the Agreement, which can be summarised as follows: (a) progressive and gradual liberalisation of trade in goods; (b) facilitation of trade in goods through the application of provisions on customs and trade facilitation, standards, technical regulations and conformity assessment procedures and SPS measures; (c) progressive liberalisation of trade in services; (d) development of an environment conducive to an increase in investment flows and in particular to the improvement of the conditions of establishment; (e) facilitate trade and investment through the liberalisation of current payments and capital movements related to direct investment; (f) effective and reciprocal opening of government procurement markets; (g) adequate and effective protection of IP rights; (h) conduct of economic activities in conformity with the principle of free

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Personnel and Graduate Trainees (Commitments of the EU Party and of Ecuador); d. Reservations regarding Temporary Presence of Natural Persons for Business Purposes: Reservations on Contractual Services Suppliers and Independent Professionals (Commitments of the EU Party and of Ecuador); 5. Provisions related to Government Procurement (Commitments of the EU Party and of Ecuador).

<sup>15</sup> OJ L 113, 29.4.2017, page 1



competition; (i) establishment of an expeditious, effective and predictable dispute settlement mechanism; (j) promote international trade in a way that contributes to the objective of sustainable development; and (k) ensure that the cooperation for technical assistance and the strengthening of the trade capacities of the Parties contribute to the implementation of the Agreement and the optimal utilization of the opportunities it offers (Article 4).

**Title II** addresses **institutional arrangements** as well as decision-making and coordination aspects. In particular, it establishes and defines the functions of the Trade Committee and also provides for the establishment of eight thematic Sub-committees acting as specialised bodies (Articles 12, 13 and 15).

**Title III** covers **trade in goods** and comprises the following chapters:

- Chapter 1 concerns **market access for goods**. It presents provisions on the elimination of customs duties and is complemented by **Annex I**, which provides the Parties' tariff elimination schedules. The Agreement offers tariff-free access for trade in virtually all industrial and fishery products between the Parties, and substantial tariff preferences for the few agricultural products which were not fully liberalised, with very few exceptions. In relation to non-tariff measures, the Parties agree to: not adopt or maintain any import or export quantitative restrictions); not adopt or maintain any duty or tax, other than internal charges applied in conformity with national treatment; make available and maintain updated information of all fees and charges imposed in connection with importation or exportation; ensure that import and export licensing procedures must be WTO compliant; and to ensure that state trading enterprises do not operate in a manner that creates obstacles to trade (Articles 23-27). The chapter also includes specific provisions on trade in agricultural goods (Articles 28-33) – including, *inter alia*, a provision for signatory Andean countries to use a safeguard specifically designed for certain agricultural products (Article 29) – and on the management of administrative errors (Article 34). Related annexes include: **Annex II**, which concerns the definition of the concept of originating products and methods of administrative cooperation; **Annex III**, which includes special provisions on administrative cooperation; and **Annex IV**, which lists per Party the agricultural goods that may be subject to safeguard measures.
- Chapter 2 covers **trade remedies**. It discusses anti-dumping and countervailing measures, multilateral safeguard measures, and includes provisions for a bilateral safeguard that can be enacted if, as a result of concessions under the Agreement, a product originating in the country of one Party is being imported into the territory of another Party in such increased quantities as could cause or threaten to cause serious damage to domestic producers of similar or directly competing products (Articles 48-57).
- **Chapter 3 covers customs and trade facilitation** and looks to increase transparency and promote the facilitation of trade by simplifying customs procedures, e.g. through the use of a single administrative document for the purposes of filing customs declarations (Article 59), the adoption of risk management systems for customs inspections (Article 61), the implementation of the Authorised Economic Operator concept according to the WCO SAFE framework (Article 62), etc. It is complemented by **Annex V**, which includes specific provisions on mutual assistance in customs matters.
- Chapter 4 on **Technical barriers to trade (TBT)** reaffirms rights and obligations under the WTO TBT Agreement and aims to improving upon these through cooperation and improved procedural measures. The chapter provides for systematic cooperation on market surveillance and improvements to transparency, with a view to improve communication in the area of technical regulations, standards, conformity assessment and accreditation. It also includes concrete and targeted provisions, such as specific disciplines on labelling that limit the amount of information that can be required on a

permanent label, with a view to prevent overly burdensome and unnecessary labels (Article 81).

- Chapter 5 on **Sanitary and phytosanitary (SPS) measures** reaffirms rights and obligations under the WTO SPS Agreement (Article 86) and aims to improve upon these in areas such as the regionalisation of animal diseases and pests (Article 94), and the transparency of import requirements and procedures (Articles 91-92). The chapter sets out detailed procedural measures aimed at promoting cooperation, facilitating trade and dealing with any barriers to trade that arise in a swift manner (Articles 92-104). It is complemented by **Annex VI**, which identifies competent authorities and contact points (Appendices 1 and 4), defines requirements and provisions for approval of establishment of products of animal origin (Appendix 2), and sets guidelines for conducting verifications (Appendix 3).
- Chapter 6 (Article 105) commits the EU on the one hand, and the signatory Andean countries on the other, to facilitating the free movement of goods from other Parties among their respective territories, with specific indications for signatory Andean countries with respect to customs, TBT and SPS matters.
- Finally, Chapter 7 (Article 107) sets exceptions to the Title, e.g. concerning measures related to: public order; protection of human, animal or plant life or health; trade of gold and silver; protection of national treasures of artistic, historic or archaeological value; conservation of living and non-living exhaustible natural resources; etc.

**Title IV** covers **trade in services, establishment and electronic commerce**, and is complemented by annexes that detail the Parties' commitments according to the four modes of supply (**Annex VII** includes the list of commitments on establishment (Mode 3), **Annex VIII** the list of commitments on cross-border supply of services (Modes 1 & 2), and **Annex IX** the reservations regarding temporary presence of natural persons for business purposes (Mode 4)) or provide additional information (**Annex X** lists the relevant enquiry points, while **Annex XI** provides a clarification on the definition of 'services supplied in the exercise of governmental authority', including specific commitments from Peru in this area). The Agreement makes advances in opening markets for services and investment, with commitments – using a combination of positive and negative listing approach – that go well beyond those made by the Parties under the WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). In addition, the Title sets regulatory principles for selected sectors such as computer services, postal and courier services, telecommunications, financial services, maritime transport services and electronic commerce (Articles 129-166).

**Title V** concerns **current payments and movement of capital** and stipulates that the Parties shall not impose restrictions on payments and transfers between their residents and must facilitate the free movement of capital (with some exceptions such as circumstances where payments and capital movements cause, or threaten to cause, serious difficulties for the operation of exchange rate policy or monetary policy, or the liquidity of the economy – in which case, the Parties may temporarily adopt safeguard measures; Article 170).

**Title VI** covers **government procurement** and is complemented by **Annex XII**, which details the commitments of Parties in this area (e.g. procuring entities covered, threshold for the value of contracts above which the provisions apply, any procurement that is excluded, as well as key features of the process for awarding procurement contracts). The Agreement provides for the Parties to have non-discriminatory access to public procurement procedures within the scope of covered procurement, as defined in the market access commitments and above financial thresholds equivalent to those set by the WTO Government Procurement Agreement (GPA) and outlines general principles and rules for ensuring transparency and cooperation. Colombia, Peru and Ecuador commit to grant full access to the procurement of local municipalities in addition to that of central authorities above the pre-determined financial thresholds. In turn, Colombian, Peruvian and

Ecuadorian bidders are granted access to the procurement of EU central and sub-central authorities, for goods, services and works concessions (Annex XII, Appendix 1).

**Title VII** covers **intellectual property**. It reaffirms the Parties' commitments to various relevant multilateral agreements (e.g. WTO TRIPS Agreement, Convention on Biological Diversity, Berne and Rome Conventions for copyright, WIPO copyright and performances and phonograms treaties, Budapest Treaty for patents, etc.) and sets standards on the protection of intellectual property rights (IPR), including trademarks, geographical indications, copyright and related rights, designs, patents, plant varieties, and includes provisions on the protection of test data for pharmaceuticals and plant protection products (Articles 202-232). The list of geographical indications to be protected (more than 100 for the EU, 2 for Colombia, 4 for Peru, 2 for Ecuador) is provided in **Annex XIII**. The Title also addresses enforcement measures for cases of infringement of IPR by specifying rules on civil and administrative procedures as well as border enforcement measures (Articles 235-249) and on the liability of intermediary service providers (Articles 250-254).

**Title VIII** concerns **competition** in the economies of the Parties. Under this Title, the Parties commit to maintaining comprehensive competition laws and appropriately equipped competition authorities (Article 260). The Parties also commit to banning through their respective legislation the most harmful anticompetitive practices such as restrictive agreements, concerted practices, abuse of dominance and concentrations of companies that significantly impede effective competition (Articles 259). The Title also stipulates that with regard to state enterprises and designated monopolies no Party shall adopt or maintain any measure contrary to the provisions of the Title which distorts trade and investment between the Parties (Articles 263).

**Title IX** covers **trade and sustainable development (TSD)**. The inclusion of commitments on TSD is a feature of the new generation of trade agreements signed by the EU. These include commitments to effectively implement core labour standards, as contained in the ILO Fundamental Conventions, and eight key multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs) (Articles 269 and 270). In addition, the Title includes also specific provisions in relation to various thematic areas such as: biodiversity; sustainable forest management; illegal fishing; climate change issues; non-discrimination in working conditions, including those of legally employed migrant workers (Articles 272-276). The Agreement establishes a regular dialogue with civil society (Article 282). With a view to settle disagreements between the Parties on matters of compliance related to the Title IX commitments, the Agreement establishes a dedicated dispute settlement mechanism (consisting of initial governmental consultations aimed at arriving at a mutually satisfactory resolution of the matter, and if necessary, the establishment of a Group of Experts to examine the matter and formulate recommendations; Articles 283-285).

**Title X** contains provisions on **transparency and administrative proceedings**. Among other things, the Parties commit to (i) ensuring that their measures of general application (e.g. laws, regulations, procedures and administrative rulings) relating to matters covered by the Agreement are promptly published or otherwise made readily available to interested persons; and (ii) providing reasonable opportunities for those interested to comment on proposed measures, and examining such comments, provided they are relevant (Article 288). Particular attention is paid to transparency on subsidies through a dedicated article in which each Party commits *inter alia* to submitting a report every two years to the other Parties regarding the legal basis, form, amount or budget and where possible, the recipient of subsidies granted by its government or any public body (Article 293).

**Title XI** defines **general exceptions** to the Agreement related to the Parties' essential security interests (Article 295) and taxation measures (Article 296), as well as situations when Parties experience serious external financial or balance of payment difficulties (Article 297).

**Title XII** covers **dispute settlement**. Specifically, this title details the dispute settlement procedures, which entails consultations, arbitration proceedings, and the delivery of an arbitration panel ruling that is binding upon the Parties (Articles 301-309). It also outlines remedies and related procedures in case of non-compliance with the arbitration ruling (Articles 310-311). This title is complemented by **Annex XIV**, which details a specific mediation mechanism for non-tariff measures.

**Title XIII** covers **technical assistance and trade-capacity building**. Under this title, the Parties agree to strengthen cooperation that contributes to the implementation of this Agreement and making the most of it, e.g. initiatives aimed at: improving trade and investment opportunities, fostering competitiveness and innovation, as well as the modernisation of production, trade facilitation and the transfer of technology; promoting the development of MSMEs, using trade as a tool for reducing poverty; promoting fair and equitable trade, facilitating access to the benefits of the Agreement for all production sectors, the weakest in particular; strengthening commercial and institutional capacities; and addressing the needs of cooperation identified in other parts of the Agreement (Article 324).

**Title XIV** contains **general and final provisions**, including on the possible accession of new Member States to the EU (e.g. after Croatia joined the EU in July 2013<sup>16</sup>) or for the accession to the Agreement by other Member countries of the Andean Community (e.g. when Ecuador joined the Agreement in January 2017, or if Bolivia also seeks accession to the Agreement in the future) (Article 329).

#### *1.1.3 Institutional set-up of the Agreement*

Together, the Trade Committee and a number of specialised Sub-committees oversee the implementation of the Agreement.

The supervision and facilitation of the operation and further development of the Agreement – including the evaluation of results obtained from the application of the Agreement – is under the direct responsibility of the **Trade Committee**, which comprises representatives of the EU and representatives of each signatory Andean Country. The Committee also supervises the work of all specialised bodies (e.g. the Sub-committees) established under the Agreement. The decisions adopted by the Committee are binding upon the Parties, which are to take all necessary measures to implement them. The Trade Committee is scheduled to meet at least once a year.

The Agreement also established the eight following specialised Sub-committees:

- **Sub-committee on Market Access:** The sub-committee is responsible for: promoting trade in goods between the Parties, e.g. through consultations on accelerating and broadening the scope of tariff elimination under the Agreement; addressing any non-tariff measure which may restrict trade in goods between the Parties and, if appropriate, referring such matters to the Trade Committee for its consideration; providing advice and recommendations to the Trade Committee on cooperation needs regarding market access matters; consulting on and seeking to resolve any difference that may arise between the Parties on matters related to amendments to the Harmonized System, including the classification of goods, to ensure that the obligations of each Party are not altered (Article 35).
- **Sub-committee on Agriculture:** The sub-committee's functions include: monitoring and promoting cooperation on the implementation of the Section on agricultural goods, in order to facilitate the trade of agricultural goods between the Parties; resolving any

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<sup>16</sup> An "Additional Protocol to the Trade Agreement between the EU and its Member States, of the one part, and Colombia and Peru, of the other part, to take account of the accession of the Republic of Croatia to the EU" was adopted in June 2016.

unjustified obstacle in the trade of agricultural goods between the Parties; consulting on matters related to agricultural goods in coordination with other relevant sub-committees or any other specialised body under the Agreement; evaluating the development of agricultural trade between the Parties and the impact of the Agreement on the agricultural sector of each Party, as well as the operation of the instruments of the Agreement, and recommending any appropriate action to the Trade Committee (Article 36).

- **Sub-committee on Customs, Trade Facilitation and Rules of Origin:** The sub-committee is responsible for monitoring the implementation and administration of the chapter on customs and trade facilitation and the related Annex II. Its functions include: providing a forum to consult and discuss on all issues relating to customs, rules of origin (e.g. requests for cumulation of origin) and administrative cooperation; enhancing cooperation on the development, application and enforcement of customs procedures, mutual administrative assistance in customs matters, rules of origin and administrative cooperation; submit to the Trade Committee proposals for modifications to Annex II for their adoption; endeavour to reach mutually satisfactory solutions when differences arise between the Parties, e.g. regarding the tariff classification of goods (Article 68).
- **Sub-committee on Technical Obstacles to Trade:** The sub-committee is responsible for the follow up and evaluation of the implementation of / compliance with the TBT chapter. Its functions include: consulting on and addressing any issue arising under the chapter and the TBT Agreement (and if necessary, establish working groups to deal with specific matters); identification of priorities on cooperation matters and technical assistance programmes in the area of TBT and assessment of progress or results obtained; exchanging information on the work carried out in nongovernmental, regional and multilateral fora involved in activities relating to TBT; facilitate dialogue and cooperation between the regulators; revising the chapter in light of any developments under the TBT Agreement and of the decisions or recommendations of the WTO Committee on Technical Barriers to Trade, and making suggestions on possible amendments to the chapter (Article 83).
- **Sub-committee on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures:** The sub-committee's functions include: development and monitoring of the SPS chapter; providing a forum for discussing problems arising from the application of SPS measures and the application of the SPS chapter, and identifying possible solutions; discussing the need to establish joint study programmes; identifying cooperation needs; and conducting consultations concerning the settlement of disputes regarding SPS measures or special and differential treatment (Article 103).
- **Sub-committee on Government Procurement:** The sub-committee is responsible for: evaluating the implementation of the Title on government procurement (e.g. the use of the opportunities offered by increased access to government procurement) and recommending to the Parties the appropriate activities; evaluating and following up the cooperation activities that the Parties submit; and considering further negotiations aimed at broadening the coverage of the Title (Article 194).
- **Sub-committee on Intellectual Property:** the sub-committee is responsible for the follow-up on the implementation of the provisions of the IP chapter. Specifically, if a party wishes to add new geographical indications, the sub-committee is responsible for assessing the information and for proposing to the Trade Committee the modification of the lists of geographical indications in Annex XIII of the Agreement (Article 257).
- **Sub-committee on Trade and Sustainable Development (TSD):** The sub-committee is responsible for monitoring the implementation of the TSD Title and identifying actions for the achievement of the objectives of sustainable development. Specifically, its functions include: submitting to the Trade Committee recommendations for properly implementing and making the best use of the TSD Title, identifying areas of cooperation and verifying the effective implementation of cooperation, assessing the impact of the implementation of the Agreement on labour and environment, and resolving any other matter within the scope of application of the TSD Title (Article 280).

The Sub-committees meet on an annual basis and as mentioned above must report their activities to the Trade Committee.

#### 1.1.4 Operational context of the implementation of the Agreement

Since the application of the Agreement, a number of changes in the trade context have taken place, globally and for the Parties. These are important for the evaluation to keep in mind when assessing the impact (to the extent possible), coherence and relevance of the Agreement. Major changes directly relevant for the Agreement are summarised in this section.

#### **EU trade context**

The EU's Trade Agreement with Colombia, Peru and Ecuador forms part of the EU's political and economic engagement with Latin America and is one of a number of trade deals concluded with countries in this region. The Agreement – together with the Association Agreement between the EU and Central America,<sup>17</sup> which was also signed in 2012 and is provisionally applied since 2013 – marked the beginning of negotiations of further 'new generation' FTAs with Latin American partners, such as:

- The relaunch in 2016 of the negotiations of an FTA between the EU and MERCOSUR States (Argentina, Brazil Paraguay and Uruguay), for which an agreement in principle was reached on the trade part on 28 June 2019.
- The negotiations on the modernisation of the EU-Mexico Global Agreement, which began in 2016 and for which an agreement in principle was reached on the trade part on 21 April 2018 and supplemented with the agreement on coverage of public procurement (sub-central) reached on 28 April 2020.
- The ongoing negotiations on the modernisation of the EU-Chile Association Agreement, which started in 2017.

At the overall policy level, the European Commission presented in October 2015 the new EU trade and investment strategy "Trade for All: Towards a more responsible trade and investment policy",<sup>18</sup> which *inter alia* aimed at updating trade policy to take account of the new economic realities such as global value chains, the digital economy and the importance of services; touched upon the issues of competition, e-commerce, protecting innovation and regulatory cooperation; and announced a commitment to greater transparency in regards to trade negotiations as well as a commitment to using EU trade policy to promote sustainable development and human rights.

Most recently, on 16 June 2020, the European Commission launched a major review of EU trade policy aimed at determining the medium-term direction for EU trade policy, responding to a variety of new global challenges and taking into account the lessons learned from the coronavirus crisis. The rationale for this review is the Commission's belief that a strong EU "needs a strong trade and investment policy to support economic recovery, create quality jobs, protect European companies from unfair practices at home and abroad, and ensure coherence with broader priorities in the areas of sustainability, climate change, the digital economy and security."

#### **Colombia, Peru and Ecuador trade context**

Besides being founding members of the Andean Community, Colombia, Peru and Ecuador are members of the Latin American Integration Association (LAIA), under which framework

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<sup>17</sup> The Association Agreement includes a trade pillar, which not only covers tariff elimination but also areas such as government procurement, services, investment and sustainable development. The Central American countries are: Panama, Guatemala, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua.

<sup>18</sup> COM(2015)497 of 14 October 2015.



they have signed several partial scope agreements with members<sup>19</sup> and non-member partners.

In addition, Colombia and Peru, together with Mexico and Chile, have signed in June 2012 a Framework Agreement establishing a common area for political and trade integration and cooperation, known as the Pacific Alliance. The Trade Protocol of the Pacific Alliance,<sup>20</sup> which constitutes an FTA, was signed in 2014 and entered into force in May 2016. As far as trade is concerned, the Pacific Alliance seeks a higher degree of integration in comparison with the bilateral agreements that already exists among its member countries. Under this framework, negotiations began in 2017 on a free trade agreement with Australia, Canada, New Zealand and Singapore, which are candidates for associate membership of the Pacific Alliance. In July 2018, the Republic of Korea was admitted as a new candidate Associate State, and Ecuador expressed its interest in becoming an Associate State. Ecuador is progressing towards becoming an Associated country and subsequently full member. The negotiation of a trade agreement with Mexico – a prerequisite for association – is underway and the negotiations of a trade agreement with Chile have been concluded. On 25 September 2019, a Joint Declaration on a partnership between the States Parties to the Framework Agreement of the Pacific Alliance and the European Union was adopted, and its implementation is ongoing.

Table A-1 lists all the FTAs involving Colombia, Peru and Ecuador that were signed or entered into force since 2012. With respect to ongoing FTA negotiations and in addition to the negotiations under the Pacific Alliance mentioned above: Peru is currently negotiating an agreement with India, the “optimisation” of its agreement with China and the deepening of its agreement with Argentina; and Colombia has started negotiations with Japan and Turkey.

### **Political dialogue between the Parties**

In June 2016, a Joint Proposal for the conclusion of a new Political Dialogue and Cooperation Agreement (PDCA) between the EU and the Andean Community was adopted.<sup>21</sup> It replaced the 2003 Proposal for a PDCA<sup>22</sup> (see section 1.1.1) which was withdrawn.<sup>23</sup> The new PDCA – which has not been ratified so far – aims at institutionalising and strengthening the political dialogue between the Parties and broadens cooperation to include new areas such as human rights, conflict prevention, migration as well as the fight against drugs and terrorism. Special emphasis is placed on cooperation in support of the process of regional integration in the Andean Community.

At the bilateral level, the EU holds with each of the three Andean countries a High-Level Political Dialogue (HLPD) on an annual basis, which allows high-level officials to exchange ideas to strengthen and deepen bilateral relations and develop a political and cooperation agenda. In the case of Colombia, a specific Dialogue on Human Rights between the EU and the Government of Colombia was also established in 2009 (new Terms of Reference for the dialogue were adopted in September 2012). With Peru a specific Human Rights Dialogue was established in 2019 with the adoption of Terms of Reference by the Council. Similar Terms of Reference for an EU-Ecuador Human Rights Dialogue were adopted in January 2020.

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<sup>19</sup> The LAIA member countries are Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Venezuela and Uruguay.

<sup>20</sup> *Protocolo Adicional al Acuerdo Marco de la Alianza del Pacífico*.

<sup>21</sup> JOIN(2016) 4 final. Joint proposal for a Council decision on the conclusion of a Political Dialogue and Cooperation Agreement between the European Community and its Member States, of the one part, and the Andean Community and its Member Countries (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela), of the other part.

<sup>22</sup> COM(2003) 695.

<sup>23</sup> [https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/cwp\\_2018\\_annex\\_iv\\_en.pdf](https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/cwp_2018_annex_iv_en.pdf).

**Table A-1: Overview of Colombia's, Peru's and Ecuador's trade agreement signed or entered into force since 2012**

Colombia	Peru	Ecuador
<i>Trade agreements in force:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pacific Alliance (signed: 2014; entry into force: 2016)</li> <li>• Costa Rica (signed: 2013; entry into force: 2016)</li> <li>• Rep. of Korea (signed: 2013; entry into force: 2016)</li> <li>• United States (signed: 2006; entry into force: 2012)</li> <li>• European Free Trade Association, EFTA (signed: 2008; entry into force: 2011/2014<sup>24</sup>)</li> <li>• MERCOSUR (signed: 2017; entry into force: 2017/2018)</li> <li>• Venezuela (signed: 2011; entry into force: 2012)</li> <li>• Israel (signed: 2013; entry into force: 11 Aug 2020)</li> </ul> <i>Trade agreements signed but not yet in force:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Kingdom (signed: 2019)</li> <li>• Panama (signed: 2013)</li> </ul>	<i>Trade agreements in force:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia (signed: 2018; entry into force: 2020)</li> <li>• Honduras (signed: 2015; entry into force: 2017)</li> <li>• Pacific Alliance (signed: 2014; entry into force: 2016)</li> <li>• Japan (signed: 2011; entry into force: 2012)</li> <li>• Costa Rica (signed: 2011; entry into force: 2013)</li> <li>• Panama (signed: 2011; entry into force: 2012)</li> <li>• Mexico (signed: 2011; entry into force: 2012)</li> <li>• Venezuela (signed: 2012; entry into force: 2013)</li> </ul> <i>Trade agreements signed but not yet in force:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Kingdom (signed: 2019)</li> <li>• Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership, CPTPP<sup>25</sup> (signed: 2018)</li> <li>• Brazil (signed: 2016)</li> </ul>	<i>Trade agreements in force:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Guatemala (signed: 2011; entry into force: 2013)</li> <li>• Nicaragua (signed: 2016; entry into force: 2018)</li> <li>• El Salvador (signed: 2017; entry into force: 2018)</li> </ul> <i>Trade agreements signed but not yet in force:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Kingdom (signed: 2019)</li> <li>• EFTA (signed: 2018)</li> </ul>

<sup>24</sup> The FTA came into effect for Switzerland and Liechtenstein in 2011, and for Iceland and Norway in 2014.

<sup>25</sup> The signatory countries are Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Chile, Malaysia, Mexico, Japan, New Zealand, Peru, Singapore and Viet Nam



## ANNEX B: ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

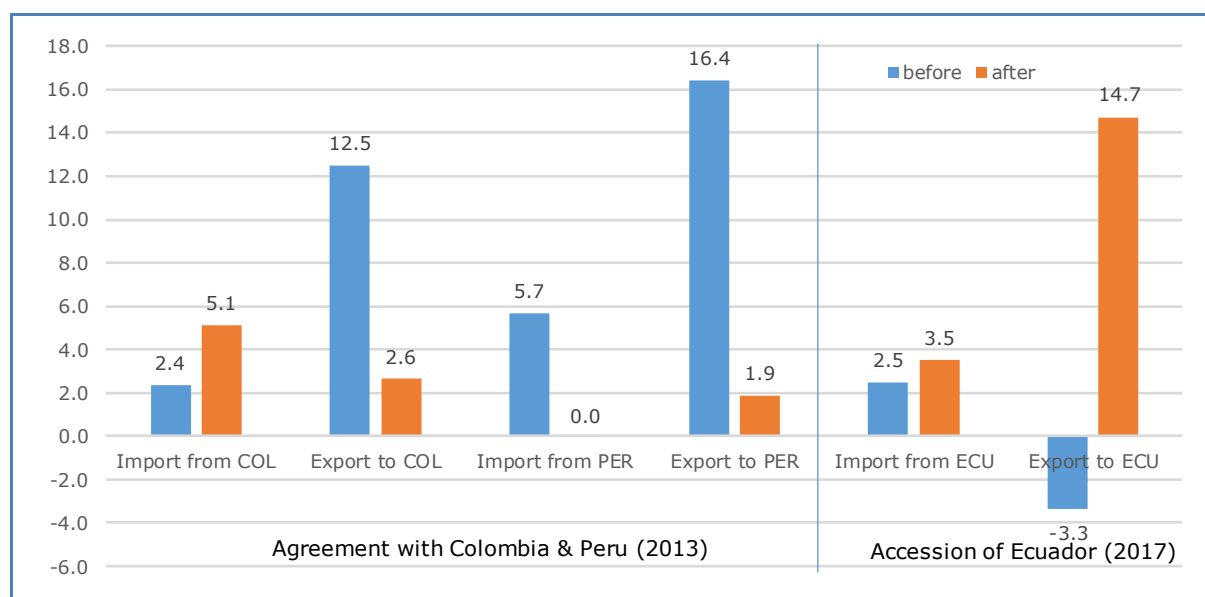
### Annex B-1: Descriptive statistical analysis of trade between the Parties

#### 1.1.1 Overall trade

##### Bilateral trade growth rates over time

Figure 1 compares the average 5-year pre- and post-Agreement growth rates in bilateral non-mineral fuels trade between the Parties. The theoretical expectation (holding all other factors constant) is that growth rates of trade in both directions since the start of the Agreement are higher than prior to its start. This is the case for only three of the six bilateral trade directions: EU28 imports from Colombia (which increased from 2.4% growth per year prior to the Agreement to an average 5.1% growth during the Agreement period), and EU28 trade with Ecuador (the average growth of imports from Ecuador increased from 2.5% to 3.5%, and export growth to Ecuador changed from -3.3% to +14.7%). For the other three trade relations, growth slowed down considerably since the entry into force of the Agreement. As noted before, however, these observations on actual trade developments do not allow a conclusion about the performance of the Agreement, because in reality “all other factors” affecting trade have precisely not been constant.

**Figure 1: Comparison of average annual growth rates of EU28 bilateral non-mineral fuels trade with partners before and after the Agreement’s entry into force (%)**



Note: Non-mineral fuels trade is total trade less HS27. For Colombia and Peru, “before” refers to CAGR for 2007-2012, and “after” to CAGR for 2012-2019. For Ecuador, “before” refers to CAGR for 2012-2016, and “after” to CAGR for 2016-2019.

Source: Authors’ calculations based on COMEXT database.

##### Shares of bilateral trade between the Parties in the Parties’ total trade

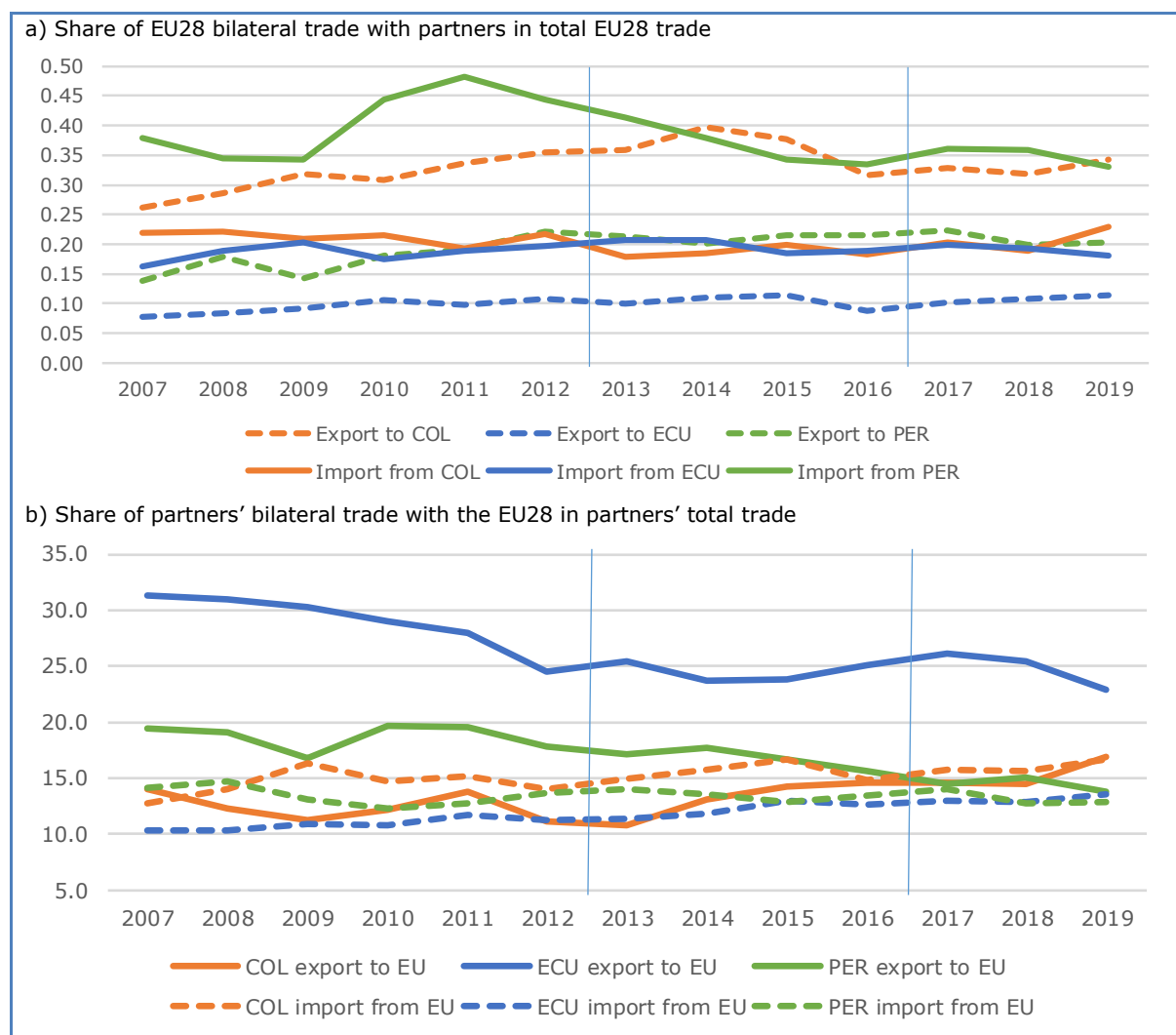
A further indication of the Agreement’s effect on trade between the Parties is to compare the performance of bilateral trade with the Parties’ total trade and their trade with selected trading partners. Figure 2 shows how the share of bilateral trade between the EU and partners in total trade evolved since 2007.

From the EU perspective, Figure 2a shows, first, the relatively limited importance of the three partner countries – in terms of market size in an aggregated perspective – both for the EU’s exports and imports: none of the trade relations with partners has reached 0.5% of the EU’s total trade in any year of the period 2007 to 2019. Second, Ecuador and Peru

are relatively more important suppliers than destinations for the EU, as indicated by shares of imports being higher than export shares, whereas for Colombia the opposite is true. Third, over time the share of imports from Peru in the EU's total imports continued to decline until 2015, and has stabilised since. The share of EU exports to Colombia in the EU's total exports, which had shown an increasing trend before the Agreement reached a peak in 2014 and then declined. For exports to Peru, as well as imports from Colombia and Ecuador, shares have been roughly constant throughout the whole twelve-year period considered. The share of EU exports to Ecuador in the EU's total exports shows an increasing trend since 2016, following a drop in 2016 due to Ecuador's recession in that year.

From the three partners' perspective (Figure 2b), the EU is a considerably more important trade partner. In recent years, with the exception of Ecuadorean exports, of which about one quarter are destined for the EU, the EU has accounted for about 15% of exports and imports of the three countries. The entry into force of the Agreement is hardly discernible in the data, with one exception: the share of imports from the EU in total imports has been mostly flat since 2007 for Colombia and Peru, and slightly but steadily growing for Ecuador. The EU's importance as an export market for Peru and Ecuador has declined during the Agreement period, while the share of Colombia's exports to the EU in its total exports increased from 10.2% in 2013 to 16.9% in 2019.

**Figure 2: Share of bilateral trade between the EU and partners in total trade, 2007-2019 (%) - non-mineral fuels trade (total less HS27)**



Source: Authors' calculations based on COMEXT database (a) and UN COMTRADE (b).

### 1.1.2 Trade by sector/product

The following tables and figures show the EU's imports from, and exports to, the three Andean partner countries at the HS chapter level and at a more disaggregated product level.

**Table 2: EU imports from partner countries, top ten HS chapters, 2012-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19
<b>Colombia</b>	<b>4,111</b>	<b>5,082</b>	<b>4,004</b>	<b>4,413</b>	<b>6,964</b>	<b>8,211</b>	<b>7,517</b>	<b>8,099</b>	<b>6,697</b>	<b>5,392</b>	<b>5,532</b>	<b>5,038</b>	<b>4,239</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>14.8</b>	<b>-10.0</b>	<b>-7.7</b>	<b>-9.0</b>
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	689	856	826	821	814	830	810	777	959	977	1,094	1,037	1,095	11%	26%	3.8	4.2	3.9	4.0
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	1,691	2,599	2,065	2,331	4,579	5,911	5,508	5,892	3,938	2,807	2,514	2,111	922	73%	22%	28.4	-17.0	-31.0	-23.3
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or	22	24	19	62	97	75	43	63	104	69	91	246	622	1%	15%	27.5	-2.3	108.3	35.2
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	518	526	324	307	491	406	370	518	627	589	613	491	517	5%	12%	-4.8	9.8	-4.3	3.5
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and t	125	166	55	19	111	67	89	113	174	232	373	337	291	1%	7%	-11.7	36.2	7.9	23.3
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roo	119	121	113	121	113	125	124	148	155	155	150	163	176	2%	4%	0.9	5.5	4.3	5.0
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	16	13	16	14	34	19	32	42	43	52	51	42	66	0%	2%	3.2	29.3	8.5	19.9
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery an	12	11	14	21	18	18	36	41	48	35	100	48	55	0%	1%	7.8	18.0	16.3	17.2
72 Iron and steel	514	330	185	299	250	300	53	36	84	20	64	79	55	1%	1%	-10.2	-49.1	39.7	-21.5
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	31	32	34	38	44	45	37	34	50	48	47	48	52	0%	1%	7.5	1.9	2.3	2.1
Others	373	402	353	381	413	416	416	435	515	408	435	437	388	6%	9%	2.2	-0.5	-1.6	-1.0
<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>1,798</b>	<b>2,135</b>	<b>1,922</b>	<b>2,035</b>	<b>2,363</b>	<b>2,468</b>	<b>2,568</b>	<b>2,621</b>	<b>2,595</b>	<b>2,719</b>	<b>3,018</b>	<b>3,032</b>	<b>3,021</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>2.9</b>
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	746	840	821	776	869	817	782	853	856	812	951	1,031	956	30%	32%	1.8	-0.2	5.6	2.3
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crus	299	435	323	310	389	495	576	459	435	458	666	656	702	22%	23%	10.6	-1.9	15.3	5.1
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and oth	260	333	284	373	442	449	490	607	593	661	675	657	670	19%	22%	11.5	10.2	0.5	5.9
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roo	115	133	127	136	143	155	150	171	188	188	186	205	214	6%	7%	6.0	5.0	4.4	4.8
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	86	85	85	137	130	119	94	118	153	212	184	160	187	4%	6%	6.6	15.6	-4.2	6.6
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	82	75	86	86	83	83	81	99	100	101	74	75	67	3%	2%	0.1	5.1	-12.9	-3.0
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood char	39	41	26	25	28	28	26	28	38	46	42	38	43	1%	1%	-6.3	13.1	-2.1	6.3
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	46	56	53	63	77	123	110	95	100	74	71	46	37	4%	1%	21.5	-11.8	-20.6	-15.7
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots an	24	27	26	28	28	25	22	22	27	26	25	25	26	1%	1%	0.1	1.9	0.0	1.0
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco sub	14	7	6	6	10	17	18	19	20	26	21	20	17	1%	1%	3.7	11.5	-13.5	0.0
Others	85	104	84	95	165	159	219	150	85	114	124	118	101	9%	3%	13.4	-8.0	-3.9	-6.3
<b>Peru</b>	<b>4,192</b>	<b>3,803</b>	<b>3,202</b>	<b>5,183</b>	<b>6,390</b>	<b>6,113</b>	<b>5,114</b>	<b>4,853</b>	<b>5,021</b>	<b>5,152</b>	<b>6,122</b>	<b>6,043</b>	<b>5,739</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>-4.2</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>-0.9</b>
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	145	210	204	262	351	409	527	567	757	917	1,013	1,200	1,361	10%	24%	23.0	22.4	14.1	18.7
26 Ores, slag and ash	1,610	1,313	1,023	2,034	2,241	2,036	1,681	1,471	1,395	1,261	1,845	1,624	1,331	33%	23%	4.8	-11.3	1.8	-5.9
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	254	323	325	484	665	580	394	377	374	409	399	363	371	8%	6%	18.0	-8.4	-3.2	-6.2
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and oth	138	142	125	182	213	191	192	239	262	247	261	308	323	4%	6%	6.7	6.7	9.3	7.8
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	0	0	0	122	444	722	362	259	238	373	674	474	274	7%	5%	1164.9	-15.2	-9.7	-12.9
74 Copper and articles thereof	689	490	308	510	673	424	341	289	318	230	275	276	251	7%	4%	-9.3	-14.2	3.0	-7.2
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	163	169	130	150	191	182	188	210	226	234	227	224	229	4%	4%	2.3	6.5	-0.7	3.4
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots an	123	130	123	139	152	172	173	176	203	210	200	212	227	3%	4%	7.0	5.1	2.5	4.0
79 Zinc and articles thereof	106	59	40	55	103	127	130	122	168	185	233	258	210	3%	4%	3.5	10.0	4.2	7.5
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	22	33	33	31	38	55	65	87	152	192	127	110	126	1%	2%	20.2	36.8	-13.0	12.7
Others	943	935	891	1,213	1,321	1,216	1,061	1,058	928	894	868	996	1,035	21%	18%	5.2	-7.4	5.0	-2.3

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database.

**Table 3: EU exports to partner countries, top ten HS chapters, 2012-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19
<b>Colombia</b>	<b>3,020</b>	<b>3,434</b>	<b>3,219</b>	<b>3,839</b>	<b>4,921</b>	<b>5,470</b>	<b>5,756</b>	<b>6,266</b>	<b>6,438</b>	<b>5,326</b>	<b>5,876</b>	<b>5,906</b>	<b>6,655</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>12.6</b>	<b>-0.7</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>2.8</b>
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and	816	702	613	778	1,073	1,163	1,113	1,232	1,132	875	1,173	976	1,198	19%	18%	7.3	-6.8	11.0	0.4
30 Pharmaceutical products	195	221	272	364	459	623	675	701	823	677	727	812	918	12%	14%	26.2	2.1	10.7	5.7
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	271	227	174	331	430	457	447	425	512	464	473	556	686	8%	10%	11.0	0.4	13.9	6.0
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	146	167	160	233	258	307	338	375	387	340	348	383	403	6%	6%	16.0	2.7	5.7	4.0
85 Electrical machinery and equipment and	328	351	258	346	371	394	432	463	448	375	345	374	346	7%	5%	3.7	-1.2	-2.6	-1.8
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	5	442	627	304	448	519	691	873	544	228	282	226	291	12%	4%	153.4	-18.6	8.5	-7.9
39 Plastics and articles thereof	119	110	93	142	160	183	182	210	210	203	227	253	269	3%	4%	9.0	2.7	9.8	5.7
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of paper	123	110	83	121	122	133	127	137	148	147	164	179	180	2%	3%	1.5	2.6	6.9	4.4
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	81	105	86	107	116	148	152	140	174	174	175	171	176	3%	3%	12.7	4.2	0.5	2.6
29 Organic chemicals	119	146	123	147	168	186	147	159	178	174	189	204	175	3%	3%	9.4	-1.7	0.2	-0.9
Others	816	852	730	967	1,316	1,358	1,452	1,550	1,881	1,668	1,774	1,772	2,012	25%	30%	10.7	5.3	6.5	5.8
<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>893</b>	<b>1,012</b>	<b>970</b>	<b>1,394</b>	<b>1,443</b>	<b>2,243</b>	<b>2,217</b>	<b>2,173</b>	<b>1,783</b>	<b>1,620</b>	<b>2,194</b>	<b>2,335</b>	<b>2,405</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>-7.8</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>1.0</b>
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and	200	209	221	333	376	453	415	377	406	367	406	425	445	19%	19%	17.7	-5.1	6.7	-0.2
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	3	3	45	60	35	602	656	439	72	179	394	350	218	30%	9%	183.4	-26.1	6.8	-13.5
30 Pharmaceutical products	51	66	66	90	107	118	120	149	161	159	155	166	176	5%	7%	18.2	7.6	3.6	5.9
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	44	44	41	62	70	69	79	71	78	46	109	170	163	4%	7%	9.3	-9.7	52.8	13.2
85 Electrical machinery and equipment and	123	117	80	86	115	160	146	144	180	128	142	107	136	7%	6%	5.3	-5.3	2.0	-2.2
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rolling	0	0	0	0	1	14	4	8	48	5	2	15	111	0%	5%	124.8	-23.9	189.8	35.0
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of paper	22	26	18	34	31	40	48	57	56	50	74	99	109	2%	5%	12.3	5.9	29.7	15.5
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	40	54	58	60	79	100	97	94	104	99	122	112	106	4%	4%	20.2	-0.2	2.5	0.9
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and other	22	36	54	40	46	64	57	46	34	36	68	98	89	3%	4%	23.9	-13.4	35.1	4.8
72 Iron and steel	43	52	34	51	42	56	51	50	54	37	60	68	67	2%	3%	5.4	-9.8	21.6	2.5
Others	343	406	353	577	542	568	546	737	591	514	662	725	784	25%	33%	10.6	-2.4	15.1	4.7
<b>Peru</b>	<b>1,576</b>	<b>2,145</b>	<b>1,447</b>	<b>2,277</b>	<b>2,743</b>	<b>3,439</b>	<b>3,448</b>	<b>3,180</b>	<b>3,661</b>	<b>3,579</b>	<b>4,014</b>	<b>3,686</b>	<b>3,903</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>1.8</b>
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and	490	674	472	702	933	1,169	1,084	987	1,027	976	970	897	1,073	31%	27%	19.0	-4.4	3.2	-1.2
85 Electrical machinery and equipment and	177	222	136	260	313	390	357	306	355	329	425	326	346	10%	9%	17.1	-4.1	1.6	-1.7
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	87	117	77	194	275	308	351	243	276	304	304	298	276	10%	7%	28.8	-0.4	-3.2	-1.6
30 Pharmaceutical products	45	49	67	85	93	104	140	156	193	181	203	198	226	4%	6%	18.3	14.9	7.8	11.8
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	72	66	76	97	95	131	140	140	159	162	197	192	217	4%	6%	12.6	5.4	10.1	7.4
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	29	31	32	40	43	74	48	56	64	134	149	125	146	1%	4%	20.5	16.2	2.8	10.2
39 Plastics and articles thereof	44	56	43	72	73	89	98	109	111	115	119	127	133	3%	3%	14.8	6.7	4.9	5.9
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rolling	3	1	2	7	6	47	103	4	4	64	195	160	116	3%	3%	78.7	8.4	21.9	14.0
73 Articles of iron or steel	31	144	44	47	72	112	93	83	102	93	104	84	110	3%	3%	29.1	-4.7	5.9	-0.3
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of paper	67	83	52	77	75	85	83	92	107	88	83	115	90	2%	2%	4.9	1.1	0.5	0.8
Others	531	700	444	696	767	931	953	1,003	1,261	1,133	1,266	1,164	1,171	28%	30%	11.9	5.0	1.1	3.3

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database; see Table B-2 in Annex B.

**Table 4: EU imports from partner countries, by HS2 chapter, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)
<b>Colombia</b>	<b>4,111</b>	<b>5,082</b>	<b>4,004</b>	<b>4,413</b>	<b>6,964</b>	<b>8,211</b>	<b>7,517</b>	<b>8,099</b>	<b>6,697</b>	<b>5,392</b>	<b>5,532</b>	<b>5,038</b>	<b>4,239</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	689	856	826	821	814	830	810	777	959	977	1,094	1,037	1,095	11%	26%
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	1,691	2,599	2,065	2,331	4,579	5,911	5,508	5,892	3,938	2,807	2,514	2,111	922	73%	22%
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or	22	24	19	62	97	75	43	63	104	69	91	246	622	1%	15%
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	518	526	324	307	491	406	370	518	627	589	613	491	517	5%	12%
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and t	125	166	55	19	111	67	89	113	174	232	373	337	291	1%	7%
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, root	119	121	113	121	113	125	124	148	155	155	150	163	176	2%	4%
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	16	13	16	14	34	19	32	42	43	52	51	42	66	0%	2%
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery an	12	11	14	21	18	18	36	41	48	35	100	48	55	0%	1%
72 Iron and steel	514	330	185	299	250	300	53	36	84	20	64	79	55	1%	1%
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	31	32	34	38	44	45	37	34	50	48	47	48	52	0%	1%
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crus	72	90	56	48	62	65	65	53	37	31	45	57	48	1%	1%
39 Plastics and articles thereof	38	30	34	32	28	26	22	25	41	40	41	41	40	0%	1%
25 Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plaste	3	11	18	18	18	22	20	20	26	25	16	21	26	0%	1%
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and oth	49	56	50	45	30	29	16	19	18	23	35	30	26	0%	1%
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	6	6	10	11	8	10	12	14	18	16	16	16	20	0%	0%
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	11	8	7	8	9	15	8	10	14	13	12	13	19	0%	0%
74 Copper and articles thereof	3	8	6	17	35	21	32	32	15	10	20	9	18	0%	0%
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	7	9	9	10	6	5	10	13	18	33	23	19	17	0%	0%
62 Articles of apparel and clothing access	19	17	19	22	19	20	18	18	20	17	19	16	16	0%	0%
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskin	40	25	13	27	36	34	31	53	49	31	23	16	13	0%	0%
61 Articles of apparel and clothing access	6	7	5	7	10	12	11	11	10	12	12	11	11	0%	0%
99 Commodities not specified according to	6	8	9	8	10	19	15	22	24	19	21	14	11	0%	0%
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	4	5	5	7	8	8	9	7	10	9	9	9	9	0%	0%
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco sub	5	8	3	4	7	10	28	11	16	10	12	11	9	0%	0%
28 Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorga	2	2	2	4	8	4	6	4	4	4	5	8	8	0%	0%
33 Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery	0	0	1	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	4	7	0%	0%
30 Pharmaceutical products	2	2	2	4	3	3	7	9	9	9	9	7	6	0%	0%
35 Albuminoid substances; modified sta	1	2	3	2	4	3	2	3	5	3	10	8	5	0%	0%
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of pape	4	2	3	4	4	4	2	5	5	4	5	5	5	0%	0%
73 Articles of iron or steel	1	2	2	2	3	4	5	2	2	3	7	6	5	0%	0%
85 Electrical machinery and equipment an	10	11	13	14	16	22	18	17	9	11	8	5	4	0%	0%
34 Soap, organic surface-active agents, w	1	2	2	1	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	4	0%	0%
19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	0%	0%
96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles	1	1	1	1	2	3	4	5	5	5	5	4	4	0%	0%
29 Organic chemicals	9	10	8	5	5	3	3	2	3	1	2	4	4	0%	0%
80 Tin and articles thereof										0		0	4	0%	0%
42 Articles of leather; saddlery and hame	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	0%	0%
76 Aluminum and articles thereof	6	6	2	2	3	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	0%	0%
53 Other vegetable textile fibres; paper y		0	0		0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	3	0%	0%
63 Other made up textile articles; sets; w	5	9	7	9	9	7	7	6	5	3	3	3	3	0%	0%
32 Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins an	5	7	4	6	6	4	6	5	2	2	2	2	3	0%	0%
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	3	2	3	2	0%	0%
95 Toys, games and sports requisites; pa	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	0%	0%
82 Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	0%	0%
69 Ceramic products	5	4	3	3	1	1	2	3	4	3	4	3	2	0%	0%
70 Glass and glassware	4	4	5	5	4	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	0%	0%
49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures ar	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	0%	0%
23 Residues and waste from the food indu	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	0%	0%
94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses, matre	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	0%	0%
31 Fertilisers	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0%	0%
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots an	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
97 Works of art, collectors' pieces and ant	0	1	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	0	2	1	1	0%	0%
54 Man-made filaments; strip and the like	1	1	1	3	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	0%	0%
89 Ships, boats and floating structures	0	0	2	0	0	1	6	4	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood char	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
11 Products of the milling industry; malt;	1	3	4	5	4	5	5	5	3	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	3	7	15	10	6	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
64 Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts o	6	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
40 Rubber and articles thereof	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
92 Musical instruments; parts and access	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0%	0%
12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscel	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
26 Ores, slag and ash	0	0		1	0	0	0	13	36	15	27	53	0	0%	0%
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rollin	0		0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
75 Nickel and articles thereof	1	1	1	1	0	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
05 Products of animal origin, not elsewhere	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0%	0%
56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	2	1	1	2	6	2	2	2	65	15	3	0	0	0%	0%
57 Carpets and other textile floor covering	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
78 Lead and articles thereof	2	2	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0%	0%
83 Miscellaneous articles of base metal	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
13 Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0%	0%
59 Impregnated, coated, covered or lamin	1	1	1	2	3	1	3	5	3	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
43 Furskins and artificial fur; manufacture	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0%	0%
46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
68 Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asbe	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural hon			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
58 Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fa	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
65 Headgear and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
14 Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetabl	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
91 Clocks and watches and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
47 Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
60 Knitted or crocheted fabrics	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
01 Live animals; animal products	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
67 Prepared feathers and down and article	0		0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
10 Cereals	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
81 Other base metals; cermets; articles th	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
50 Silk		0		0	0		0		0	0			0	0%	0%
52 Cotton	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
55 Man-made staple fibres	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
37 Photographic or cinematographic goods	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
02 Meat and edible meat offal			0	0		0				0	0	0	0	0%	0%
66 Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-stick	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0%	0%
45 Cork and articles of cork										0	0	0	0	0%	0%
51 Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horse	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
79 Zinc and articles thereof				0			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
36 Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matc							0	0	0					0%	0%
93 Arms and ammunition; parts and acces	1	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0		0%	0%

(cont.)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)
<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>1,798</b>	<b>2,135</b>	<b>1,922</b>	<b>2,035</b>	<b>2,363</b>	<b>2,468</b>	<b>2,568</b>	<b>2,621</b>	<b>2,595</b>	<b>2,719</b>	<b>3,018</b>	<b>3,032</b>	<b>3,021</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	746	840	821	776	869	817	782	853	856	812	951	1,031	956	30%	32%
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crustaceans, molluscs and other aquatic invertebrates	299	435	323	310	389	495	576	459	435	458	666	656	702	22%	23%
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and other aquatic invertebrates	260	333	284	373	442	449	490	607	593	661	675	657	670	19%	22%
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roots and tubers; mosses and lichens	115	133	127	136	143	155	150	171	188	188	186	205	214	6%	7%
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	86	85	85	137	130	119	94	118	153	212	184	160	187	4%	6%
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts or other edible plants of other chapters	82	75	86	86	83	83	81	99	100	101	74	75	67	3%	2%
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal	39	41	26	25	28	28	26	28	38	46	42	38	43	1%	1%
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	46	56	53	63	77	123	110	95	100	74	71	46	37	4%	1%
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers	24	27	26	28	28	25	22	22	27	26	25	25	26	1%	1%
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes	14	7	6	6	10	17	18	19	20	26	21	20	17	1%	1%
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or semi-precious stones, and their products	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	9	2	0	0	15	13	0%	0%
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and their preparations	23	44	21	4	61	70	39	24	9	33	40	26	12	2%	0%
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and mechanical appliances	5	5	1	4	3	21	18	4	4	5	3	4	12	1%	0%
65 Headgear and parts thereof	2	2	3	5	7	5	5	6	9	10	8	8	9	0%	0%
53 Other vegetable textile fibres; paper yarn and waste	4	5	3	2	1	4	3	4	7	9	7	7	6	0%	0%
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	6	7	3	7	8	3	2	3	4	5	7	7	5	0%	0%
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	3	4	4	5	5	3	3	4	6	6	4	2	5	0%	0%
39 Plastics and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	3	3	3	3	5	0%	0%
74 Copper and articles thereof	0	0	0	1	1	2	4	5	3	2	2	7	3	0%	0%
99 Commodities not specified according to other chapters	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	5	4	3	0%	0%
61 Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, made of textile materials	4	3	2	2	3	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	0%	0%
11 Products of the milling industry; malt; mill waste	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	0%	0%
78 Lead and articles thereof	0						0		1	1	1	1	2	0%	0%
96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles	5	3	2	3	4	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	0%	0%
10 Cereals	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	1	1	1	2	0%	0%
72 Iron and steel	3	10	5	2	4	2	3	2	2	1	1	2	2	0%	0%
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic apparatus	1	1	1	1	1	4	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	0%	0%
33 Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery preparations	4	3	4	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	0%	0%
32 Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins and other vegetable products	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	0%	0%
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	2	0	0	7	0	10	2	1	3	4	2	2	1	0%	0%
49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures and other printed matter	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscellanea	1	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	0	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
85 Electrical machinery and equipment, except telephones	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	4	2	1	1	0%	0%
19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or milk	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
62 Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, made of leather	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskin)	4	2	1	3	4	3	5	8	4	2	2	1	1	0%	0%
40 Rubber and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
23 Residues and waste from the food industries	0	0	1	2	2	6	6	1	0	0	0	1	1	0%	0%
14 Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetable products	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses, mattress covers, and cushions	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0%	0%
26 Ores, slag and ash			0			0	0	0	1	3	18	2	0	0%	0%
76 Aluminum and articles thereof	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0%	0%
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
64 Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts of such articles	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
05 Products of animal origin, not elsewhere specified	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
73 Articles of iron or steel	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
42 Articles of leather; saddlery and harness	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rolling stock			0		3	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of other similar materials	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
89 Ships, boats and floating structures	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway rolling stock	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
82 Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and similar articles	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
63 Other made up textile articles; sets; waste of textiles	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
01 Live animals; animal products	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
28 Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorganic preparations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
69 Ceramic products	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
34 Soap, organic surface-active agents, waxes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
97 Works of art, collectors' pieces and antiques	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
13 Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable products	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
31 Fertilisers	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
92 Musical instruments; parts and accessories	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
25 Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plaster	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
83 Miscellaneous articles of base metal	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
75 Nickel and articles thereof	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
35 Albuminoid substances; modified starch	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
70 Glass and glassware	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	0	0	20	28	41	0	106	48	0	0	0	4	0	4%	0%
29 Organic chemicals	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	2	1	1	3	0	0%	0%
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of paper	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
30 Pharmaceutical products	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
95 Toys, games and sports requisites; parts and accessories	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
55 Man-made staple fibres			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0%	0%
81 Other base metals; cermet; articles thereof						0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0%	0%
58 Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fabrics	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
68 Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asbestos	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
67 Prepared feathers and down and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
37 Photographic or cinematographic goods	0	0	0	0		0	0	0			0		0	0%	0%
91 Clocks and watches and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
57 Carpets and other textile floor coverings	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
59 Impregnated, coated, covered or laminated textile materials	0	0		0	0	0	0		0	0	0		0	0%	0%
56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special preparations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural honey		0			0	0				0	0		0	0%	0%
52 Cotton	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0		0	0	0%	0%
54 Man-made filaments; strip and the like	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
43 Furskins and artificial fur; manufactures thereof				0		0	0	0		0		0	0	0%	0%
66 Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-sticks		0				0	0	0			0	0	0	0%	0%
47 Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulosic material	0					0	0		0	0			0	0%	0%
36 Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matches			0		0			0		0				0%	0%
45 Cork and articles of cork			0											0%	0%
50 Silk					0									0%	0%
51 Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horsehair	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
60 Knitted or crocheted fabrics			0	0						0		0		0%	0%
79 Zinc and articles thereof	0		0											0%	0%
93 Arms and ammunition; parts and accessories							0	0		0				0%	0%

(cont.)



Ex post evaluation of the implementation of the Trade Agreement between the EU and its Member States and  
Colombia, Peru and Ecuador

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)
<b>Peru</b>	<b>4,192</b>	<b>3,803</b>	<b>3,202</b>	<b>5,183</b>	<b>6,390</b>	<b>6,113</b>	<b>5,114</b>	<b>4,853</b>	<b>5,021</b>	<b>5,152</b>	<b>6,122</b>	<b>6,043</b>	<b>5,739</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	145	210	204	262	351	409	527	567	757	917	1,013	1,200	1,361	10%	24%
26 Ores, slag and ash	1,610	1,313	1,023	2,034	2,241	2,036	1,681	1,471	1,395	1,261	1,845	1,624	1,331	33%	23%
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	254	323	325	484	665	580	394	377	374	409	399	363	371	8%	6%
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and other	138	142	125	182	213	191	192	239	262	247	261	308	323	4%	6%
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	0	0	0	122	444	722	362	259	238	373	674	474	274	7%	5%
74 Copper and articles thereof	689	490	308	510	673	424	341	289	318	230	275	276	251	7%	4%
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	163	169	130	150	191	182	188	210	226	234	227	224	229	4%	4%
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots and	123	130	123	139	152	172	173	176	203	210	200	212	227	3%	4%
79 Zinc and articles thereof	106	59	40	55	103	127	130	122	168	185	233	258	210	3%	4%
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	22	33	33	31	38	55	65	87	152	192	127	110	126	1%	2%
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	18	24	27	24	25	44	71	46	38	69	5	7	103	1%	2%
80 Tin and articles thereof	161	214	131	269	268	110	90	149	129	106	137	95	90	2%	2%
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crust	25	28	20	20	23	31	29	42	60	45	57	84	84	1%	1%
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and	77	65	68	68	82	174	76	115	102	56	66	99	82	1%	1%
61 Articles of apparel and clothing access	82	88	79	84	90	80	72	73	80	70	73	80	80	1%	1%
12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscel	8	12	17	18	23	32	39	41	47	53	56	67	74	1%	1%
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or	26	21	111	176	221	193	275	47	36	48	46	121	72	5%	1%
51 Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horse	28	28	22	30	37	37	38	50	53	55	58	69	70	1%	1%
23 Residues and waste from the food ind	255	168	270	267	215	255	139	185	69	92	30	40	61	3%	1%
10 Cereals	6	7	8	9	8	11	18	42	56	49	40	49	55	0%	1%
32 Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins an	21	19	20	91	95	43	26	33	41	55	53	44	37	1%	1%
28 Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorga	51	44	17	32	47	33	27	28	34	24	37	46	35	1%	1%
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood char	7	6	3	4	10	11	9	10	15	12	12	17	21	0%	0%
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery an	10	7	6	10	11	7	7	14	16	18	28	30	17	0%	0%
33 Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery	3	3	4	3	4	5	6	9	11	11	16	11	16	0%	0%
25 Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plaste	1	1	0	5	10	6	5	9	7	8	6	14	13	0%	0%
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roo	3	3	3	3	5	5	6	4	4	6	7	8	10	0%	0%
39 Plastics and articles thereof	2	3	1	0	3	2	3	4	5	3	5	11	8	0%	0%
11 Products of the milling industry; malt;	0	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	9	11	9	6	8	0%	0%
14 Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetabl	5	7	2	4	6	6	6	6	10	8	8	8	7	0%	0%
62 Articles of apparel and clothing access	10	9	8	8	9	8	6	5	6	6	5	6	6	0%	0%
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	3	6	0%	0%
99 Commodities not specified according to	4	104	24	33	49	52	42	49	25	6	28	5	6	1%	0%
97 Works of art, collectors' pieces and ant	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	6	0%	0%
70 Glass and glassware	4	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	6	0%	0%
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	11	2	13	15	4	6	0%	0%
63 Other made up textile articles; sets; w	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	5	5	0%	0%
72 Iron and steel	5	4	2	6	7	5	5	5	3	3	4	4	4	0%	0%
85 Electrical machinery and equipment an	4	3	5	3	2	2	3	3	3	4	5	5	4	0%	0%
13 Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable	3	4	2	3	3	6	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	0%	0%
73 Articles of iron or steel	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	6	4	1	3	5	3	0%	0%
52 Cotton	14	13	8	9	14	13	15	14	13	8	4	4	3	0%	0%
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	0%	0%
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	0%	0%
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	4	3	0%	0%
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco sut	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	2	0%	0%
78 Lead and articles thereof	57	17	4	2	1	1	1	1	5	1	1	0	2	0%	0%
19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	2	2	0%	0%
29 Organic chemicals	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	0%	0%
96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	0%	0%
95 Toys, games and sports requisites; pai	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures ar	1	2	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0%	0%
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskin	3	2	2	4	6	6	6	12	7	5	4	2	1	0%	0%
65 Headgear and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
42 Articles of leather; saddlery and hame	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0%	0%
64 Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts o	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
76 Aluminum and articles thereof	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	3	1	2	2	1	0%	0%
94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses, mattre	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
69 Ceramic products	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
68 Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asbe	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
82 Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
55 Man-made staple fibres	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0%	0%
05 Products of animal origin, not elsewhere	2	1	1	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
58 Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fa	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
40 Rubber and articles thereof	0	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0%	0%
36 Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matc	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0%	0%
83 Miscellaneous articles of base metal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0%	0%
43 Furskins and artificial fur; manufacture	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
30 Pharmaceutical products	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0%	0%
01 Live animals; animal products	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
92 Musical instruments; parts and access	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of pape	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
57 Carpets and other textile floor coverin	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
54 Man-made filaments; strip and the like	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
60 Knitted or crocheted fabrics	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
31 Fertilisers	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0%	0%
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rollin	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
59 Impregnated, coated, covered or lamin	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
34 Soap, organic surface-active agents, w	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
75 Nickel and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
91 Clocks and watches and parts thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
50 Silk	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
67 Prepared feathers and down and article	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
35 Albuminoid substances; modified sta	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
81 Other base metals; cermets; articles th	24	3	0	0	0	1	3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0%	0%
04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural hon	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
89 Ships, boats and floating structures	0	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	5	0	4	0	0	0%	0%
37 Photographic or cinematographic goods	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
93 Arms and ammunition; parts and acces	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
47 Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
66 Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-stick	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
02 Meat and edible meat offal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
45 Cork and articles of cork	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
53 Other vegetable textile fibres; paper y	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%

Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]

**Table 5: EU exports to partner countries, by HS2 chapter, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)
<b>Colombia</b>	<b>3,020</b>	<b>3,434</b>	<b>3,219</b>	<b>3,839</b>	<b>4,921</b>	<b>5,470</b>	<b>5,756</b>	<b>6,266</b>	<b>6,438</b>	<b>5,326</b>	<b>5,876</b>	<b>5,906</b>	<b>6,655</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and	816	702	613	778	1,073	1,163	1,113	1,232	1,132	875	1,173	976	1,198	19%	18%
30 Pharmaceutical products	195	221	272	364	459	623	675	701	823	677	727	812	918	12%	14%
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	271	227	174	331	430	457	447	425	512	464	473	556	686	8%	10%
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	146	167	160	233	258	307	338	375	387	340	348	383	403	6%	6%
85 Electrical machinery and equipment an	328	351	258	346	371	394	432	463	448	375	345	374	346	7%	5%
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	5	442	627	304	448	519	691	873	544	228	282	226	291	12%	4%
39 Plastics and articles thereof	119	110	93	142	160	183	182	210	210	203	227	253	269	3%	4%
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of pape	123	110	83	121	122	133	127	137	148	147	164	179	180	2%	3%
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	81	105	86	107	116	148	152	140	174	174	175	171	176	3%	3%
29 Organic chemicals	119	146	123	147	168	186	147	159	178	174	189	204	175	3%	3%
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and product	31	4	4	15	92	11	70	30	102	115	141	121	148	1%	2%
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	46	37	33	32	48	57	54	69	73	88	88	91	128	1%	2%
33 Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery	44	39	38	46	60	62	63	70	71	78	83	100	127	1%	2%
73 Articles of iron or steel	36	62	86	83	94	123	125	114	100	77	91	98	124	2%	2%
72 Iron and steel	92	94	58	102	95	112	105	97	90	59	63	78	92	2%	1%
32 Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins an	56	52	45	55	68	79	73	78	78	73	76	82	84	1%	1%
62 Articles of apparel and clothing access	9	12	15	18	30	42	45	49	53	60	63	70	78	1%	1%
40 Rubber and articles thereof	39	45	40	50	70	74	79	81	75	67	68	68	69	1%	1%
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	17	18	9	15	19	30	37	41	57	61	48	54	63	1%	1%
34 Soap, organic surface-active agents, w	17	20	20	22	28	32	34	40	48	51	51	53	58	1%	1%
94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses, mattr	26	23	19	30	40	52	48	52	62	55	50	52	57	1%	1%
31 Fertilisers	22	62	41	46	64	70	52	51	65	50	45	52	54	1%	1%
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	3	3	3	5	7	14	13	19	25	33	34	39	54	0%	1%
19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or	13	11	12	11	12	16	18	26	29	38	36	41	47	0%	1%
61 Articles of apparel and clothing access	4	9	11	13	24	27	26	29	33	36	40	41	43	0%	1%
99 Commodities not specified according to	29	19	16	43	66	30	30	23	120	46	31	40	43	1%	1%
28 Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorga	22	28	20	28	26	29	26	27	32	31	40	37	37	0%	1%
25 Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plaste	9	10	10	13	17	26	27	44	57	47	41	37	36	0%	1%
76 Aluminum and articles thereof	15	13	11	19	21	24	28	31	26	25	36	39	33	0%	0%
23 Residues and waste from the food indu	4	5	3	5	5	8	12	14	16	13	62	35	33	0%	0%
49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures ar	20	22	17	25	22	22	21	25	25	22	22	27	31	0%	0%
35 Albuminoidal substances; modified sta	11	14	15	20	20	22	25	22	27	26	24	26	30	0%	0%
69 Ceramic products	14	14	10	16	20	28	25	24	26	25	26	27	29	0%	0%
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and t	9	12	11	13	17	20	21	23	28	31	31	32	28	0%	0%
95 Toys, games and sports requisites; pai	14	18	12	10	15	25	26	26	21	21	31	23	28	0%	0%
83 Miscellaneous articles of base metal	15	15	14	17	19	21	21	21	24	23	24	25	27	0%	0%
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or	8	10	8	9	10	12	12	16	23	53	29	14	26	0%	0%
04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural hon	5	4	2	2	2	2	3	8	20	21	12	21	26	0%	0%
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fru	1	1	3	3	8	9	6	13	16	19	16	14	24	0%	0%
68 Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asbe	5	7	6	8	11	12	16	17	20	16	19	18	23	0%	0%
64 Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts o	3	4	4	4	8	9	11	14	16	16	16	16	21	0%	0%
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood char	10	8	7	10	13	17	18	22	25	21	22	22	21	0%	0%
82 Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and	14	15	11	18	23	23	22	25	21	19	22	23	20	0%	0%
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roo	8	7	7	10	9	11	10	11	11	12	14	16	19	0%	0%
11 Products of the milling industry; malt;	11	4	1	2	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	7	14	0%	0%
96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles	9	8	5	7	10	12	10	10	12	14	14	14	14	0%	0%
70 Glass and glassware	14	12	10	11	14	17	14	17	19	19	21	15	14	0%	0%
42 Articles of leather; saddlery and harn	3	3	3	4	7	8	9	10	11	10	11	11	13	0%	0%
56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special	4	4	3	5	15	9	10	10	11	10	10	11	12	0%	0%
74 Copper and articles thereof	6	9	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	6	12	0%	0%
55 Man-made staple fibres	9	7	4	7	7	9	9	10	12	11	8	9	10	0%	0%
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	2	3	2	3	3	5	6	7	8	6	8	8	9	0%	0%
54 Man-made filaments; strip and the like	13	9	7	10	12	12	11	11	11	12	9	9	9	0%	0%
12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscel	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	7	7	7	9	0%	0%
59 Impregnated, coated, covered or lamin	6	6	5	6	7	9	9	10	12	11	8	9	8	0%	0%
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots an	0	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	3	6	7	8	0%	0%
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	5	4	3	4	5	5	4	5	6	6	9	7	7	0%	0%
93 Arms and ammunition; parts and acces	2	0	1	1	4	4	4	2	2	3	5	9	7	0%	0%
37 Photographic or cinematographic goods	7	7	11	11	14	14	10	8	7	5	5	7	7	0%	0%
13 Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable	3	2	2	4	4	5	4	5	6	5	4	6	7	0%	0%
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and oth	0	0	0	0	0	5	8	6	1	1	2	4	6	0%	0%
89 Ships, boats and floating structures	2	4	8	8	15	11	59	71	71	19	12	6	6	1%	0%
10 Cereals	0	9	0	5	0	0	6	10	36	4	0	8	6	0%	0%
52 Cotton	8	9	7	8	10	11	11	11	9	9	7	6	6	0%	0%
02 Meat and edible meat offal	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	3	3	2	2	4	6	0%	0%
63 Other made up textile articles; sets; w	3	2	1	2	3	2	2	3	4	4	5	4	6	0%	0%
60 Knitted or crocheted fabrics	5	4	5	4	6	5	5	6	6	6	6	5	6	0%	0%
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco sut	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	1	1	4	2	7	5	0%	0%
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskin	2	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	3	2	3	3	4	0%	0%
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crus	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	4	4	5	3	3	4	0%	0%
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rollin	4	1	2	6	55	12	10	14	51	26	75	13	3	0%	0%
51 Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horse	3	4	3	2	3	4	5	6	5	4	4	4	3	0%	0%
57 Carpets and other textile floor covering	4	3	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	0%	0%
01 Live animals; animal products	1	2	0	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	3	0%	0%
65 Headgear and parts thereof	1	1	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	0%	0%
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	0%	0%
91 Clocks and watches and parts thereof	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	0%	0%
47 Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulo	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	0%	0%
53 Other vegetable textile fibres; paper y	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	0%	0%
58 Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fa	2	1	1	2	2	3	5	3	3	3	3	2	2	0%	0%
81 Other base metals; cermets; articles t	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	0%	0%
26 Ores, slag and ash	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	0%	0%
92 Musical instruments; parts and access	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
97 Works of art, collectors' pieces and an	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	12	2	1	0	1	1	0%	0%
75 Nickel and articles thereof	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
05 Products of animal origin, not elsewhe	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	0%	0%
79 Zinc and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	0%	0%
50 Silk	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0%	0%
45 Cork and articles of cork	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
36 Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matc	0	1	1	3	4	4	1	5	9	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
66 Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-stick	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
78 Lead and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0%	0%
67 Prepared feathers and down and article	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
43 Furskins and artificial fur; manufacture	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
80 Tin and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
14 Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetable products n	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%

(cont.)



Ex post evaluation of the implementation of the Trade Agreement between the EU and its Member States and  
Colombia, Peru and Ecuador

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)
<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>893</b>	<b>1,012</b>	<b>970</b>	<b>1,394</b>	<b>1,443</b>	<b>2,243</b>	<b>2,217</b>	<b>2,173</b>	<b>1,783</b>	<b>1,620</b>	<b>2,194</b>	<b>2,335</b>	<b>2,405</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and	200	209	221	333	376	453	415	377	406	367	406	425	445	19%	19%
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	3	3	45	60	35	602	656	439	72	179	394	350	218	30%	9%
30 Pharmaceutical products	51	66	66	90	107	118	120	149	161	159	155	166	176	5%	7%
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	44	44	41	62	70	69	79	71	78	46	109	170	163	4%	7%
85 Electrical machinery and equipment an	123	117	80	86	115	160	146	144	180	128	142	107	136	7%	6%
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rollin	0	0	0	0	1	14	4	8	48	5	2	15	111	0%	5%
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of pape	22	26	18	34	31	40	48	57	56	50	74	99	109	2%	5%
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	40	54	58	60	79	100	97	94	104	99	122	112	106	4%	4%
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and oth	22	36	54	40	46	64	57	46	34	36	68	98	89	3%	4%
72 Iron and steel	43	52	34	51	42	56	51	50	54	37	60	68	67	2%	3%
39 Plastics and articles thereof	21	23	20	34	41	40	41	48	46	50	61	72	64	2%	3%
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	29	27	22	30	28	34	30	41	43	38	44	47	56	1%	2%
73 Articles of iron or steel	14	16	24	31	43	47	53	85	42	25	45	51	55	2%	2%
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	17	20	8	12	15	11	5	5	5	5	18	36	41	0%	2%
31 Fertilisers	16	22	35	50	58	35	31	44	34	28	31	36	36	1%	1%
29 Organic chemicals	27	31	29	42	36	37	30	29	34	35	40	40	35	1%	1%
32 Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins an	18	18	16	19	23	29	28	31	30	25	31	33	32	1%	1%
33 Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery	14	14	11	14	15	18	15	17	21	18	25	25	31	1%	1%
89 Ships, boats and floating structures	5	21	4	12	9	8	10	46	13	3	4	10	31	0%	1%
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	8	14	10	9	18	21	16	18	15	16	19	25	24	1%	1%
62 Articles of apparel and clothing access	4	2	2	3	3	7	10	12	12	11	14	18	22	0%	1%
69 Ceramic products	12	6	6	8	9	9	12	9	13	7	15	21	20	1%	1%
49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures an	9	10	9	8	9	9	10	10	9	8	9	10	18	0%	1%
23 Residues and waste from the food ind	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	6	9	9	14	17	18	0%	1%
28 Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorga	7	10	8	11	11	19	15	14	16	15	22	19	17	1%	1%
83 Miscellaneous articles of base metal	11	20	14	18	14	22	20	15	15	14	19	17	17	1%	1%
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	4	3	3	4	3	5	5	6	7	6	9	11	15	0%	1%
40 Rubber and articles thereof	9	11	14	17	13	13	13	16	15	11	16	16	14	1%	1%
61 Articles of apparel and clothing access	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	8	10	8	9	11	13	0%	1%
94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses, matre	5	4	4	7	8	11	11	11	14	11	23	11	13	1%	1%
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and t	4	6	4	5	6	7	9	12	8	9	14	13	13	0%	1%
34 Soap, organic surface-active agents, w	6	6	5	6	6	7	8	9	8	8	12	12	12	0%	1%
35 Albuminoidal substances; modified sta	2	3	3	3	3	5	6	6	10	10	11	12	12	0%	1%
99 Commodities not specified according to	14	14	18	20	23	27	25	25	34	19	20	11	12	1%	0%
19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or	4	5	6	8	9	9	10	10	10	11	10	9	12	0%	0%
70 Glass and glassware	7	7	5	9	8	6	7	10	9	8	9	10	10	0%	0%
82 Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and	7	7	7	8	12	12	11	11	10	9	10	10	10	0%	0%
76 Aluminum and articles thereof	3	3	3	4	5	5	6	5	5	5	10	9	10	0%	0%
05 Products of animal origin, not elsewhere	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	4	5	9	0%	0%
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fru	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	2	2	3	5	4	9	0%	0%
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roo	5	4	4	5	5	5	6	5	6	7	7	8	9	0%	0%
68 Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asb	3	3	3	4	5	5	6	7	9	5	7	7	7	0%	0%
12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscel	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	0%	0%
25 Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plaste	2	2	2	3	5	7	5	6	5	5	7	7	6	0%	0%
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	5	5	0%	0%
64 Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts o	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	4	5	0%	0%
55 Man-made staple fibres	8	9	6	10	11	10	8	9	6	4	5	6	5	0%	0%
96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles	5	4	4	6	5	5	5	7	5	3	5	5	5	0%	0%
56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special	1	2	3	3	3	5	5	3	4	4	5	4	5	0%	0%
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood char	3	2	3	5	6	8	7	4	4	6	3	5	4	0%	0%
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	4	0%	0%
95 Toys, games and sports requisites; pai	2	3	3	3	3	5	4	4	2	5	4	5	4	0%	0%
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	4	17	1	115	34	19	5	84	5	9	4	5	3	0%	0%
42 Articles of leather; saddlery and harnes	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	0%	0%
74 Copper and articles thereof	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	0%	0%
59 Impregnated, coated, covered or lamin	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	0%	0%
11 Products of the milling industry; malt;	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	2	0%	0%
37 Photographic or cinematographic goods	4	3	6	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	1	1	2	0%	0%
65 Headgear and parts thereof	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	0%	0%
13 Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	2	3	2	1	1	2	0%	0%
04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural hon	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	0%	0%
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	0%	0%
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots an	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
57 Carpets and other textile floor covering	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crus	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	1	0	1	0	1	1	0%	0%
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
93 Arms and ammunition; parts and acces	1	0	7	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0%	0%
54 Man-made filaments; strip and the like	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
63 Other made up textile articles; sets; w	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
58 Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fa	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0%	0%
02 Meat and edible meat offal	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0%	0%
47 Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	2	1	0%	0%
79 Zinc and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
52 Cotton	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
01 Live animals; animal products	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0%	0%
91 Clocks and watches and parts thereof	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0%	0%
60 Knitted or crocheted fabrics	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
78 Lead and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
75 Nickel and articles thereof	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
51 Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horse	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
92 Musical instruments; parts and access	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
10 Cereals	0	8	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0%	0%
45 Cork and articles of cork	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
81 Other base metals; cements; articles th	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco sut	0	1	1	0	1	0	2	3	1	0	1	0	0	0%	0%
67 Prepared feathers and down and article	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
26 Ores, slag and ash	0	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
36 Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matc	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
97 Works of art, collectors' pieces and ant	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
80 Tin and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskin	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
66 Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-stick	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
43 Furskins and artificial fur; manufacture	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
53 Other vegetable textile fibres; paper y	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
50 Silk	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
14 Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetabl	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%

(cont.)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013 (%)	2019 (%)
<b>Peru</b>	<b>1,576</b>	<b>2,145</b>	<b>1,447</b>	<b>2,277</b>	<b>2,743</b>	<b>3,439</b>	<b>3,448</b>	<b>3,180</b>	<b>3,661</b>	<b>3,579</b>	<b>4,014</b>	<b>3,686</b>	<b>3,903</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>
84 Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and	490	674	472	702	933	1,169	1,084	987	1,027	976	970	897	1,073	31%	27%
85 Electrical machinery and equipment and	177	222	136	260	313	390	357	306	355	329	425	326	346	10%	9%
87 Vehicles other than railway or tramway	87	117	77	194	275	308	351	243	276	304	304	298	276	10%	7%
30 Pharmaceutical products	45	49	67	85	93	104	140	156	193	181	203	198	226	4%	6%
90 Optical, photographic, cinematographic	72	66	76	97	95	131	140	140	159	162	197	192	217	4%	6%
38 Miscellaneous chemical products	29	31	32	40	43	74	48	56	64	134	149	125	146	1%	4%
39 Plastics and articles thereof	44	56	43	72	73	89	98	109	111	115	119	127	133	3%	3%
86 Railway or tramway locomotives, rolling	3	1	2	7	6	47	103	4	4	64	195	160	116	3%	3%
73 Articles of iron or steel	31	144	44	47	72	112	93	83	102	93	104	84	110	3%	3%
48 Paper and paperboard; articles of paper	67	83	52	77	75	85	83	92	107	88	83	115	90	2%	2%
40 Rubber and articles thereof	25	31	22	31	47	45	51	41	48	49	58	61	69	1%	2%
33 Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery	18	20	18	19	23	26	28	32	41	45	48	46	64	1%	2%
32 Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins and	35	41	30	44	44	60	52	53	52	53	55	62	58	2%	1%
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	21	20	15	21	35	43	49	48	66	61	62	58	54	1%	1%
72 Iron and steel	92	192	50	99	81	104	74	61	58	64	60	51	51	2%	1%
29 Organic chemicals	28	35	31	43	43	52	46	46	59	57	63	64	48	1%	1%
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	5	6	8	8	12	15	22	23	27	38	28	36	39	1%	1%
94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses, mattress	8	9	9	14	18	28	36	33	38	37	51	37	39	1%	1%
31 Fertilisers	15	32	16	22	30	45	38	32	28	34	33	39	38	1%	1%
95 Toys, games and sports requisites; parts	11	21	25	19	13	26	23	21	24	29	33	29	38	1%	1%
28 Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorganic	12	16	14	18	17	22	22	20	24	24	33	35	36	1%	1%
20 Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts	2	2	2	4	5	9	16	19	24	23	30	28	33	0%	1%
82 Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and	12	15	15	25	32	35	29	32	31	32	28	33	32	1%	1%
27 Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products	7	7	8	17	32	44	32	29	55	25	72	62	30	1%	1%
34 Soap, organic surface-active agents, waxes	11	12	10	15	16	18	20	26	34	25	29	32	30	1%	1%
44 Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal	4	6	4	9	13	17	16	18	21	24	24	29	30	0%	1%
04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural honey	24	13	6	8	13	20	13	29	22	15	22	28	29	0%	1%
69 Ceramic products	11	16	10	14	16	21	18	21	21	23	20	28	27	1%	1%
88 Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	2	2	3	29	26	16	32	20	156	95	51	5	27	1%	1%
19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or	12	9	9	10	12	11	17	19	22	28	24	29	26	0%	1%
49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures and	11	22	16	15	29	22	27	28	29	27	34	42	26	1%	1%
35 Albuminoidal substances; modified starch	8	10	9	12	11	14	16	16	17	17	19	20	24	0%	1%
62 Articles of apparel and clothing accessories	4	4	4	4	6	11	12	15	17	17	17	18	22	0%	1%
99 Commodities not specified according to	13	19	15	24	28	30	38	52	60	42	25	23	18	1%	0%
23 Residues and waste from the food industry	1	2	2	3	4	5	6	7	12	10	12	15	17	0%	0%
76 Aluminum and articles thereof	18	11	6	10	8	10	10	13	14	11	14	16	17	0%	0%
11 Products of the milling industry; malt;	8	9	6	11	12	13	18	16	27	28	22	14	15	1%	0%
68 Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asbestos	5	5	4	7	10	12	11	11	15	13	14	15	14	0%	0%
55 Man-made staple fibres	9	10	6	9	12	15	13	12	12	12	14	14	13	0%	0%
61 Articles of apparel and clothing accessories	2	2	2	3	5	6	7	10	10	10	10	12	13	0%	0%
83 Miscellaneous articles of base metal	11	11	8	10	13	16	15	13	13	15	14	11	13	0%	0%
70 Glass and glassware	9	10	7	11	9	10	13	13	13	12	11	12	12	0%	0%
71 Natural or cultured pearls, precious or	6	4	3	3	4	5	5	6	7	8	8	11	11	0%	0%
96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles	3	4	3	4	5	5	10	7	7	7	8	9	10	0%	0%
89 Ships, boats and floating structures	1	1	1	9	4	8	8	53	8	3	80	2	9	0%	0%
51 Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horsehair	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	4	6	9	8	9	0%	0%
56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	6	6	5	4	8	8	0%	0%
15 Animal or vegetable fats and oils and	3	2	2	5	3	5	4	5	10	9	12	7	8	0%	0%
59 Impregnated, coated, covered or laminated	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	6	5	5	6	8	0%	0%
25 Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plaster	4	4	4	6	7	9	11	9	12	10	10	10	7	0%	0%
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	1	2	2	4	3	5	6	6	7	7	9	6	7	0%	0%
64 Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts of	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	4	5	5	5	7	0%	0%
12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscel	2	7	4	3	5	4	4	3	3	5	6	4	6	0%	0%
54 Man-made filaments; strip and the like	2	2	2	3	3	5	5	6	5	5	6	6	6	0%	0%
42 Articles of leather; saddlery and harness	2	1	1	1	2	3	4	5	4	5	4	5	6	0%	0%
97 Works of art, collectors' pieces and antiques	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	4	2	5	0%	0%
03 Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and other	0	1	1	15	2	0	3	2	1	3	3	6	5	0%	0%
93 Arms and ammunition; parts and accessories	2	3	2	4	3	2	4	10	5	4	8	7	5	0%	0%
09 Coffee, tea, maté and spices	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	4	4	4	0%	0%
74 Copper and articles thereof	5	4	2	8	4	8	5	4	11	5	4	3	4	0%	0%
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	3	0%	0%
63 Other made up textile articles; sets; wearing	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	3	7	4	4	3	3	0%	0%
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	1	0	0	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	0%	0%
60 Knitted or crocheted fabrics	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	0%	0%
57 Carpets and other textile floor coverings	2	2	1	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	4	3	0%	0%
37 Photographic or cinematographic goods	3	5	1	4	4	5	6	5	5	4	3	2	3	0%	0%
05 Products of animal origin, not elsewhere	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	0%	0%
36 Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matches	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	0%	0%
13 Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable	2	6	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0%	0%
06 Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roots	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	5	2	0%	0%
75 Nickel and articles thereof	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	0%	0%
92 Musical instruments; parts and accessories	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
16 Preparations of meat, of fish or of crustaceans	0	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	0%	0%
02 Meat and edible meat offal	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
91 Clocks and watches and parts thereof	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
52 Cotton	2	3	1	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	0%	0%
47 Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulosic	0	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots and	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0%	0%
45 Cork and articles of cork	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
65 Headgear and parts thereof	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
26 Ores, slag and ash	19	13	1	1	10	2	0	0	4	0	2	3	1	0%	0%
58 Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fabrics	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
79 Zinc and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%	0%
81 Other base metals; cermets; articles thereof	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	3	1	0%	0%
01 Live animals; animal products	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0%	0%
10 Cereals	0	0	0	1	0	0	13	5	14	0	1	0	0	0%	0%
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskins)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
53 Other vegetable textile fibres; paper yarn	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
14 Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetable	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
66 Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-sticks	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
67 Prepared feathers and down and articles	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
43 Furskins and artificial fur; manufactures	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
50 Silk	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
78 Lead and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0%	0%
80 Tin and articles thereof	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0%	0%

Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]

**Table 6: Selected EU imports from Colombia, by HS heading/sub-heading, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
0803 Bananas, including plantains, fresh	655.5	823.8	792.5	785.6	775.4	787.6	765.6	717.7	877.8	862.2	950.3	892.0	880.2	3.7	2.3	0.7	1.6	
2701 Coal; briquettes, ovoids and similar	1,387.0	2,337.8	1,823.4	1,909.3	3,248.7	3,603.6	2,643.6	2,336.8	2,396.9	1,979.9	2,056.4	1,640.9	799.8	21.0	-13.9	-26.1	-19.3	
0901 Coffee, whether or not roasted	517.6	525.3	323.5	306.7	490.5	405.2	369.5	517.8	626.7	588.6	612.6	490.0	516.4	-4.8	9.8	-4.3	3.5	
7108 Gold (including gold plated with	1.8	2.5	4.9	38.9	74.7	38.0	1.9	8.8	43.0	5.0	14.1	101.8	466.9	85.0	-39.8	353.7	43.1	
1511 Palm oil and its fractions, whet	117.5	158.8	52.4	12.4	73.8	63.8	66.8	78.2	133.1	173.7	303.9	265.5	248.6	-11.5	28.4	12.7	21.4	
0603 Cut flowers and flower buds of	117.4	120.3	112.2	120.1	112.5	123.9	123.4	146.7	154.2	153.4	149.2	161.1	173.9	1.1	5.5	4.3	5.0	
06031x Fresh cut flowers	116.1	119.3	109.4	114.7	107.0	114.5	111.0	132.0	135.9	133.2	132.1	143.8	153.7	-0.3	3.8	4.9	4.3	
060390 Dried, dyed, bleached, imp	1.3	1.0	2.8	5.4	5.6	9.4	12.4	14.7	18.4	20.3	17.1	17.4	20.2	49.1	21.3	-0.1	11.6	
0804 Dates, figs, pineapples, avocad	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.7	6.0	17.3	51.1	72.6	65.8	124.5	31.0	160.1	34.6	96.1	
080440 Fresh or dried avocados	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.9	3.6	12.7	42.5	59.6	56.6	118.4	-62.5	7974.8	40.7	1323.3	
080430 Fresh or dried pineapples	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.3	1.9	3.6	7.3	11.5	7.3	3.3	45.7	69.8	-23.0	21.0	
2704 Coke and semi-coke of coal, of	8.9	34.8	9.9	59.4	41.0	69.3	77.0	51.2	40.6	42.7	32.9	87.6	112.0	50.8	-11.4	38.0	7.1	
7103 Precious stones (other than dia	10.0	14.3	10.0	14.6	17.9	33.1	39.3	50.4	52.8	54.8	71.0	107.7	105.5	27.0	13.4	24.4	18.0	
081090 Fresh tamarinds, cashew ap	30.0	29.6	30.6	31.4	33.9	37.9	39.0	44.8	53.9	53.6	57.7	60.6	70.1	4.8	9.1	9.4	9.2	
1701 Cane or beet sugar and chemi	1.5	2.2	3.5	2.4	13.0	9.3	27.1	35.7	39.1	45.0	48.1	38.0	62.2	44.3	48.2	11.4	31.1	
170199 Cane or beet sugar and che	0.9	0.8	1.6	1.4	9.9	4.3	21.4	19.7	22.3	24.5	28.6	17.8	39.3	36.5	54.9	17.1	37.4	
170114 Raw cane sugar, in solid fo						4.7	5.2	15.3	15.8	19.0	16.5	16.3	17.3	..	42.1	-3.1	20.6	
210111 Extracts, essences & concen	30.0	30.3	31.6	36.6	42.8	43.6	35.6	32.4	48.5	46.7	45.8	46.0	49.1	7.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	
720260 Ferro-nickel	489.5	309.1	178.4	281.7	229.9	281.9	37.1	28.5	74.9	13.1	55.7	68.2	48.3	-10.4	-53.6	54.5	-22.3	
160414 Prepared or preserved tuna	63.4	77.3	47.3	40.1	53.3	64.4	64.5	53.4	30.1	23.3	43.2	57.1	47.4	0.3	-22.4	26.7	-4.3	
7112 Waste and scrap of precious m	1.9	2.9	0.3	2.2	2.0	0.8	0.3	1.0	0.9	1.5	1.0	26.8	45.6	-15.2	16.1	213.1	77.6	
8411 Turbo-jets, turbo-propellers a	5.0	2.3	5.9	5.5	6.6	2.4	22.6	24.4	29.5	23.5	85.9	32.0	45.4	-13.9	77.4	24.5	52.4	
151321 Crude palm kernel and baba	7.5	7.3	2.1	5.1	35.3	3.1	17.2	31.8	37.7	56.8	62.0	62.5	33.9	-15.9	106.3	-15.8	40.5	
252310 Cement clinkers	2.4	10.4	17.9	16.9	17.9	21.8	19.6	18.8	25.6	24.1	16.2	20.3	26.3	56.0	2.5	3.0	2.7	
030617 Frozen shrimps and prawns,	42.4	49.3	45.2	37.7	24.9	25.8	12.9	13.8	14.1	19.8	26.8	24.5	22.0	-9.5	-6.3	3.5	-2.2	
7404 Copper waste and scrap.	3.2	8.3	5.6	16.9	34.6	21.1	31.8	32.3	12.4	10.1	20.0	5.0	17.6	46.0	-16.8	20.3	-2.6	
2008 Fruit, nuts and other edible pa	3.7	4.5	7.9	8.7	7.6	8.1	7.5	9.0	13.4	12.3	12.7	12.7	17.0	17.2	11.0	11.3	11.1	
0805 Citrus fruit, fresh or dried.	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	3.5	4.8	5.7	8.9	14.8	16.4	-9.9	40.5	42.3	41.3	
3921 Other plates, sheets, film, foil	5.0	7.6	8.3	10.3	9.2	9.1	7.3	7.6	10.8	15.8	18.3	21.4	15.2	12.8	14.8	-1.3	7.6	
3923 Articles for the conveyance or	1.2	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.4	7.4	9.9	7.1	9.3	11.4	-1.0	70.6	5.1	38.6	
275533 Confidential trade of chapt	157.3	116.3	152.7	76.1	203.9	125.1	113.4	105.4	29.7	24.2				-4.5	-33.7	-24.7	-30.0	
9018 Instruments and appliances us	1.4	2.0	1.7	2.2	2.9	5.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.3	3.1	6.8	10.3	31.5	-19.1	64.0	9.5	
1804 Cocoa butter, fat and oil.	5.9	6.6	5.5	1.8	2.3	2.6	3.9	3.9	3.7	10.9	3.6	10.4	9.3	-15.4	43.8	-5.3	20.2	
2401 Unmanufactured tobacco; tob	4.4	7.3	3.3	4.2	7.1	9.5	28.4	10.7	16.1	10.0	12.2	10.8	8.8	16.6	1.2	-4.2	-1.1	
2208 Undenatured ethyl alcohol of a	1.7	1.4	1.8	2.8	4.3	4.3	5.6	4.0	6.2	5.9	6.9	5.9	6.7	20.6	8.0	4.3	6.4	
7204 Ferrous waste and scrap; rem	24.5	21.1	6.6	17.0	20.4	17.7	15.9	7.5	8.7	6.7	6.6	9.4	6.4	-6.3	-21.5	-1.6	-13.5	
6203 Men's or boys' suits, ensemble	8.4	8.3	10.0	10.6	9.7	12.4	9.6	10.9	10.5	8.0	8.0	6.5	6.4	8.1	-10.4	-7.2	-9.1	
4107 Leather further prepared after	4.6	5.1	2.1	7.3	6.5	3.7	3.1	6.3	5.2	6.2	8.2	6.5	5.9	-4.3	13.7	-2.1	6.7	
3902 Polymers of propylene or of ot	6.0	2.1	1.8	3.9	5.2	4.7	0.8	2.4	13.6	3.2	4.3	0.9	5.4	-4.9	-9.1	18.9	2.0	
3503 Gelatin (including gelatin in rec	1.4	2.2	3.5	2.1	3.8	2.5	2.0	2.5	5.0	2.7	9.8	7.3	5.2	12.9	1.2	25.3	10.9	
1518 Animal or vegetable fats and o					0.0		0.9	2.4	2.7	1.1	5.5	5.3	4.9	..	..	67.0	..	
3004 Medicaments (excluding goods	0.5	0.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	4.3	5.9	4.4	4.3	4.7	3.1	4.8	3.3	63.9	3.5	34.6	
4104 Tanned or crust hides and skin	32.9	18.1	9.5	18.1	27.8	27.6	23.8	42.9	39.6	21.5	12.6	7.3	4.3	-3.5	-6.0	-41.6	-23.3	
6204 Women's or girls' suits, ensem	5.6	4.3	4.6	6.9	4.8	3.7	3.4	2.4	3.3	3.3	5.8	3.9	4.3	-8.0	-2.6	9.0	2.2	
1704 Sugar confectionery (including	14.3	11.1	12.6	11.7	20.6	9.2	4.7	4.7	4.3	3.1	3.2	3.6	4.0	-8.5	-23.6	8.8	-11.1	
9032 Automatic regulating or contro	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.4	2.1	0.2	0.9	6.3	5.3	4.2	3.4	3.8	184.3	26.8	-10.6	9.2	
1801 Cocoa beans, whole or broken,	0.9	1.7	2.7	6.6	3.1	2.1	5.7	7.8	12.6	20.1	16.5	4.7	3.8	19.5	75.7	-42.5	8.9	
9602 Worked vegetable or mineral c	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.5	2.3	3.4	3.5	4.4	4.5	3.9	3.6	35.0	31.0	-6.8	13.2	
4803 Toilet or facial tissue stock, to	1.7	0.9	1.1	2.6	2.6	1.4	2.1	4.2	4.6	3.5	3.0	1.8	2.0	-3.3	25.4	-16.5	5.4	
3920 Other plates, sheets, film, foil	3.4	6.6	9.0	8.1	6.9	4.9	5.4	5.4	3.7	3.4	3.0	2.2	1.3	7.3	-8.7	-27.2	-17.2	
8517 Telephone sets, including telep	5.2	6.3	9.8	9.8	6.6	10.8	10.8	12.0	4.2	4.4	3.6	2.0	1.3	15.7	-19.8	-34.4	-26.4	
2713 Petroleum coke, petroleum bit		0.3	0.5	7.5	0.6	4.5	2.3	2.8	8.5	13.4	18.0	15.6	0.0	..	31.4	-91.9	-60.1	
8802 Other aircraft (for example, he	0.4		0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0		0.1	64.2	13.8		0.0	0.0	-36.1	316.9	-94.8	-36.2	
2710 Petroleum oils and oils obtaine	91.5	109.8	42.3	3.0	33.7	0.0	1.3	43.4	0.0	26.7	48.7	72.3	0.0	-84.5	657.7	-96.8	-27.4	
2603 Copper ores and concentrates.							13.0	34.7	15.5	27.0	30.6	0.0		..	..	-97.5	..	
2709 Petroleum oils and oils obtaine	45.9		36.4	275.8	1,051.0	2,108.1	2,669.7	3,352.8	1,462.4	720.1	357.6	294.2	0.0	115.0	-23.6	-99.6	-92.0	

Note: Shows products with average import value of at least EUR 3 million per year over 2013-2019.













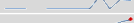







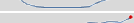

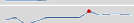














Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]

**Table 7: Selected EU imports from Peru, by HS heading/sub-heading, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
<b>2603 Copper ores and concentrates</b>	<b>658.2</b>	<b>866.7</b>	<b>750.9</b>	<b>1,518.6</b>	<b>1,691.4</b>	<b>1,562.1</b>	<b>1,330.5</b>	<b>1,018.8</b>	<b>989.6</b>	<b>703.9</b>	<b>1,082.9</b>	<b>975.0</b>	<b>807.8</b>	<b>18.9</b>	<b>-18.1</b>	<b>4.7</b>	<b>-9.0</b>	
<b>0804 Dates, figs, pineapples, avocados</b>	<b>79.4</b>	<b>119.9</b>	<b>107.2</b>	<b>139.5</b>	<b>170.6</b>	<b>169.0</b>	<b>243.7</b>	<b>236.2</b>	<b>359.6</b>	<b>462.6</b>	<b>528.5</b>	<b>555.3</b>	<b>639.0</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>28.6</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>20.9</b>	
080440 Fresh or dried avocados	45.6	73.3	65.3	83.2	102.2	97.8	146.9	150.2	228.1	315.3	379.6	377.9	447.8	16.5	34.0	12.4	24.3	
080450 Fresh or dried guavas, mangoes	33.4	46.4	41.6	56.1	68.1	70.9	84.9	85.2	130.6	145.0	147.0	172.6	185.5	16.2	19.6	8.6	14.7	
<b>0901 Coffee, whether or not roasted</b>	<b>227.3</b>	<b>291.7</b>	<b>295.5</b>	<b>455.1</b>	<b>624.8</b>	<b>545.6</b>	<b>371.7</b>	<b>361.9</b>	<b>350.5</b>	<b>377.6</b>	<b>358.0</b>	<b>331.3</b>	<b>331.8</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>-8.8</b>	<b>-4.2</b>	<b>-6.9</b>	
<b>2608 Zinc ores and concentrates</b>	<b>758.5</b>	<b>224.9</b>	<b>127.2</b>	<b>292.3</b>	<b>246.9</b>	<b>255.7</b>	<b>247.7</b>	<b>275.0</b>	<b>221.1</b>	<b>356.3</b>	<b>594.3</b>	<b>523.6</b>	<b>317.4</b>	<b>-19.5</b>	<b>8.7</b>	<b>-3.8</b>	<b>3.1</b>	
<b>0810 Other fruit, fresh</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>13.8</b>	<b>22.2</b>	<b>60.0</b>	<b>124.2</b>	<b>139.2</b>	<b>189.8</b>	<b>273.3</b>	<b>30.2</b>	<b>91.7</b>	<b>30.1</b>	<b>62.4</b>	
081040 Fresh cranberries, bilberries			0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	4.6	9.4	37.9	96.0	104.8	149.7	229.4	..	295.0	33.7	148.3	
081090 Fresh tamarinds, cashew apples	1.2	1.8	2.8	2.5	6.2	7.6	8.3	12.1	21.6	27.0	33.5	38.0	42.1	43.6	37.5	15.9	27.8	
<b>2711 Petroleum gases and other gases</b>				<b>122.1</b>	<b>443.5</b>	<b>671.2</b>	<b>359.1</b>	<b>254.1</b>	<b>229.4</b>	<b>372.9</b>	<b>670.8</b>	<b>456.2</b>	<b>266.4</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>-13.7</b>	<b>-10.6</b>	<b>-12.4</b>	
<b>0307 Molluscs, whether in shell or not</b>	<b>90.3</b>	<b>91.7</b>	<b>74.5</b>	<b>134.0</b>	<b>163.4</b>	<b>138.1</b>	<b>136.8</b>	<b>171.8</b>	<b>174.7</b>	<b>168.4</b>	<b>171.9</b>	<b>224.9</b>	<b>253.4</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>14.6</b>	<b>9.1</b>	
<b>7403 Refined copper and copper alloys</b>	<b>565.3</b>	<b>441.8</b>	<b>252.7</b>	<b>445.0</b>	<b>651.8</b>	<b>411.8</b>	<b>334.8</b>	<b>281.7</b>	<b>276.2</b>	<b>202.9</b>	<b>256.4</b>	<b>260.6</b>	<b>229.4</b>	<b>-6.1</b>	<b>-16.2</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>-8.0</b>	
<b>0806 Grapes, fresh or dried</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>31.9</b>	<b>41.3</b>	<b>67.6</b>	<b>100.1</b>	<b>117.0</b>	<b>169.9</b>	<b>181.2</b>	<b>146.6</b>	<b>141.7</b>	<b>238.0</b>	<b>228.4</b>	<b>50.9</b>	<b>10.0</b>	<b>15.9</b>	<b>12.5</b>	
<b>7901 Unwrought zinc</b>	<b>50.6</b>	<b>25.5</b>	<b>15.6</b>	<b>26.7</b>	<b>70.6</b>	<b>97.7</b>	<b>102.9</b>	<b>102.5</b>	<b>136.1</b>	<b>156.5</b>	<b>188.7</b>	<b>214.2</b>	<b>176.9</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>12.5</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>8.8</b>	
<b>070920 Fresh or chilled asparagus</b>	<b>84.9</b>	<b>92.0</b>	<b>90.0</b>	<b>102.9</b>	<b>109.5</b>	<b>123.2</b>	<b>128.6</b>	<b>130.4</b>	<b>157.8</b>	<b>158.2</b>	<b>147.3</b>	<b>150.5</b>	<b>157.8</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>-0.1</b>	<b>3.6</b>	
<b>2005 Other vegetables prepared or preserved</b>	<b>145.6</b>	<b>150.8</b>	<b>109.3</b>	<b>117.1</b>	<b>159.6</b>	<b>148.6</b>	<b>148.1</b>	<b>153.5</b>	<b>170.3</b>	<b>166.4</b>	<b>162.7</b>	<b>146.5</b>	<b>140.6</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>-5.5</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	
200599 Vegetables and mixtures of vegetables	56.2	50.2	46.4	58.4	82.7	73.2	66.5	58.6	67.5	74.9	92.8	79.9	71.2	5.4	0.6	-1.7	-0.4	
200560 Asparagus, prepared or preserved	87.9	99.9	61.9	58.1	76.1	74.1	80.5	93.3	101.3	89.1	68.4	65.6	68.0	-3.3	4.7	-8.6	-1.2	
<b>2607 Lead ores and concentrates</b>	<b>58.5</b>	<b>87.8</b>	<b>65.8</b>	<b>81.0</b>	<b>138.6</b>	<b>71.8</b>	<b>97.4</b>	<b>162.2</b>	<b>130.8</b>	<b>145.9</b>	<b>113.2</b>	<b>58.3</b>	<b>120.5</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>-6.2</b>	<b>7.7</b>	
<b>2207 Undenatured ethyl alcohol of agricultural origin</b>	<b>17.6</b>	<b>23.6</b>	<b>25.7</b>	<b>21.9</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>42.3</b>	<b>68.9</b>	<b>43.7</b>	<b>35.1</b>	<b>65.1</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>99.1</b>	<b>19.2</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>12.9</b>	
<b>8001 Unwrought tin</b>	<b>161.4</b>	<b>214.0</b>	<b>131.2</b>	<b>268.0</b>	<b>267.9</b>	<b>110.3</b>	<b>90.3</b>	<b>149.1</b>	<b>129.4</b>	<b>106.2</b>	<b>136.9</b>	<b>94.1</b>	<b>89.8</b>	<b>-7.3</b>	<b>-1.0</b>	<b>-5.4</b>	<b>-2.9</b>	
<b>0803 Bananas, including plantains, fresh</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>28.0</b>	<b>32.2</b>	<b>38.6</b>	<b>47.9</b>	<b>61.0</b>	<b>84.4</b>	<b>65.9</b>	<b>69.2</b>	<b>83.1</b>	<b>85.5</b>	<b>93.6</b>	<b>81.7</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>-0.6</b>	<b>4.3</b>	
<b>1801 Cocoa beans, whole or broken</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>22.7</b>	<b>43.3</b>	<b>47.9</b>	<b>64.8</b>	<b>126.0</b>	<b>156.6</b>	<b>98.6</b>	<b>73.2</b>	<b>78.6</b>	<b>49.0</b>	<b>37.9</b>	<b>-20.5</b>	<b>8.9</b>	
<b>0805 Citrus fruit, fresh or dried</b>	<b>15.4</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>20.5</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>37.0</b>	<b>46.7</b>	<b>48.6</b>	<b>53.3</b>	<b>58.5</b>	<b>64.2</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>75.2</b>	<b>73.9</b>	<b>24.8</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>6.8</b>	
<b>1604 Prepared or preserved fish; cereals</b>	<b>19.5</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>15.6</b>	<b>16.5</b>	<b>23.3</b>	<b>24.0</b>	<b>31.4</b>	<b>45.6</b>	<b>32.4</b>	<b>41.3</b>	<b>65.1</b>	<b>71.7</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>8.6</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>17.4</b>	
160414 Prepared or preserved tuna	1.3	3.8	3.2	5.3	5.0	4.3	10.5	10.5	17.2	7.1	21.0	38.2	43.3	27.8	13.0	83.1	39.0	
160416 Prepared or preserved anchovies	3.3	3.1	2.8	4.5	6.7	9.3	8.3	16.5	26.1	23.8	18.4	26.1	26.3	23.0	26.4	3.4	16.0	
<b>1504 Fats and oils and their fractions</b>	<b>75.6</b>	<b>63.7</b>	<b>65.8</b>	<b>64.4</b>	<b>78.1</b>	<b>167.6</b>	<b>66.8</b>	<b>90.2</b>	<b>90.0</b>	<b>47.5</b>	<b>53.7</b>	<b>89.2</b>	<b>66.4</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>-27.0</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>-12.4</b>	
<b>2301 Flours, meals and pellets, of meslin</b>	<b>251.3</b>	<b>164.5</b>	<b>266.2</b>	<b>262.6</b>	<b>210.3</b>	<b>252.8</b>	<b>136.2</b>	<b>181.0</b>	<b>60.0</b>	<b>86.7</b>	<b>23.8</b>	<b>34.7</b>	<b>57.5</b>	<b>0.1</b>	<b>-23.5</b>	<b>-12.8</b>	<b>-19.1</b>	
<b>0811 Fruit and nuts, uncooked or cooked</b>	<b>9.0</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>18.1</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>15.4</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>27.7</b>	<b>32.3</b>	<b>43.2</b>	<b>57.1</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>11.2</b>	<b>27.3</b>	<b>17.8</b>	
<b>7108 Gold (including gold plated with other metals)</b>		<b>8.3</b>	<b>103.6</b>	<b>172.1</b>	<b>216.0</b>	<b>186.9</b>	<b>271.1</b>	<b>45.0</b>	<b>24.0</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>84.6</b>	<b>49.5</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>-51.8</b>	<b>69.9</b>	<b>-17.3</b>	
<b>2613 Molybdenum ores and concentrates</b>	<b>129.2</b>	<b>118.2</b>	<b>36.5</b>	<b>72.1</b>	<b>61.4</b>	<b>56.3</b>		<b>0.5</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>33.6</b>	<b>45.0</b>	<b>49.0</b>	<b>-15.3</b>	<b>-17.3</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>-2.0</b>	
<b>1804 Cocoa butter, fat and oil</b>	<b>15.5</b>	<b>23.1</b>	<b>16.6</b>	<b>14.2</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>18.8</b>	<b>24.5</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>24.8</b>	<b>34.2</b>	<b>44.2</b>	<b>-9.5</b>	<b>36.2</b>	<b>10.8</b>	<b>24.7</b>	
<b>100850 Quinoa "Chenopodium quinoa"</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>7.9</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>44.9</b>	<b>37.8</b>	<b>27.8</b>	<b>33.2</b>	<b>41.9</b>	<b>13.2</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>49.4</b>	
<b>1209 Seeds, fruit and spores, of a kind</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>11.5</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>21.5</b>	<b>21.3</b>	<b>20.4</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>28.8</b>	<b>31.2</b>	<b>37.9</b>	<b>40.1</b>	<b>55.5</b>	<b>7.6</b>	<b>11.6</b>	<b>9.3</b>	
<b>2009 Fruit juices (including grape must)</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>15.2</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>28.9</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>38.5</b>	<b>33.4</b>	<b>31.1</b>	<b>39.0</b>	<b>26.1</b>	<b>26.2</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>14.4</b>	
<b>2616 Precious metal ores and concentrates</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>14.4</b>	<b>42.2</b>	<b>67.9</b>	<b>101.7</b>	<b>90.4</b>	<b>4.6</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>18.1</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>36.3</b>	<b>148.5</b>	<b>-33.1</b>	<b>26.0</b>	<b>-12.2</b>	
<b>0306 Crustaceans, whether in shell or not</b>	<b>12.2</b>	<b>11.9</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>14.5</b>	<b>15.1</b>	<b>17.2</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>27.5</b>	<b>43.0</b>	<b>40.6</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>45.5</b>	<b>34.9</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>24.0</b>	<b>-5.0</b>	<b>10.6</b>	
<b>3203 Colouring matter of vegetable origin</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>16.6</b>	<b>79.5</b>	<b>85.3</b>	<b>38.5</b>	<b>22.5</b>	<b>29.1</b>	<b>38.4</b>	<b>50.8</b>	<b>48.3</b>	<b>39.5</b>	<b>31.3</b>	<b>20.7</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>-14.9</b>	<b>-2.9</b>	

(cont.)

(Table continued)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
6109 T-shirts, singlets and other ves	23.9	27.7	22.5	23.9	26.7	26.2	22.3	20.3	24.0	18.1	20.4	25.5	28.6	1.9	-8.8	16.4	1.2	
510539 Fine animal hair, carded or c	10.6	9.8	7.3	11.2	16.4	13.6	13.5	21.2	22.8	14.7	17.5	26.5	26.8	5.1	1.9	22.3	10.2	
2001 Vegetables, fruit, nuts and oth	7.3	6.8	6.9	8.6	10.8	12.2	14.8	17.4	20.6	19.6	18.6	25.0	27.2	10.8	12.5	11.5	12.1	
7905 Zinc plates, sheets, strip and fo	39.1	25.2	20.5	23.4	26.5	24.1	22.4	13.1	26.2	23.1	36.4	35.6	26.6	-9.2	-1.0	4.7	1.4	
1207 Other oil seeds and oleaginous	1.6	2.1	2.0	3.4	2.8	5.9	14.1	15.3	12.2	17.8	18.2	22.1	25.8	29.9	31.7	13.2	23.4	
2817 Zinc oxide; zinc peroxide.	35.2	21.2	7.6	16.7	21.4	15.9	12.8	16.0	23.7	16.5	25.6	34.0	22.4	-14.7	1.0	10.7	5.0	
2008 Fruit, nuts and other edible par	4.2	5.1	2.8	4.7	5.7	5.5	6.3	8.3	7.8	9.6	12.0	20.6	22.1	5.9	14.6	32.3	21.9	
091011 Ginger, neither crushed nor	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.9	2.4	1.2	2.2	4.1	11.3	10.4	19.7	18.3	17.6	31.1	70.4	19.4	46.3	
6105 Men's or boys' shirts, knitted o	29.2	28.4	25.4	26.6	28.5	25.2	21.4	21.1	25.4	22.0	23.6	24.7	19.9	-2.9	-3.4	-3.2	-3.3	
5109 Yarn of wool or of fine animal l	1.3	1.5	2.4	3.9	6.0	7.2	8.9	9.5	10.9	18.2	18.1	18.0	19.2	41.3	26.1	1.7	15.0	
070310 Fresh or chilled onions and s	1.0	1.4	0.9	1.4	2.1	3.1	4.4	5.0	5.7	8.9	9.1	13.7	18.2	25.8	30.0	27.0	28.7	
0904 Pepper of the genus Piper; dri	26.2	30.6	28.5	27.4	37.5	33.0	18.7	10.4	10.7	18.6	18.6	10.5	17.9	4.7	-13.4	-1.3	-8.4	
070810 Fresh or chilled peas "Pisum	4.8	4.5	3.9	3.7	6.9	8.6	9.7	10.1	8.0	11.6	11.3	13.5	17.6	12.5	7.9	14.8	10.8	
7112 Waste and scrap of precious m	0.6	0.2	0.1		0.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.1	26.9	0.3	19.7	17.2	-17.8	230.9	-13.9	85.8	
4409 Wood (including strips and frie	1.7	2.4	1.3	2.3	6.3	7.0	6.3	6.2	9.7	8.3	9.0	13.1	16.7	32.4	4.2	26.2	13.1	
0710 Vegetables (uncooked or cook	18.1	18.2	14.8	14.1	15.7	19.4	15.1	15.0	13.8	13.9	17.7	20.5	16.4	1.4	-8.0	5.7	-2.4	
0305 Fish, dried, salted or in brine; s	6.7	9.0	9.0	10.2	9.5	10.8	11.4	12.9	16.4	14.6	11.4	13.9	13.4	10.0	7.7	-2.9	3.1	
1005 Maize (corn).	4.2	6.3	6.3	7.3	5.2	7.7	8.4	7.7	9.7	8.7	10.5	14.5	12.6	12.7	3.3	13.1	7.4	
1605 Crustaceans, molluscs and oth	5.1	5.9	3.3	4.4	6.8	7.8	5.3	10.3	14.6	12.8	15.5	18.4	12.2	8.7	13.2	-1.6	6.6	
250850 Andalusite, kyanite and silli			0.0	2.0	4.1	5.3	4.8	7.9	6.7	7.8	5.8	11.8	11.6	..	10.2	14.4	12.0	
7408 Copper wire.	6.9	7.8	3.3	6.8	8.5	8.9	4.2	4.9	5.4	8.6	11.1	12.4	11.4	5.2	-0.9	10.0	3.6	
330119 Essential oils of citrus fruit, v	1.8	3.2	3.2	2.4	4.0	4.5	5.1	6.3	7.9	8.5	12.5	6.9	9.4	20.1	17.3	3.3	11.1	
5107 Yarn of combed wool, not put i	7.6	7.6	5.1	4.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.4	4.0	6.1	6.8	8.3	8.9	-13.5	13.3	13.5	13.4	
1211 Plants and parts of plants (incl	3.3	3.9	3.5	4.0	3.1	4.2	3.0	4.8	6.1	5.6	6.2	5.9	7.8	4.8	7.3	11.5	9.1	
0601 Bulbs, tubers, tuberous roots, p	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.8	2.7	3.1	3.7	4.4	6.4	6.9	7.5	187.3	25.0	19.9	22.8	
1404 Vegetable products not elsewh	4.9	6.6	2.0	4.4	6.4	6.0	6.3	6.1	10.0	7.7	8.2	8.3	7.4	4.1	6.6	-1.2	3.2	
7907 Other articles of zinc.	16.5	8.2	3.4	4.8	5.5	4.6	4.4	6.2	5.4	5.7	8.0	7.8	6.5	-22.6	5.6	4.5	5.1	
0303 Fish, frozen, excluding fish fille	11.9	11.5	11.7	4.4	7.4	7.5	7.4	7.9	7.9	6.8	10.0	8.3	6.1	-8.9	-2.5	-3.6	-3.0	
1701 Cane or beet sugar and chemik	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.8	2.2	11.1	2.0	13.0	14.5	3.7	5.5	10.8	104.1	-24.9	33.0	
7402 Unrefined copper; copper anod	112.7	38.5	51.3	56.9	9.9	0.2	0.8	0.1	11.5	17.0	5.2	0.1	5.2	-73.1	221.9	-32.7	64.6	
510820 Combed yarn of fine animal	3.0	2.5	2.0	3.2	4.8	5.1	5.8	5.9	5.7	4.9	4.2	5.9	5.1	11.5	-1.2	1.2	-0.2	
7404 Copper waste and scrap.	2.1	1.8	0.4	1.3	2.4	2.6	1.0	1.7	25.0	1.0	2.7	0.7	4.8	3.6	-21.5	70.7	9.5	
0713 Dried leguminous vegetables, s	7.3	7.2	7.3	9.1	10.3	10.0	10.0	7.2	5.7	6.0	5.1	4.2	4.6	6.5	-12.0	-8.6	-10.5	
1515 Other fixed vegetable fats and	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.7	3.9	6.5	6.8	6.9	5.8	3.1	3.6	3.3	3.9	52.7	-16.7	8.2	-6.8	
230800 Acorns, horse-chestnuts, ma	4.0	3.2	3.5	4.0	3.6	1.8	1.9	3.6	8.9	5.2	6.2	4.9	3.9	-14.8	30.0	-9.1	11.5	
7106 Silver (including silver plated w	22.7	9.5	3.8	0.0	0.2		0.0	0.0	8.7	8.0	9.8	14.9	2.2	-100.0	..	-34.7	..	
5205 Cotton yarn (other than sewin	11.8	10.9	6.5	7.9	11.2	11.6	13.9	12.1	12.3	6.6	2.3	2.2	1.4	-0.5	-13.0	-40.7	-26.2	

Note: Shows products with average import value of at least EUR 5 million per year over 2013-2019.

Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]



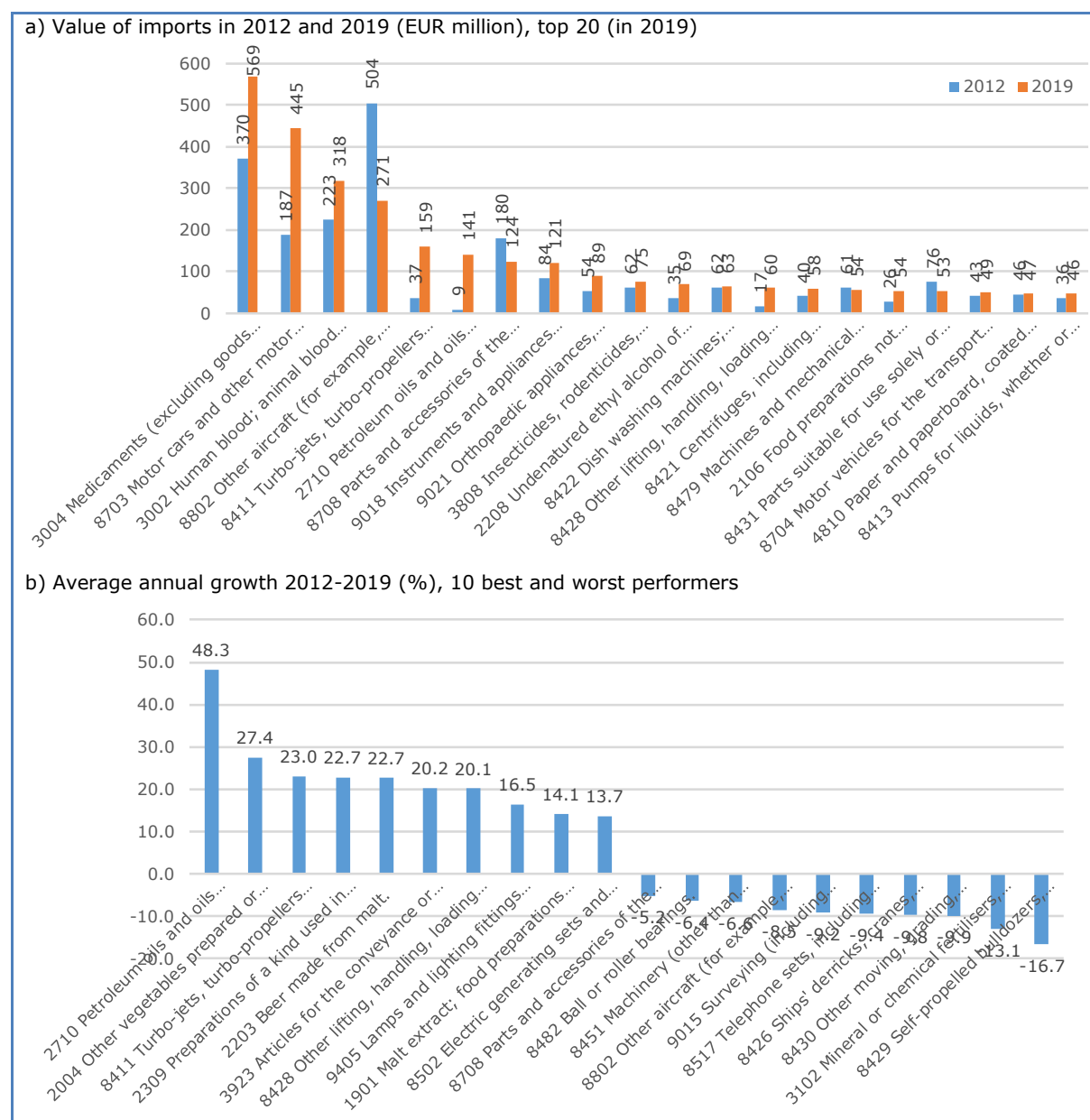
**Table 8: Selected EU imports from Ecuador, by HS heading/sub-heading, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
<b>0803 Bananas, including plantains, fresh</b>	<b>704.7</b>	<b>805.1</b>	<b>780.6</b>	<b>741.3</b>	<b>835.0</b>	<b>790.9</b>	<b>760.8</b>	<b>831.8</b>	<b>826.2</b>	<b>776.6</b>	<b>911.8</b>	<b>998.8</b>	<b>920.0</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>-0.5</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>2.2</b>	
<b>1604 Prepared or preserved fish</b>	<b>293.4</b>	<b>426.8</b>	<b>319.2</b>	<b>305.9</b>	<b>379.6</b>	<b>487.8</b>	<b>566.7</b>	<b>441.7</b>	<b>421.6</b>	<b>440.1</b>	<b>649.1</b>	<b>639.4</b>	<b>691.7</b>	<b>10.7</b>	<b>-2.5</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>5.1</b>	
160414 Preserved tunas	257.4	405.8	307.6	297.4	357.4	465.5	545.3	434.6	411.8	428.3	632.2	622.7	674.4	12.6	-2.1	16.3	5.4	
160420 Preserved fish	29.5	14.6	9.3	7.2	21.2	21.2	20.8	6.1	7.2	10.8	15.6	14.9	13.0	-6.4	-15.5	6.4	-6.8	
<b>0306 Frozen shrimps &amp; prawns</b>	<b>247.4</b>	<b>313.6</b>	<b>267.4</b>	<b>352.3</b>	<b>414.0</b>	<b>424.5</b>	<b>462.5</b>	<b>585.5</b>	<b>565.4</b>	<b>625.5</b>	<b>647.9</b>	<b>616.2</b>	<b>623.9</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>-0.1</b>	<b>5.7</b>	
<b>0603 Cut flowers</b>	<b>113.9</b>	<b>131.2</b>	<b>125.4</b>	<b>135.1</b>	<b>141.7</b>	<b>153.7</b>	<b>149.6</b>	<b>170.4</b>	<b>187.1</b>	<b>187.1</b>	<b>185.3</b>	<b>205.0</b>	<b>213.6</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>4.8</b>	
06031x Fresh cut flowers	109.5	125.2	120.0	130.9	137.8	148.7	144.1	163.6	179.3	178.1	173.8	191.2	199.8	6.3	4.6	3.9	4.3	
060390 Prepared cut flowers	1.8	3.4	3.2	2.0	1.3	2.2	2.7	3.9	4.1	6.5	9.2	11.8	11.6	4.9	30.4	21.4	26.4	
<b>180100 Cocoa beans</b>	<b>75.5</b>	<b>66.0</b>	<b>68.2</b>	<b>118.2</b>	<b>112.9</b>	<b>101.9</b>	<b>79.5</b>	<b>96.2</b>	<b>137.2</b>	<b>177.4</b>	<b>164.1</b>	<b>139.2</b>	<b>170.5</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>-1.3</b>	<b>7.6</b>	
<b>2008 Fruit</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>39.2</b>	<b>39.4</b>	<b>40.2</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>47.7</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>44.1</b>	<b>51.1</b>	<b>49.3</b>	<b>46.5</b>	<b>45.1</b>	<b>47.1</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>-1.5</b>	<b>-0.2</b>	
200899 Other fruit	19.0	16.5	21.9	23.1	23.2	23.3	21.2	22.2	27.4	26.5	25.4	25.8	27.9	4.2	3.2	1.8	2.6	
200891 Palm hearts	22.3	22.3	17.0	16.7	21.2	24.2	23.6	21.8	23.6	22.7	20.8	19.2	19.1	1.7	-1.6	-5.6	-3.3	
<b>210111 Coffee extracts</b>	<b>45.1</b>	<b>54.2</b>	<b>52.1</b>	<b>60.8</b>	<b>75.4</b>	<b>121.2</b>	<b>108.6</b>	<b>93.3</b>	<b>97.9</b>	<b>71.3</b>	<b>68.4</b>	<b>43.8</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>21.9</b>	<b>-12.4</b>	<b>-21.5</b>	<b>-16.4</b>	
<b>0804 Various fruits</b>	<b>34.6</b>	<b>28.8</b>	<b>33.3</b>	<b>26.1</b>	<b>23.2</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>13.0</b>	<b>12.1</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>23.9</b>	<b>29.2</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>27.4</b>	<b>-12.9</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>4.6</b>	<b>6.8</b>	
080430 Fresh or dried pineapples	31.6	26.8	31.7	24.7	21.8	14.8	9.1	10.3	16.0	21.1	26.9	22.3	25.2	-14.1	9.2	6.2	7.9	
<b>071080 Vegetables</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>24.0</b>	<b>23.8</b>	<b>25.8</b>	<b>25.8</b>	<b>23.2</b>	<b>19.9</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>25.0</b>	<b>24.5</b>	<b>23.8</b>	<b>23.7</b>	<b>23.9</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>-0.8</b>	<b>0.5</b>	
<b>4421 Other articles of wood</b>	<b>28.5</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>13.7</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>13.9</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>18.0</b>	<b>26.2</b>	<b>26.0</b>	<b>23.5</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>-13.4</b>	<b>17.2</b>	<b>-2.5</b>	<b>8.3</b>	
<b>0303 Fish, frozen excl fillets</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>14.5</b>	<b>12.4</b>	<b>13.2</b>	<b>18.2</b>	<b>10.8</b>	<b>27.1</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>33.0</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>21.3</b>	
030357 Swordfish						1.4	2.8	3.6	6.9	9.4	3.0	8.1	11.4	..	60.6	6.8	34.8	
030342 Yellowfin tunas	0.4	2.2	1.1	2.5	2.9	1.9	8.7	5.9	2.1	6.2	4.3	14.1	8.3	34.5	33.9	10.2	23.2	
<b>0304 Fish fillets</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>15.8</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>13.1</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>14.0</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>15.1</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>21.1</b>	<b>28.4</b>	<b>-2.9</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>2.1</b>	
030487 Tuna fillets						13.3	9.6	7.4	10.7	14.6	13.3	9.9	16.6	..	2.4	4.4	3.3	
<b>2009 Fruit juices</b>	<b>37.1</b>	<b>29.2</b>	<b>43.0</b>	<b>40.2</b>	<b>31.6</b>	<b>29.7</b>	<b>31.3</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>43.7</b>	<b>48.0</b>	<b>24.1</b>	<b>28.8</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>-4.4</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>-27.5</b>	<b>-6.7</b>	
<b>440722 Swan Virola, imbuia, balsa wood</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>9.0</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>13.1</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>11.7</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>17.9</b>	<b>14.0</b>	<b>12.9</b>	<b>17.8</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>-0.3</b>	<b>4.4</b>	
<b>2401 Tobacco</b>	<b>13.8</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>10.3</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>18.0</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>19.6</b>	<b>25.7</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>19.9</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>11.5</b>	<b>-13.5</b>	<b>0.0</b>	
<b>1804 Cocoa butter, fat and oil</b>	<b>9.6</b>	<b>14.5</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>11.1</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>7.9</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>27.6</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>-2.8</b>	<b>35.0</b>	<b>-22.5</b>	<b>6.4</b>	
<b>7108 Gold</b>		<b>0.0</b>	<b>0.0</b>			<b>0.0</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>4.3</b>	<b>1.2</b>			<b>13.9</b>	<b>12.1</b>	..	<b>-100.0</b>	..	<b>138.3</b>	
<b>1605 Preserved shrimps &amp; prawns</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>17.6</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>18.4</b>	<b>16.5</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>10.7</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>-16.6</b>	<b>5.8</b>	
<b>1511 Palm oil</b>	<b>20.9</b>	<b>38.3</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>57.4</b>	<b>63.2</b>	<b>26.7</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>34.1</b>	<b>21.2</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>24.8</b>	<b>-23.2</b>	<b>-23.0</b>	<b>-23.1</b>	
<b>5305 Coconut</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>-2.4</b>	<b>24.6</b>	<b>-12.0</b>	<b>7.3</b>	
<b>6504 Hats</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>21.7</b>	<b>13.2</b>	<b>-1.6</b>	<b>6.6</b>	
<b>0811 Fruit and nuts</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>-2.0</b>	<b>7.5</b>	
<b>6502 Hat-shapes</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>4.6</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>17.1</b>	<b>26.8</b>	<b>-8.2</b>	<b>10.4</b>	
<b>7404 Copper waste</b>	<b>0.5</b>		<b>0.1</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>35.3</b>	<b>-3.0</b>	<b>21.8</b>	<b>6.9</b>	
<b>1803 Cocoa paste</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>6.8</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>11.1</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>-11.1</b>	<b>-29.7</b>	<b>-19.6</b>	
<b>1504 Fish fats and oils</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>8.6</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>33.4</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>-56.4</b>	<b>-24.4</b>	
<b>2709 Petroleum oils and oils obtained from bituminous substances</b>				<b>27.8</b>	<b>40.7</b>			<b>105.8</b>	<b>47.8</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>0.0</b>		..	..	<b>-100.0</b>	..	

Note: Shows products with average import value of at least EUR 3 million per year over 2013-2019.

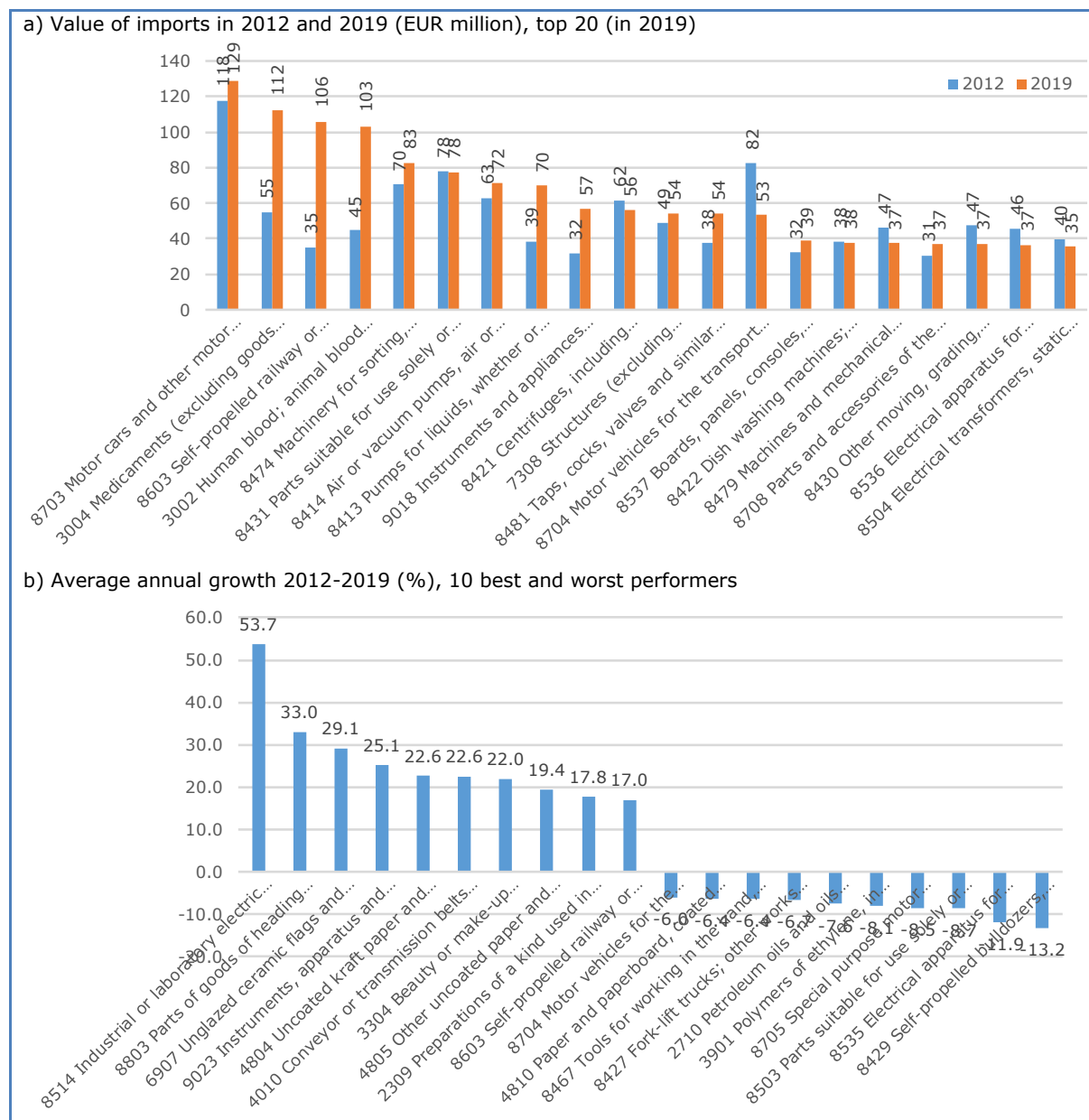
Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]

**Figure 3: EU exports to Colombia, selected products (HS 4-digit)**



Note: Growth performance only includes products with export value of at least EUR 5 million in 2019.

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database.

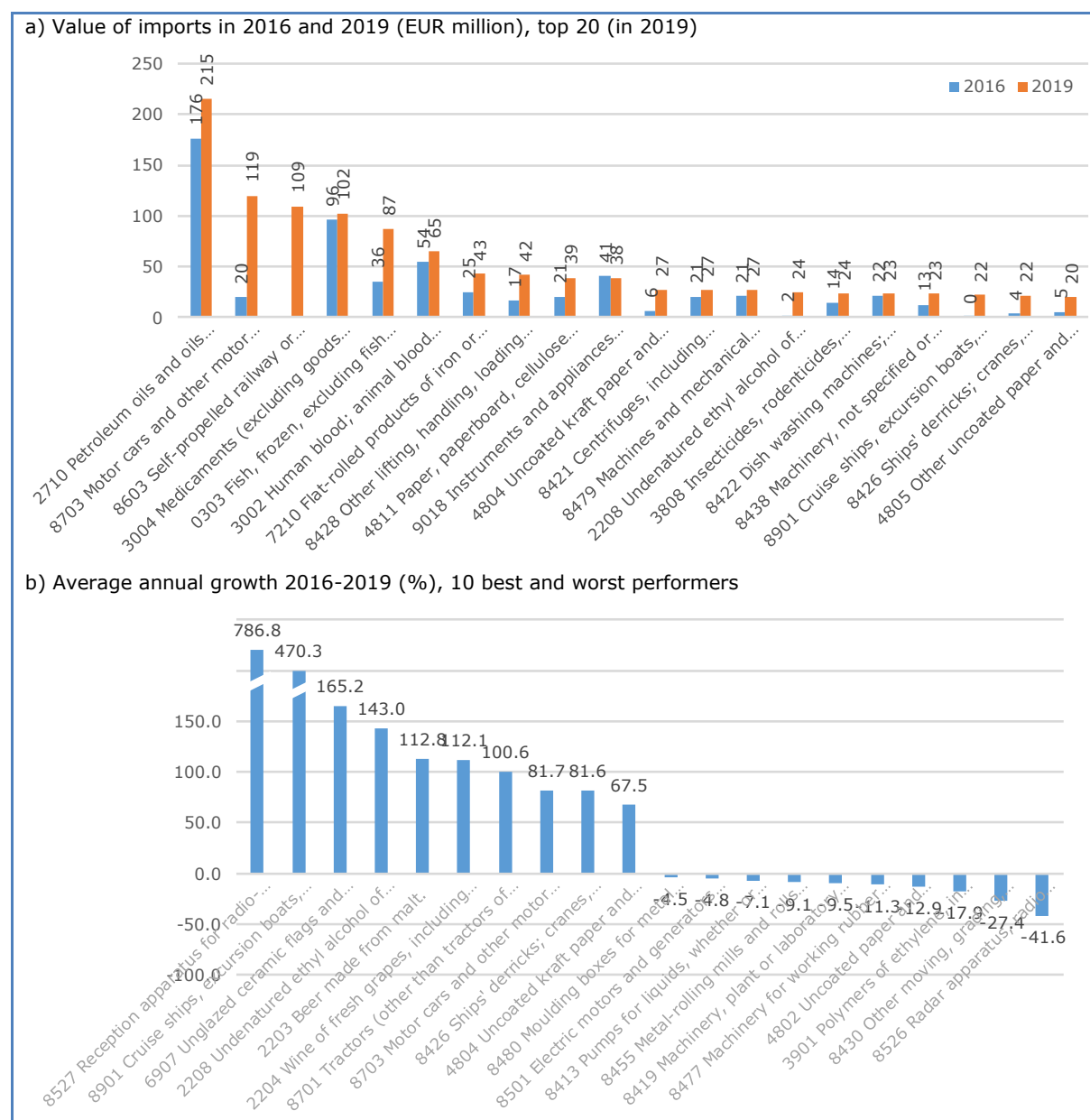
**Figure 4: EU exports to Peru, selected products (HS 4-digit)**

Note: Growth performance only includes products with export value of at least EUR 5 million in 2019.

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database.



**Figure 5: EU exports to Ecuador, selected products (HS 4-digit)**



Note: Growth performance only includes products with export value of at least EUR 3 million in 2019.

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database.

**Table 9: Selected EU exports to Colombia, by HS heading, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
3004 Medicaments (excluding goods of	122.6	143.3	169.3	236.2	266.3	370.4	431.2	446.6	530.7	462.8	447.3	482.1	569.2	24.8	5.7	7.1	6.3	
8703 Motor cars and other motor vehic	104.8	121.5	80.2	143.3	185.7	187.0	161.6	189.0	264.8	254.7	259.4	343.6	444.9	12.3	8.0	20.4	13.2	
3002 Human blood; animal blood prep	54.5	56.3	84.6	102.5	169.5	223.4	202.9	217.5	256.1	185.9	246.6	300.7	317.8	32.6	-4.5	19.6	5.2	
8802 Other aircraft (for example, helic		416.5	619.7	298.3	439.1	503.6	670.3	860.8	517.6	214.9	257.4	219.3	270.7	..	-19.2	8.0	-8.5	
8411 Turbo-jets, turbo-propellers and	29.3	14.9	25.5	23.1	50.1	37.2	40.2	93.1	87.1	18.8	157.3	70.6	158.6	4.9	-15.7	103.7	23.0	
2710 Petroleum oils and oils obtained	29.4	2.3	2.9	13.0	89.2	8.9	67.2	27.0	99.3	112.9	138.9	117.5	140.7	-21.2	88.5	7.6	48.3	
8708 Parts and accessories of the mot	139.4	75.8	74.4	104.0	115.7	179.7	160.0	148.5	157.9	143.6	130.9	128.5	123.8	5.2	-5.4	-4.8	-5.2	
9018 Instruments and appliances used	45.5	45.7	48.4	62.3	78.2	83.5	95.3	109.9	124.6	104.9	104.3	113.4	120.8	12.9	5.9	4.8	5.4	
9021 Orthopaedic appliances, includin	18.2	21.4	21.9	30.1	40.5	54.1	59.1	71.3	82.7	76.9	75.4	86.7	88.5	24.3	9.2	4.8	7.3	
3808 Insecticides, rodenticides, fungic	30.8	38.8	32.3	38.4	43.9	62.1	67.2	52.6	75.5	78.2	77.2	64.2	75.4	15.1	6.0	-1.2	2.8	
2208 Undenatured ethyl alcohol of an	29.2	23.9	21.7	18.8	30.8	35.1	34.4	41.3	42.2	43.7	35.3	46.0	69.1	3.7	5.7	16.5	10.2	
8422 Dish washing machines; machine	104.2	48.2	43.9	39.0	44.9	62.1	63.6	80.7	72.5	55.5	88.0	79.4	63.2	-9.9	-2.8	4.4	0.3	
8428 Other lifting, handling, loading o	21.3	17.7	14.5	17.9	23.5	16.6	15.8	58.7	48.4	24.4	36.5	27.9	60.1	-4.8	10.0	35.2	20.1	
8421 Centrifuges, including centrifugal	21.2	17.6	17.2	29.1	28.8	40.3	38.2	38.0	49.3	51.3	57.2	59.4	58.0	13.7	6.2	4.2	5.3	
8479 Machines and mechanical applian	53.9	50.3	31.1	42.5	50.4	61.3	52.5	91.5	65.8	58.8	58.2	53.2	54.2	2.6	-1.1	-2.7	-1.8	
2106 Food preparations not elsewhere	15.3	16.9	7.6	12.6	16.9	26.0	34.9	37.1	51.2	54.4	42.1	46.7	53.6	11.2	20.3	-0.5	10.9	
8431 Parts suitable for use solely or p	32.4	30.7	36.5	50.0	91.7	75.7	56.1	52.3	51.1	39.0	50.6	48.0	52.8	18.5	-15.3	10.6	-5.0	
8704 Motor vehicles for the transport o	7.9	9.1	5.8	26.6	32.8	42.6	72.1	31.4	23.9	23.1	42.7	41.2	49.1	40.0	-14.2	28.6	2.0	
4810 Paper and paperboard, coated on	59.6	54.4	33.1	47.6	45.4	45.6	49.2	52.9	57.5	59.1	63.3	70.5	46.7	-5.2	6.7	-7.5	0.3	
8413 Pumps for liquids, whether or not	16.4	16.2	17.5	26.2	30.0	36.0	34.4	37.2	36.4	33.4	38.2	35.7	46.3	17.0	-1.9	11.5	3.6	
4811 Paper, paperboard, cellulose wad	25.4	23.2	20.5	29.1	25.4	33.0	34.0	30.0	33.6	26.7	28.6	31.6	45.4	5.4	-5.2	19.4	4.6	
8477 Machinery for working rubber or p	25.0	28.3	21.7	23.2	28.6	37.4	47.0	33.7	36.9	30.8	36.0	32.2	45.0	8.4	-4.7	13.4	2.7	
3304 Beauty or make-up preparations	17.2	15.7	16.9	17.4	21.0	18.9	20.4	23.9	25.1	28.2	27.6	34.9	44.8	1.9	10.5	16.6	13.1	
7308 Structures (excluding prefabricate	3.0	7.5	6.5	6.7	15.4	35.6	40.5	51.2	34.2	27.5	31.2	30.2	44.3	63.6	-6.3	17.2	3.2	
8517 Telephone sets, including teleph	86.9	124.0	87.3	96.2	77.6	88.6	108.1	151.4	78.9	56.8	49.2	82.0	44.2	0.4	-10.5	-8.0	-9.4	
8419 Machinery, plant or laboratory eq	20.2	35.8	15.1	22.4	53.3	28.8	31.5	46.6	28.5	28.9	40.7	43.1	41.0	7.4	0.1	12.5	5.2	
9027 Instruments and apparatus for pl	16.1	20.1	16.0	24.3	23.3	28.3	28.8	31.8	35.2	30.1	33.9	40.4	38.5	12.0	1.6	8.5	4.5	
8536 Electrical apparatus for switching	31.8	29.4	30.3	39.3	43.6	48.6	46.6	41.5	42.6	36.2	37.8	37.0	37.6	8.8	-7.1	1.2	-3.6	
3920 Other plates, sheets, film, foil ar	13.7	12.9	15.1	18.3	20.2	24.6	24.2	24.4	29.5	31.2	32.0	36.6	37.4	12.4	6.1	6.2	6.1	
8414 Air or vacuum pumps, air or othe	18.5	17.1	19.8	26.5	27.4	46.9	34.2	58.5	42.8	31.1	31.1	35.5	36.7	20.5	-9.8	5.7	-3.4	
8438 Machinery, not specified or includ	44.0	33.0	21.6	19.0	20.8	38.9	33.5	45.5	39.7	23.6	54.2	41.9	35.5	-2.4	-11.8	14.6	-1.3	
2004 Other vegetables prepared or pre	0.5	0.7	1.0	2.5	3.7	6.4	7.3	12.0	16.9	23.1	22.6	28.5	35.0	70.2	37.6	15.0	27.4	
3824 Prepared binders for foundry mou	16.9	20.6	17.7	20.5	20.5	23.5	22.4	24.4	31.5	31.1	35.8	43.2	33.9	6.8	7.3	2.9	5.4	
8481 Taps, cocks, valves and similar a	18.7	22.2	27.0	28.2	41.3	43.7	49.4	46.2	31.0	25.2	24.9	24.9	33.0	18.4	-12.8	9.3	-3.9	
8502 Electric generating sets and rota	9.8	11.2	13.0	10.2	37.8	13.4	54.4	15.7	46.0	31.5	11.9	26.9	32.8	6.4	23.9	1.4	13.7	
8407 Spark-ignition reciprocating or ro	14.6	4.6	5.0	5.2	9.5	43.3	36.5	27.0	36.1	31.8	39.0	38.7	32.5	24.3	-7.4	0.8	-4.0	
3822 Diagnostic or laboratory reagents	12.0	15.4	16.2	19.7	22.4	27.0	28.9	29.8	31.5	30.8	28.2	28.8	31.6	17.7	3.3	0.9	2.3	
4011 New pneumatic tyres, of rubber.	15.7	16.2	13.6	16.8	27.4	30.4	43.0	43.9	43.6	38.4	35.8	32.5	31.3	14.1	6.0	-6.5	0.4	
3302 Mixtures of odoriferous substance	11.4	8.8	8.1	11.3	13.7	15.7	15.0	19.6	19.5	21.3	20.1	23.5	31.0	6.6	7.9	13.3	10.2	

(cont.)

(Table continued)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
8441 Other machinery for making up p	10.6	16.5	10.9	12.7	14.7	21.9	35.0	19.4	26.8	22.1	17.2	11.0	30.2	15.7	0.2	11.0	4.7	
3923 Articles for the conveyance or pa	5.8	5.7	5.6	6.1	7.2	8.3	9.7	9.6	10.8	11.1	14.1	19.1	30.1	7.3	7.5	39.4	20.2	
6204 Women's or girls' suits, ensembl	1.9	3.3	4.0	4.9	9.7	15.7	17.2	18.7	19.4	21.0	21.7	24.4	29.2	53.2	7.6	11.6	9.3	
7216 Angles, shapes and sections of i	14.8	14.8	9.5	28.4	24.9	35.4	26.6	31.1	37.2	24.7	22.0	29.2	29.0	19.1	-8.6	5.4	-2.8	
4805 Other uncoated paper and paper	1.5	1.5	3.5	6.9	9.8	13.6	8.0	8.9	11.1	16.4	18.6	19.6	28.9	56.0	4.9	20.7	11.4	
2933 Heterocyclic compounds with nitr	22.6	24.7	24.2	18.2	14.8	40.7	23.4	30.4	35.9	24.3	26.7	33.2	28.9	12.5	-12.1	5.9	-4.8	
8474 Machinery for sorting, screening,	22.7	31.3	23.8	19.8	33.2	36.5	37.9	47.1	37.5	30.2	24.4	32.8	28.2	10.0	-4.7	-2.2	-3.6	
3402 Organic surface-active agents (of	9.1	10.8	8.8	10.7	13.8	14.1	16.0	18.3	22.3	24.6	23.9	25.9	27.8	9.2	14.9	4.3	10.2	
8537 Boards, panels, consoles, desks,	10.6	12.3	15.1	17.2	17.8	19.8	21.6	29.6	35.6	29.6	24.2	30.6	27.0	13.3	10.5	-3.0	4.5	
2309 Preparations of a kind used in an	4.4	4.7	3.3	4.5	3.8	6.4	8.4	10.5	12.8	9.7	56.6	28.8	26.8	7.9	11.0	40.3	22.7	
8443 Printing machinery used for printi	34.7	22.5	13.2	24.4	34.7	35.7	26.3	34.1	22.9	14.7	29.9	15.6	26.8	0.6	-19.9	22.2	-4.0	
4901 Printed books, brochures, leaflet	17.5	17.9	14.6	16.4	16.0	17.9	16.8	20.1	19.0	15.3	16.9	20.1	26.2	0.5	-3.9	19.7	5.6	
8409 Parts suitable for use solely or p	12.1	11.2	9.7	18.4	26.4	26.8	29.7	24.9	21.3	17.8	21.3	20.4	26.0	17.3	-9.7	13.5	-0.4	
9405 Lamps and lighting fittings includ	4.0	3.5	2.8	4.3	6.0	8.6	8.8	13.8	17.7	15.3	16.6	18.3	25.0	16.7	15.5	17.7	16.5	
8504 Electrical transformers, static cor	11.0	12.5	11.5	16.5	20.9	23.5	24.2	35.4	27.7	29.4	23.1	27.1	24.7	16.5	5.7	-5.6	0.7	
8483 Transmission shafts (including ca	12.3	17.4	14.9	19.7	26.1	27.4	28.7	27.3	25.7	22.4	25.1	21.8	24.2	17.4	-5.0	2.7	-1.8	
3006 Pharmaceutical goods specified in	9.7	12.0	15.0	21.0	19.0	25.4	36.3	32.4	24.9	18.5	22.6	22.6	22.9	21.2	-7.6	7.3	-1.5	
3926 Other articles of plastics and arti	9.8	9.3	7.7	9.9	11.3	14.4	13.1	15.0	16.9	16.7	19.8	24.6	22.8	8.0	3.6	11.0	6.7	
8471 Automatic data processing machi	12.8	11.9	14.9	16.0	17.0	24.9	21.2	27.6	29.6	19.9	25.1	22.1	21.9	14.2	-5.5	3.3	-1.8	
9028 Gas, liquid or electricity supply o	6.6	8.5	8.5	13.0	13.8	11.1	14.1	27.1	13.2	17.1	15.5	19.2	21.6	11.0	11.5	8.1	10.0	
2203 Beer made from malt.	3.1	2.6	1.6	2.2	4.3	5.0	5.8	8.5	9.6	18.5	27.5	17.6	20.9	10.1	38.7	4.2	22.7	
3303 Perfumes and toilet waters.	8.0	7.6	5.2	5.9	8.4	9.6	13.2	10.8	7.9	7.7	13.3	14.7	20.7	3.7	-5.1	38.7	11.6	
8418 Refrigerators, freezers and other	5.4	4.1	5.2	7.0	8.8	11.3	12.1	12.2	12.7	14.9	15.5	16.3	20.3	16.0	7.2	10.8	8.8	
3901 Polymers of ethylene, in primary	16.6	10.9	9.0	27.6	24.1	20.5	21.2	34.5	17.9	18.3	24.0	25.0	20.0	4.3	-2.8	3.2	-0.3	
8711 Motorcycles (including mopeds) a	2.4	3.6	3.0	3.9	7.4	11.0	15.6	16.5	17.8	15.1	9.9	13.8	19.9	35.5	8.1	9.6	8.8	
9026 Instruments and apparatus for m	6.1	6.9	7.9	12.1	12.1	16.2	16.4	16.6	17.4	15.1	18.0	19.1	19.8	21.4	-1.8	9.5	2.9	
1901 Malt extract; food preparations o	9.0	7.2	8.3	6.1	7.4	7.7	8.7	11.8	15.8	23.8	17.9	17.0	19.4	-3.0	32.6	-6.6	14.1	
1509 Olive oil and its fractions, wheth	7.1	8.9	7.8	9.5	12.1	14.5	14.9	15.5	18.1	20.5	22.3	22.2	19.2	15.5	9.0	-2.2	4.1	
2204 Wine of fresh grapes, including fi	7.0	4.9	5.2	5.7	7.1	8.7	8.5	10.9	11.8	15.8	14.0	13.6	19.0	4.4	16.2	6.3	11.9	
3909 Amino-resins, phenolic resins and	6.6	6.6	6.1	8.2	9.7	12.9	13.2	15.3	17.5	15.9	15.1	16.2	18.9	14.2	5.4	6.0	5.7	
4802 Uncoated paper and paperboard,	13.9	12.0	10.1	16.3	18.0	15.2	12.5	14.5	10.7	14.0	17.0	13.2	18.6	1.7	-2.1	9.9	2.9	
8429 Self-propelled bulldozers, angled	45.5	38.8	46.2	18.5	87.1	66.1	31.4	19.7	11.6	10.9	20.9	14.6	18.4	7.7	-36.2	19.0	-16.7	
3917 Tubes, pipes and hoses, and fitti	4.3	4.3	5.7	6.2	8.9	10.0	12.0	10.4	11.4	13.3	16.9	15.5	18.3	18.3	7.3	11.2	8.9	
3207 Prepared pigments, prepared opa	11.6	10.6	7.6	9.3	12.7	16.3	17.4	18.7	18.6	15.9	15.5	16.3	17.7	7.0	-0.6	3.6	1.2	
8427 Fork-lift trucks; other works truck	10.1	4.8	3.4	6.1	11.8	12.8	16.3	11.6	15.2	9.9	12.0	11.7	17.2	4.7	-6.2	20.2	4.3	
2936 Provitamins and vitamins, natura	6.8	13.6	13.4	12.8	12.0	12.5	12.2	13.8	13.2	15.2	19.8	22.2	17.2	13.0	5.1	4.0	4.7	
8436 Other agricultural, horticultural, f	4.9	6.2	6.4	6.9	7.6	8.8	10.8	13.7	15.0	15.0	11.9	9.5	17.0	12.7	14.1	4.3	9.8	
3906 Acrylic polymers in primary forms	7.4	13.2	6.2	11.6	13.4	15.2	15.2	16.9	11.9	12.9	15.8	16.3	17.0	15.5	-4.0	9.7	1.6	
9504 Articles for funfair, table or parlo	11.2	14.8	9.3	5.6	7.9	14.4	15.9	15.5	13.8	14.5	19.6	14.3	16.9	5.2	0.2	5.3	2.4	

(cont.)

(Table continued)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
6203 Men's or boys' suits, ensembles,	1.5	1.7	2.6	3.2	5.2	7.4	8.1	11.0	12.4	13.8	16.6	15.9	16.8	37.7	16.8	6.9	12.4	
3507 Enzymes; prepared enzymes not	4.0	5.5	7.2	10.5	10.0	12.5	13.7	9.9	14.1	12.8	13.6	13.4	16.7	25.4	0.5	9.3	4.2	
8538 Parts suitable for use solely or p	9.9	11.2	9.6	14.8	13.1	14.4	17.7	18.1	21.7	19.1	20.0	16.6	16.5	7.9	7.3	-4.8	2.0	
9022 Apparatus based on the use of X	7.6	10.2	9.4	14.3	15.3	15.5	18.2	21.8	17.0	18.4	19.8	19.5	16.4	15.3	4.5	-3.8	0.9	
3305 Preparations for use on the hair.	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.7	9.3	7.7	7.7	7.5	9.0	9.6	11.9	13.1	16.0	13.9	5.6	18.8	11.1	
9031 Measuring or checking instrument	10.7	10.7	6.4	10.3	12.1	14.0	12.4	20.4	15.8	13.9	15.9	15.4	16.0	5.5	-0.2	4.8	1.9	
3208 Paints and varnishes (including e	7.0	6.3	6.2	6.7	5.9	9.2	9.7	12.0	12.5	12.8	14.3	17.3	15.7	5.5	8.7	7.2	8.0	
8501 Electric motors and generators (e	6.4	6.8	10.0	15.5	17.2	9.1	14.4	17.2	12.6	13.9	14.4	9.4	15.2	7.1	11.2	3.0	7.6	
3102 Mineral or chemical fertilisers, ni	19.2	39.8	26.1	24.9	34.2	39.5	19.8	15.2	17.4	14.2	14.2	19.4	14.8	15.6	-22.6	1.5	-13.1	
3403 Lubricating preparations (includin	3.1	4.5	3.6	4.9	6.1	8.7	8.4	10.6	11.8	13.3	12.9	14.2	14.8	22.9	11.2	3.5	7.8	
9403 Other furniture and parts thereof	7.4	8.5	6.8	9.7	9.0	16.8	18.4	20.6	21.6	16.5	19.4	16.0	14.4	17.9	-0.4	-4.5	-2.2	
8535 Electrical apparatus for switching	7.2	10.2	9.9	9.7	12.7	17.5	11.2	9.5	17.1	25.8	21.5	18.3	14.2	19.4	10.2	-18.0	-2.9	
7326 Other articles of iron or steel.	7.6	5.0	5.9	9.8	14.7	14.6	13.7	13.1	14.0	10.1	11.5	13.2	14.1	13.9	-8.9	12.0	-0.5	
8302 Base metal mountings, fittings a	5.2	5.2	4.6	6.6	7.1	9.8	8.8	9.1	11.1	11.5	12.7	12.1	13.9	13.6	4.1	6.4	5.1	
6109 T-shirts, singlets and other vests	1.2	2.4	4.9	5.8	8.6	10.2	8.3	8.9	11.1	11.4	12.7	13.6	13.7	53.2	3.0	6.2	4.3	
3912 Cellulose and its chemical deriva	4.1	4.8	4.1	6.1	10.6	11.8	10.0	11.8	12.7	10.5	11.1	12.9	13.4	23.7	-2.8	8.4	1.8	
8424 Mechanical appliances (whether c	5.7	4.2	3.5	4.8	6.3	11.1	9.7	10.3	10.6	9.1	9.8	10.1	13.1	14.3	-4.8	12.9	2.4	
3907 Polyacetals, other polyethers and	7.9	5.9	5.3	7.2	8.2	9.4	9.0	12.0	18.6	16.0	13.0	12.1	12.7	3.5	14.3	-7.6	4.3	
9015 Surveying (including photogramm	5.6	17.1	17.4	19.0	23.3	24.8	21.4	12.5	14.4	6.5	9.3	8.2	12.6	34.5	-28.5	24.9	-9.2	
3204 Synthetic organic colouring matte	13.1	11.3	11.1	11.5	12.2	13.9	11.4	12.6	12.6	11.2	11.0	11.4	12.3	1.1	-5.1	3.1	-1.7	
8430 Other moving, grading, levelling,	18.4	7.2	5.4	32.6	33.2	24.4	29.9	14.8	19.9	9.7	17.7	7.6	11.7	5.7	-20.6	6.6	-9.9	
7318 Screws, bolts, nuts, coach screws	5.0	3.0	4.7	6.8	7.5	11.0	11.7	10.7	10.9	9.8	10.3	10.9	11.6	17.1	-2.9	5.7	0.7	
4806 Vegetable parchment, greasepro	4.9	4.9	5.0	8.5	8.9	8.4	7.9	9.2	12.0	14.1	16.5	15.1	11.5	11.5	14.0	-6.7	4.6	
8803 Parts of goods of heading 88.01	4.5	25.0	6.5	4.1	6.1	13.2	13.1	11.4	9.6	11.8	23.9	5.8	11.0	24.1	-2.8	-2.2	-2.5	
3921 Other plates, sheets, film, foil an	7.8	6.0	4.1	5.5	6.0	8.7	8.0	12.4	11.8	8.3	9.9	9.8	11.0	2.2	-1.3	10.1	3.4	
9032 Automatic regulating or controllin	9.0	5.2	4.2	8.8	7.7	13.8	11.6	11.4	16.3	13.4	9.5	9.2	10.9	8.8	-0.7	-6.8	-3.4	
9401 Seats (other than those of headi	12.7	8.9	6.8	10.2	11.7	14.1	15.2	13.1	13.9	12.6	10.0	11.1	10.7	2.0	-2.7	-5.2	-3.8	
3902 Polymers of propylene or of othe	4.9	3.6	2.6	4.0	6.5	7.0	9.7	8.7	8.5	8.7	11.5	13.0	10.7	7.5	5.5	7.2	6.2	
8480 Moulding boxes for metal foundry	9.4	10.2	7.6	10.5	7.3	9.7	12.2	11.8	15.9	13.9	7.3	7.3	10.7	0.5	9.5	-8.4	1.5	
4016 Other articles of vulcanised rubbe	5.2	4.0	4.5	7.3	9.1	9.6	10.0	12.0	9.7	10.1	9.0	9.9	10.5	13.1	1.4	1.3	1.4	
3815 Reaction initiators, reaction acce	4.6	6.4	4.5	7.2	8.5	10.8	10.9	11.3	12.6	11.1	11.0	10.0	10.2	18.4	0.8	-2.9	-0.8	
8426 Ships' derricks; cranes, including	20.4	15.0	6.4	9.3	23.1	19.9	19.3	16.1	18.2	10.7	8.6	5.3	9.7	-0.4	-14.4	-3.3	-9.8	
2922 Oxygen-function amino-compoun	2.4	4.2	5.2	7.6	6.6	9.4	9.1	9.7	13.3	13.3	10.7	11.5	9.6	31.5	9.1	-10.2	0.4	
8482 Ball or roller bearings.	8.9	8.4	8.5	12.0	12.5	14.4	12.0	12.3	14.0	14.1	9.8	9.3	9.0	10.0	-0.5	-13.8	-6.4	
2523 Portland cement, aluminous ceme	0.4	0.6	3.0	2.7	3.1	5.3	9.7	21.7	28.1	19.0	11.4	10.2	9.0	66.1	37.4	-21.9	7.8	
8451 Machinery (other than machines o	15.0	7.9	3.1	8.7	10.6	14.5	10.1	13.2	12.2	15.6	12.5	8.9	9.0	-0.6	1.8	-16.8	-6.6	
8467 Tools for working in the hand, pn	4.0	4.4	2.7	6.4	8.9	10.1	12.7	12.9	12.0	8.5	10.0	11.0	8.8	20.5	-4.3	1.3	-1.9	
8543 Electrical machines and apparatus	3.2	8.1	5.1	5.7	6.5	6.5	6.5	8.4	26.6	8.9	7.1	6.2	7.6	15.4	8.4	-5.2	2.4	
7118 Coin.			0.0				0.0	1.6	10.3	39.3	18.0	0.0	6.0	..	..	-46.6	..	
8603 Self-propelled railway or tramway					44.6	3.7		9.7	43.9	19.3	70.8	3.1	0.0	..	51.1	-95.4	-66.3	
8901 Cruise ships, excursion boats, fe			0.9			0.3	15.6	41.3	52.8		0.3	0.1		..	-100.0	..	-100.0	

Note: Shows products with average import value of at least EUR 10 million per year over 2013-2019.

Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]

**Table 10: Selected EU exports to Peru, by HS heading, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
8703 Motor cars and other motor vehic	35.7	45.8	31.6	67.1	90.8	117.6	110.2	98.0	142.5	128.4	167.5	138.7	128.8	27.0	2.2	0.1	1.3	
3004 Medicaments (excluding goods of	26.6	30.7	35.3	44.0	47.3	55.0	77.1	78.1	120.2	91.1	95.0	99.1	112.5	15.7	13.5	7.3	10.8	
8603 Self-propelled railway or tramwa					0.5	35.2	88.3		0.6	49.6	186.8	152.4	105.8	..	8.9	28.8	17.0	
3002 Human blood; animal blood prep	13.6	10.1	26.5	36.3	40.5	44.7	55.6	67.2	58.0	73.6	94.3	91.3	103.3	26.8	13.3	12.0	12.7	
8474 Machinery for sorting, screening,	18.7	18.7	33.0	39.7	48.2	70.4	105.1	92.0	44.0	67.2	52.9	52.0	82.8	30.3	-1.2	7.2	2.3	
8431 Parts suitable for use solely or p	26.7	31.8	24.4	46.2	55.7	78.1	76.8	72.0	76.8	66.1	67.1	70.5	77.6	23.9	-4.1	5.5	-0.1	
8414 Air or vacuum pumps, air or othe	7.5	57.0	11.5	36.8	37.7	63.1	37.0	32.0	50.2	45.8	34.9	29.4	71.5	52.9	-7.7	16.0	1.8	
8413 Pumps for liquids, whether or not	16.9	23.9	20.1	22.8	46.7	38.6	38.7	38.0	49.9	43.5	55.0	45.5	69.7	17.9	3.0	17.0	8.8	
9018 Instruments and appliances used	19.9	16.5	22.9	28.9	29.0	32.0	42.4	37.5	39.5	43.3	44.8	52.3	56.5	9.9	7.9	9.3	8.5	
8421 Centrifuges, including centrifugal	20.6	22.8	14.1	26.2	36.0	61.7	60.9	55.6	46.4	44.4	48.9	46.3	56.0	24.5	-7.9	8.0	-1.4	
7308 Structures (excluding prefabricate	6.3	19.2	10.5	16.9	25.9	49.1	53.9	37.7	40.2	29.0	41.8	34.2	54.3	50.8	-12.3	23.2	1.4	
8481 Taps, cocks, valves and similar a	19.0	31.5	30.5	24.7	29.2	37.6	39.8	31.2	38.2	52.0	53.7	43.3	54.0	14.6	8.4	1.3	5.3	
8704 Motor vehicles for the transport o	21.3	28.9	16.1	59.5	91.9	82.5	97.7	35.5	38.2	89.9	47.5	57.7	53.3	31.1	2.2	-16.0	-6.0	
8537 Boards, panels, consoles, desks,	3.6	6.1	3.3	13.3	39.8	32.1	36.2	30.9	39.7	41.4	52.1	31.4	38.7	54.6	6.6	-2.2	2.7	
8422 Dish washing machines; machine	16.1	30.5	19.5	29.7	41.9	38.3	59.6	48.2	29.5	38.9	53.0	25.9	37.8	18.9	0.4	-1.0	-0.2	
8479 Machines and mechanical applian	19.9	28.9	17.1	22.5	36.5	46.6	49.9	54.3	30.8	38.3	34.4	30.3	37.4	18.5	-4.8	-0.8	-3.1	
8708 Parts and accessories of the mot	14.9	16.4	13.8	20.3	23.5	30.7	31.9	28.1	33.2	33.5	32.7	32.8	37.2	15.6	2.2	3.6	2.8	
8430 Other moving, grading, levelling,	17.3	21.4	8.1	32.7	42.3	47.3	34.1	34.2	28.5	43.8	37.3	39.5	37.1	22.3	-1.9	-5.4	-3.4	
8536 Electrical apparatus for switching	20.7	22.1	19.6	31.0	32.4	45.8	50.0	46.5	46.4	41.8	42.0	39.5	36.7	17.2	-2.3	-4.3	-3.1	
8504 Electrical transformers, static cor	12.1	18.7	10.2	26.3	28.0	39.8	42.1	28.6	39.1	32.0	38.6	29.1	35.4	26.9	-5.3	3.4	-1.6	
2106 Food preparations not elsewhere	4.4	5.5	7.0	7.4	11.2	13.2	20.4	19.9	24.0	34.4	24.5	29.7	34.6	24.4	27.1	0.2	14.8	
8544 Insulated (including enamelled o	8.4	7.4	6.8	11.3	17.2	21.1	27.6	26.8	33.8	41.3	50.0	38.4	33.3	20.1	18.3	-6.9	6.8	
2208 Undenatured ethyl alcohol of an	14.7	12.8	9.6	14.1	25.0	29.5	35.0	34.5	52.1	47.1	45.4	39.7	32.9	15.0	12.4	-11.3	1.6	
8411 Turbo-jets, turbo-propellers and	4.1	44.8	8.3	19.0	17.6	28.2	9.8	12.7	42.9	53.5	23.8	32.4	32.2	47.4	17.4	-15.5	1.9	
9504 Articles for funfair, table or parlo	8.3	18.1	21.4	15.9	8.8	20.8	15.7	16.9	19.9	22.8	27.9	22.3	31.5	20.1	2.3	11.3	6.1	
8429 Self-propelled bulldozers, angled	19.2	28.6	33.8	50.7	78.7	84.5	72.6	53.7	53.4	26.2	34.0	16.6	31.4	34.6	-25.4	6.2	-13.2	
9027 Instruments and apparatus for pl	6.7	6.7	8.3	11.1	11.8	14.1	13.4	15.6	17.5	21.5	22.4	25.0	30.3	16.0	11.2	12.1	11.6	
8483 Transmission shafts (including ca	11.1	9.9	11.4	16.5	18.7	20.5	32.6	19.2	19.2	18.9	20.3	20.5	29.9	13.0	-2.0	16.6	5.6	
8517 Telephone sets, including teleph	61.4	45.9	26.5	38.3	34.6	36.4	27.5	41.2	39.7	32.2	43.8	35.8	29.9	-9.9	-3.0	-2.5	-2.8	
8701 Tractors (other than tractors of h	8.8	18.2	8.3	22.1	44.0	35.0	69.1	40.9	23.2	28.7	32.4	47.7	28.7	31.9	-4.8	0.0	-2.8	
8409 Parts suitable for use solely or p	19.3	24.2	17.8	23.6	23.2	22.4	20.9	21.7	20.4	17.6	17.7	20.1	27.1	3.0	-5.9	15.5	2.8	
7210 Flat-rolled products of iron or no	32.9	29.3	22.5	36.3	39.4	36.1	35.8	31.0	24.3	40.6	38.8	29.3	26.8	1.9	2.9	-12.9	-4.2	
4810 Paper and paperboard, coated on	37.5	52.7	27.7	44.7	41.1	42.4	34.1	27.6	39.6	30.5	35.4	45.6	26.7	2.5	-7.9	-4.3	-6.4	
3304 Beauty or make-up preparations	4.7	3.9	3.3	4.0	5.2	6.6	6.7	9.9	11.2	14.4	15.4	16.8	26.6	6.9	21.7	22.6	22.0	
8514 Industrial or laboratory electric fu	0.3	1.0	2.8	2.5	2.8	1.3	2.6	1.3	1.9	2.2	2.5	1.4	26.3	30.3	14.4	127.8	53.7	
8426 Ships' derricks; cranes, including	6.7	10.7	4.3	7.4	14.2	32.8	29.5	37.1	27.3	11.0	9.5	11.2	25.6	37.2	-24.0	32.8	-3.4	
8477 Machinery for working rubber or p	16.0	18.4	14.3	19.1	44.3	36.8	38.3	23.7	17.4	40.7	40.1	42.1	25.4	18.1	2.5	-14.6	-5.2	
8501 Electric motors and generators (e	7.6	7.1	4.4	14.6	7.5	13.4	18.3	12.5	12.8	20.1	20.2	32.5	24.0	12.0	10.7	6.0	8.7	
8438 Machinery, not specified or includ	24.4	29.8	16.8	23.1	38.0	34.7	34.0	28.7	24.9	32.1	23.5	36.0	23.5	7.3	-1.9	-9.9	-5.4	
3105 Mineral or chemical fertilisers cor	4.2	5.3	4.8	5.8	21.5	9.5	10.2	10.9	12.2	13.0	16.6	17.6	23.2	17.7	8.2	21.3	13.6	
2710 Petroleum oils and oils obtained	2.1	4.5	6.1	13.6	28.7	40.2	28.1	25.8	50.3	20.4	65.1	52.8	23.1	80.7	-15.6	4.3	-7.6	
4901 Printed books, brochures, leaflets	8.5	11.7	11.9	12.7	15.6	15.6	24.9	18.7	23.0	22.5	20.5	26.6	22.8	12.9	9.6	0.5	5.6	
8443 Printing machinery used for printi	16.0	11.4	14.2	23.3	27.8	27.2	18.0	20.2	19.2	23.3	19.4	22.8	21.6	11.2	-3.8	-2.5	-3.2	
4011 New pneumatic tyres, of rubber.	13.3	15.8	11.1	14.8	19.8	20.9	25.2	17.6	17.4	23.3	24.3	25.0	20.7	9.4	2.8	-3.9	-0.1	
1901 Malt extract; food preparations o	10.6	7.6	6.6	8.0	10.4	9.3	13.9	15.8	17.8	23.5	18.9	23.0	20.5	-2.5	26.1	-4.4	12.0	
8419 Machinery, plant or laboratory eq	10.5	19.7	12.5	15.7	18.6	22.6	20.3	22.9	35.3	32.9	51.3	24.5	20.1	16.6	9.8	-15.1	-1.7	
2004 Other vegetables prepared or pre	1.1	2.1	1.7	3.0	4.0	7.0	11.2	12.6	14.8	17.8	18.9	17.3	19.8	43.8	26.5	3.6	16.1	
8428 Other lifting, handling, loading o	8.6	11.8	12.6	17.7	15.0	28.1	31.2	34.9	43.6	28.1	32.2	24.5	19.8	26.6	-0.1	-11.0	-4.9	
8538 Parts suitable for use solely or p	4.5	5.0	6.0	8.4	12.9	10.2	10.6	12.6	11.7	10.4	10.8	10.6	19.0	18.1	0.4	22.3	9.3	
8207 Interchangeable tools for hand to	4.2	7.4	5.9	15.5	20.2	20.5	18.4	20.2	18.5	18.8	15.9	18.1	18.9	37.2	-2.2	0.3	-1.1	

(cont.)



(Table continued)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
6907 Unglazed ceramic flags and pavir	0.6	1.5	0.8	1.6	1.8	3.1	3.3	3.4	4.0	3.1	13.8	16.1	18.7	39.1	-0.3	82.2	29.1	
3808 Insecticides, rodenticides, fungic	6.7	5.9	6.3	8.8	8.7	10.3	11.2	13.5	15.5	16.6	16.6	15.9	18.4	9.1	12.5	3.7	8.6	
9022 Apparatus based on the use of X	7.3	8.7	8.5	10.8	10.9	15.8	13.6	16.5	12.6	12.7	21.7	14.5	17.6	16.7	-5.4	11.7	1.6	
4010 Conveyor or transmission belts o	2.4	3.4	2.5	3.3	3.5	4.2	9.1	4.8	11.3	6.0	9.7	10.1	17.6	11.6	9.3	42.8	22.6	
8418 Refrigerators, freezers and other	3.0	5.3	3.7	5.9	7.8	13.9	17.2	7.5	10.5	8.7	10.6	13.5	16.7	35.7	-11.1	24.4	2.7	
2309 Preparations of a kind used in an	1.2	1.5	1.5	2.9	4.1	5.3	6.3	6.9	12.1	9.7	12.1	14.8	16.7	35.3	16.3	19.8	17.8	
3926 Other articles of plastics and arti	3.4	5.1	4.5	6.1	6.4	7.7	10.8	9.6	10.9	10.1	11.8	13.6	16.6	17.9	7.1	17.9	11.6	
4804 Uncoated kraft paper and paperb	0.9	2.5	2.1	2.7	3.1	3.9	2.5	3.3	3.6	3.7	6.7	12.6	16.4	35.5	-1.7	64.7	22.6	
8408 Compression-ignition internal cor	17.0	21.0	7.2	16.8	12.0	17.4	12.0	12.1	29.8	14.3	16.7	17.3	15.7	0.5	-4.9	3.3	-1.5	
8471 Automatic data processing machi	3.3	4.2	7.0	6.5	17.1	14.5	9.4	12.7	21.2	21.4	14.4	14.9	15.3	34.1	10.3	-10.5	0.8	
3923 Articles for the conveyance or pa	5.0	4.8	3.4	4.5	4.7	5.4	6.4	7.2	8.7	8.0	9.8	11.7	15.3	1.4	10.3	24.3	16.1	
9405 Lamps and lighting fittings includ	2.4	2.4	4.0	5.0	5.3	7.6	10.2	9.8	12.4	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.9	25.6	12.8	6.5	10.1	
3303 Perfumes and toilet waters.	5.4	6.8	6.1	3.8	5.1	5.5	6.7	6.0	9.8	10.8	13.6	10.8	14.9	0.2	18.6	11.2	15.4	
8467 Tools for working in the hand, pn	6.4	7.7	7.2	12.4	16.1	23.6	14.9	16.5	14.7	14.6	14.2	13.5	14.8	29.7	-11.3	0.4	-6.4	
8802 Other aircraft (for example, helic	1.0	0.4	2.3	25.0	21.0	13.7	28.4	16.8	127.8	88.3	45.1	0.2	14.5	68.3	59.2	-45.2	0.8	
9021 Orthopaedic appliances, including	2.0	1.8	2.3	4.3	4.3	5.6	7.4	8.7	10.0	12.0	12.5	14.0	14.4	23.2	21.0	6.2	14.4	
3822 Diagnostic or laboratory reagents	4.0	4.9	4.8	4.8	5.9	7.2	7.5	9.3	10.9	11.9	10.9	12.2	14.2	12.5	13.4	6.0	10.1	
8705 Special purpose motor vehicles, c	0.9	1.7	1.1	16.1	12.8	26.2	24.5	23.7	21.8	6.2	8.4	5.7	14.0	96.1	-30.2	31.1	-8.5	
8424 Mechanical appliances (whether c	6.2	7.8	8.2	6.4	8.0	12.1	11.3	12.1	13.5	14.0	17.4	13.6	14.0	14.2	3.7	0.0	2.1	
8427 Fork-lift trucks; other works truck	3.5	5.3	3.9	5.3	14.6	22.6	11.5	8.0	12.1	11.6	12.9	13.8	13.9	45.6	-15.3	6.2	-6.7	
3207 Prepared pigments, prepared opa	10.4	11.2	9.4	14.6	14.7	20.9	17.1	15.4	15.1	15.2	14.2	16.3	13.8	15.0	-7.6	-3.2	-5.7	
7326 Other articles of iron or steel.	3.7	3.6	4.1	5.7	5.1	11.3	9.4	9.7	11.3	13.2	11.0	11.6	13.6	25.1	4.0	0.8	2.6	
9023 Instruments, apparatus and mod	2.4	1.1	2.2	2.4	1.9	2.8	2.2	4.1	4.3	5.3	5.0	6.0	13.5	3.3	17.4	36.3	25.1	
9026 Instruments and apparatus for m	3.1	3.3	3.7	4.4	4.8	7.2	6.5	7.8	9.1	11.8	14.2	9.4	13.2	18.2	12.9	4.0	9.0	
8433 Harvesting or threshing machiner	1.9	1.0	1.0	1.4	2.6	5.1	5.9	5.5	5.8	4.3	5.6	14.6	13.1	21.4	-4.1	44.6	14.4	
4802 Uncoated paper and paperboard,	10.5	8.0	5.8	11.4	13.5	14.3	17.9	20.3	30.0	26.1	12.4	18.7	13.0	6.4	16.2	-20.7	-1.3	
3906 Acrylic polymers in primary forms	2.9	5.3	3.4	5.5	5.0	5.6	6.2	9.0	9.3	8.7	8.4	10.2	12.8	14.3	11.6	13.8	12.6	
3920 Other plates, sheets, film, foil ar	2.3	4.7	3.5	4.6	4.0	4.5	5.2	7.7	13.0	11.6	12.0	15.3	12.7	14.2	26.8	3.1	16.0	
2204 Wine of fresh grapes, including f	3.2	3.8	2.7	4.1	5.9	7.1	7.9	7.6	9.2	9.2	11.1	11.1	12.6	17.2	6.9	11.0	8.6	
8436 Other agricultural, horticultural, f	1.3	2.5	7.1	3.6	3.1	4.6	8.1	7.7	10.3	12.6	9.8	12.5	12.6	28.9	28.3	-0.1	15.3	
4805 Other uncoated paper and paperb	0.7	3.3	1.7	2.6	2.9	3.5	3.2	8.2	8.8	8.4	9.0	12.3	12.3	36.6	24.0	13.6	19.4	
8803 Parts of goods of heading 88.01	1.0	1.0	1.2	4.3	4.5	1.6	3.0	2.7	28.4	6.3	6.2	4.7	12.0	10.5	40.2	23.9	33.0	
9031 Measuring or checking instrument	12.7	5.0	2.9	9.4	5.7	5.9	6.8	9.8	9.5	14.1	17.3	10.2	11.9	-14.2	24.4	-5.4	10.6	
8412 Other engines and motors.	2.1	2.3	2.9	4.0	4.4	6.6	5.1	6.6	7.8	7.4	8.7	10.6	11.8	25.6	2.9	17.1	8.8	
3507 Enzymes; prepared enzymes not	5.2	5.3	6.4	6.7	5.9	8.1	9.8	8.0	9.0	7.4	9.0	9.4	11.5	9.3	-2.5	16.0	5.0	
3917 Tubes, pipes and hoses, and fitti	2.7	4.6	4.4	3.7	11.1	12.1	14.8	11.1	11.0	11.7	9.2	8.8	11.3	34.8	-0.8	-1.3	-1.0	
3402 Organic surface-active agents (ot	6.0	6.5	5.3	7.2	6.8	8.4	8.3	8.9	9.9	10.1	8.8	10.8	11.1	6.9	4.8	3.1	4.1	
3403 Lubricating preparations (includir	1.7	2.4	2.0	2.6	4.0	3.8	5.1	6.3	6.9	8.4	9.5	12.2	11.0	17.0	21.8	9.6	16.4	
9403 Other furniture and parts thereof	2.3	3.6	2.3	4.8	5.6	12.1	12.3	12.8	14.2	10.5	12.3	11.1	11.0	39.8	-3.6	1.6	-1.4	
3208 Paints and varnishes (including e	5.2	5.3	3.1	3.8	4.0	5.1	4.4	5.5	6.7	8.1	8.9	12.9	10.8	-0.3	12.1	10.3	11.3	
0402 Milk and cream, concentrated or	14.3	4.0	1.4	0.8	4.3	7.3	3.6	17.3	12.5	4.4	11.4	15.8	10.3	-12.7	-12.0	33.3	5.2	
3901 Polymers of ethylene, in primary	4.5	8.5	4.9	22.9	14.2	16.7	20.8	23.0	14.1	15.3	15.7	15.4	9.3	29.8	-2.2	-15.5	-8.1	
2936 Provitamins and vitamins, natura	3.4	7.7	7.3	7.9	6.8	7.2	6.6	5.8	9.0	11.6	13.5	17.3	9.1	16.5	12.8	-7.9	3.4	
8448 Auxiliary machinery for use with	9.8	12.5	8.0	10.1	12.0	11.7	10.5	10.4	9.2	9.6	11.7	10.6	8.8	3.7	-4.9	-2.8	-4.0	
8535 Electrical apparatus for switching	8.8	6.3	6.6	12.9	13.8	19.9	22.2	14.2	25.2	16.8	8.9	9.0	8.2	17.6	-4.2	-21.3	-11.9	
8410 Hydraulic turbines, water wheels,	0.9	1.7	2.3	1.0	6.6	2.7	11.6	9.5	27.5	5.0	10.2	5.2	7.3	24.4	16.5	13.4	15.2	
4811 Paper, paperboard, cellulose wad	7.1	5.1	5.0	6.7	6.0	9.8	10.4	14.2	13.5	8.9	6.0	10.4	6.9	6.7	-2.5	-8.0	-4.9	
8502 Electric generating sets and retai	2.2	25.7	1.9	35.9	7.5	8.9	20.5	6.6	7.2	19.1	69.0	5.6	5.8	32.0	21.0	-32.6	-5.9	
8503 Parts suitable for use solely or pi	1.4	28.0	6.5	13.7	30.4	9.1	28.3	21.7	19.7	2.0	4.8	5.2	4.8	45.9	-31.7	34.6	-8.7	

Note: Shows products with average import value of at least EUR 10 million per year over 2013-2019, or at least EUR 10 million in 2019.

Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]

**Table 11: Selected EU exports to Ecuador, by HS heading, 2007-2019 (EUR million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
2710 Petroleum oils and oils obtained	1.7	1.0	43.6	57.8	32.5	586.0	653.0	436.1	68.6	175.8	374.4	344.3	214.9	223.3	-26.0	6.9	-13.4	
8703 Motor cars and other motor vehic	23.8	14.8	15.4	23.5	27.2	23.1	21.4	20.3	32.7	19.9	61.9	100.7	119.4	-0.6	-3.6	81.7	26.5	
8603 Self-propelled railway or tramway								3.8	38.8			14.1	109.1	..	..	..	..	
3004 Medicaments (excluding goods of	34.6	42.7	44.9	61.2	65.1	78.5	73.7	96.0	103.5	96.4	93.1	91.1	101.9	17.8	5.3	1.9	3.8	
0303 Fish, frozen, excluding fish fillets	21.8	35.2	53.3	39.5	45.9	63.6	56.5	45.8	32.9	35.7	67.1	97.5	87.0	23.8	-13.4	34.6	4.6	
3002 Human blood; animal blood prep	13.1	17.8	17.3	23.0	33.5	34.6	40.1	47.4	50.9	54.4	49.7	62.6	64.7	21.5	12.0	5.9	9.4	
7210 Flat-rolled products of iron or noi	34.0	30.0	25.1	38.3	23.8	38.2	31.2	31.0	34.4	25.2	38.2	37.3	43.3	2.4	-9.9	19.7	1.8	
8428 Other lifting, handling, loading o	1.6	1.7	1.5	5.3	3.2	6.1	9.0	4.6	5.7	16.6	4.3	18.1	41.9	30.6	28.4	36.1	31.7	
4811 Paper, paperboard, cellulose wad	5.7	8.9	5.7	9.2	10.8	14.8	17.8	23.1	23.3	20.5	32.4	31.2	39.2	21.0	8.6	24.0	14.9	
9018 Instruments and appliances used	9.8	22.2	21.7	18.4	24.6	31.5	30.6	30.7	38.3	41.2	47.5	42.0	38.1	26.2	6.9	-2.5	2.8	
4804 Uncoated kraft paper and paperb	1.9	3.2	1.1	2.3	1.1	2.7	4.6	8.0	4.5	5.8	7.1	20.0	27.2	7.4	20.8	67.5	38.9	
8421 Centrifuges, including centrifugal	7.6	6.3	5.5	11.6	12.6	16.4	15.6	18.1	15.5	20.6	28.0	28.0	26.8	16.7	5.9	9.2	7.3	
8479 Machines and mechanical appliar	11.7	14.1	13.1	17.7	29.1	30.5	32.4	29.0	40.9	20.8	18.5	43.5	26.6	21.0	-9.2	8.6	-2.0	
2208 Undenatured ethyl alcohol of an	14.9	17.3	6.5	9.3	12.5	7.7	2.5	2.9	2.6	1.7	10.5	23.2	24.3	-12.5	-31.5	143.0	17.9	
3808 Insecticides, rodenticides, fungic	17.2	13.5	11.1	15.7	10.7	13.4	11.5	17.3	16.7	14.4	15.5	15.1	23.7	-4.9	1.9	18.0	8.5	
8422 Dish washing machines; machine	11.8	14.4	15.9	28.5	19.5	24.7	22.4	22.6	22.4	21.8	17.3	18.0	23.3	15.9	-3.1	2.3	-0.9	
8438 Machinery, not specified or includ	5.7	9.6	8.2	14.3	18.3	15.3	11.6	13.3	20.4	12.5	18.2	19.6	23.1	21.9	-4.9	22.6	6.0	
8901 Cruise ships, excursion boats, fei		1.2	0.0			0.0		11.5	0.0	0.1			22.0	..	77.2	470.3	192.5	
8426 Ships' derricks; cranes, including	11.4	2.0	2.3	3.8	3.1	14.7	3.7	2.7	5.5	3.6	4.5	8.2	21.7	5.3	-29.5	81.6	5.7	
4805 Other uncoated paper and paper	1.7	0.4	1.9	1.5	0.4	1.3	2.1	4.7	7.5	4.9	10.8	17.7	20.1	-5.1	38.6	60.3	47.5	
2106 Food preparations not elsewhere	7.5	13.3	9.4	8.3	17.4	20.3	14.5	17.2	12.1	14.3	16.0	20.9	19.9	22.1	-8.3	11.6	-0.3	
3105 Mineral or chemical fertilisers cor	5.8	7.9	6.2	9.3	10.4	11.2	14.3	14.2	16.4	14.9	16.0	21.6	18.5	14.3	7.4	7.4	7.4	
8537 Boards, panels, consoles, desks,	1.5	1.8	2.1	1.7	3.6	4.5	14.9	8.6	14.9	5.9	13.5	10.8	18.3	25.0	6.7	46.0	22.0	
6907 Unglazed ceramic flags and pavir	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.9	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.2	2.4	1.0	12.4	17.4	18.0	13.5	-14.6	165.2	38.8	
2309 Preparations of a kind used in an	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.7	4.2	3.8	6.2	8.1	9.2	13.7	16.8	17.6	19.8	21.9	24.0	22.8	
8517 Telephone sets, including teleph	27.9	42.1	29.5	26.6	27.6	19.2	27.1	17.1	18.7	15.7	11.6	9.9	17.5	-7.2	-5.0	3.7	-1.4	
8474 Machinery for sorting, screening,	3.4	4.7	6.6	10.1	7.8	15.2	20.4	11.2	9.5	5.9	10.7	10.0	17.4	35.2	-21.2	43.7	2.0	
8413 Pumps for liquids, whether or not	5.6	6.8	10.2	9.1	10.6	13.2	13.6	12.6	12.5	20.4	16.8	15.7	16.3	18.5	11.5	-7.1	3.1	
8431 Parts suitable for use solely or p	5.6	5.6	4.3	6.8	9.8	14.2	11.9	13.0	12.0	10.8	17.3	9.5	15.9	20.3	-6.5	13.7	1.7	
4901 Printed books, brochures, leaflet	7.7	7.8	6.7	7.5	7.3	7.6	8.6	9.0	8.7	7.9	8.6	9.0	14.9	-0.2	1.0	23.4	10.1	
8481 Taps, cocks, valves and similar a	5.3	6.8	6.9	8.6	11.8	11.2	12.4	14.5	13.7	10.8	15.7	14.0	14.9	16.1	-1.0	11.3	4.1	
8409 Parts suitable for use solely or p	14.1	14.3	12.7	16.8	15.1	15.1	11.7	12.7	17.3	12.2	13.1	12.0	14.9	1.4	-5.3	7.0	-0.2	
8418 Refrigerators, freezers and other	3.4	3.6	2.9	3.6	5.0	6.0	9.9	10.3	7.8	6.4	11.0	11.3	14.5	12.3	1.6	31.2	13.4	
8430 Other moving, grading, levelling,	0.8	2.4	2.0	4.9	6.4	43.8	3.5	2.5	1.4	36.9	8.8	6.9	14.2	124.4	-4.2	-27.4	-14.9	
9021 Orthopaedic appliances, includin	1.8	2.2	2.7	5.1	5.1	6.9	8.2	13.3	11.4	11.5	12.9	15.1	13.9	30.5	13.7	6.5	10.6	
8443 Printing machinery used for printi	6.3	8.0	19.6	10.5	14.6	18.5	10.5	9.3	10.6	7.7	17.2	7.5	13.7	24.2	-19.7	21.0	-4.2	
7304 Tubes, pipes and hollow profiles,	1.3	3.6	10.3	9.8	6.3	17.2	19.6	56.1	8.9	3.7	10.5	8.2	13.4	66.7	-31.9	53.6	-3.5	
4810 Paper and paperboard, coated on	8.7	9.0	4.0	12.1	8.8	10.1	9.6	10.4	11.6	9.1	15.2	18.8	13.4	3.0	-2.7	13.6	4.0	
9027 Instruments and apparatus for pl	4.1	4.4	5.8	9.8	8.2	9.8	8.5	9.8	11.7	10.4	12.0	12.7	13.3	19.3	1.4	8.6	4.4	
3304 Beauty or make-up preparations	4.4	5.0	3.9	4.5	4.6	5.4	4.7	5.1	7.7	5.9	9.7	9.9	13.3	4.1	2.5	30.8	13.8	
8708 Parts and accessories of the mot	8.7	10.4	8.5	10.2	11.2	12.3	11.7	12.0	12.7	11.2	27.0	21.6	13.1	7.1	-2.2	5.2	0.9	
8544 Insulated (including enamelled o	1.5	2.3	1.9	2.0	2.2	5.0	7.1	7.8	5.5	4.4	6.5	7.9	12.2	27.1	-2.9	40.3	13.7	
8477 Machinery for working rubber or p	18.3	9.5	12.7	31.0	16.4	19.0	20.1	12.7	19.8	17.4	19.2	16.9	12.2	0.8	-2.1	-11.3	-6.2	
7308 Structures (excluding prefabricate	1.5	1.1	2.4	4.2	5.2	4.5	10.0	5.4	7.2	6.3	10.3	10.2	12.1	23.8	8.8	24.6	15.3	
8701 Tractors (other than tractors of h	3.6	5.7	8.4	12.9	14.0	8.5	8.6	10.8	8.3	1.4	2.9	13.0	11.6	19.0	-36.0	100.6	4.5	
3822 Diagnostic or laboratory reagents	2.9	3.5	3.6	3.9	5.0	6.0	6.7	6.7	8.9	8.8	9.2	10.1	10.9	15.8	10.1	7.5	9.0	
1509 Olive oil and its fractions, wheth	3.7	5.1	4.0	4.2	5.0	6.3	8.7	10.5	6.4	7.2	10.2	10.4	10.7	11.2	3.5	14.2	8.0	
8504 Electrical transformers, static cor	3.7	4.9	4.2	4.5	6.4	13.8	8.3	13.5	11.5	6.2	9.8	9.3	10.3	29.9	-18.0	18.2	-4.1	
3208 Paints and varnishes (including e	3.3	3.1	2.8	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.9	8.0	8.6	9.8	3.6	5.8	25.9	14.0	
8414 Air or vacuum pumps, air or othe	5.3	4.9	5.7	8.3	7.8	9.9	11.5	9.9	9.1	8.9	11.4	10.6	9.2	13.2	-2.7	1.1	-1.1	
0511 Animal products not elsewhere s	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	1.8	2.2	3.8	5.2	9.1	31.9	36.8	60.9	46.7	
2004 Other vegetables prepared or pre	1.7	1.7	1.9	3.4	2.4	3.3	3.8	3.7	4.6	5.0	6.0	6.9	8.9	13.7	11.4	21.2	15.5	
3824 Prepared binders for foundry mou	4.3	4.4	3.3	4.9	6.6	6.7	5.7	6.9	8.0	7.6	9.3	10.8	8.9	9.5	3.0	5.5	4.0	

(cont.)

(Table continued)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 07-12	CAGR 12-16	CAGR 16-19	CAGR 12-19	Trend
8441 Other machinery for making up p	1.3	3.1	4.1	9.8	4.4	5.7	5.4	7.7	4.9	8.0	5.4	6.5	8.8	33.8	8.8	3.1	6.3	
8536 Electrical apparatus for switching	6.0	15.2	7.9	8.0	9.6	19.0	13.0	14.2	13.2	8.9	12.1	9.3	8.3	25.8	-17.3	-2.1	-11.1	
9022 Apparatus based on the use of X	1.8	5.2	6.1	4.0	12.2	7.6	7.8	7.6	10.7	7.4	17.0	8.4	8.0	33.9	-0.5	2.6	0.8	
8309 Stoppers, caps and lids (including	6.1	14.2	8.2	10.3	7.6	13.3	11.6	6.9	7.6	6.9	10.0	8.2	7.9	17.1	-15.1	4.4	-7.3	
8439 Machinery for making pulp of fibr	1.8	2.4	1.0	10.3	10.2	2.6	1.4	3.0	1.8	1.9	1.6	2.8	7.7	6.8	-6.8	59.0	17.2	
8419 Machinery, plant or laboratory eq	8.5	4.1	5.5	10.3	9.1	8.7	22.7	8.8	13.7	10.3	15.3	9.9	7.6	0.6	4.2	-9.5	-1.9	
6204 Women's or girls' suits, ensembl	1.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	2.5	3.2	3.9	4.4	3.7	4.7	5.9	7.4	14.4	9.5	26.5	16.5	
8483 Transmission shafts (including ca	2.6	3.3	4.5	6.1	7.0	6.7	13.2	8.3	6.5	6.9	7.9	7.4	7.3	20.9	0.9	1.7	1.3	
3006 Pharmaceutical goods specified in	1.7	2.4	2.8	3.6	5.8	3.3	4.4	5.0	4.7	6.3	5.9	11.2	7.3	13.4	17.9	4.8	12.1	
8436 Other agricultural, horticultural, f	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.2	2.3	2.2	3.6	6.5	7.9	4.6	11.0	13.1	7.2	4.4	20.7	16.4	18.8	
8502 Electric generating sets and rotat	15.1	2.5	5.5	2.9	14.5	23.2	7.7	13.2	11.6	7.3	15.9	7.8	7.1	8.9	-25.0	-1.3	-15.6	
7216 Angles, shapes and sections of ir	1.9	6.1	0.3	2.4	4.5	4.9	2.2	4.2	4.2	2.9	5.2	5.6	6.9	20.8	-12.5	33.9	5.0	
3102 Mineral or chemical fertilisers, nil	8.1	9.1	9.8	14.6	18.1	15.6	6.9	18.1	8.5	7.3	8.2	6.1	6.7	13.8	-17.2	-2.7	-11.2	
0601 Bulbs, tubers, tuberous roots, co	3.4	3.1	2.9	4.5	3.7	4.0	4.4	3.8	4.9	4.8	5.2	6.2	6.6	3.3	4.4	11.8	7.5	
2204 Wine of fresh grapes, including fr	1.4	1.6	0.6	1.1	1.4	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	3.2	6.4	6.6	-4.9	-11.0	112.1	29.1	
0808 Apples, pears and quinces, fresh			0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.9	2.7	1.9	6.5	..	45.0	51.3	47.7	
8411 Turbo-jets, turbo-propellers and	0.6	3.8	5.0	5.7	15.2	15.3	12.7	22.5	3.2	4.1	3.6	15.8	6.5	93.8	-27.9	16.2	-11.6	
2203 Beer made from malt.	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.7	2.2	3.7	6.5	41.5	3.0	112.8	40.6	
8429 Self-propelled bulldozers, angled	4.3	17.6	9.2	10.2	15.9	20.3	13.4	10.1	5.1	3.7	8.4	6.7	6.4	36.4	-34.8	20.6	-15.2	
3920 Other plates, sheets, film, foil an	2.0	2.1	2.3	3.3	3.6	4.6	4.7	5.4	4.3	3.8	4.7	5.9	6.2	18.2	-4.6	18.0	4.5	
8507 Electric accumulators, including s	4.5	0.8	0.6	0.1	0.8	0.8	1.9	4.9	2.2	1.6	2.3	2.4	6.2	-28.7	17.7	58.0	33.5	
8527 Reception apparatus for radio-br	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.2	12.0	-40.5	786.8	89.4	
3917 Tubes, pipes and hoses, and fitti	2.1	2.4	1.2	1.8	2.6	3.5	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.4	6.4	5.8	6.1	11.1	-0.4	20.8	8.2	
2936 Provitamins and vitamins, natura	2.4	3.2	3.8	3.8	5.2	4.4	3.2	2.8	5.7	5.5	8.1	8.2	6.0	12.7	5.7	2.9	4.5	
3926 Other articles of plastics and arti	2.8	2.7	2.3	2.2	5.7	4.5	3.2	4.1	4.6	4.0	4.9	5.8	6.0	9.8	-3.0	14.1	4.0	
9026 Instruments and apparatus for m	1.6	1.2	1.6	2.3	3.2	7.3	7.1	7.8	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.9	5.9	35.8	-9.7	6.7	-3.0	
3305 Preparations for use on the hair.	1.5	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.7	2.7	2.5	2.3	3.4	3.4	4.9	4.8	5.8	12.4	6.4	19.5	11.8	
1209 Seeds, fruit and spores, of a kind	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.7	2.7	3.5	3.6	4.5	4.7	4.4	5.8	16.3	13.3	9.2	11.5	
8538 Parts suitable for use solely or pi	2.1	1.6	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	5.3	3.5	7.7	5.7	5.1	4.1	5.7	2.2	24.8	-0.5	13.2	
8427 Fork-lift trucks; other works truck	2.5	1.1	0.8	1.4	2.4	5.2	3.4	3.5	4.5	3.1	5.5	5.7	5.7	15.8	-11.8	21.7	1.3	
9405 Lamps and lighting fittings includ	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.6	2.0	3.1	3.8	3.3	2.6	3.6	4.6	3.6	5.6	14.7	4.0	16.1	9.0	
9031 Measuring or checking instrument	2.7	2.8	3.5	3.4	3.1	5.2	6.6	5.6	4.9	4.6	4.8	5.2	5.6	13.9	-2.9	6.8	1.1	
3207 Prepared pigments, prepared opa	6.4	4.7	4.1	5.3	6.0	6.7	8.2	5.4	4.3	5.4	5.3	5.6		0.8	-10.5	9.0	-2.6	
8526 Radar apparatus, radio navigatio	0.7	0.8	0.2	1.2	7.3	10.7	5.4	4.5	7.7	27.3	8.8	6.6	5.4	71.3	26.4	-41.6	-9.3	
3402 Organic surface-active agents (of	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.9	2.6	2.7	3.6	4.2	3.6	3.7	5.3	5.1	5.4	-0.8	8.0	13.2	10.2	
6203 Men's or boys' suits, ensembles,	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.6	2.2	3.5	3.8	3.3	4.3	4.5	5.4	13.7	19.0	17.6	18.4	
8704 Motor vehicles for the transport o	1.7	5.8	3.1	8.2	5.8	8.0	18.6	11.2	9.5	3.9	3.3	14.5	5.2	35.9	-16.1	9.9	-5.8	
3912 Cellulose and its chemical deriva	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.5	3.3	3.4	4.2	3.5	4.2	4.5	4.9	4.9	5.2	14.5	7.6	4.9	6.4	
3907 Polyacetals, other polyethers and	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.5	3.6	3.9	4.1	4.9	5.1	5.1	16.7	18.6	7.3	13.6	
3923 Articles for the conveyance or pa	2.9	1.7	1.5	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.4	3.4	2.9	2.8	4.6	5.0	-7.7	10.0	20.6	14.4	
8480 Moulding boxes for metal foundry	2.7	2.3	2.2	3.1	2.9	6.0	3.4	3.3	4.7	5.7	5.7	5.2	5.0	17.6	-1.1	-4.5	-2.6	
3104 Mineral or chemical fertilisers, po	0.1	1.4	0.4	0.6	1.3	0.9	1.3	3.2	3.4	1.5	2.4	3.6	5.0	45.0	14.0	49.3	28.0	
8455 Metal-rolling mills and rolls there	5.7	2.8	0.8	2.0	1.7	5.3	2.1	3.2	30.1	6.0	1.2	3.2	4.5	-1.5	3.2	-9.1	-2.3	
8705 Special purpose motor vehicles, o	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.6	2.5	6.2	4.3	6.9	6.1	3.0	6.1	12.5	4.5	54.8	-16.3	14.0	-4.5	
8424 Mechanical appliances (whether c	2.6	3.7	3.3	4.3	4.2	5.2	5.8	5.5	5.9	4.4	7.0	6.1	4.5	14.6	-3.7	0.3	-2.0	
8471 Automatic data processing machi	10.3	4.6	3.0	4.2	10.6	12.4	10.4	13.7	8.4	4.4	6.7	6.2	4.3	3.9	-23.1	-0.4	-14.1	
8501 Electric motors and generators (e	2.0	3.3	1.2	5.0	3.1	5.3	8.1	5.1	4.4	4.9	9.1	3.4	4.2	21.3	-1.9	-4.8	-3.2	
4802 Uncoated paper and paperboard,	0.7	1.2	0.9	3.2	3.5	4.6	8.7	5.5	3.4	5.4	4.0	5.8	3.6	44.2	3.9	-12.9	-3.6	
3901 Polymers of ethylene, in primary	1.8	1.7	1.3	8.2	6.6	2.2	2.2	6.9	4.2	5.8	7.6	8.6	3.2	5.0	27.0	-17.9	5.3	
8516 Electric instantaneous or storage	1.0	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.6	2.3	11.5	38.4	2.7	4.8	3.4	2.6	22.3	0.6	-0.9	0.0	
8417 Industrial or laboratory furnaces	0.5	0.6	3.5	5.4	3.4	3.5	4.9	1.6	2.7	1.6	12.6	11.7	1.6	47.9	-17.6	0.1	-10.4	
8408 Compression-ignition internal cor	0.9	5.7	3.2	1.3	20.4	1.5	15.1	5.7	3.8	1.2	11.7	4.5	1.5	12.2	-6.8	8.3	-0.6	
8802 Other aircraft (for example, helic		16.6	0.0	114.5	31.3	14.6	0.3	77.4	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.9	0.0	..	-69.2	-70.8	-69.9	

Note: Shows products with average import value of at least EUR 5 million per year over 2013-2019, or at least EUR 5 million in 2019.

Source: EU COMEXT database [accessed October 2020]



## Growth of EU imports from partners before and since the Agreement's entry into force

Comparing the average growth rates during the Agreement period (growth from 2012 to 2019 for Colombia and Peru, and 2016 to 2019 for Ecuador) at the sector level allows to identify relative best and worst performing sectors, and provides an indication for the sectoral impacts of the Agreement. Figure 6 depicts this by showing the difference of sectoral import growth rates against the growth rate of total EU imports from the partner country for the pre- and post-Agreement periods.<sup>26</sup>

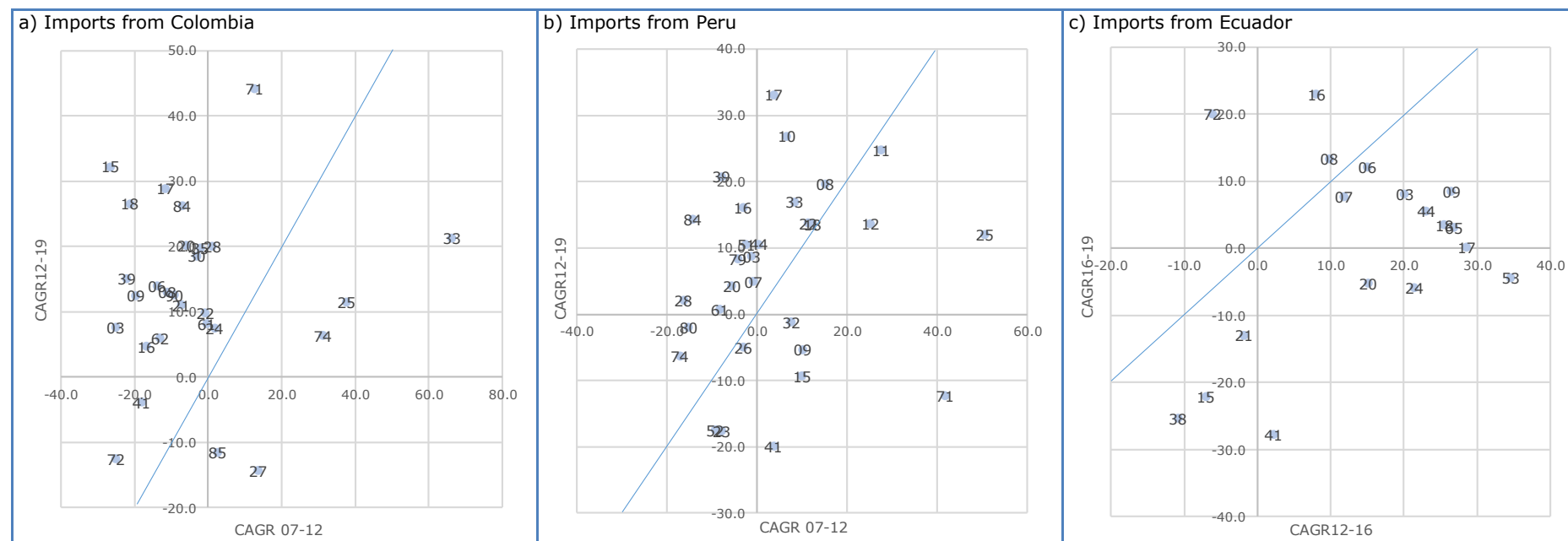
For **Colombia** (Figure 6a), EU imports of only four HS chapters have shown growth in both periods: precious metals (mostly gold, ch. 71), essential oils (ch. 33), salt/earth/stone/cement (ch. 25), and copper (ch. 74) – but the latter three performed considerably less well since the entry into force of the Agreement than before (as indicated by their location far to the right of the blue diagonal). Most sectors saw import decreases prior to the Agreement but increases since its entry into force (as indicated by their location in the upper left quadrant) – this being largely an effect of the drop in imports of the previously dominant import, coal (ch. 26). The commodities making the largest improvements in performance were animal and vegetable fats and oils (ch. 15 – mostly palm oil), sugars (ch. 17), cocoa (ch. 18), and gold.

For **Peru**, the comparative performance of sectors is relatively evenly distributed (Figure 6b). The sectors improving performance most in relative terms during the post-Agreement period are small: sugar (ch. 17); plastics (ch. 39); and machinery (ch. 84), although some of the most important imports have also widened growth performance compared to average import growth, including fruit (ch. 08) and meat and fish preparations (ch. 16). At the same time, the sectors losing most in relative terms also account for relatively small imports: precious metals (ch. 71), salt/stone/cement (ch. 25) and raw hides and skins (ch. 41).

Regarding EU imports from **Ecuador**, quite a number HS chapters have shown growth in both periods (Figure 6b). conversely, only three have decreased more than total imports during both periods: miscellaneous chemical products (ch. 38, a small import to start with), animal or vegetable fats (ch. 15), and miscellaneous edible preparations (ch. 21). Only two sectors, albeit the two largest ones, improved performance since the start of the Agreement, i.e. fish preparations (ch. 16) and fruit (ch. 08), leading to the increased concentration of EU imports from Ecuador already observed above. The commodities seeing the largest worsening in performance, vegetable textile fibres (ch. 53) and raw hides and skins (ch. 41) accounted for very small exports through the whole period (never reaching EUR 10 million per year).

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<sup>26</sup> This means that a sector that would have seen average import growth in line with total EU import growth from the partner in both periods would be located at the origin of the diagramme. Sectors located in the first (upper right) quadrant performed better than average in both periods; sectors in the second (upper left) quadrant performed better than average during the post-Agreement period but worse than average during the pre-Agreement period, and so forth. The farther a sector is located from the blue diagonal, the more differs its performance in the post-Agreement period from the pre-Agreement period: sectors above/to the left of the diagonal improved performance, those below/to the right changed for the worse.

**Figure 6: Average growth rates in EU28 imports from Andean partners, post-Agreement vs. pre-Agreement, by HS chapter (%)**

Note: Figures show differences between growth of sector imports and growth of total imports from the partner. HS chapters that have not exceeded EUR 10 million [EUR 5 million for Ecuador] at least once in the period 2007 to 2019 are not shown, nor are chapters with distorting import patterns. Imports from Peru exclude HS chapter 27 (annual growth >1,000% in 2007 to 2012). For a description of the HS chapter codes, see Table 12.  
Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database.

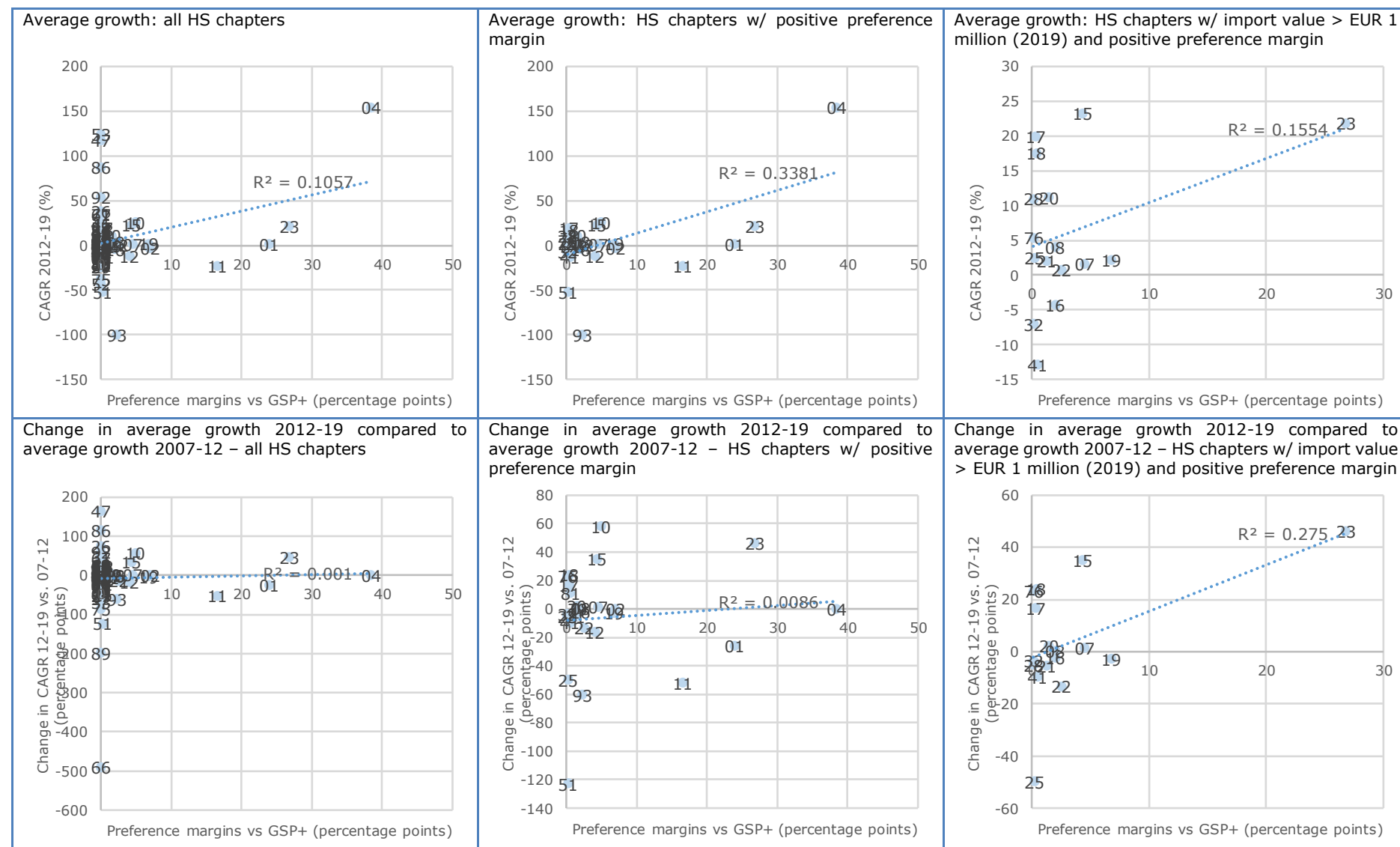
## **Performance of products for which EU import tariffs were eliminated by the Agreement**

As the Andean partners were EU GSP+ beneficiaries prior to the Agreement's entry into force, a considerable share of their exports already benefitted from duty-free access to the EU market. Therefore, the largest effect of the Agreement on EU imports from the partners would be expected for those commodities for which GSP+ duties were positive and then removed under the Agreement. All other things being equal, the expectation is that the positive effect on imports of the Agreement is stronger for products that would face high GSP+ tariffs. Although this theoretical expectation is tested more thoroughly as part of the CGE modelling, a simple regression analysis has been undertaken to obtain a first indication of the Agreement's effect. This puts EU import growth rates in relation to the preference margins provided by the Agreement compared to GSP+ tariffs that would otherwise prevail.<sup>27</sup>

Figure 7 to Figure 11 below show the results of the analysis. These provide no strong support for the theoretical expectation. There is limited indication that sectors with larger preference margins of the Agreement compared to GSP+ tariffs performed better in the post-Agreement period than before, as indicated by the almost horizontal regression lines in most of the figures/regressions undertaken. Although this finding is indicative only, it suggests that factors other than the tariff reductions are more important for determining the Andean partner countries' export performance to the EU.

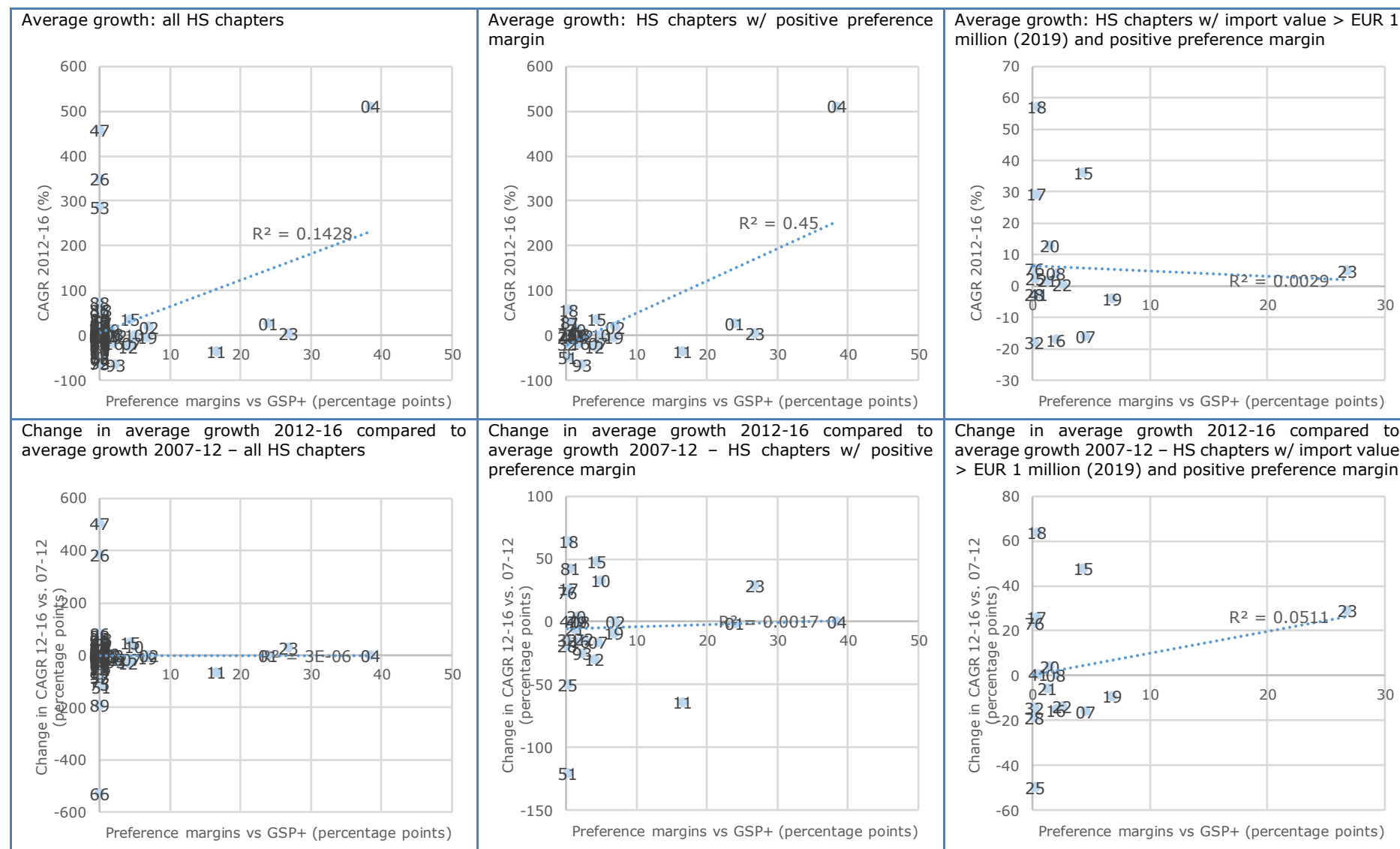
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<sup>27</sup> Two variations of the regression have been tested at the HS chapter level: the first only considers growth rates since the entry into force of the Agreement, whereas the second one considers the change in average growth after the Agreement's entry into force compared to the average growth prior to the Agreement. Each of the two sets of regressions was carried out for the whole period since the start of the Agreement and for its initial years (until 2016 for Colombia and Peru), as well as comprising different sets of HS chapters: all, all chapters where the Agreement has a positive preference margin compared to the GSP+, and all chapters with a positive preference margin and an import value of at least EUR 1 million in 2019.

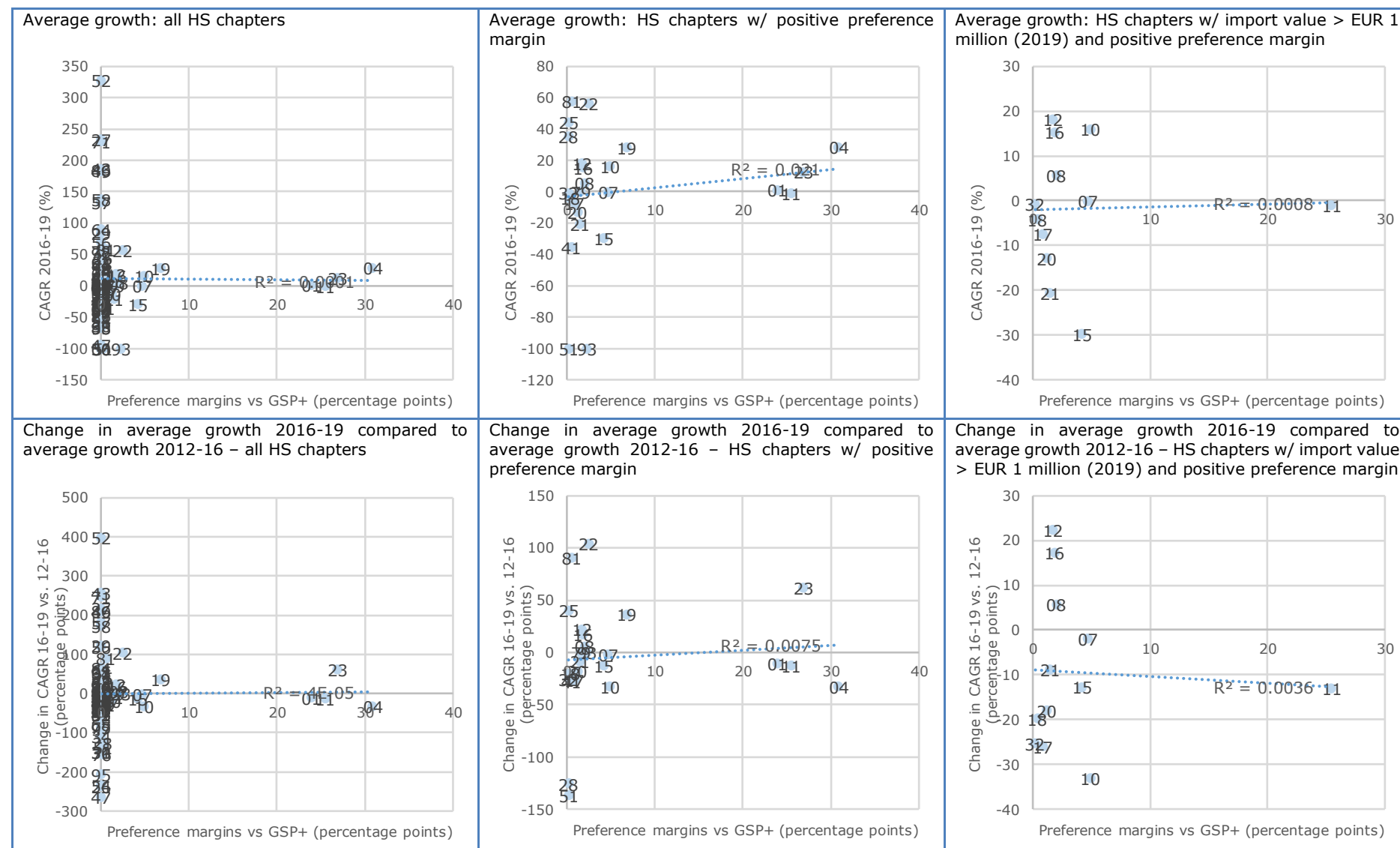
**Figure 7: Growth in EU imports from Colombia 2012-2019 vs preference margins compared to GSP+, at HS chapter level**

Source: Authors' calculations based on UNCTAD TRAINS (preference margins, 2018) and EU COMEXT (imports)

**Figure 8: Growth in EU imports from Colombia 2012-2016 vs preference margins compared to GSP+, at HS chapter level**

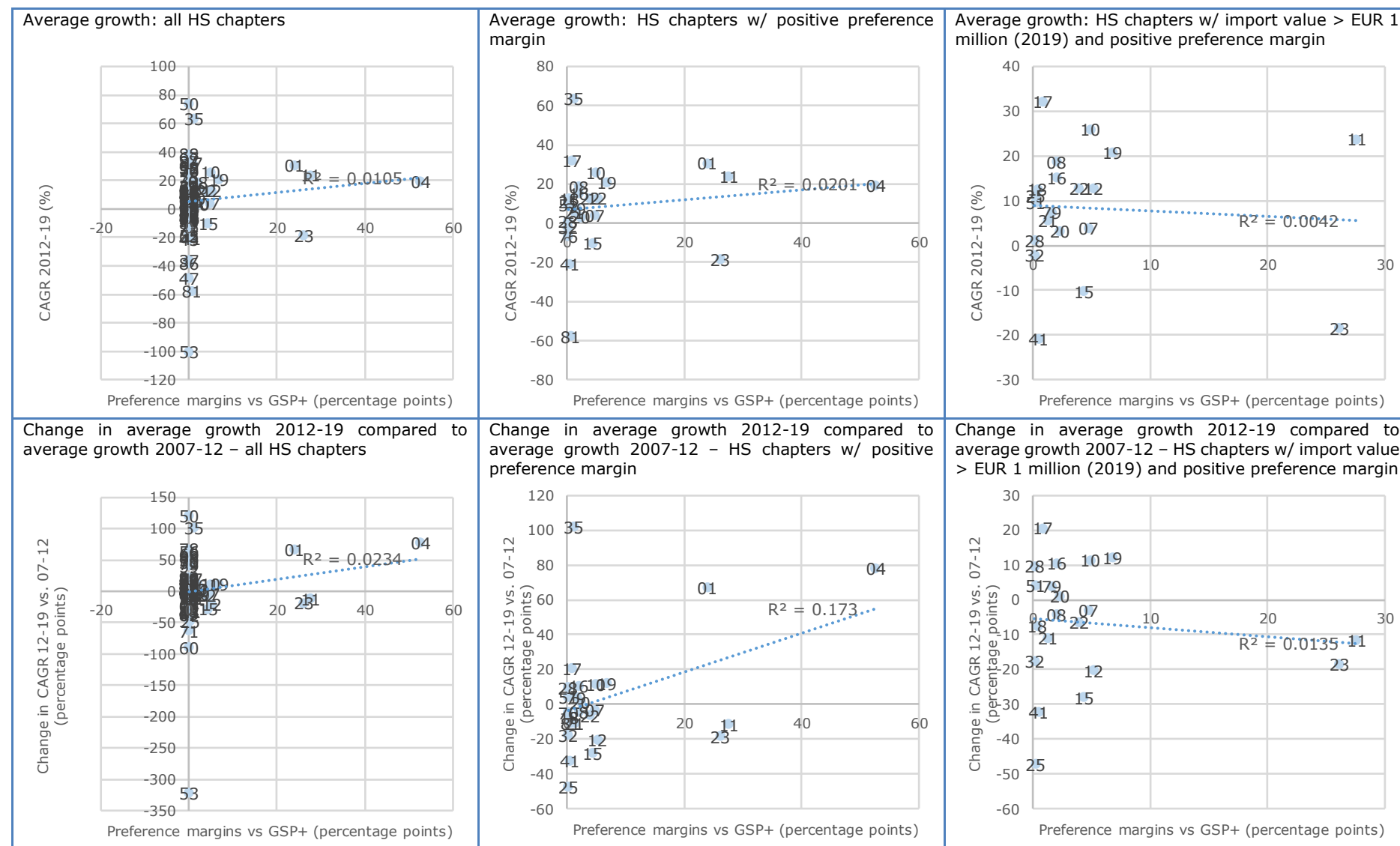


Source: Authors' calculations based on UNCTAD TRAINS (preference margins, 2018) and EU COMEXT (imports)

**Figure 9: Growth in EU imports from Ecuador 2016-2019 vs preference margins compared to GSP+, at HS chapter level**

Source: Authors' calculations based on UNCTAD TRAINS (preference margins, 2018) and EU COMEXT (imports)

**Figure 10: Growth in EU imports from Peru 2012-2019 vs preference margins compared to GSP+, at HS chapter level**



Source: Authors' calculations based on UNCTAD TRAINS (preference margins, 2018) and EU COMEXT (imports). Note: HS chapter 27 excluded (outlier).





**Table 12: List of HS Chapters**

Code	Description
01	Live animals; animal products
02	Meat and edible meat offal
03	Fish and crustaceans, molluscs and other aquatic invertebrates
04	Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural honey; edible products of animal origin, not elsewhere specified or included
05	Products of animal origin, not elsewhere specified or included
06	Live trees and other plants; bulbs, roots and the like; cut flowers and ornamental foliage
07	Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers
08	Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit or melons
09	Coffee, tea, maté and spices
10	Cereals
11	Products of the milling industry; malt; starches; inulin; wheat gluten
12	Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscellaneous grains, seeds and fruit; industrial or medicinal plants; straw and fodder
13	Lac; gums, resins and other vegetable saps and extracts
14	Vegetable plaiting materials; vegetable products not elsewhere specified or included
15	Animal or vegetable fats and oils and their cleavage products; prepared edible fats; animal or vegetable waxes
16	Preparations of meat, of fish or of crustaceans, molluscs or other aquatic invertebrates
17	Sugars and sugar confectionery
18	Cocoa and cocoa preparations
19	Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or milk; pastrycooks' products
20	Preparations of vegetables, fruit, nuts or other parts of plants
21	Miscellaneous edible preparations
22	Beverages, spirits and vinegar
23	Residues and waste from the food industries; prepared animal fodder
24	Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes
25	Salt; sulphur; earths and stone; plastering materials, lime and cement
26	Ores, slag and ash
27	Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products of their distillation; bituminous substances; mineral waxes
28	Inorganic chemicals; organic or inorganic compounds of precious metals, of rare-earth metals, of radioactive elements or of isotopes
29	Organic chemicals
30	Pharmaceutical products
31	Fertilisers
32	Tanning or dyeing extracts; tannins and their derivatives; dyes, pigments and other colouring matter; paints and varnishes; putty and other mastics; inks
33	Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery, cosmetic or toilet preparations
34	Soap, organic surface-active agents, washing preparations, lubricating preparations, artificial waxes, prepared waxes, polishing or scouring preparations, candles and similar articles, modelling pastes, "dental waxes" and dental preparations with a basis o
35	Albuminoidal substances; modified starches; glues; enzymes
36	Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matches; pyrophoric alloys; certain combustible preparations
37	Photographic or cinematographic goods
38	Miscellaneous chemical products
39	Plastics and articles thereof
40	Rubber and articles thereof
41	Raw hides and skins(other than furskins) and leather
42	Articles of leather; saddlery and harness; travel goods, handbags and similar containers; articles of animal gut (other than silk-worm gut)
43	Furskins and artificial fur; manufactures thereof
44	Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal
45	Cork and articles of cork
46	Manufactures of straw, of esparto or of other plaiting materials; basketware and wickerwork
47	Pulp of wood or of other fibrous cellulosic material; recovered (waste and scrap) of paper or paperboard
48	Paper and paperboard; articles of paper pulp, of paper or of paperboard
49	Printed books, newspapers, pictures and other products of the printing industry; manuscripts, typescripts and plans
50	Silk
51	Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horsehair yarn and woven fabric
52	Cotton
53	Other vegetable textile fibres; paper yarn and woven fabrics of paper yarn
54	Man-made filaments; strip and the like of man-made textile materials
55	Man-made staple fibres
56	Wadding, felt and nonwovens; special yarns; twine, cordage, ropes and cables and articles thereof
57	Carpets and other textile floor coverings

Code	Description
58	Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fabrics; lace; tapestries; trimmings; embroidery
59	Impregnated, coated, covered or laminated textile fabrics; textile articles of a kind suitable for industrial use
60	Knitted or crocheted fabrics
61	Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, knitted or crocheted
62	Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, not knitted or crocheted
63	Other made up textile articles; sets; worn clothing and worn textile articles; rags
64	Footwear, gaiters and the like; parts of such articles
65	Headgear and parts thereof
66	Umbrella, sun umbrellas, walking-sticks, seat-sticks, whips, riding-crops and parts thereof
67	Prepared feathers and down and articles made of feathers or of down; artificial flowers; articles of human hair
68	Articles of stone, plaster, cement, asbestos, mica or similar materials
69	Ceramic products
70	Glass and glassware
71	Natural or cultured pearls, precious or semi-precious stones, precious metals, metals clad with precious metal, and articles thereof; imitation jewellery; coin
72	Iron and steel
73	Articles of iron or steel
74	Copper and articles thereof
75	Nickel and articles thereof
76	Aluminum and articles thereof
78	Lead and articles thereof
79	Zinc and articles thereof
80	Tin and articles thereof
81	Other base metals; cermets; articles thereof
82	Tools, implements, cutlery, spoons and forks, of base metal; parts thereof of base metal
83	Miscellaneous articles of base metal
84	Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and mechanical appliances; parts thereof
85	Electrical machinery and equipment and parts thereof; sound recorders and reproducers, television image and sound recorders and reproducers, and parts and accessories of such articles
86	Railway or tramway locomotives, rolling-stock and parts thereof; railway or tramway track fixtures and fittings and parts thereof; mechanical (including electro-mechanical) traffic signalling equipment of all kinds
87	Vehicles other than railway or tramway rolling-stock, and parts and accessories thereof
88	Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof
89	Ships, boats and floating structures
90	Optical, photographic, cinematographic, measuring, checking, precision, medical or surgical instruments and apparatus; parts and accessories thereof
91	Clocks and watches and parts thereof
92	Musical instruments; parts and accessories of such articles
93	Arms and ammunition; parts and accessories thereof
94	Furniture; bedding, mattresses, mattress supports, cushions and similar stuffed furnishings; lamps and lighting fittings, not elsewhere specified or included; illuminated signs, illuminated name-plates and the like; prefabricated buildings
95	Toys, games and sports requisites; parts and accessories thereof
96	Miscellaneous manufactured articles
97	Works of art, collectors' pieces and antiques
99	Commodities not specified according to kind

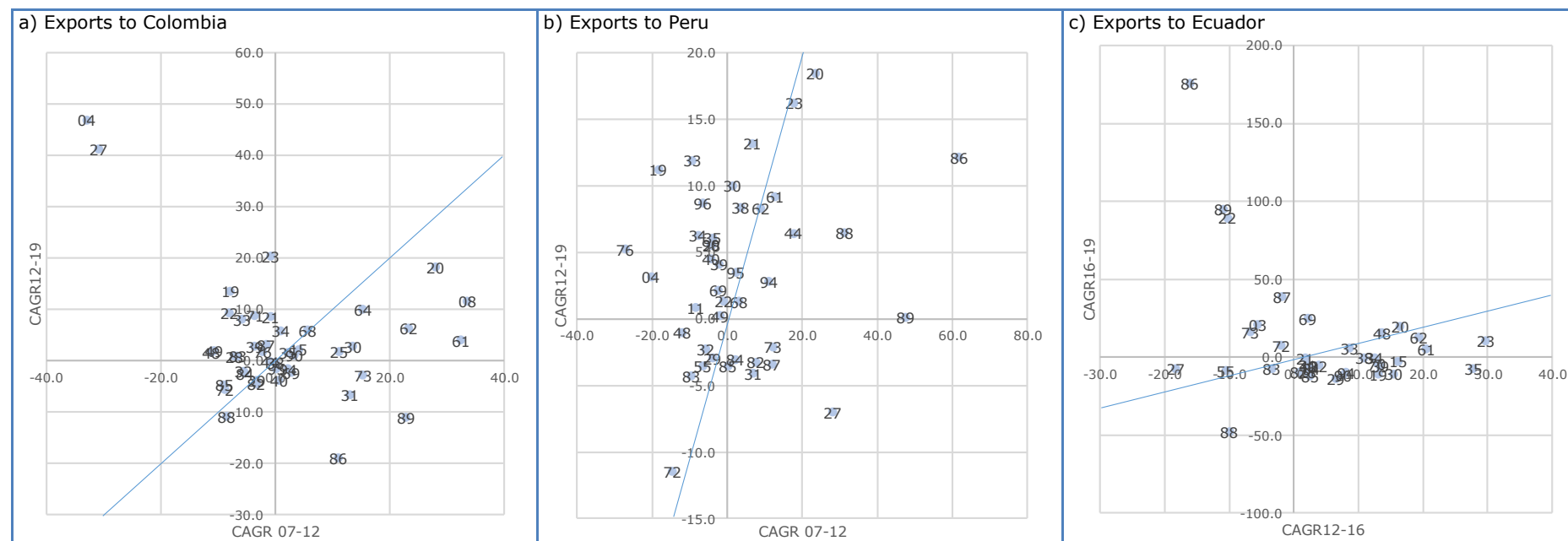
## **Growth of EU exports to partners before and since the Agreement's entry into force**

Comparing the average growth rates during the Agreement period (growth from 2012 to 2019 for exports to Colombia and Peru, and 2016 to 2019 for exports to Ecuador) at the sector level (Figure 12) shows the following.

Regarding **Colombia** (Figure 12a), growth rates of EU exports during the pre- and post-Agreement periods for most sectors were similar and not too different from average growth rates, as indicated by the clustering of sectors close to the origin. However, there were some notable exceptions. In terms of sectors showing a turnaround from export contraction in 2007 to 2012 to export growth since the entry into force of the Agreement, dairy products (ch. 04) and mineral fuels (ch. 27 – this performance mostly driven by global price developments, rather than the Agreement) stand out, but animal feed (ch. 23), preparations of cereals (ch. 19), miscellaneous food preparations (ch. 21) and beverages (ch. 22) are also among the sectors with solid above-average growth in the post-Agreement period after average or sub-average performance prior to the Agreement. On the other hand, the relative export performance of vegetable and food preparations (ch. 20), fruit (ch. 08), apparel and footwear (ch. 61, 62 and 64), and also pharmaceutical (ch. 30) was worse in the post-Agreement period than before: although EU exports to Colombia of these products these sectors grew faster than average both before and after the Agreement entered into force, the difference to average performance became smaller. Finally, for sectors switched from above-average performance before the Agreement to below-average performance since: rail transport equipment (ch. 86), ships and boats (ch. 89), fertilisers (ch. 31), and articles of iron and steel (ch. 73).

EU sector export performance to **Peru** is more diverse (Figure 12b), but overall a higher number of sectors shows a clear above-average export growth during the post-Agreement period, as indicated by their location in the upper two quadrants. Aluminium and aluminium articles (ch. 76), cereals preparations (ch. 19), dairy products (ch. 04) and essential oils and perfumes (ch. 33) stand out as the sectors that improved performance most strongly since the Agreement entered into force – although in the case of dairy and aluminium this only means that export values in 2019 reached (or slightly surpassed) the levels of 2007 again. At the other end of the spectrum, like for Colombia rail transport equipment (ch. 86) and ships and boats (ch. 89) are among the sectors with strongest relative declines in performance, as are aircraft (ch. 88) and mineral fuels (ch. 27). However, as already indicated for rail equipment, ships and aircraft, overall export values highly depend on a small number of transactions and are therefore volatile, and the performance of mineral fuels exports hardly depends on the Agreement.

EU exports to **Ecuador** have grown for most sectors (with the exception of aircraft, ch. 88) since the Agreement entered into force, after a much more mixed performance in the years prior to 2017. The sectors showing the biggest improvement in performance from the pre- to the post-Agreement period (Figure 12c) are – unlike in Colombia and Peru – rail equipment (ch. 86) and ships and boats (ch. 89), as well as beverages (ch. 22). No major underperformers stand out (i.e. most sectors cluster along the blue diagonal in the diagram).

**Figure 12: Average growth rates in EU28 exports to Andean partners, post-Agreement vs. pre-Agreement, by HS chapter (%)**

Note: Figures show differences between growth of EU sector exports and growth of total EU exports to the partner. HS chapters that have not exceeded EUR 20 million [EUR 10 million for Ecuador] at least once in the period 2007 to 2019 are not shown, nor are chapters with distorting export patterns.

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU COMEXT database.

**Table 13: EU Imports of agricultural products covered by TRQs from partner countries, 2007-2019 (volumes in t)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	
<b>CO</b>														
AV0-MM Mushrooms of the genus Agaricus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
AV0-SC Sweetcorn	2	4	5	3	2	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	
AV0-SP Other sugar confectionary & food preparations	152	120	161	186	169	136	172	159	183	277	189	272	272	
BF Boneless bovine meat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
CM Concentrated milk, sweetened	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
RM Rum	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	100	5	
SR Cane sugar	3,347	4,523	6,937	4,703	19,828	6,214	38,014	34,681	34,881	34,078	38,009	19,176	44,175	
YT Yoghurt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
<b>PE</b>														
BF Bovine meat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
BK Buttermilk etc.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	0	
BR Butter, dairy spreads etc.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
CE Cheese and curd	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
GC Garlic	24	123	42	44	0	22	0	0	22	525	570	0	68	
IE Ice cream	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
ME Maize	5,326	5,909	5,105	6,138	4,713	5,413	5,219	4,835	4,809	5,606	5,323	5,878	5,853	
MM Mushrooms of the genus Agaricus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
MP1 Milk powder	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	0	0	0	0	
MP2 Milk concentrate-not powder	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
PK Pork meat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
PY Poultry meat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
RE Rice	0	0	1	8	131	0	0	1	2	0	2	22	0	
RM Rum	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	0	16	0	
SC Sweetcorn	232	147	295	277	230	298	386	463	456	515	779	804	842	
SP Other sugar confectionary & food preparations	225	174	95	183	105	64	68	37	63	81	78	55	71	
SR Sugar	542	703	564	776	659	0	60	2,238	2	60	40	0	1,038	
YT Yoghurt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
<b>EC</b>														
GC Garlic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	0	0	0	0	0	
MC Manioc starch	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
MM Mushrooms of the genus Agaricus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
MZ Maize	290	231	137	140	43	86	72	43	31	26	8	31	6	
RI Rice	37	16	28	36	20	28	28	21	16	18	11	18	4	
RM Rum	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SC1 Sweetcorn preserved	0	0	0	1	3	1	4	7	0	4	0	3	4	
SC2 Sweetcorn frozen	36	28	21	26	31	13	11	29	30	62	13	42	21	
SP Sugar and sugar products	271	351	433	377	438	492	795	1,147	1,224	568	234	78	21	
SR Cane sugar	917	879	962	818	538	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

Source: Authors' calculations based on Eurostat COMEXT database.

**Table 14: EU Imports of agricultural products covered by TRQs from partner countries, 2007-2019 (value in million EUR)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
<b>CO Colombia</b>													
AV0-MM Mushrooms of the genus Agaricus	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
AV0-SC Sweetcorn	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
AV0-SP Other sugar confectionary & food preparations	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.8
BF Boneless bovine meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
CM Concentrated milk, sweetened	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
RM Rum	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
SR Cane sugar	1.5	2.2	3.5	2.4	13.0	4.3	21.4	19.7	22.3	24.5	28.6	17.8	39.4
YT Yoghurt	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>PE Peru</b>													
BF Bovine meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
BK Buttermilk etc.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
BR Butter, dairy spreads etc.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
CE Cheese and curd	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GC Garlic	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.1	1.4	0.0	0.1
IE Ice cream	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ME Maize	4.2	6.2	6.3	7.2	5.0	7.1	7.7	6.4	6.8	7.8	9.1	10.1	9.6
MM Mushrooms of the genus Agaricus	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MP1 Milk powder	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MP2 Milk concentrate-not powder	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
PK Pork meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
PY Poultry meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
RE Rice	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
RM Rum	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
SC Sweetcorn	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.6	1.5	1.7
SP Other sugar confectionary & food preparations	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3
SR Sugar	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.8
YT Yoghurt	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>EC Ecuador</b>													
GC Garlic	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MC Manioc starch	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MM Mushrooms of the genus Agaricus	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MZ Maize	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
RI Rice	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
RM Rum	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SC1 Sweetcorn preserved	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SC2 Sweetcorn frozen	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
SP Sugar and sugar products	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.9	2.5	1.1	0.5	0.3	0.1
SR Cane sugar	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: Authors' calculations based on Eurostat COMEXT database.

**Table 15: Utilisation rates of TRQs offered by partners to EU exports of agricultural products, 2013-2019 (%)**

Category	Utilisation rates as reported in FTA implementaion reports							Utilisation rates based on reported EU exports (COMEXT)						
	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
<b>Exports to Colombia</b>														
Raw sugar (AZ)						0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	27%	0%	0%
Bovine meat (DB)						0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Ice cream (HE)	5%	13%	7%	26%	46%	87%	99%	3%	22%	8%	52%	82%	182%	233%
Mushrooms (HO)	2%	5%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	60%	590%	567%	628%	993%	905%
Condensed milk (LC)							0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%
Infant formula (LM)	40%	68%	99%	100%	100%	99%	100%	53%	59%	86%	122%	110%	80%	75%
Milk and cream in powder (LP1)	0%	35%	100%	100%	83%	100%	100%	0%	14%	54%	50%	30%	135%	101%
Milk and cream in powder (LP2)								0%	0%	0%	27%	0%		
Whey (LS)	58%	50%	93%					45%	69%	123%				
Sweetcom (MA)	0%	54%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	206%	362%	407%	867%	1124%	1397%	1433%
Sugar confectionery (PA)	2%	3%	3%	4%	4%	5%	3%	120%	117%	121%	162%	153%	153%	211%
Cheese (Q)	9%	8%	8%	8%	3%	13%	17%	8%	11%	8%	7%	16%	14%	17%
Textured protein substances (TX)						0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Yoghurt (YG)	0%	1%	1%	100%	99%	17%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	3%	1%
<b>Exports to Peru</b>														
Bovine meat (BF)								0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Butter and dairy spread (BR)	0%	0%	96%	100%	82%	100%	0%	11%	17%	115%	178%	15%	170%	70%
Cheese (CE)	0%	0%	0%	4%	5%	5%	0%	20%	17%	23%	25%	29%	20%	39%
Infant formula (FP)	0%	0%	0%	30%	0%	0%	0%	368%	367%	338%	445%	299%	369%	358%
Garlic (GC)								0%	0%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%
Ice cream (IE)	59%	90%	99%	96%	94%	100%	86%	110%	117%	129%	121%	113%	211%	93%
Maize (ME)								0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Mushrooms Agaricus (MM)								0%	0%	0%	2%	2%	1%	0%
Milk and cream in powder (MP)	0%	4%	100%	100%	100%	100%	52%	39%	181%	153%	43%	58%	159%	116%
Pig meat (PK)								0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Poultry meat (PY)								0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Rice (RE)								0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Rum (RM)	4%	0%	4%	6%	4%	27%	100%	3%	2%	2%	3%	4%	4%	5%
Sweetcom (SC)								0%	0%	1%	1%	7%	11%	11%
Products with high sugar content (SP)	0%	0%	0%	2%	3%	2%	0%	95%	100%	103%	88%	97%	95%	110%
Bananas and plantains (SP1)								0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Sugar (SR)	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	8%	7%	16%	4%	6%	5%	5%
<b>Exports to Ecuador</b>														
Preparations for animal feeding (B)					6%	8%	18%					0%	0%	0%
Preparations for animal feeding (B1)					0%	3%	93%					933%	1081%	1349%
Bovine guts (D)					0%	0%	0%					0%	0%	0%
Dairy products: Powder milk, butter milk serum, whey					13%	36%	49%					13%	48%	47%
Dairy products: Evaporated milk, condensed milk (L2)					1%	3%	3%					0%	0%	0%
Dairy products: Yoghurt, cheeses: grated or powdered					3%	19%	15%					9%	22%	36%
Dairy products: Blue-veined cheese, mature cheese					4%	7%	13%					0%	0%	0%
Fresh sweet corn: Sweet corn, fresh, refrigerated (M)					0%	0%	0%					0%	0%	0%
Processed sweet corn: Sweet corn: frozen, canned (I)					22%	33%	63%					37%	32%	55%
Pork products: cured ham, bellies (streaky) sausages					6%	19%	19%					11%	16%	16%
Frozen potatoes (PA)					0%	2%	0%					0%	0%	4%
Confectionary product (high sugar content): Juices, c					1%	0%	1%					255%	299%	300%

Source: Authors' calculations based on Eurostat COMEXT database.

**Table 16: EU exports of agricultural products covered by TRQs to partner countries, 2007-2019 (volume in tonnes)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	
<b>EU28 exports to Colombia</b>														
AZ Raw sugar	37	6	7	11	15	10	148	3	5	2	6,338	4	3	
DB Bovine meat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
HE Ice cream	54	19	6	31	0	48	8	70	25	178	297	684	908	
HO Mushrooms	3	3	0	0	2	10	0	21	215	216	250	412	391	
LC Condensed milk	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	
LM Infant formula	811	687	749	501	540	530	583	713	1,132	1,739	1,697	1,315	1,326	
LP1 Milk and cream in powder	0	0	0	0	0	30	4	624	2,610	2,586	1,667	8,114	6,482	
LP2 Milk and cream in powder	5	0	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	175	0	0	349	
LS Whey	3,316	3,121	2,215	1,248	896	434	1,128	1,887	3,681	4,156	3,194	3,261	3,687	
MA Sweetcorn	317	267	178	151	230	296	288	532	626	1,397	1,889	2,444	2,607	
PA Sugar confectionery	6,453	5,625	4,577	5,519	6,238	6,518	7,969	8,058	8,552	11,756	11,425	11,700	16,610	
Q Cheese	94	83	29	66	102	110	176	271	226	223	529	480	614	
YG Yoghurt	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	1	
<b>EU28 exports to Peru</b>														
BF Bovine meat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	
BR Butter and dairy spread	308	419	103	21	32	30	29	48	345	577	53	636	279	
CE Cheese	244	236	259	273	407	369	496	471	677	805	1,028	745	1,540	
FP Infant formula	404	766	980	1,073	1,467	1,339	1,838	2,018	2,028	2,890	2,094	2,764	2,861	
GC Garlic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	0	0	
IE Ice cream	135	23	32	26	38	51	77	90	108	110	111	221	104	
ME Maize	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
MM Mushrooms Agaricus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	
MP Milk and cream in powder	4,251	1,492	984	386	1,857	3,078	1,170	5,976	5,508	1,692	2,437	7,164	5,566	
PK Pig meat	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	1	0	1	3	
PY Poultry meat	4	7	848	5	9	19	15	9	16	9	18	23	16	
RE Rice	49	18	25	112	33	66	49	39	57	57	81	38	45	
RM Rum	0	2	0	14	32	29	14	13	11	18	25	32	39	
SC Sweetcorn	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	33	56	60	
SP Products with high sugar content	1,466	1,475	1,511	1,645	2,886	3,443	4,768	5,136	5,484	4,803	5,438	5,486	6,486	
SP1 Bananas and plantains	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SR Sugar	206	196	305	503	399	739	867	817	1,836	530	707	654	637	
<b>EU28 exports to Ecuador</b>														
B1 Preparations for animal feeding	1,164	1,235	1,368	1,494	2,109	2,553	2,250	3,264	4,777	4,294	7,462	8,905	11,436	
D Bovine guts	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
L1 Dairy products: Powder milk, butter milk serum, w	123	72	73	83	69	92	75	0	48	1	50	200	209	
L2 Dairy products: Evaporated milk, condensed milk	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
L3 Dairy products: Yoghurt, cheeses: grated or powd	25	44	44	39	45	34	49	16	13	25	46	113	198	
L4 Dairy products: Blue-veined cheese, mature chees	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
M Fresh sweet corn: Sweet corn, fresh, refrigerated	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
MC Processed sweet corn: Sweet corn: frozen, canne	2	0	0	0	0	0	23	19	22	50	149	126	219	
P Pork products: cured ham, bellies (streaky) sausag	63	69	49	57	70	44	70	81	83	66	86	132	138	
PA Frozen potatoes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10	
SP Confectionary product (high sugar content): Juice	1,514	2,223	1,610	1,346	2,524	2,622	1,899	1,942	1,624	1,627	1,913	2,244	2,249	

Source: Authors' calculations based on Eurostat COMEXT database.



**Table 17: EU exports of agricultural products covered by TRQs to partner countries, 2007-2019 (value in million EUR)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	
<b>EU28 exports to Colombia</b>														
AZ Raw sugar	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.8	0.0	0.0	
DB Bovine meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
HE Ice cream	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.5	1.1	1.6	
HO Mushrooms	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.8	
LC Condensed milk	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
LM Infant formula	5.7	4.9	4.8	3.8	4.7	4.7	5.4	7.8	12.8	19.9	13.7	12.8	9.2	
LP1 Milk and cream in powder	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	1.5	5.3	5.1	3.0	12.6	13.3	
LP2 Milk and cream in powder	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.1	
LS Whey	4.1	3.0	1.4	1.0	0.8	0.4	1.5	2.7	5.1	4.6	3.5	3.1	5.6	
MA Sweetcorn	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.8	2.1	2.7	3.4	
PA Sugar confectionery	24.0	24.1	16.0	21.0	26.5	37.7	45.7	49.8	63.2	67.8	54.7	62.1	76.1	
Q Cheese	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.4	2.2	1.6	1.6	3.4	3.7	4.1	
YG Yoghurt	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>EU28 exports to Peru</b>														
BF Bovine meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
BR Butter and dairy spread	0.7	1.4	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.4	2.4	0.3	3.4	1.6	
CE Cheese	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.5	2.3	2.1	2.9	2.9	3.4	4.1	5.3	4.2	7.1	
FP Infant formula	2.7	4.7	5.8	6.8	9.5	8.2	12.9	15.0	17.4	22.7	18.1	21.8	18.9	
GC Garlic	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
IE Ice cream	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.0	0.4	
ME Maize	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
MM Mushrooms Agaricus	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
MP Milk and cream in powder	14.3	4.0	1.4	0.8	4.3	7.2	3.6	17.3	10.6	3.2	5.9	14.5	9.1	
PK Pig meat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
PY Poultry meat	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	
RE Rice	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
RM Rum	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.1	
SC Sweetcorn	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	
SP Products with high sugar content	5.2	6.9	8.5	9.9	14.3	17.3	25.7	25.5	30.6	40.9	33.6	35.2	40.9	
SP1 Bananas and plantains	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
SR Sugar	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.6	1.4	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.2	
<b>EU28 exports to Ecuador</b>														
B1 Preparations for animal feeding	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.8	4.0	3.9	5.9	7.2	8.2	12.5	15.5	18.3	
D Bovine guts	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
L1 Dairy products: Powder milk, butter milk ser	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	
L2 Dairy products: Evaporated milk, condensed	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
L3 Dairy products: Yoghurt, cheeses: grated or	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.8	1.0	
L4 Dairy products: Blue-veined cheese, mature	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
M Fresh sweet corn: Sweet corn, fresh, refriger	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
MC Processed sweet corn: Sweet corn: frozen,	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	
P Pork products: cured ham, bellies (streaky) s	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.1	
PA Frozen potatoes	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
SP Confectionary product (high sugar content):	7.6	13.3	9.4	8.3	17.4	20.2	14.7	17.2	12.2	14.8	16.1	20.9	19.8	

Source: Authors' calculations based on Eurostat COMEXT database.

**Table 18: EU exports to Ecuador of products covered by Ecuadorean TRQs, 2017-2020 (%)**

Product	2017		2018		2019		2020		Fill rate			
	Annual TRQ	Used TRQ	Annual TRQ	Used TRQ	Annual TRQ	Used TRQ	Annual TRQ	Used TRQ	2017	2018	2019	2020
B Animal balanced feed for human	800	49	815	66	848	153	845	160	6.1%	8.1%	18%	19%
B1 Pet food for dogs and cats	800	0	824	22	848	791	872	825	0.0%	2.7%	93%	95%
D Bovine offal	500	0	515	0	530	0	545	0	0.0%	0.0%	0%	0%
L1 Milk powder	400	50	420	150	440	217	460	288	12.5%	35.7%	49%	63%
L2 Evaporated milk, condensed	600	6	630	19	660	20	690	118	1.0%	3.0%	3%	17%
L3 Yogurt, semi-ripe cheeses	500	14	525	100	550	90	575	90	2.7%	19.0%	16%	16%
L4 Ripened cheeses	1000	39	1050	74	1100	140	1150	339	3.9%	7.0%	13%	29%
M Sweet corn (fresh, chilled)	300	0	300	0	300	0	300	0	0.0%	0.0%	0%	0%
MC Sweet corn (frozen, canned)	400	87	400	131	400	251	400	205	21.9%	32.8%	63%	51%
P Raw sausages	800	45	824	156	848	158	872	187	5.7%	18.9%	19%	21%
PA Frozen potatoes	250	0	257.5	5	265	0	273	0	0.0%	1.9%	0%	0%
SP High-sugar products	750	7	750	0	750	4	750	4	0.9%	0.0%	1%	0%

Source: Government of Ecuador

**Table 19: Changes in global exports and GDP (at initial market prices) caused by the Agreement, by region (year 2020; comparing situation with and without Agreement)**

Region	GDP in 2014	GDP volume		Total value of exports	
	USD M	USD M	%	USD M	%
1 Australia	1,390,042	-3.5	0.00	2.8	0.00
2 NewZealand	166,140	-0.8	0.00	-0.2	0.00
3 China	7,740,887	-115.4	0.00	-66.6	0.00
4 Japan	5,905,638	-33.6	0.00	-6.6	0.00
5 Asean	2,234,372	-12.6	0.00	-22.8	0.00
6 RestAsia	4,094,481	-50.7	0.00	-39.1	0.00
7 USA	15,500,006	-78.7	0.00	-140.4	-0.01
8 Canada	1,788,800	-5.0	0.00	-23.2	-0.01
9 RestLatinAme	1,715,823	-72.4	0.00	-57.6	-0.01
10 Mexico	1,169,359	-276.5	-0.02	-140.8	-0.04
11 Brasil	2,614,566	-97.9	0.00	-39.2	-0.01
<b>12 Colombia</b>	<b>335,415</b>	<b>41.9</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>744.3</b>	<b>1.35</b>
<b>13 Peru</b>	<b>170,564</b>	<b>49.4</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>267.5</b>	<b>0.53</b>
<b>14 Ecuador</b>	<b>79,276</b>	<b>127.6</b>	<b>0.16</b>	<b>111.1</b>	<b>0.50</b>
<b>15 EU_28</b>	<b>18,368,270</b>	<b>1334.4</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>1729.5</b>	<b>0.03</b>
16 Swiss	696,315	-28.6	0.00	-41.2	-0.01
17 RestEFTA	518,569	-5.1	0.00	0.8	0.00
18 Turkey	774,753	-8.5	0.00	5.9	0.00
19 Russian	1,904,790	-23.8	0.00	12.9	0.00
20 MENA	3,262,911	-1.2	0.00	17.0	0.00
21 SSA	1,514,712	-4.0	0.00	-0.7	0.00
22 RestofWorld	769,465	-7.6	0.00	0.0	0.00
<b>World</b>	<b>72,715,154</b>	<b>727.6</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>2313.5</b>	<b>0.01</b>

Source: European Commission DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

**Table 20: Sectoral impacts of the Agreement in the EU28 (comparing situation with and without Agreement, 2020)**

Sector	Total export		Total import		Output		Employment reallocation (%)	
	EU		EU		EU		EU	
	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	Unskilled	Skilled
1 Paddy rice	0	0.02	0	-0.03	0	0.00	-0.01	-0.02
2 Wheat	11	0.05	-2	-0.02	14	0.02	0.01	0.01
3 Cereal grains nec	3	0.02	-2	-0.02	1	0.00	0.00	-0.01
4 Vegetables, fruit, nuts	-161	-0.30	-38	-0.07	-279	-0.22	-0.24	-0.24
5 Oil seeds	3	0.03	2	0.01	7	0.03	0.01	0.01
6 Sugar cane, sugar beet	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	-0.02	-0.02
7 Plant-based fibers	0	0.03	0	0.00	1	0.03	0.02	0.02
8 Crops nec	10	0.04	-6	-0.02	-2	0.00	-0.01	-0.02
9 Bovine cattle, sheep and goats	2	0.03	0	0.00	5	0.01	0.00	0.00
10 Animal products nec	4	0.02	2	0.01	18	0.02	0.00	0.00
11 Wool, silk-worm cocoons	3	0.12	1	0.01	3	0.11	0.10	0.10
12 Forestry	0	0.00	2	0.03	3	0.01	0.01	0.01
13 Fishing	-1	-0.01	1	0.01	-1	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
14 Coal	-1	-0.04	7	0.03	-1	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
15 Oil	-3	-0.01	31	0.01	-1	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
16 Minerals nec	-9	-0.02	19	0.03	0	0.00	0.00	0.00
17 Bovine meat products	1	0.01	0	0.00	7	0.01	0.00	0.00
18 Meat products nec	33	0.06	2	0.01	40	0.02	0.02	0.01
19 Vegetable oils and fats	38	0.10	2	0.00	22	0.03	0.02	0.02
20 Dairy products	1	0.00	3	0.01	6	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
21 Processed rice	-1	-0.04	0	-0.01	-1	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04
22 Sugar	-3	-0.03	-1	-0.01	-5	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03
23 Other food products	-228	-0.13	207	0.12	-422	-0.06	-0.07	-0.07
24 Beverages and tobacco products	27	0.03	5	0.01	40	0.01	0.00	0.00
25 Textiles	48	0.09	30	0.03	66	0.04	0.04	0.04
26 Wearing apparel	62	0.09	38	0.02	54	0.05	0.04	0.04
27 Leather products	24	0.05	17	0.02	25	0.04	0.03	0.03
28 Wood products	5	0.01	15	0.03	25	0.01	0.01	0.00
29 Paper products, publishing	109	0.07	29	0.02	153	0.03	0.02	0.02
30 Petroleum, coal products	7	0.00	27	0.01	62	0.01	0.00	0.00
31 Chemical products	125	0.02	172	0.04	143	0.02	0.00	0.00
32 Basic pharmaceutical products	223	0.07	48	0.02	221	0.06	0.05	0.04
33 Rubber and plastic products	56	0.03	63	0.03	120	0.03	0.02	0.02
34 Mineral products nec	42	0.06	24	0.03	90	0.03	0.02	0.02
35 Ferrous metals	135	0.06	114	0.06	274	0.06	0.05	0.05
36 Metals nec	13	0.01	111	0.05	42	0.01	0.01	0.01
37 Metal products	207	0.13	73	0.05	416	0.06	0.05	0.05
38 Computer, electronic and optic	226	0.06	244	0.04	260	0.04	0.04	0.03
39 Electrical equipment	170	0.06	158	0.05	225	0.04	0.04	0.03
40 Machinery and equipment nec	661	0.12	218	0.04	752	0.07	0.06	0.06
41 Motor vehicles and parts	1033	0.15	281	0.05	1184	0.11	0.10	0.10
42 Transport equipment nec	58	0.03	86	0.04	67	0.02	0.02	0.01
43 Manufactures nec	131	0.07	76	0.03	160	0.03	0.02	0.02
44 Electricity	-4	-0.01	6	0.02	75	0.01	0.00	0.00
45 Gas manufacture, distribution	-15	-0.04	40	0.03	-14	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03
46 Water	-1	-0.04	1	0.03	22	0.01	0.00	0.00
47 Construction	-14	-0.02	22	0.03	641	0.02	0.01	0.01
48 Wholesale & retail trade	-22	-0.02	39	0.02	334	0.01	0.00	0.00
49 Accommodation, Food and serv.	-5	-0.01	4	0.01	91	0.01	0.00	0.00
50 Transport nec	-11	-0.01	30	0.02	83	0.01	0.00	0.00
51 Water transport	1	0.00	6	0.01	20	0.01	-0.01	-0.01
52 Air transport	-2	0.00	18	0.02	14	0.01	0.00	-0.01
53 Warehousing and support act.	-1	0.00	6	0.01	32	0.01	-0.01	-0.01
54 Communication	-23	-0.01	34	0.02	218	0.01	0.00	0.00
55 Financial services nec	-39	-0.03	39	0.02	6	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
56 Insurance	-31	-0.03	7	0.01	-17	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
57 Real estate activities	-6	-0.02	3	0.01	83	0.01	-0.01	-0.01
58 Business services nec	-107	-0.02	144	0.02	226	0.01	0.00	0.00
59 Public Services	-57	-0.03	49	0.02	120	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
<b>Total</b>	<b>2730</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>2506</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>5726</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>

Note: Changes on imports are mirror data, i.e. changes in total exports by the world to the EU

Source: European Commission DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

**Table 21: Sectoral impacts of the Agreement in Colombia (comparing situation with and without Agreement, 2020)**

Sector	Total export		Total import		Output		Employment reallocation (%)	
	CO		CO		CO		CO	
	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	Unskilled	Skilled
1 Paddy rice	0	-1.28	0	1.20	0	0.00	0.21	0.20
2 Wheat	0	0.15	1	0.22	0	-0.18	-0.04	-0.05
3 Cereal grains nec	0	0.60	3	0.25	0	-0.10	0.09	0.08
4 Vegetables, fruit, nuts	62	32.30	11	1.08	46	0.87	1.19	1.18
5 Oil seeds	0	-0.50	0	0.16	-1	-0.22	-0.06	-0.07
6 Sugar cane, sugar beet	0	10.61	0	0.53	-2	-0.17	0.01	0.00
7 Plant-based fibers	0	0.25	1	0.47	0	0.08	0.25	0.24
8 Crops nec	12	1.52	2	0.75	8	0.54	0.74	0.73
9 Bovine cattle, sheep and goats	0	-0.44	1	3.54	-6	-0.25	-0.07	-0.08
10 Animal products nec	0	-0.29	0	0.33	-10	-0.29	-0.12	-0.13
11 Wool, silk-worm cocoons	0	4.47	0	0.84	0	-1.15	-1.11	-1.12
12 Forestry	0	1.37	0	0.04	0	0.01	0.04	0.03
13 Fishing	0	1.19	0	-0.28	0	0.00	-0.02	-0.03
14 Coal	3	0.06	0	0.00	3	0.05	0.15	0.14
15 Oil	4	0.04	0	0.01	6	0.03	0.12	0.11
16 Minerals nec	0	0.51	2	0.37	0	0.01	0.04	0.03
17 Bovine meat products	0	0.17	0	-0.14	-5	-0.16	-0.18	-0.22
18 Meat products nec	0	24.48	9	0.99	-12	-0.30	-0.33	-0.37
19 Vegetable oils and fats	4	9.76	16	1.06	-3	-0.15	-0.18	-0.22
20 Dairy products	0	19.40	-2	-1.00	-4	-0.06	0.09	0.06
21 Processed rice	0	7.11	-1	-1.90	-1	-0.04	-0.07	-0.11
22 Sugar	1	0.85	0	-0.06	-2	-0.12	-0.15	-0.19
23 Other food products	57	8.16	2	0.17	48	0.38	0.35	0.31
24 Beverages and tobacco products	3	3.07	9	3.84	-8	-0.11	-0.15	-0.19
25 Textiles	13	5.14	-7	-0.34	21	0.64	0.61	0.57
26 Wearing apparel	23	7.60	21	2.15	-2	-0.04	-0.05	-0.10
27 Leather products	6	7.40	-3	-0.26	6	0.32	0.29	0.24
28 Wood products	0	2.69	-7	-0.81	5	0.17	0.13	0.08
29 Paper products, publishing	15	2.08	21	1.57	0	0.00	-0.04	-0.09
30 Petroleum, coal products	5	0.19	-1	-0.05	4	0.03	-0.05	-0.09
31 Chemical products	128	3.24	40	0.51	136	0.90	0.84	0.80
32 Basic pharmaceutical products	17	2.84	68	4.44	-40	-1.19	-1.25	-1.30
33 Rubber and plastic products	26	4.27	-9	-0.29	39	0.39	0.37	0.33
34 Mineral products nec	10	2.23	3	0.17	11	0.06	0.01	-0.04
35 Ferrous metals	6	1.89	-12	-0.17	8	0.15	0.09	0.05
36 Metals nec	18	3.11	-4	-0.25	21	1.72	1.66	1.62
37 Metal products	1	2.88	26	0.54	-24	-0.45	-0.50	-0.54
38 Computer, electronic and optic	2	4.83	-30	-0.23	3	0.38	0.37	0.33
39 Electrical equipment	14	3.72	6	0.11	9	0.34	0.30	0.26
40 Machinery and equipment nec	7	3.89	71	0.47	-30	-0.62	-0.66	-0.70
41 Motor vehicles and parts	23	3.68	132	0.99	-13	-0.21	-0.24	-0.29
42 Transport equipment nec	3	9.08	-31	-0.39	23	1.30	1.27	1.23
43 Manufactures nec	8	3.05	38	1.33	-20	-0.20	-0.24	-0.29
44 Electricity	7	1.35	0	-0.84	10	0.14	0.07	0.03
45 Gas manufacture, distribution	8	1.08	0	-0.86	9	0.48	0.70	0.68
46 Water	0	2.21	0	-1.03	-1	-0.01	-0.02	-0.07
47 Construction	0	1.59	-1	-0.77	47	0.03	-0.03	-0.08
48 Wholesale & retail trade	9	1.75	-11	-0.68	42	0.05	-0.02	-0.08
49 Accommodation, Food and serv.	1	1.08	-1	-0.16	-27	-0.11	-0.18	-0.24
50 Transport nec	12	1.06	-4	-0.43	8	0.03	-0.04	-0.10
51 Water transport	2	0.69	0	0.01	2	0.23	0.15	0.09
52 Air transport	20	0.79	-5	-0.28	22	0.37	0.29	0.23
53 Warehousing and support act.	8	1.71	1	0.13	17	0.21	0.12	0.06
54 Communication	15	1.68	-8	-0.80	24	0.07	0.02	-0.03
55 Financial services nec	4	1.63	-6	-0.71	9	0.05	0.00	-0.04
56 Insurance	1	1.61	-5	-0.58	6	0.08	0.04	-0.01
57 Real estate activities	7	1.74	-1	-0.69	3	0.01	-0.06	-0.11
58 Business services nec	13	1.65	-20	-0.69	55	0.12	0.07	0.03
59 Public Services	6	1.64	-11	-0.50	-17	-0.02	-0.02	-0.07
<b>Total</b>	<b>587</b>	<b>1.58</b>	<b>307</b>	<b>0.26</b>	<b>422</b>	<b>0.06</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>

Note: Changes on imports are mirror data, i.e. changes in total exports by the world to Colombia

Source: European Commission DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

**Table 22: Sectoral impacts of the Agreement in Peru (comparing situation with and without Agreement, 2020)**

Sector	Total export		Total import		Output		Employment reallocation (%)	
	PE		PE		PE		PE	
	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	Unskilled	Skilled
1 Paddy rice	0	3.46	0	4.11	2	0.23	0.37	0.36
2 Wheat	0	20.74	14	1.85	-3	-0.22	-0.12	-0.13
3 Cereal grains nec	0	-0.08	5	0.68	2	0.10	0.23	0.22
4 Vegetables, fruit, nuts	52	4.99	3	1.69	55	1.06	1.30	1.29
5 Oil seeds	0	-3.57	2	2.23	2	0.39	0.55	0.55
6 Sugar cane, sugar beet	0	-3.15	0	2.31	2	0.24	0.39	0.38
7 Plant-based fibers	0	-2.03	3	1.09	2	0.41	0.57	0.56
8 Crops nec	-32	-2.59	1	2.13	-26	-0.34	-0.25	-0.26
9 Bovine cattle, sheep and goats	0	-2.46	0	1.30	0	-0.04	0.08	0.07
10 Animal products nec	0	-0.65	0	0.69	-2	-0.05	0.07	0.06
11 Wool, silk-worm cocoons	1	1.92	2	5.64	1	0.26	0.39	0.39
12 Forestry	0	-1.28	0	0.86	0	0.02	0.03	0.02
13 Fishing	1	1.37	0	0.57	2	0.06	0.21	0.20
14 Coal	0	-0.07	0	0.22	0	-0.07	-0.13	-0.13
15 Oil	-1	-0.36	4	0.19	-1	-0.02	-0.07	-0.08
16 Minerals nec	5	0.03	1	0.08	-24	-0.10	-0.19	-0.19
17 Bovine meat products	0	-2.55	1	1.20	6	0.21	0.19	0.15
18 Meat products nec	1	1.77	2	2.38	3	0.06	0.04	0.00
19 Vegetable oils and fats	31	7.86	9	0.95	29	0.86	0.84	0.80
20 Dairy products	-1	-0.50	3	1.32	11	0.16	0.24	0.22
21 Processed rice	0	4.76	2	1.12	-1	-0.06	-0.10	-0.14
22 Sugar	1	1.46	2	1.08	5	0.14	0.11	0.07
23 Other food products	202	6.74	10	0.99	226	1.86	1.84	1.80
24 Beverages and tobacco products	1	1.10	3	2.30	-1	-0.01	-0.04	-0.07
25 Textiles	1	0.34	10	0.70	27	0.29	0.28	0.23
26 Wearing apparel	57	5.76	13	1.56	47	0.45	0.39	0.35
27 Leather products	2	5.63	6	0.97	-3	-0.10	-0.11	-0.15
28 Wood products	-3	-1.58	3	1.03	-5	-0.07	-0.08	-0.12
29 Paper products, publishing	-4	-2.22	21	1.74	-21	-0.41	-0.41	-0.45
30 Petroleum, coal products	0	0.00	3	0.15	13	0.09	0.03	-0.01
31 Chemical products	196	11.31	47	0.92	558	1.56	1.52	1.48
32 Basic pharmaceutical products	-1	-1.46	19	2.43	-16	-0.94	-0.99	-1.04
33 Rubber and plastic products	-7	-1.55	10	0.62	2	0.02	0.01	-0.03
34 Mineral products nec	-3	-1.10	4	0.66	-3	-0.03	-0.06	-0.10
35 Ferrous metals	0	-0.58	2	0.06	-5	-0.26	-0.29	-0.33
36 Metals nec	-130	-0.79	3	0.60	-147	-0.72	-0.75	-0.80
37 Metal products	-2	-1.76	12	0.66	-4	-0.08	-0.09	-0.13
38 Computer, electronic and optic	-1	-0.89	24	0.52	-14	-0.40	-0.43	-0.47
39 Electrical equipment	-2	-2.16	19	0.68	-13	-0.40	-0.42	-0.46
40 Machinery and equipment nec	-4	-1.63	51	0.72	-31	-0.35	-0.36	-0.41
41 Motor vehicles and parts	-1	-1.52	31	0.49	-16	-0.23	-0.23	-0.28
42 Transport equipment nec	1	3.18	9	0.63	-6	-0.23	-0.22	-0.26
43 Manufactures nec	0	-0.17	17	1.33	-10	-0.25	-0.26	-0.30
44 Electricity	0	-0.52	0	0.36	2	0.04	-0.03	-0.08
45 Gas manufacture, distribution	-13	-0.39	0	0.41	-10	-0.20	-0.34	-0.36
46 Water	-1	-1.28	0	0.71	1	0.01	-0.01	-0.05
47 Construction	0	-0.91	3	0.55	44	0.09	0.11	0.06
48 Wholesale & retail trade	-1	-0.76	2	0.48	12	0.06	0.02	-0.04
49 Accommodation, Food and serv.	-1	-1.08	1	0.54	-1	-0.01	-0.04	-0.09
50 Transport nec	-5	-0.49	2	0.31	6	0.04	0.03	-0.03
51 Water transport	-3	-0.59	0	0.27	-3	-0.16	-0.19	-0.25
52 Air transport	-5	-0.48	2	0.25	-5	-0.14	-0.17	-0.22
53 Warehousing and support act.	-3	-0.77	1	0.35	-2	-0.04	-0.08	-0.14
54 Communication	-3	-0.86	4	0.46	0	0.00	-0.03	-0.08
55 Financial services nec	-1	-0.91	1	0.49	2	0.03	0.00	-0.05
56 Insurance	-5	-0.98	3	0.43	-5	-0.16	-0.14	-0.19
57 Real estate activities	0	-0.79	0	0.23	1	0.01	-0.07	-0.11
58 Business services nec	-6	-0.81	7	0.42	-2	-0.01	-0.06	-0.11
59 Public Services	-7	-0.94	7	0.47	-9	-0.02	-0.02	-0.06
<b>Total</b>	<b>308</b>	<b>0.56</b>	<b>401</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>672</b>	<b>0.14</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>

Note: Changes on imports are mirror data, i.e. changes in total exports by the world to Peru

Source: European Commission DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

**Table 23: Sectoral impacts of the Agreement in Ecuador (comparing situation with and without Agreement, 2020)**

Sector	Total export		Total import		Output		Employment reallocation (%)	
	EC		EC		EC		EC	
	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	Unskilled	Skilled
1 Paddy rice	0	-17.97	0	11.18	1	0.24	0.59	0.57
2 Wheat	0	-6.76	8	5.04	0	-1.39	-1.30	-1.32
3 Cereal grains nec	0	-4.51	4	1.84	5	2.14	2.75	2.74
4 Vegetables, fruit, nuts	30	1.37	6	3.58	27	0.82	1.22	1.21
5 Oil seeds	0	-4.96	0	1.10	-2	-1.42	-1.33	-1.34
6 Sugar cane, sugar beet	0	-8.76	0	4.28	-3	-0.49	-0.26	-0.28
7 Plant-based fibers	0	-4.98	2	1.85	-3	-1.19	-1.07	-1.08
8 Crops nec	-7	-1.33	1	1.25	-7	-1.29	-1.20	-1.21
9 Bovine cattle, sheep and goats	0	-5.36	0	4.62	0	-0.14	0.16	0.15
10 Animal products nec	0	-2.94	0	1.48	-1	-0.22	0.07	0.05
11 Wool, silk-worm cocoons	0	-17.48	0	5.21	0	-4.72	-5.10	-5.12
12 Forestry	0	-2.61	0	1.45	0	-0.01	-0.07	-0.08
13 Fishing	-2	-14.76	0	11.31	3	0.30	2.01	2.00
14 Coal	0	-0.40	0	-0.05	0	-0.13	-0.53	-0.54
15 Oil	-2	-0.03	0	0.02	-3	-0.03	-0.21	-0.22
16 Minerals nec	0	-1.34	0	0.74	0	0.03	0.10	0.09
17 Bovine meat products	0	-6.99	0	3.63	1	0.09	-0.15	-0.21
18 Meat products nec	1	18.06	2	4.85	-1	-0.07	-0.29	-0.34
19 Vegetable oils and fats	-10	-2.18	9	2.26	-17	-1.56	-1.76	-1.82
20 Dairy products	-1	-2.11	0	3.09	0	0.01	0.10	0.07
21 Processed rice	-1	-10.77	0	5.16	0	-0.05	-0.29	-0.35
22 Sugar	-1	-24.00	2	3.33	-2	-0.48	-0.51	-0.57
23 Other food products	220	10.90	51	7.40	179	4.09	3.89	3.83
24 Beverages and tobacco products	0	-0.33	3	5.73	-2	-0.13	-0.33	-0.39
25 Textiles	-8	-3.23	5	0.98	-15	-1.67	-1.86	-1.93
26 Wearing apparel	7	4.89	2	1.95	6	0.60	0.40	0.34
27 Leather products	-6	-3.12	2	2.24	-10	-1.47	-1.66	-1.72
28 Wood products	-13	-2.95	2	3.66	-11	-0.62	-0.87	-0.94
29 Paper products, publishing	-5	-4.82	10	1.54	-10	-1.08	-1.13	-1.19
30 Petroleum, coal products	-6	-0.31	5	0.21	-2	-0.04	-0.27	-0.33
31 Chemical products	-13	-1.52	3	0.12	-16	-1.35	-1.59	-1.66
32 Basic pharmaceutical products	-2	-3.93	12	1.65	-8	-0.66	-0.90	-0.96
33 Rubber and plastic products	-3	-1.93	5	0.70	-6	-1.43	-1.55	-1.62
34 Mineral products nec	-3	-2.63	6	2.46	2	0.10	-0.11	-0.18
35 Ferrous metals	0	-1.04	3	0.23	0	-0.42	-0.70	-0.77
36 Metals nec	-2	-2.27	0	-0.18	-2	-2.09	-2.34	-2.41
37 Metal products	0	-1.34	7	1.71	3	0.54	0.40	0.34
38 Computer, electronic and optic	-2	-2.67	9	0.61	-2	-0.76	-0.94	-1.01
39 Electrical equipment	-2	-1.74	9	0.89	-2	-1.12	-1.28	-1.34
40 Machinery and equipment nec	0	-0.55	19	1.08	0	-0.06	-0.21	-0.27
41 Motor vehicles and parts	-38	-5.13	0	0.00	-40	-4.15	-4.30	-4.36
42 Transport equipment nec	0	4.81	5	2.03	0	0.16	0.02	-0.05
43 Manufactures nec	2	0.47	7	3.20	3	0.10	-0.17	-0.23
44 Electricity	0	-0.41	4	0.96	-2	-0.18	-0.37	-0.43
45 Gas manufacture, distribution	-1	-0.85	0	0.70	-1	-0.55	-1.00	-1.03
46 Water	0	-3.58	0	2.01	0	-0.01	-0.18	-0.25
47 Construction	-1	-1.90	0	1.65	113	0.68	0.40	0.33
48 Wholesale & retail trade	-6	-2.37	1	1.61	46	0.34	0.13	0.04
49 Accommodation, Food and serv.	-6	-3.54	1	1.87	-4	-0.12	-0.47	-0.55
50 Transport nec	-7	-1.12	1	0.92	9	0.16	-0.19	-0.27
51 Water transport	0	-0.54	0	0.36	-1	-0.14	-0.52	-0.60
52 Air transport	0	-0.60	2	0.55	1	0.09	-0.30	-0.38
53 Warehousing and support act.	-11	-2.18	0	0.69	-9	-0.44	-0.83	-0.91
54 Communication	-13	-2.22	1	1.29	-7	-0.15	-0.31	-0.38
55 Financial services nec	-2	-2.47	1	1.43	4	0.11	-0.04	-0.10
56 Insurance	-2	-2.36	1	1.22	-1	-0.12	-0.34	-0.40
57 Real estate activities	-3	-2.31	0	1.12	1	0.03	-0.24	-0.31
58 Business services nec	-4	-2.31	1	1.26	2	0.02	-0.14	-0.20
59 Public Services	-23	-2.58	5	1.50	23	0.10	-0.02	-0.09
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>0.26</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>1.07</b>	<b>236</b>	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>

Note: Changes on imports are mirror data, i.e. changes in total exports by the world to Ecuador

Source: European Commission DG TRADE CGE modelling results.



**Table 24: Sectoral impacts of the Agreement in LDCs and developing countries (comparing situation with and without Agreement, 2020)**

Sector	Total export						Output					
	LDCs (SSA)		DCs (RofAsia)		DCs (MENA)		LDCs (SSA)		DCs (RofAsia)		DCs (MENA)	
	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%	USD M	%
1 Paddy rice	0	0.07	0	-0.03	0	0.11	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
2 Wheat	0	0.00	-1	-0.03	0	-0.01	0	0.00	0	0.00	-1	-0.01
3 Cereal grains nec	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	-1	0.00	0	0.00	-1	0.00
4 Vegetables, fruit, nuts	-7	-0.19	-3	-0.03	-2	-0.05	-9	-0.01	-2	0.00	0	0.00
5 Oil seeds	0	0.00	0	-0.02	0	-0.01	0	0.00	-2	0.00	0	-0.01
6 Sugar cane, sugar beet	0	0.01	0	-0.02	0	0.01	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	-0.01
7 Plant-based fibers	0	0.01	-1	-0.01	0	0.01	0	0.00	-1	0.00	-1	-0.01
8 Crops nec	0	0.01	2	0.02	0	0.00	0	0.00	2	0.00	0	-0.01
9 Bovine cattle, sheep and goats	0	-0.01	0	-0.04	0	-0.01	0	0.00	-1	0.00	-1	-0.01
10 Animal products nec	0	-0.01	0	-0.01	0	-0.01	0	0.00	0	0.00	-2	-0.01
11 Wool, silk-worm cocoons	0	-0.01	-1	-0.06	0	-0.05	0	0.00	-1	-0.02	-1	-0.02
12 Forestry	0	0.01	-1	-0.02	0	0.05	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
13 Fishing	0	0.01	0	-0.01	0	0.02	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
14 Coal	0	0.00	-1	-0.02	0	0.04	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
15 Oil	-2	0.00	0	-0.01	26	0.01	-2	0.00	0	0.00	-16	0.00
16 Minerals nec	0	0.00	-3	-0.01	3	0.05	-1	0.00	-2	0.00	-2	-0.01
17 Bovine meat products	0	0.01	-1	-0.01	0	-0.04	-1	0.00	-1	-0.01	-3	-0.02
18 Meat products nec	0	-0.01	0	-0.04	0	-0.05	-1	0.00	0	0.00	-2	-0.02
19 Vegetable oils and fats	0	-0.02	-2	-0.02	-1	-0.05	-1	-0.01	-2	0.00	-3	-0.03
20 Dairy products	0	0.01	0	-0.01	0	-0.03	0	0.00	0	0.00	-12	-0.02
21 Processed rice	0	0.02	-1	-0.01	0	-0.01	0	0.01	-1	0.00	0	0.00
22 Sugar	0	0.00	-1	-0.01	0	-0.02	0	0.00	-1	0.00	-1	-0.01
23 Other food products	-8	-0.10	-3	-0.01	-4	-0.06	-9	-0.01	0	0.00	-20	-0.01
24 Beverages and tobacco products	0	0.00	0	-0.01	-1	-0.03	-2	0.00	0	0.00	-7	-0.02
25 Textiles	0	0.01	-3	-0.01	-3	-0.06	0	0.00	-3	0.00	-17	-0.04
26 Wearing apparel	0	0.00	-3	0.00	-5	-0.09	0	0.00	-2	0.00	-16	-0.04
27 Leather products	0	0.02	1	0.01	0	-0.03	0	0.00	2	0.00	-2	-0.03
28 Wood products	1	0.04	0	0.00	0	-0.05	0	0.00	0	0.00	-16	-0.04
29 Paper products, publishing	0	0.01	-2	-0.01	-1	-0.04	0	0.00	-3	0.00	-11	-0.04
30 Petroleum, coal products	0	0.00	2	0.00	-10	-0.01	0	0.00	11	0.00	-65	-0.02
31 Chemical products	-3	-0.02	-6	-0.01	-42	-0.05	-5	-0.01	-8	0.00	-71	-0.04
32 Basic pharmaceutical products	0	-0.01	-14	-0.07	-14	-0.10	0	0.00	-14	-0.02	-26	-0.06
33 Rubber and plastic products	1	0.02	-2	-0.01	-5	-0.06	0	0.00	-14	-0.01	-30	-0.05
34 Mineral products nec	0	0.00	0	0.00	-4	-0.05	-2	-0.01	4	0.00	-77	-0.04
35 Ferrous metals	1	0.00	-8	-0.01	-36	-0.08	0	0.00	-32	-0.01	-148	-0.06
36 Metals nec	4	0.01	0	0.00	-56	-0.09	4	0.01	2	0.00	-75	-0.08
37 Metal products	0	-0.01	-3	-0.01	-8	-0.11	-1	0.00	-14	0.00	-71	-0.05
38 Computer, electronic and optic	0	0.00	-61	-0.01	-9	-0.10	-1	0.00	-89	-0.01	-37	-0.06
39 Electrical equipment	0	0.01	-4	0.00	-10	-0.07	0	0.00	-12	-0.01	-26	-0.06
40 Machinery and equipment nec	2	0.03	-29	-0.02	-25	-0.12	0	0.00	-32	-0.01	-83	-0.07
41 Motor vehicles and parts	1	0.01	-138	-0.09	-8	-0.08	-2	0.00	-174	-0.05	-85	-0.05
42 Transport equipment nec	0	0.00	11	0.01	-2	-0.09	-1	-0.01	10	0.00	-9	-0.06
43 Manufactures nec	0	0.02	-3	0.00	-6	-0.05	-1	0.00	-5	0.00	-18	-0.04
44 Electricity	0	0.01	0	0.02	0	0.00	0	0.00	-4	0.00	-41	-0.02
45 Gas manufacture, distribution	0	0.00	-1	0.00	4	0.01	0	0.00	-3	0.00	-24	-0.02
46 Water	0	0.03	0	0.02	0	-0.06	-1	0.00	-2	0.00	-47	-0.03
47 Construction	0	0.01	7	0.02	-2	-0.03	-37	-0.01	39	0.00	-523	-0.04
48 Wholesale & retail trade	0	0.02	4	0.01	-8	-0.06	-12	0.00	-21	0.00	-209	-0.04
49 Accommodation, Food and serv.	0	0.02	1	0.01	-1	-0.04	-2	0.00	0	0.00	-33	-0.02
50 Transport nec	1	0.02	6	0.02	-3	-0.02	-1	0.00	5	0.00	-44	-0.02
51 Water transport	0	0.01	1	0.01	-1	-0.02	0	0.00	7	0.01	-2	-0.01
52 Air transport	0	0.00	-1	0.00	-4	-0.02	0	0.00	0	0.00	-10	-0.02
53 Warehousing and support act.	1	0.03	4	0.03	-4	-0.04	0	0.00	1	0.00	-21	-0.03
54 Communication	1	0.02	8	0.02	-9	-0.06	-5	0.00	6	0.00	-102	-0.04
55 Financial services nec	0	0.02	1	0.00	-8	-0.07	-3	0.00	-11	0.00	-68	-0.04
56 Insurance	0	0.01	0	0.00	-2	-0.06	-3	0.00	-3	0.00	-10	-0.04
57 Real estate activities	0	0.01	1	0.01	-2	-0.07	-3	0.00	-1	0.00	-28	-0.03
58 Business services nec	1	0.02	31	0.01	-17	-0.04	-2	0.00	25	0.00	-91	-0.04
59 Public Services	1	0.01	3	0.00	-6	-0.04	-23	0.00	-10	0.00	-236	-0.02

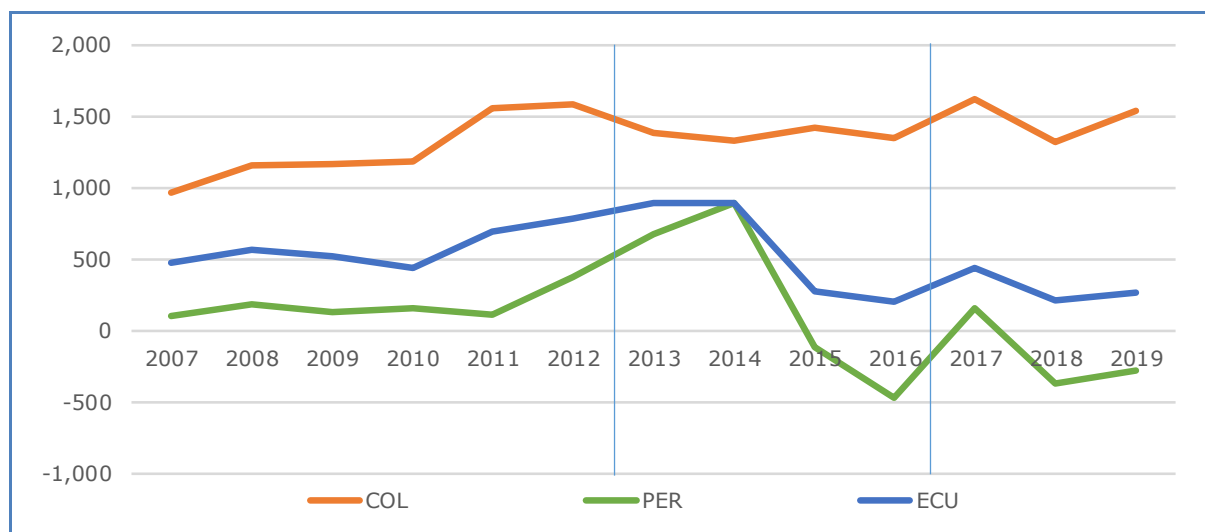
Source: European Commission DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

### 1.1.3 Bilateral Services Trade Balances

The EU28 has had a consistent surplus with Colombia of about USD 1.5 billion since 2011 (two years before the Agreement). With Ecuador, the surplus increased from USD 0.5 billion in 2007 to 2019 to around USD 0.3 billion in 2015 (two years before the Agreement), where it has remained since. And for Peru, a small but stable trade surplus of USD 100-200 million over the period 2007 to 2011 then increased rapidly until 2014, before dropping

sharply (in fact turning into a small trade deficit) in 2015, and since has been fluctuating between (relatively) small bilateral services trade surpluses and deficits.

**Figure 13: EU28 bilateral services trade balances with Agreement partners, 2007-2019 (USD million)**



Source: Authors' calculations based on BaTIS database.



**Table 25: Overview of market access issues discussed in Sub-committees on Agriculture and on Market Access, 2014-2020**

Issue	Party raising the issue	Party addressed	Sub-committee	Year raised	Issue about future rules?	Status	Comment
Amendments to banana stabilisation mechanism	COL, PER	EU	Agriculture	2015	Y	Solved	
Anti-dumping case against frozen potatoes	EU	COL	Market Access	2017	N	Closed	Brought to WTO in 2019 (DS593)
Anti-dumping case against frozen potatoes	EU	COL	Market Access	2018	N	Closed	Brought to WTO in 2019 (DS593)
Anti-dumping case against frozen potatoes	EU	COL	Market Access	2019	N	Closed	Brought to WTO in 2019 (DS593)
Application of tariffs on textiles and apparel (Articles 274f of National Development Plan)	EU	COL	Market Access	2019	N	Solved	Solved? Not addressed 2020
Carbon Border Adjustment (CBA) mechanism	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Market Access	2020	Y	Ongoing	
Changes in MRLs	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Market Access	2020	Y	Ongoing	
Consumption tax on imported vehicles	EU	COL	Market Access	2016	N	Solved	Solved? Not addressed 2017ff
Customs services charges	EU	ECU	Market Access	2017	N	Solved	Solved? Not addressed 2018ff
Discrimination against imported beers (stamp duties at level of departamentos)	EU	COL	Market Access	2019	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Discrimination against imported beers (stamp duties at level of departamentos)	EU	COL	Market Access	2020	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Discrimination against imported beers (stamp duties at level of departamentos)	EU	COL	Market Access	2016	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Discrimination against imported spirits (departamentos, Ley 1816)	EU	COL	Agriculture	2014	N	Ongoing	
Discrimination against imported spirits (departamentos, Ley 1816)	EU	COL	Agriculture	2015	N	Ongoing	
Discrimination against imported spirits (departamentos, Ley 1816)	EU	COL	Agriculture	2016	N	Ongoing	
Discrimination against imported spirits (departamentos, Ley 1816)	EU	COL	Market Access	2017	N	Ongoing	
Discrimination against imported spirits (departamentos, Ley 1816)	EU	COL	Market Access	2019	N	Ongoing	
Discrimination against imported spirits (departamentos, Ley 1816)	EU	COL	Market Access	2020	N	Ongoing	
Discrimination against imported spirits (stamp duties)	EU	ECU	Market Access	2017	N	Solved	Solved 2019
Discrimination against imported spirits (stamp duties)	EU	ECU	Market Access	2018	N	Solved	Solved 2019
Discrimination against imported spirits (stamp duties)	EU	ECU	Market Access	2019	N	Solved	Solved 2019
EP Resolution regarding deforestation	COL, ECU	EU	Agriculture	2019	Y	Ongoing	
EP Resolution regarding deforestation	COL, ECU	EU	Agriculture	2020	Y	Ongoing	
Equivalence agreement for organic production*	COL	EU	Agriculture	2015	N	Ongoing	This topic is not part of the Agreement but is reported here as it has been addressed in the Sub-committee meetings
Equivalence agreement for organic production*	COL	EU	Agriculture	2016	N	Ongoing	
Equivalence agreement for organic production*	COL, ECU	EU	Agriculture	2017	N	Ongoing	
Equivalence agreement for organic production*	COL, ECU	EU	Agriculture	2018	N	Ongoing	
Equivalence agreement for organic production*	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Agriculture	2019	N	Ongoing	
Equivalence agreement for organic production*	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Agriculture	2020	N	Ongoing	

(continues)

(Table continued)

Issue	Party raising the issue	Party addressed	Sub-committee	Year raised	Issue about future rules?	Status	Comment
Further reduction of duties on bananas	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Market Access	2018	Y	Closed	
Further reduction of duties on bananas	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Market Access	2019	Y	Closed	
GMP certification requirements for alcoholic beverages	EU	COL	Agriculture	2019	N	Ongoing	
GMP certification requirements for alcoholic beverages	EU	COL	Agriculture	2020	N	Ongoing	
Negative labelling on palm oil	COL	EU	Market Access	2019	N	Ongoing	
Opening and management of autonomous tariff quotas for fishery products (2018 Revision of Council Regulation (EU) 2018/1977)	ECU	EU	Market Access	2018	N	Solved	New Regulation passed in EU
Opening and management of autonomous tariff quotas for fishery products (2018 Revision of Council Regulation (EU) 2018/1977)	COL, ECU, PER	EU	Market Access	2020	N	Solved	New Regulation passed in EU
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2014	N	Ongoing	
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2015	N	Ongoing	
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2016	N	Ongoing	
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2017	N	Ongoing	
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2018	N	Ongoing	
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2019	N	Ongoing	
Preferential tax treatment of Pisco	EU	PER	Agriculture	2020	N	Ongoing	
Pricing policies for alcoholic beverages	EU	COL	Agriculture	2018	N	Ongoing	
Pricing policies for alcoholic beverages	EU	COL	Agriculture	2019	N	Ongoing	
Pricing policies for alcoholic beverages	EU	COL	Agriculture	2020	N	Ongoing	
Requirement for heavy metals analysis for imported spirits	EU	PER	Agriculture	2015	N	Solved	
Requirement for heavy metals analysis for imported spirits	EU	PER	Agriculture	2016	N	Solved	
Requirement for heavy metals analysis for imported spirits	EU	PER	Agriculture	2017	N	Solved	
Scrapping of trucks (fees for heavy trucks)	EU	COL	Market Access	2014	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Scrapping of trucks (fees for heavy trucks)	EU	COL	Market Access	2015	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Scrapping of trucks (fees for heavy trucks)	EU	COL	Market Access	2016	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Scrapping of trucks (fees for heavy trucks)	EU	COL	Market Access	2018	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Scrapping of trucks (fees for heavy trucks)	EU	COL	Market Access	2019	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Scrapping of trucks (fees for heavy trucks)	EU	COL	Market Access	2020	N	Solved	Largely solved 2020
Sugar stabilisation fund	EU	COL	Agriculture	2020	N	Ongoing	
Tariffs on pet food (resulting from classification change)	EU	COL	Market Access	2019	N	Ongoing	
Tariffs on pet food (resulting from classification change)	EU	COL	Market Access	2020	N	Ongoing	
Taxes on coffee and coffee products	COL	EU	Market Access	2020	N	Solved	

Note: Issues related to TRQs or SPS issues, addressed in other parts of the report, are not included.

Source: Authors' compilation and assessment based on minutes of Sub-committee meetings.

**Table 26: Services exports by the EU28 to Agreement partners (balanced data) by sector, 2007-2019 (USD million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR20 07-12	CAGR20 12-19	CAGR20 12-16	CAGR20 16-19	Av 07-12	Av 13-19	Av 12-16	Av 17-19
<b>Colombia</b>																					
BOP6 - S - Memo item: Total service exports	2180	2575	2436	2428	3104	3172	3131	3103	3046	2951	3422	3384	3645	7.8	2.0	-1.8	7.3	2,649	3,240	3,081	3,484
BOP6 - SA - Manufacturing services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	0
BOP6 - SB - Maintenance and repairs	14	17	16	17	22	22	23	26	29	33	43	47	43	9.5	10.0	10.7	9.2	18	35	27	44
BOP6 - SC - Transport	833	986	794	818	977	1031	938	859	868	840	991	1002	1022	4.4	-0.1	-5.0	6.8	907	931	907	1,005
BOP6 - SD - Travel	386	468	426	421	534	588	673	732	751	800	911	855	910	8.8	6.4	8.0	4.4	471	805	709	892
BOP6 - SE - Construction	83	101	94	87	122	95	127	136	150	127	146	135	123	2.7	3.8	7.5	-1.1	97	135	127	135
BOP6 - SF - Insurance and pensions	133	147	153	178	232	238	211	198	187	200	204	175	220	12.3	-1.1	-4.3	3.2	180	199	207	200
BOP6 - SG - Financial services	110	128	147	128	168	163	160	154	158	132	210	198	249	8.2	6.2	-5.1	23.6	141	180	153	219
BOP6 - SH - Charges for the use of	64	82	84	87	112	110	122	89	89	84	107	105	129	11.4	2.3	-6.5	15.4	90	104	99	114
BOP6 - SI - Telecommunications, computer and information services	145	188	196	199	270	276	258	280	281	271	315	329	450	13.7	7.2	-0.5	18.4	212	312	273	365
BOP6 - SJ - Other business services	306	350	419	374	557	517	487	509	432	362	400	419	367	11.1	-4.8	-8.5	0.5	421	425	461	395
BOP6 - SK - Personal, cultural, and recreational services	12	12	11	20	20	22	28	21	26	31	16	20	20	12.9	-1.4	9.0	-13.6	16	23	26	19
BOP6 - SOX - Commercial services	2091	2480	2347	2341	3024	3075	3039	3020	2981	2892	3352	3295	3551	8.0	2.1	-1.5	7.1	2,560	3,161	3,001	3,399
BOP6 - SOX1 - Other commercial services	858	1013	1110	1083	1491	1430	1403	1400	1332	1215	1405	1386	1569	10.8	1.3	-4.0	8.9	1,164	1,387	1,356	1,453
BOP6 - SPX4 - Goods-related services	14	17	16	17	22	22	23	26	29	33	43	47	44	9.5	10.4	10.7	10.1	18	35	27	45
<b>Peru</b>																					
BOP6 - S - Memo item: Total service exports	1212	1461	1269	1372	1509	1743	2105	2387	1803	1784	1966	2077	2299	7.5	4.0	0.6	8.8	1,428	2,060	1,964	2,114
BOP6 - SA - Manufacturing services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	0
BOP6 - SB - Maintenance and repairs	5	7	7	9	10	16	21	23	21	25	28	33	35	26.2	11.8	11.8	11.9	9	27	21	32
BOP6 - SC - Transport	486	616	477	567	584	657	710	725	587	542	617	643	714	6.2	1.2	-4.7	9.6	565	648	644	658
BOP6 - SD - Travel	213	248	230	243	269	318	393	432	380	406	460	493	539	8.3	7.8	6.3	9.9	254	443	386	497
BOP6 - SE - Construction	49	61	33	39	53	49	74	86	73	69	71	78	80	0.0	7.3	8.9	5.1	47	76	70	76
BOP6 - SF - Insurance and pensions	47	54	63	59	71	84	119	174	107	100	100	95	106	12.3	3.4	4.5	2.0	63	114	117	100
BOP6 - SG - Financial services	136	143	121	104	131	139	207	267	131	126	134	133	142	0.4	0.3	-2.4	4.1	129	163	174	136
BOP6 - SH - Charges for the use of	29	38	40	45	49	70	85	101	73	65	66	74	80	19.3	1.9	-1.8	7.2	45	78	79	73
BOP6 - SI - Telecommunications, computer and information services	75	94	94	98	108	129	163	194	158	160	169	190	247	11.5	9.7	5.5	15.6	100	183	161	202
BOP6 - SJ - Other business services	124	156	160	165	190	232	284	331	229	239	266	279	308	13.3	4.1	0.7	8.8	171	277	263	284
BOP6 - SK - Personal, cultural, and recreational services	3	3	4	3	4	5	7	11	7	7	7	8	9	10.8	8.8	8.8	8.7	4	8	7	8
BOP6 - SOX - Commercial services	1181	1430	1238	1343	1478	1712	2067	2348	1775	1753	1932	2042	2264	7.7	4.1	0.6	8.9	1,397	2,026	1,931	2,079
BOP6 - SOX1 - Other commercial services	473	556	520	521	614	718	938	1167	783	777	823	872	974	8.7	4.5	2.0	7.8	567	905	877	890
BOP6 - SPX4 - Goods-related services	5	7	7	9	10	16	21	23	21	25	28	33	35	26.2	11.8	11.8	11.9	9	27	21	32
<b>Ecuador</b>																					
BOP6 - S - Memo item: Total service exports	890	1059	962	877	1207	1243	1374	1417	1008	973	1029	1068	1130	6.9	-1.4	-5.9	5.1	1,040	1,143	1,203	1,076
BOP6 - SA - Manufacturing services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	0
BOP6 - SB - Maintenance and repairs	5	8	7	8	10	12	13	16	11	13	16	18	17	19.1	5.1	2.0	9.4	8	15	13	17
BOP6 - SC - Transport	355	438	390	386	489	483	477	436	317	241	297	316	332	6.4	-5.2	-16.0	11.3	424	345	391	315
BOP6 - SD - Travel	110	124	120	104	135	161	190	205	151	187	210	209	218	7.9	4.4	3.8	5.2	126	196	179	212
BOP6 - SE - Construction	49	55	49	46	59	62	82	72	48	46	51	51	50	4.8	-3.0	-7.2	2.8	53	57	62	51
BOP6 - SF - Insurance and pensions	13	23	25	24	39	40	50	57	23	25	24	22	38	25.2	-0.7	-11.1	15.0	27	34	39	28
BOP6 - SG - Financial services	15	16	14	11	15	22	40	49	44	53	32	38	39	8.0	8.5	24.6	-9.7	16	42	42	36
BOP6 - SH - Charges for the use of	61	76	70	64	95	84	93	75	46	60	69	75	74	6.6	-1.8	-8.1	7.2	75	70	72	73
BOP6 - SI - Telecommunications, computer and information services	120	149	132	110	177	175	187	230	170	160	144	146	192	7.8	1.3	-2.2	6.3	144	176	184	161
BOP6 - SJ - Other business services	98	110	97	70	104	117	137	164	115	111	110	124	115	3.6	-0.2	-1.3	1.2	99	125	129	116
BOP6 - SK - Personal, cultural, and recreational services	25	26	31	26	44	45	55	69	45	45	47	36	32	12.5	-4.8	0.0	-10.7	33	47	52	38
BOP6 - SOX - Commercial services	867	1043	949	866	1182	1217	1342	1388	987	955	1009	1050	1114	7.0	-1.3	-5.9	5.3	1,021	1,121	1,178	1,058
BOP6 - SOX1 - Other commercial services	392	466	427	362	545	552	657	726	503	506	486	500	545	7.1	-0.2	-2.2	2.5	457	560	589	510
BOP6 - SPX4 - Goods-related services	5	8	7	8	10	12	13	16	11	13	16	18	17	19.1	5.1	2.0	9.4	8	15	13	17

Source: Authors' calculations based on BaTIS database, <https://data.wto.org/>.

**Table 27: Services exports by the Agreement partners to the EU28 (balanced data) by sector, 2007-2019 (USD million)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	CAGR 2007-12	CAGR 2012-19	CAGR 2012-16	CAGR 2016-19	Av 07-12	Av 13-19	Av 12-16	Av 17-19
<b>Colombia</b>																					
BOP6 - S - Memo item: Total services	1149	1353	1213	1179	1490	1508	1688	1720	1585	1574	1769	2017	2047	5.6	4.5	1.1	9.2	1,315	1,771	1,615	1,944
BOP6 - SA - Manufacturing services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	0
BOP6 - SB - Maintenance and repairs	0	0	0	2	10	7	13	4	5	2	3	8	7	..	0.0	-26.9	51.8	3	6	6	6
BOP6 - SC - Transport	379	426	357	371	494	480	552	545	472	464	496	581	576	4.8	2.6	-0.8	7.5	418	527	503	551
BOP6 - SD - Travel	528	627	579	560	691	699	735	759	742	746	810	913	908	5.8	3.8	1.6	6.8	614	802	736	877
BOP6 - SE - Construction	22	27	26	20	26	29	37	31	31	32	36	40	37	5.7	3.5	2.5	5.0	25	35	32	38
BOP6 - SF - Insurance and pensions	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	2	3	3	..	..	..	44.2	1	1	1	2
BOP6 - SG - Financial services	34	35	29	20	30	27	32	34	27	28	35	35	37	-4.5	4.6	0.9	9.7	29	33	30	36
BOP6 - SH - Charges for the use of	11	15	13	11	11	7	9	16	14	13	14	19	11	-8.6	6.7	16.7	-5.4	11	14	12	15
BOP6 - SI - Telecommunications, computer and information services	44	48	45	36	51	59	58	68	64	53	53	75	72	6.0	2.9	-2.6	10.8	47	63	60	67
BOP6 - SJ - Other business services	85	117	110	108	115	139	181	195	167	168	234	224	285	10.3	10.8	4.9	19.3	112	208	170	248
BOP6 - SK - Personal, cultural, and recreation services	16	19	17	17	22	22	32	23	32	32	40	60	70	6.6	18.0	9.8	29.8	19	41	28	57
BOP6 - SOX - Commercial services	1123	1325	1183	1155	1462	1485	1656	1691	1562	1547	1734	1974	2008	5.7	4.4	1.0	9.1	1,289	1,739	1,588	1,905
BOP6 - SOX1 - Other commercial services	216	267	243	223	262	293	358	376	338	331	422	466	521	6.3	8.6	3.1	16.3	251	402	339	470
BOP6 - SPX4 - Goods-related services	0	0	0	2	10	7	13	4	5	2	3	8	7	..	0.0	-26.9	51.8	3	6	6	6
<b>Peru</b>																					
BOP6 - S - Memo item: Total services	1099	1263	1122	1199	1387	1354	1401	1466	1917	2256	1787	2443	2576	4.3	9.6	13.6	4.5	1,237	1,978	1,679	2,269
BOP6 - SA - Manufacturing services	27	34	24	19	28	38	45	44	38	46	74	83	95	7.1	14.0	4.9	27.3	28	61	42	84
BOP6 - SB - Maintenance and repairs	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	2	4	4	4	5	6	..	29.2	41.4	14.5	0	4	3	5
BOP6 - SC - Transport	209	248	202	252	277	276	290	285	326	338	287	399	410	5.7	5.8	5.2	6.6	244	334	303	365
BOP6 - SD - Travel	548	609	557	587	703	633	668	696	874	1046	858	1108	1169	2.9	9.2	13.4	3.8	606	917	783	1,045
BOP6 - SE - Construction	16	21	20	17	18	17	18	19	21	25	18	25	32	1.2	9.5	10.1	8.6	18	23	20	25
BOP6 - SF - Insurance and pensions	16	16	14	12	15	22	16	25	43	40	40	38	32	6.6	5.5	16.1	-7.2	16	33	29	37
BOP6 - SG - Financial services	18	21	17	22	22	22	24	26	44	43	31	45	52	4.1	13.1	18.2	6.5	20	38	32	43
BOP6 - SH - Charges for the use of	13	13	11	10	9	6	7	8	12	12	10	12	12	-14.3	10.4	18.9	0.0	10	10	9	11
BOP6 - SI - Telecommunications, computer and information services	25	33	26	28	35	37	31	34	50	52	40	54	55	8.2	5.8	8.9	1.9	31	45	41	50
BOP6 - SJ - Other business services	161	207	188	194	217	235	227	251	343	478	321	488	504	7.9	11.5	19.4	1.8	200	373	307	438
BOP6 - SK - Personal, cultural, and recreation services	30	32	31	30	37	40	50	51	127	131	79	146	163	5.9	22.2	34.5	7.6	33	107	80	129
BOP6 - SOX - Commercial services	1082	1248	1107	1183	1371	1339	1388	1452	1895	2228	1771	2415	2546	4.4	9.6	13.6	4.5	1,222	1,956	1,660	2,244
BOP6 - SOX1 - Other commercial services	292	352	315	321	360	389	385	420	646	794	543	819	865	5.9	12.1	19.5	2.9	338	639	527	742
BOP6 - SPX4 - Goods-related services	29	34	25	20	28	40	49	47	42	49	78	90	99	6.6	13.8	5.2	26.4	29	65	45	89
<b>Ecuador</b>																					
BOP6 - S - Memo item: Total services	406	491	436	437	502	441	456	504	746	783	584	869	883	1.7	10.4	15.4	4.1	452	689	586	779
BOP6 - SA - Manufacturing services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	0
BOP6 - SB - Maintenance and repairs	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	1
BOP6 - SC - Transport	162	184	160	171	198	167	165	177	240	237	204	286	296	0.6	8.5	9.1	7.7	174	229	197	262
BOP6 - SD - Travel	107	124	113	114	136	122	140	154	190	205	185	261	261	2.7	11.5	13.9	8.4	119	199	162	236
BOP6 - SE - Construction	0	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	..	10.4	0.0	26.0	1	1	1	1
BOP6 - SF - Insurance and pensions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	..	..	..	..	0	1	0	1
BOP6 - SG - Financial services	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	4	14	11	6	14	16	..	48.6	82.1	13.3	0	9	6	12
BOP6 - SH - Charges for the use of	4	6	3	2	4	2	3	3	6	4	3	4	3	-12.9	6.0	18.9	-9.1	4	4	4	3
BOP6 - SI - Telecommunications, computer and information services	23	40	34	30	34	24	22	22	33	33	25	33	31	0.9	3.7	8.3	-2.1	31	28	27	30
BOP6 - SJ - Other business services	75	102	90	82	87	82	86	112	192	232	129	211	208	1.8	14.2	29.7	-3.6	86	167	141	183
BOP6 - SK - Personal, cultural, and recreation services	11	12	12	13	16	17	15	15	28	18	8	18	24	9.1	5.0	1.4	10.1	14	18	19	17
BOP6 - SOX - Commercial services	393	479	424	424	490	429	445	495	714	751	570	838	850	1.8	10.3	15.0	4.2	440	666	567	753
BOP6 - SOX1 - Other commercial services	123	171	149	139	150	135	138	162	280	304	177	290	297	1.9	11.9	22.5	-0.8	145	235	204	255
BOP6 - SPX4 - Goods-related services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	..	..	..	..	0	0	0	1

Source: Authors' calculations based on BaTIS database, <https://data.wto.org/>.

**Table 28: Bilateral investment treaties between CO/EC/PE and EU Member States (excluding terminated ones)**

Andean Party	EU Party	Status	Date of signature	Date of entry into force
Colombia	France	In force	10/07/2014	14/10/2020
Colombia	BLEU (Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union)	Signed (not in force)	04/02/2009	n.a.
Colombia	Spain	In force	31/03/2005	22/09/2007
Ecuador	Netherlands	Terminated	27/06/1999	01/07/2001
Ecuador	Spain	Terminated	26/06/1996	18/06/1997
Ecuador	Italy	Terminated		
Peru	BLEU (Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union)	In force	12/10/2005	12/09/2008
Peru	Finland	In force	02/05/1995	14/06/1996
Peru	Germany	In force	30/01/1995	01/05/1997
Peru	Netherlands	In force	27/12/1994	01/02/1996
Peru	Denmark	In force	23/11/1994	17/02/1995
Peru	Portugal	In force	22/11/1994	18/10/1995
Peru	Spain	In force	17/11/1994	16/02/1996
Peru	Romania	In force	16/05/1994	01/01/1995
Peru	Italy	In force	05/05/1994	18/10/1995
Peru	Sweden	In force	03/05/1994	01/08/1994
Peru	Czech Republic	In force	16/03/1994	06/03/1995
Peru	France	In force	06/10/1993	30/05/1996

Source: UNCTAD (<https://investmentpolicy.unctad.org/international-investment-agreements/by-economy>; accessed 10 November 2020); for Ecuador: <https://www.dlapiper.com/en/mexico/insights/publications/2017/05/ecuador-terminates-12-bits-a-growing-trend/>, accessed 08 March 2021.

**Table 29: Top 6 export products from EU outermost regions to the EU28, 2007-2019**

	Value (EUR '000)												
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
<b>Guadeloupe</b>	<b>7,046</b>	<b>14,442</b>	<b>16,131</b>	<b>13,579</b>	<b>21,798</b>	<b>12,676</b>	<b>10,239</b>	<b>15,792</b>	<b>27,934</b>	<b>27,067</b>	<b>30,957</b>	<b>19,001</b>	<b>18,778</b>
1081 Sucre	1,484	9,919	12,093	7,766	3,371	3,555	2,237	2,133	14,857	10,786	21,115	10,920	8,824
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	3	48		1,831	4,684	3,677	2,577	4,944	3,195	3,701	2,721	4,247	3,548
0122 Fruits tropicaux et subtropicaux	340	800	120			361	268	2,626	4,143	3,780	671	826	784
3012 Bateaux de plaisance	398	280	1,230	1,296	1,964	891	1,166	1,087	420	2,783	689	484	521
2042 Parfums et produits pour la toilette	1,275	2,215	1,166	1,626	1,791	1,684	806	0	38			1	41
1101 Boissons alcoolisées distillées	91	135	150	121	471	225	405	471	1,067	2,794	2,790	780	269
Others	3,454	1,045	1,372	938	9,518	2,283	2,780	4,530	4,214	3,223	2,971	1,743	4,790
<b>Guyane</b>	<b>26,280</b>	<b>24,482</b>	<b>133,451</b>	<b>141,734</b>	<b>190,862</b>	<b>165,574</b>	<b>301,307</b>	<b>206,219</b>	<b>21,743</b>	<b>25,871</b>	<b>12,976</b>	<b>297,425</b>	<b>251,532</b>
3030 Aéronefs et engins spatiaux	3,800	475	113,073	116,908	171,301	129,862	263,398	176,062	2,930	3,789	1,044	255,149	220,830
2920 Carrosseries automobiles ; remorques et semi-remon	16,000	17,421	16,158	11,203	13,682	26,744	19,819	15,082	14,689	15,578	5,138	8,042	11,043
2651 Instruments et appareils de mesure, d'essai et de na	2,519	1,824	1,985	929	3,284	1,794	5,168	5,767	251	494	860	27,785	11,409
2051 Produits explosifs	4	670		10,846	63								141
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	110	81	76	75	340	587	369	583	260	812	1,277	1,463	1,371
2599 Autres produits métalliques n.c.a.	20	12	67		97	32	16	4,821	1	11	82	1	667
Others	3,828	3,998	2,092	1,772	2,095	6,555	12,537	3,905	3,612	5,187	4,575	4,986	6,070
<b>Martinique</b>	<b>15,664</b>	<b>3,685</b>	<b>4,689</b>	<b>6,171</b>	<b>15,788</b>	<b>9,492</b>	<b>6,596</b>	<b>5,021</b>	<b>3,855</b>	<b>7,152</b>	<b>5,987</b>	<b>6,487</b>	<b>7,540</b>
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non dangereux		959	1,750	1,120	11,684	4,905	2,537	1,465	694	808	1,127	1,771	2,392
3012 Bateaux de plaisance	852		326	470	160	1,927	540	868	299	4,414	1,183	814	416
3030 Aéronefs et engins spatiaux	8,817	82					3		6	16	577	215	1,747
1101 Boissons alcoolisées distillées	770	812	862	848	800	996	894	812	973	232	688	548	535
2811 Moteurs et turbines, à l'exclusion des moteurs pour a	434	379	136	96	1,598	18	444	66	66	49	390	434	1
2910 Véhicules automobiles	607	237	145	233	175	251	108	182	313	33	102	66	159
Others	4,184	1,216	1,471	3,403	1,370	1,395	2,069	1,629	1,504	1,599	1,919	2,639	2,289
<b>Mayotte</b>								<b>1,009</b>	<b>155</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>1,665</b>	<b>270</b>
2740 Appareils d'éclairage électrique												1,305	
2811 Moteurs et turbines, à l'exclusion des moteurs pour avions, automobiles et motocycles								946					54
1011 Viandes de boucherie et produits d'abattage												264	149
3212 Articles de joaillerie et bijouterie									54	38	17		
2651 Instruments et appareils de mesure, d'essai et de navigation								5	3	4		94	
2920 Carrosseries automobiles ; remorques et semi-remorques									87				
Others								58	10	30	11	3	67

(continues)

(Table continued)

	Value (EUR '000)												
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
<b>Réunion</b>	<b>32,846</b>	<b>43,191</b>	<b>33,766</b>	<b>62,790</b>	<b>61,702</b>	<b>63,177</b>	<b>62,462</b>	<b>64,899</b>	<b>58,814</b>	<b>69,724</b>	<b>80,649</b>	<b>55,370</b>	<b>54,777</b>
1081 Sucre	26,233	34,160	23,614	53,287	47,664	49,712	51,231	55,355	49,927	60,213	62,498	39,795	38,384
1101 Boissons alcoolisées distillées	2,699	3,303	3,531	3,265	3,649	3,162	2,895	2,075	1,524	2,618	2,778	3,320	2,900
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	71	95	78	44	4,952	6,229	3,102	1,780	1,712	39	62	615	439
1020 Préparations et conserves à base de poisson et de pr	953	1,558	1,003	826	2,071	1,691	1,008	1,950	1,428	2,105	428	2,006	912
2920 Carrosseries automobiles ; remorques et semi-remor	120	150			4		11	35	32	226	3,451	3,042	4,650
2822 Matériel de levage et de manutention	19	2,151	2	248	588	107		6			3,681	10	18
Others	2,751	1,774	5,538	5,120	2,773	2,276	4,217	3,698	4,192	4,459	7,751	6,583	7,474
<b>Canary Islands</b>	<b>378,868</b>	<b>398,345</b>	<b>418,394</b>	<b>435,092</b>	<b>472,293</b>	<b>329,842</b>	<b>314,587</b>	<b>263,456</b>	<b>255,023</b>	<b>261,926</b>	<b>250,160</b>	<b>301,833</b>	<b>342,283</b>
07 LEGUMBRES, HORTALIZAS, S/ CONS	132,504	109,777	101,394	76,242	84,247	78,401	74,710	58,445	63,274	53,786	48,634	45,036	45,750
88 AERONAVES; VEHÍCULOS ESPACIALE	29,419	63,576	47,191	28,906	28,799	31,137	37,462	30,771	31,487	29,060	38,711	36,547	33,895
87 VEHÍCULOS AUTOMÓVILES; TRACTOR	46,233	66,264	65,298	27,108	35,941	20,255	21,099	16,618	13,831	17,862	16,927	39,955	52,558
84 MÁQUINAS Y APARATOS MECÁNICOS	24,146	19,533	40,321	29,385	28,488	21,004	39,663	52,865	44,226	35,894	24,499	24,690	27,470
33 ACEITES ESENCIALES; PERFUMER.	34,179	30,676	31,691	30,919	29,503	30,126	28,663	26,778	29,114	28,199	30,047	35,737	44,983
03 PESCADOS, CRUSTÁCEOS, MOLUSCOS	32,302	30,506	31,613	28,332	21,241	14,800	16,313	13,554	8,480	11,558	10,956	15,825	15,039
Others	80,084	78,013	100,887	214,199	244,075	134,120	96,678	64,424	64,611	85,567	80,385	104,042	122,588
<b>Azores</b>	<b>45,009</b>	<b>72,853</b>	<b>98,579</b>	<b>102,544</b>	<b>118,915</b>	<b>129,705</b>	<b>141,007</b>	<b>120,920</b>	<b>127,036</b>	<b>107,820</b>	<b>102,370</b>	<b>114,221</b>	<b>159,203</b>
Animais vivos e produtos do reino animal	11,350	22,084	27,019	37,686	44,261	47,219	39,100	32,219	33,322	33,412	33,050	38,131	53,376
Peixes e crustáceos, moluscos e outros invertebrados aqua	5,386	15,304	13,848	15,664	21,976	25,281	19,593	16,942	15,895	16,229	17,273	24,140	28,831
Leite e lacticínios; ovos de aves; mel natural; produtos co	5,965	5,802	11,599	20,567	19,863	19,910	16,220	13,644	15,783	15,597	14,658	11,920	22,427
Produtos das indústrias alimentares; bebidas, líquidos alco	11,153	14,256	17,269	13,196	13,902	16,299	14,308	12,671	11,959	12,949	15,210	13,168	10,998
Preparações de carne, de peixes, de crustáceos e de molus	11,153	14,256	17,269	12,522	12,196	15,840	13,846	12,566	11,551	12,510	14,553	12,618	10,604
Máquinas e aparelhos, material elétrico, e suas partes; ap	0	7	166	299	740	72	14,893	15,509	18,209	7,530	2,675	3,283	10,052
Others	3	1,143	11,410	2,609	5,976	5,084	23,047	17,369	20,317	9,593	4,952	10,961	22,915
<b>Madeira</b>	<b>39,422</b>	<b>64,158</b>	<b>53,926</b>	<b>53,087</b>	<b>49,211</b>	<b>156,571</b>	<b>40,617</b>	<b>52,325</b>	<b>53,445</b>	<b>69,007</b>	<b>96,452</b>	<b>177,794</b>	<b>305,045</b>
Produtos das indústrias alimentares; bebidas, líquidos alco	9,255	8,301	8,474	8,817	8,266	9,510	8,524	10,377	10,997	10,673	11,135	11,090	10,639
Material de transporte	43	1	2	188	31	54,919	0	0	5	5,876	163	30,845	32,837
Embarcações e estruturas flutuantes	0	0	0	0	0	54,825	0	0	0	4,996	0	30,845	32,645
Bebidas, líquidos alcoólicos e vinagres	9,224	8,243	8,205	8,471	7,816	9,182	8,424	9,731	10,427	9,747	9,554	8,789	8,457
Animais vivos e produtos do reino animal	4,601	15,598	7,794	7,548	7,118	7,341	5,365	10,310	5,104	4,852	12,815	7,454	13,790
Peixes e crustáceos, moluscos e outros invertebrados aqua	4,583	8,396	7,792	7,543	7,102	7,330	5,363	9,869	4,890	4,398	12,077	5,952	11,569
Others	11,716	23,619	21,660	20,521	18,877	13,465	12,941	12,037	22,021	28,464	50,707	82,817	195,107

Note: Trade values with EU exclude France for Guadeloupe, Guiana, Martinique, Mayotte and Reunion; Spain for Canary Islands; and Portugal for Azores and Madeira. Calculated totals for Azores and Madeira based on aggregated exports per product vary from reported totals by Statistics Portugal.

Source: Compiled by the authors from Foreign Trade Statistics of France ([http://lekiosque.finances.gouv.fr/portail\\_default.asp](http://lekiosque.finances.gouv.fr/portail_default.asp)), Foreign Trade Statistics of Spain (<http://datacomex.comercio.es/>), and National Institute of Statistics of Portugal ([https://ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=INE&xpgid=ine\\_base\\_dados](https://ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=INE&xpgid=ine_base_dados)).



**Table 30: Top 6 export products from EU outermost regions to the EU28, performance pre- and post-Agreement**

	Value (EUR M)				Share in total exports (%)				CAGR (%)			
	Av 07-12	Av 13-16	Av 17-19	Trend	Av 07-12	Av 13-16	Av 17-19	Trend	2007-12	2012-16	2016-19	Trend
<b>Guadeloupe</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>20.3</b>	<b>22.9</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>12.5%</b>	<b>20.9%</b>	<b>-11.5%</b>	
1081 Sucre	6.4	7.5	13.6		44.6	37.0	59.4		19.1%	32.0%	-6.5%	
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	1.7	3.6	3.5		12.0	17.8	15.3		318.5%	0.2%	-1.4%	
0122 Fruits tropicaux et subtropicaux	0.3	2.7	0.8		1.9	13.4	3.3		1.2%	79.9%	-40.8%	
3012 Bateaux de plaisance	1.0	1.4	0.6		7.1	6.7	2.5		17.5%	33.0%	-42.8%	
2042 Parfums et produits pour la toilette	1.6	0.2	0.0		11.4	1.0	0.1		5.7%	-100.0%	..	
1101 Boissons alcoolisées distillées	0.2	1.2	1.3		1.4	5.8	5.6		19.8%	87.8%	-54.2%	
Others	3.1	3.7	3.2		21.7	18.2	13.8		-7.9%	9.0%	14.1%	
<b>Guyane</b>	<b>113.7</b>	<b>138.8</b>	<b>187.3</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>44.5%</b>	<b>-37.1%</b>	<b>113.4%</b>	
3030 Aéronefs et engins spatiaux	89.2	111.5	159.0		78.5	80.4	84.9		102.6%	-58.7%	287.7%	
2920 Carrosseries automobiles ; remorques et semi-remon	16.9	16.3	8.1		14.8	11.7	4.3		10.8%	-12.6%	-10.8%	
2651 Instruments et appareils de mesure, d'essai et de na	2.1	2.9	13.4		1.8	2.1	7.1		-6.6%	-27.6%	184.7%	
2051 Produits explosifs	1.9	0.0	0.0		1.7	0.0	0.0		-100.0%	..	..	
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	0.2	0.5	1.4		0.2	0.4	0.7		39.8%	8.4%	19.1%	
2599 Autres produits métalliques n.c.a.	0.0	1.2	0.2		0.0	0.9	0.1		9.5%	-23.4%	294.7%	
Others	3.4	6.3	5.2		3.0	4.5	2.8		11.4%	-5.7%	5.4%	
<b>Martinique</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>6.7</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>-9.5%</b>	<b>-6.8%</b>	<b>1.8%</b>	
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	3.4	1.4	1.8		36.8	24.3	26.4		..	-36.3%	43.6%	
3012 Bateaux de plaisance	0.6	1.5	0.8		6.7	27.1	12.1		17.7%	23.0%	-54.5%	
3030 Aéronefs et engins spatiaux	1.5	0.0	0.8		16.0	0.1	12.7		-100.0%	..	377.3%	
1101 Boissons alcoolisées distillées	0.8	0.7	0.6		9.2	12.9	8.8		5.3%	-30.5%	32.2%	
2811 Moteurs et turbines, à l'exclusion des moteurs pour a	0.4	0.2	0.3		4.8	2.8	4.1		-47.3%	29.0%	-69.4%	
2910 Véhicules automobiles	0.3	0.2	0.1		3.0	2.8	1.6		-16.2%	-39.8%	69.2%	
Others	2.2	1.7	2.3		23.5	30.1	34.2		-19.7%	3.5%	12.7%	
<b>Mayotte</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>0.7</b>		<b>..</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>55.2%</b>	
2740 Appareils d'éclairage électrique	..	0.0	0.4		..	0.0	66.5		..	..	..	
2811 Moteurs et turbines, à l'exclusion des moteurs pour a	..	0.2	0.0		..	76.6	2.8		..	..	..	
1011 Viandes de boucherie et produits d'abattage	..	0.0	0.1		..	0.0	21.0		..	..	..	
3212 Articles de joaillerie et bijouterie	..	0.0	0.0		..	7.4	0.9		..	..	-100.0%	
2651 Instruments et appareils de mesure, d'essai et de na	..	0.0	0.0		..	1.0	4.8		..	..	-100.0%	
2920 Carrosseries automobiles ; remorques et semi-remon	..	0.0	0.0		..	7.0	0.0		..	..	..	
Others	..	0.0	0.0		..	7.9	4.1		..	..	31.1%	

(continues)



(Table continued)

	Value (EUR M)				Share in total exports (%)				CAGR (%)			
	Av 07-12	Av 13-16	Av 17-19	Trend	Av 07-12	Av 13-16	Av 17-19	Trend	2007-12	2012-16	2016-19	Trend
<b>Réunion</b>	<b>49.6</b>	<b>64.0</b>	<b>63.6</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>14.0%</b>	<b>2.5%</b>	<b>-7.7%</b>	
1081 Sucre	39.1	54.2	46.9		78.9	84.7	73.7		13.6%	4.9%	-13.9%	
1101 Boissons alcoolisées distillées	3.3	2.3	3.0		6.6	3.6	4.7		3.2%	-4.6%	3.5%	
3811 Déchets non dangereux ; collecte des déchets non da	1.9	1.7	0.4		3.9	2.6	0.6		144.5%	-71.8%	123.1%	
1020 Préparations et conserves à base de poisson et de pr	1.4	1.6	1.1		2.7	2.5	1.8		12.2%	5.6%	-24.3%	
2920 Carrosseries automobiles ; remorques et semi-remor	0.0	0.1	3.7		0.1	0.1	5.8		-100.0%	..	174.1%	
2822 Matériel de levage et de manutention	0.5	0.0	1.2		1.0	0.0	1.9		42.1%	-12.2%	-34.5%	
Others	3.4	4.1	7.3		6.8	6.5	11.4		-3.7%	18.3%	18.8%	
<b>Canary Islands</b>	<b>405.5</b>	<b>273.7</b>	<b>298.1</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>-2.7%</b>	<b>-5.6%</b>	<b>9.3%</b>	
07 LEGUMBRES, HORTALIZAS, S/ CONS	97.1	62.6	46.5		23.9	22.9	15.6		-10.0%	-9.0%	-5.3%	
88 AERONAVES; VEHÍCULOS ESPACIALE	38.2	32.2	36.4		9.4	11.8	12.2		1.1%	-1.7%	5.3%	
87 VEHÍCULOS AUTOMÓVILES; TRACTOR	43.5	17.4	36.5		10.7	6.3	12.2		-15.2%	-3.1%	43.3%	
84 MÁQUINAS Y APARATOS MECÁNICOS	27.1	43.2	25.6		6.7	15.8	8.6		-2.7%	14.3%	-8.5%	
33 ACEITES ESENCIALES; PERFUMER.	31.2	28.2	36.9		7.7	10.3	12.4		-2.5%	-1.6%	16.8%	
03 PESCADOS, CRUSTÁCEOS, MOLUSCOS	26.5	12.5	13.9		6.5	4.6	4.7		-14.5%	-6.0%	9.2%	
Others	141.9	77.8	102.3		35.0	28.4	34.3		10.9%	-10.6%	12.7%	
<b>Azores</b>	<b>94.6</b>	<b>124.2</b>	<b>125.3</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>23.6%</b>	<b>-4.5%</b>	<b>13.9%</b>	
Animais vivos e produtos do reino animal	31.6	34.5	41.5		33.4	27.8	33.1		33.0%	-8.3%	16.9%	
Peixes e crustáceos, moluscos e outros invertebrados aqua	16.2	17.2	23.4		17.2	13.8	18.7		36.2%	-10.5%	21.1%	
Leite e lacticínios; ovos de aves; mel natural; produtos co	14.0	15.3	16.3		14.7	12.3	13.0		27.3%	-5.9%	12.9%	
Produtos das indústrias alimentares; bebidas, líquidos alco	14.3	13.0	13.1		15.2	10.4	10.5		7.9%	-5.6%	-5.3%	
Preparações de carne, de peixes, de crustáceos e de molus	13.9	12.6	12.6		14.7	10.2	10.1		7.3%	-5.7%	-5.4%	
Máquinas e aparelhos, material elétrico, e suas partes; ap	0.2	14.0	5.3		0.2	11.3	4.3		..	219.9%	10.1%	
Others	4.4	17.6	12.9		4.6	14.2	10.3		343.6%	17.2%	33.7%	
<b>Madeira</b>	<b>69.4</b>	<b>53.8</b>	<b>193.1</b>		<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>		<b>31.8%</b>	<b>-18.5%</b>	<b>64.1%</b>	
Produtos das indústrias alimentares; bebidas, líquidos alco	8.8	10.1	11.0		12.6	18.8	5.7		0.5%	2.9%	-0.1%	
Material de transporte	9.2	1.5	21.3		13.3	2.7	11.0		318.7%	-42.8%	77.5%	
Embarcações e estruturas flutuantes	9.1	1.2	21.2		13.2	2.3	11.0		..	-45.1%	87.0%	
Bebidas, líquidos alcoólicos e vinagres	8.5	9.6	8.9		12.3	17.8	4.6		-0.1%	1.5%	-4.6%	
Animais vivos e produtos do reino animal	8.3	6.4	11.4		12.0	11.9	5.9		9.8%	-9.8%	41.6%	
Peixes e crustáceos, moluscos e outros invertebrados aqua	7.1	6.1	9.9		10.3	11.4	5.1		9.8%	-12.0%	38.0%	
Others	18.3	18.9	109.5		26.4	35.0	56.7		2.8%	20.6%	90.0%	

Note: Trade values with EU exclude France for Guadeloupe, Guiana, Martinique, Mayotte and Reunion; Spain for Canary Islands; and Portugal for Azores and Madeira. Calculated totals for Azores and Madeira based on aggregated exports per product vary from reported totals by Statistics Portugal.

Source: Compiled by the authors from Foreign Trade Statistics of France ([http://lekiosque.finances.gouv.fr/portail\\_default.asp](http://lekiosque.finances.gouv.fr/portail_default.asp)), Foreign Trade Statistics of Spain (<http://datacomex.comercio.es/>), and National Institute of Statistics of Portugal ([https://ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=INE&xpgid=ine\\_base\\_dados](https://ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=INE&xpgid=ine_base_dados)).

## ***Annex B-2: Economic impact of EU tariff concessions for imports of bananas***

### ***1.1.1 Evolution of trade in bananas between the Parties***

Figure 14 shows EU28 banana imports from the Andean partner countries and selected aggregated regions, i.e. LDCs,<sup>28</sup> non-LDC ACP countries,<sup>29</sup> and the rest of the world (ROW), in which six Central American countries (Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Panama) account for more than 98% of the import.<sup>30</sup>

In value terms (Figure 14a), Colombian banana exports to the EU increased from EUR 633 million in 2007 to EUR 840 million in 2019. Exports were mostly flat before the Agreement, hovering between EUR 750 million and EUR 800 million, and then initially increased after the start of application of the Agreement to a peak of EUR 920 million in 2017, before dropping again. Imports from Peru are low relative the other partner countries, with a steady increase in the pre-Agreement period, from EUR 24 million in 2007 to EUR 61 million in 2012, but little dynamics since the start of application of the Agreement: imports in 2019 are almost identical to those in 2013, at just above EUR 80 million. For Ecuador, the value of banana exports to the EU in the three years after the Agreement was higher than for the years before its accession, reaching EUR 887 million in 2019. Comparing these trends with imports from other sources shows that the Andean partner countries did not perform differently; in fact, the most rapid and substantial growth over the period was featured by the RoW countries (mostly driven by Central American economies, with which the EU also has an FTA). LDC countries are insignificant banana suppliers to the EU, but featured rapid growth from EUR 0.5 million in 2017 to EUR 3 million in 2019.

The evolution of import quantities (Figure 14b) does not markedly differ from value developments, but price dynamics (Figure 14c) are more interesting: average import prices of bananas from Peru and Colombia both decreased after the Agreement's start of application. For Peru, the price decreased from EUR 754 per tonne in 2012 to EUR 675 per tonne in 2015, before starting to recover again to EUR 738 in 2019. The price for Colombian bananas experienced a steady reduction from EUR 669 per tonne in 2012 to EUR 599 per tonne in 2019. Only for Ecuador did prices remain stable (and at high levels compared to previous years, although still lower when compared to prices of other suppliers), at close to EUR 600. At the same time, longer term price for bananas from non-LDC ACP countries and RoW increased.

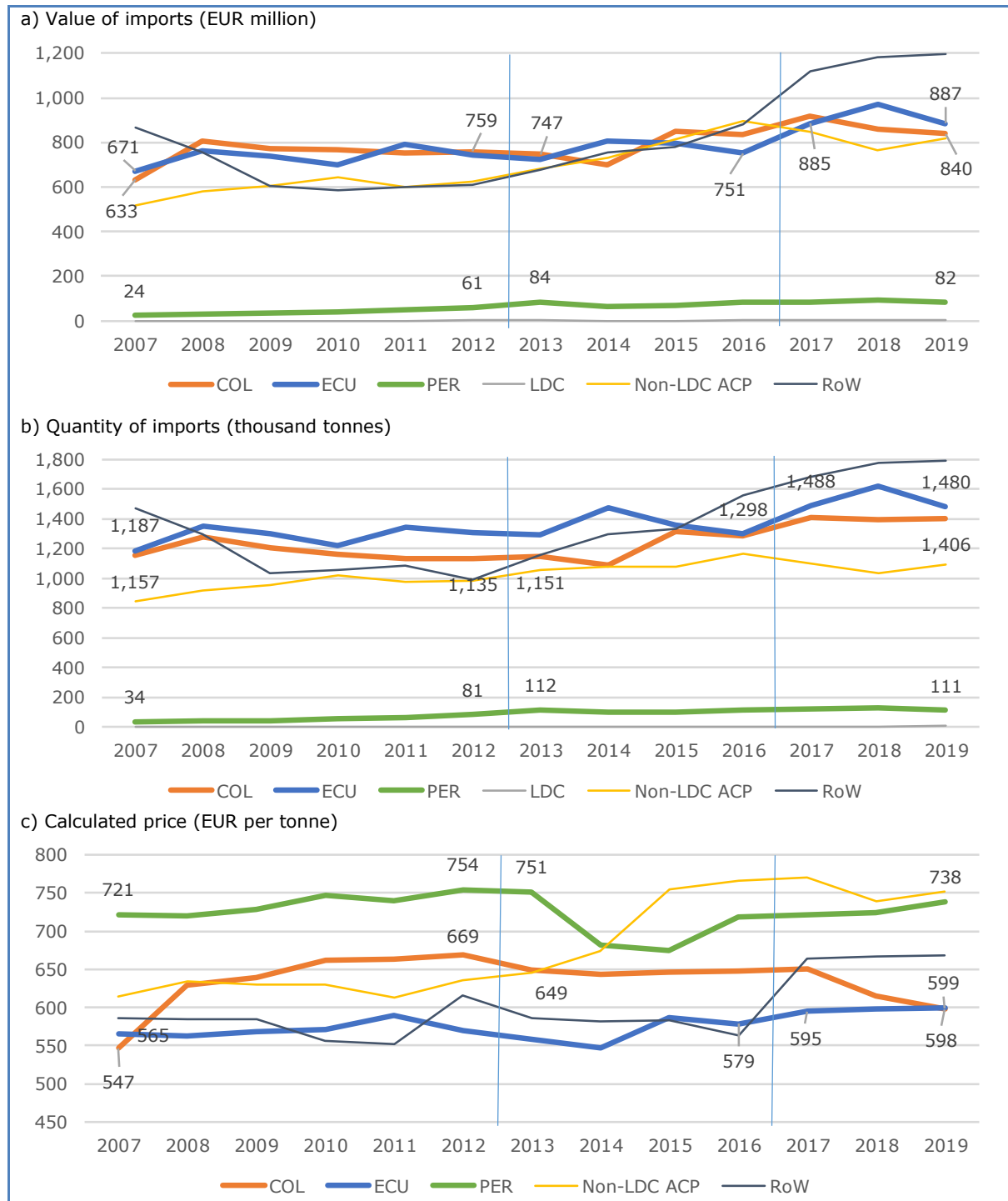
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<sup>28</sup> LDC countries from which the EU imported fresh bananas in at least one year during the period 2007 to 2019 are: Angola, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Benin, Congo DRC, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Guinea, Equatorial Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Madagascar, Mali, Myanmar, Mauritania, Malawi, Mozambique, Nepal, Rwanda, Sudan, Sierra Leone, Senegal, Somalia, Sao Tome and Principe, Togo, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia.

<sup>29</sup> Non-LDC ACP countries exporting bananas to the EU in the period considered are: Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Bahamas, Botswana, Belize, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Cameroon, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Fiji, Gabon, Grenada, Ghana, Guyana, Jamaica, Kenya, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, Palau, Seychelles, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, South Africa, Zimbabwe.

<sup>30</sup> The remaining banana exporting countries in this group are: Albania, Bermuda, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Egypt, India, Sri Lanka, Morocco, Philippines, Thailand, Turkey, USA, Viet Nam.

**Figure 14: EU28 imports of fresh bananas, 2007-2019**



Note: Data refer to tariff line CN08039010 "Bananas, fresh (excl. plantains)".<sup>31</sup> Prices for LDCs are not shown due to low imports.

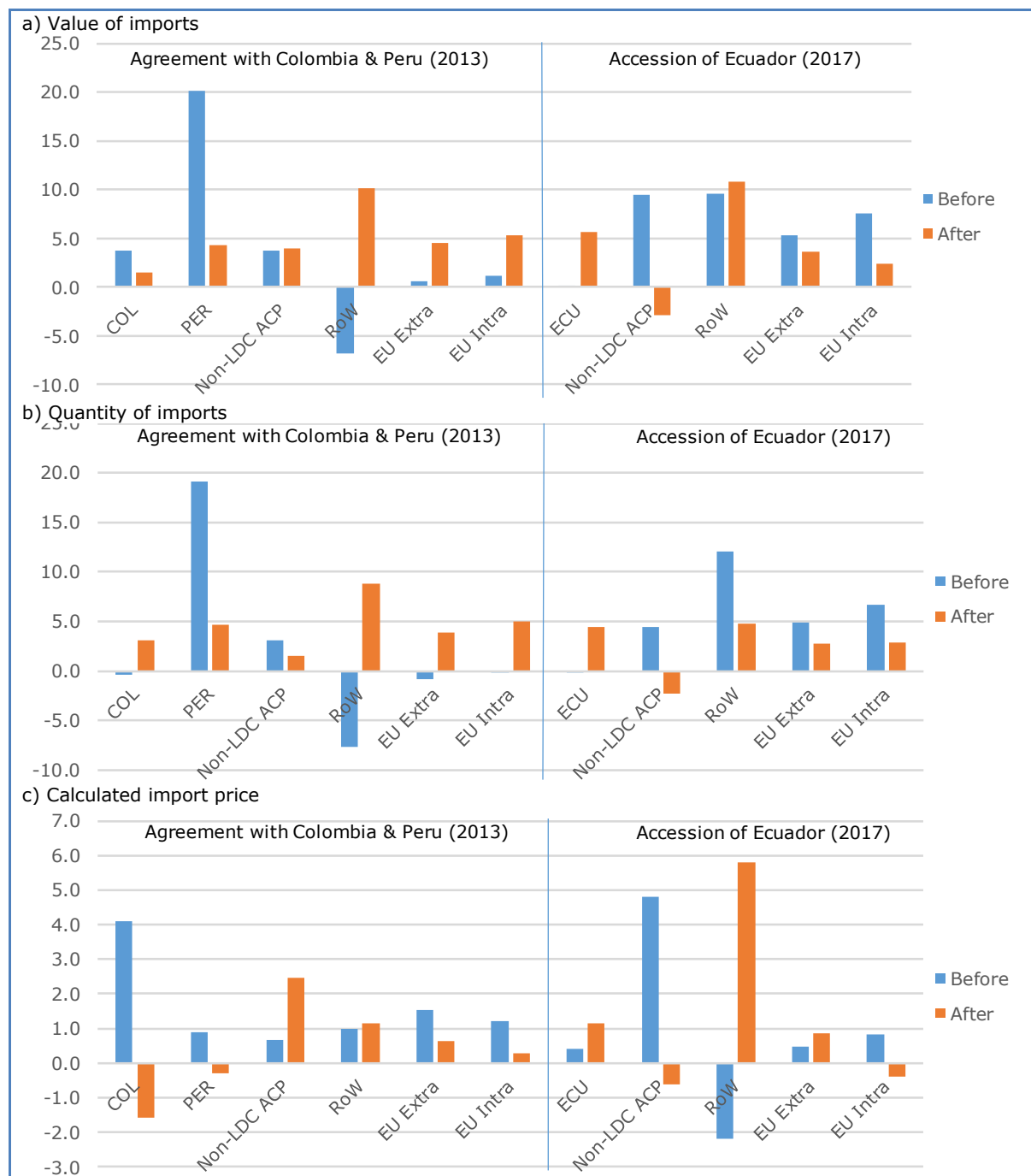
Source: Authors' calculations based on COMEXT database.

Figure 15 compares the average growth rates before and after the Agreement. For both Colombia and Peru, growth rates of the banana export value were lower after the Agreement (contrary to expectations), in a context where growth rates of other exporters picked up. This slower growth in value clearly happened due to the price decrease, as the lower panel of Figure 15 shows. Positive price developments prior to the Agreement were

<sup>31</sup> Note that the code changed to CN 08039010 from CN 08030019 from 1st January 2012.

reversed for Colombia and Peru after the Agreement, with the total gap in growth rates amounting to almost 6 percentage points for Colombia, and slightly above 1 percentage point for Peru. Developments were more positive for Ecuador, which experienced enhanced growth in all indicators after the Agreement.<sup>32</sup>

**Figure 15: Comparison of average annual growth rates of EU28 imports of fresh bananas from partners before and after the Agreement's start of application (%)**



Note: For Colombia and Peru, "before" refers to average growth rates for 2007-2012, and "after" to average growth rates for 2012-2019. For Ecuador, "before" refers to average growth rates for 2012-2016, and "after" to average growth rates for 2016-2019.

Source: Authors' calculations based on COMEXT database.

<sup>32</sup> Note, however, that the growth rate averages for Ecuador after the Agreement are only based on three years of data, while for Colombia and Peru those are based on the data available for seven years.

### 1.1.2 Economic impacts of EU tariff concessions for bananas

For the quantitative estimation of the effects of the Agreement on trade and production of bananas we employ a partial equilibrium analysis using the Global Simulation (GSIM) model (Francois and Hall 2009). In a similar fashion as the CGE modelling undertaken by the Commission, the PE modelling compares the observed trade with the Agreement in place against a counterfactual situation in which the Agreement does not exist.

We distinguish two counterfactual situations: the absence of the Agreement with Colombia and Peru; and the absence of the Agreement with Ecuador. In terms of regions, the model distinguishes the EU, the Andean partner countries, and large banana exporters to the EU, as well as the rest of the world. We report changes of EU imports of bananas from main suppliers of bananas, changes in banana production, changes in consumer and producer surpluses and tax revenue, as well as net welfare changes.<sup>33</sup>

Table 31 shows the impact of the EU preferences for Colombia and Peru not being in place. Naturally, those two countries would be the most affected in such a scenario: Colombia would experience a 15.7% lower value of banana exports to the EU, which would translate into Colombia's exporting EUR 714 million of bananas (instead of the actual EUR 840 million in 2019); and a 3.9% lower output of bananas. For Peru the losses in exports to the EU would amount to 8.9%, i.e. in 2019 Peru would have exported bananas worth EUR 75 million (instead of EUR 82 million in reality), and output would have been lower by 4.5%. Since Colombia is a large exporter of bananas to the EU, its net welfare would be USD 43 million lower in the counterfactual scenario. For Peru the net losses in welfare are much smaller, at USD 4.3 million. The other economies considered in the exercise would benefit from the absence of the Agreement, with RoW experiencing a large positive shock and increasing its exports to the EU by 4.9%. EU banana producers would have slightly benefited from the absence of the improved market access in the EU under the Agreement: output would have been 0.8% higher, and producer surplus would have been less than USD 0.2 million higher.

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<sup>33</sup> The shocks are calculated as the change in ad valorem equivalents of the tariffs stipulated by the Agreement in Section B of Appendix 1 to Annex I. The ad valorem equivalents were calculated as the share of the specific tariffs for fresh bananas (specified in EUR per ton) in the price of fresh bananas (calculated using the trade value divided by the trade quantity of imports for a given country). The counterfactual tariffs are the EU's MFN tariffs, i.e. EUR 114 per tonne (as opposed to EUR 75 per ton applied since 2020), which translates into an ad valorem counterfactual tariff of 19.6% (as opposed to 11.2%) for Colombia, 17.4% (as opposed to 9.9%) for Peru, and 17.9% (compared to 12.9%) for Ecuador.

Due to data constraints, the simulations are performed at the HS six-digit level, HS080390, which includes both fresh and dried bananas. However, simple back-of-the-envelope calculations using data at a tariff line level confirm that the share of dried bananas in the overall trade at the HS six-digit level does not exceed 7-10%. Since the model is scale-invariant, and the share of trade in dried bananas is stable across years and low across countries, using HS six-digit data does not pose a problem for the simulation results.

**Table 31: Impact on selected economies of the absence of the Agreement's preferences for bananas between the EU and Colombia and Peru**

	Change in EU imports (%)	Change in output (%)	Change in producer surplus (USD M)	Change in tax revenue (USD M)	Change in consumer surplus (USD M)	Net welfare effects (USD M)
Belize	1.5	0.6	0.6	0.0	-0.2	0.4
Cameroon	2.7	0.4	2.8	0.1	-1.9	1.0
<b>Colombia</b>	<b>-15.7</b>	<b>-3.9</b>	<b>-84.8</b>	<b>-0.1</b>	<b>42.0</b>	<b>-43.0</b>
Costa Rica	2.0	0.5	8.5	0.0	-4.1	4.4
Cote d'Ivoire	1.6	0.6	1.8	-0.1	-0.6	1.1
Dominican Republic	2.0	0.5	3.4	0.0	-1.7	1.7
<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>-0.6</b>	<b>-9.1</b>	<b>4.3</b>
<b>EU</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>0.2</b>	<b>71.9</b>	<b>-68.0</b>	<b>4.1</b>
Ghana	4.5	0.1	0.8	0.0	-0.7	0.0
Guatemala	3.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nicaragua	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Panama	1.4	0.6	1.5	0.0	-0.4	1.1
<b>Peru</b>	<b>-8.9</b>	<b>-4.5</b>	<b>-5.4</b>	<b>-0.2</b>	<b>1.3</b>	<b>-4.3</b>
Suriname	2.6	0.4	0.8	0.1	-0.5	0.3
RoW	4.9	0.0	1.1	0.0	-1.1	0.0
<b>Total</b>						<b>-28.8</b>

Note: Bilateral trade data source is WITS; production data source is FAOSTAT; tariff data source is WTO; the shocks are calculated based on COMEXT data and the tariff stipulated by the Agreement.

Source: Authors' calculations using GSIM model.

In a similar fashion, Table 32 presents the counterfactual outcomes in the case of no Agreement between the EU and Ecuador. Ecuador's exports of bananas to the EU would be lower by 12%, i.e. Ecuador would have exported EUR 780 million of bananas instead of EUR 887 million in reality. Ecuador's banana output would have been 1.7% lower in the absence of the Agreement, whereas producers in other countries would have benefitted to a small extent.

Under both scenarios, the world as a whole would be worse off in the absence of the Agreement's liberalisation of trade in bananas between the Parties.

**Table 32: Impact on selected economies of the absence of the Agreement's preferences for bananas between the EU and Ecuador**

	Change in EU imports (%)	Change in output (%)	Change in producer surplus (USD M)	Change in tax revenue (USD M)	Change in consumer surplus (USD M)	Net welfare effects (USD M)
Belize	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.0	-0.1	0.3
Cameroon	1.6	0.3	2.3	0.1	-1.3	1.1
<b>Colombia</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>8.5</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>-4.3</b>	<b>4.2</b>
Costa Rica	1.4	0.4	5.8	0.0	-2.9	2.9
Cote d'Ivoire	1.0	0.4	1.8	-0.1	-0.5	1.2
Dominican Republic	1.4	0.4	2.7	0.0	-1.4	1.4
<b>Ecuador</b>	<b>-12.0</b>	<b>-1.7</b>	<b>-55.9</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>36.2</b>	<b>-17.5</b>
<b>EU</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>34.7</b>	<b>-49.1</b>	<b>-13.7</b>
Ghana	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.0	-0.1	0.2
Guatemala	3.2	0.0	0.6	0.0	-0.6	0.0
Nicaragua	2.8	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Panama	1.3	0.4	0.9	0.0	-0.4	0.5
<b>Peru</b>	<b>1.3</b>	<b>0.4</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>-0.3</b>	<b>0.4</b>
Suriname	3.4	0.0	0.8	0.1	-0.8	0.0
RoW	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.0	-0.1	0.2
<b>Total</b>						<b>-18.7</b>

Note: Bilateral trade data source is WITS; production data source is FAOSTAT; tariff data source is WTO; the shocks are calculated based on COMEXT data and the tariff stipulated by the Agreement.

Source: Authors' calculations using GSIM model.

## ANNEX C: ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL IMPACTS

### *Annex C-1: Social and Labour Rights Profiles of the Andean countries*

#### *1.1.3 Labour Market*

In **Colombia**, the labour market participation rate increased from 57.4% in 2007 to 64.7% in 2015 to fall again to 62.9% in 2019 (and 59.3% in 2020). The number of employed increased from 17.9 million in 2007 to 22.1 million in 2019 (to fall to 19.7 million in 2020). The unemployment rate fell from 10.7% in 2007 to 9% in 2016 and increased to 10.8% in 2019 (and 16.8% in 2020)<sup>34</sup>. The number of unemployed decreased from 4.2 million in 2007 to 2.7 million in 2019 (and increased again to 3.9 million in 2020), moreover, the number of persons inactive, outside the labour market increased from 14.6 million in 2019 to 16.2 million in 2020 (El Dinero, September 2020). Most jobs created in 2018 were in self-employment (on average 146,000 more each month compared to the same period of 2017) while 9,000 jobs were lost every month (in private and public sector jointly). Most new jobs were created in industry (63,000) followed by communal services (59,000) while real estate and business activities have lost 80,000 jobs. In the last quarter of 2018, 96,000 jobs were created in the construction sector while 255,000 were lost in wholesale and retail trade, and hotels, and restaurants (jointly) (El Tiempo, February 2019). The labour participation rate in the metropolitan areas was on average four percentage points higher than the national average and the one in towns was two percentage points higher, while in the rural areas it was around six percentage points lower than the national rate. Trade, hotels, and restaurants accounted for 25.4% of the total employment in 2007 (25.3% in 2020)<sup>35</sup> followed by social, communal, and personal services (20.8% in 2007),<sup>36</sup> agriculture and fisheries (17.8% in 2007 and 18.6% in 2020), industry (13.8% in 2007 and 10.7% in 2020), transport, storage, and communication (8.5% in 2007 and 7.9% in 2020), real estate activities (5.8% in 2007), and construction (5.3% in 2007 and 7.1% in 2020). Additionally, in 2020 public services and administration accounted for 11.5%, artistic and recreation activities for 8.0% and professional, scientific, and technical activities for 6.3%. Around half of persons remaining inactive in the labour market declared taking care of household, while one third of them studied. In the regional overview (23 metropolitan cities), the situation varied, e.g., the unemployment rate in 2019 extended from 6.5% in Cartagena to 16.5% in Cúcuta and 18.1% in Quibdó, while the capital Bogota with 10.4% was close to the national average (DANE, 2020; DANE 1958-2020). In 2020, due to COVID-19, the unemployment rate increased reaching in some cities, e.g., Neiva 34% (El Dinero, September 2020).

While the increase in participation rate and the reduction of unemployment in the first part of the analysed period may be attributed to the economic growth and favourable terms of trade with high commodity prices, exports growth and encouraged investment supporting job creation, which in turn resulted in high levels of consumption encouraging production and further investment (World Bank, 2015 and 2016), the opposite trends since 2016 may be explained by changes in the global trade, the fall in exported commodity prices and the subsequent reduction in the growth rate in Colombia. Other factors include slowdown in investment and job creation, with the number of new jobs falling below the number of people entering the labour market each year, immigration from Venezuela, with immigrant workers taking part of the available job offer, and political uncertainty in Colombia reducing confidence levels among investors and encouraging the “wait and see” position in the

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<sup>34</sup> The figures are for the month of August in each year. In this context we note strong seasonal fluctuations in the unemployment rate each year, with a difference of up to 4 percentage points between the lowest and the highest unemployment rate in a given year.

<sup>35</sup> Given that the total number of persons employed increased between 2007 and 2020, the shares for 2020 mean a higher absolute number of workers for each sector compared to 2007.

<sup>36</sup> The classification of sectors of economic activity has changed between 2007 and 2020 and there are no matching categories in 2020 for some of those existing in 2007.

private sector. Consumption levels remained high supporting production and jobs and preventing an even higher increase in unemployment. In 2019, the Government announced measures to improve the labour market situation by supporting skills development, encouraging entrepreneurship, and refocusing work of employment services to ensure a more inclusive labour market (El Dinero, June 2019).

In 2020, it is estimated that between the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic in March and the end of April employment fell by 5.4 million jobs. Since then, it started recovering and in August 2020, there were 2.4 million employed less than in August 2019. The unemployment rate increased from 10.2% in January 2020 to 21.1% in May, and then fell to 17.1% in August (La República, October 2020). Until November 2020, further economic recovery helped to reduce the gap in the number of jobs to 1.6 million compared to February 2020, with 900 thousand persons more being unemployed and 1.1 million more being outside the labour market (inactive). The unemployment rate fell to 14.9% (BBVA, January 2021). Measures aimed at mitigating the spread of coronavirus, such as lockdown, were introduced in March and applied to most sectors, with the exception of a few considered essential (public administration, agriculture, public utilities or finance sector among others) where work continued under social distance. Sectors most affected by these measures included construction, transport and storage, hotels and restaurants, artistic activities, and real estate. Negative impacts of the pandemic and measures taken by the authorities were most significant for women and young people given their high employment shares in most affected sectors, e.g., hotels and restaurants. In mid-2020, the situation started improving, inter alia thanks to the Government support schemes, such as the programme of support for formal jobs, focused on microenterprises, which has benefitted around 2.4 million people (El Empleo, July 2020; Banco de la República, 2020).

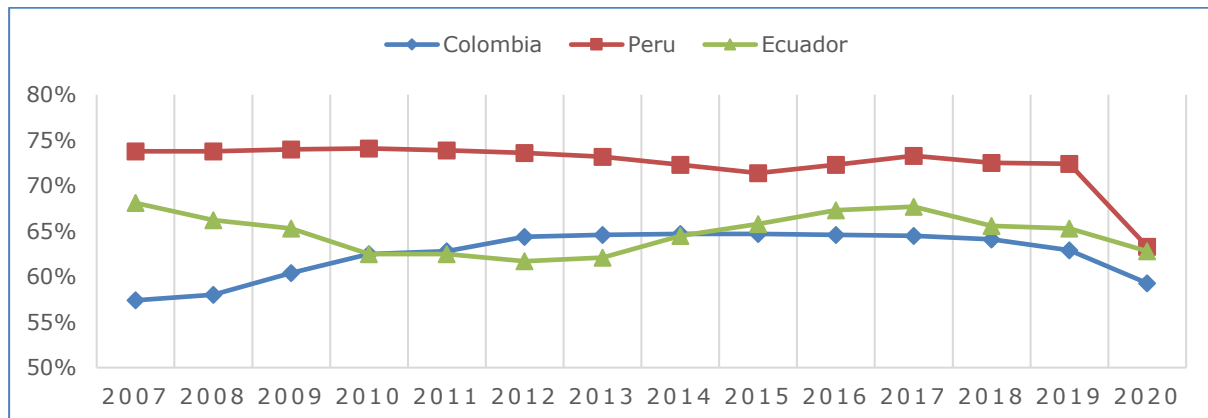
In **Peru**, the labour market participation rate decreased slightly from 73.8% in 2007 to 72.4% in 2019, recording minor changes up and down over the analysed period. In 2020, it further decreased to 63.3% due to Covid-19, falling even further in the period between April and June to 45.3%. The number of employed decreased from 17.2 million in 2019 to 14.2 million in 2020, thus returning to the level of 2007. The unemployment rate decreased from 6.3% in 2007 to 4.4% in 2015 to increase then again to 5.2% in 2016 and fall to 4.8% in 2018. In 2020, it increased to 9.6% going beyond levels observed in the analysed period. In 2008, 28.7% of employed worked in agriculture, fisheries, and mining (25.9% in 2018), 23.4% in other services (24% in 2018), 18.3% in trade (18.8% in 2018), 11% in industry (9.0% in 2018), 8.0% in transport and communication (8.5% in 2018), 6.0% in restaurants and hotels (7.8% in 2018) and 4.6% in construction (6.0% in 2018). In 2020, the number of people employed in agriculture increased significantly (by 799,000 compared to 2019), while decreased in other sectors, notably services and trade (by 3.1 million in these two sectors) (INEI, 2017-2019, INEI, 2019, INEI, 2020).

Positive changes in the labour market observed at the beginning of the analysed period were related to the economic growth underpinned by favourable terms of trade, high prices of exported commodities and rise in foreign direct investment supporting job creation. Since 2013, however, the fall in commodity prices and the slowdown in economic growth started negatively affecting the participation and employment rate. A corruption scandal had a negative impact on foreign investors' confidence, incl. investment projects based on public-private partnerships, and the natural phenomenon "El Niño" damaged parts of the infrastructure in the coastal regions in the north of Peru. Moreover, the immigration from Venezuela observed since 2017 has further changed proportions in the demand and supply on the labour market (it is estimated that around 700,000 persons arrived in Peru over that period, most of them looking for a job). The structure of the Peruvian economy, with capital intensive high productivity sectors e.g., mining, and exports based to a large extent on commodities have brought about economic growth and increased public revenues (until 2013) facilitating social redistributive policies and poverty reduction. However, they fell short to produce comparable sustainable results in the labour market, such as creation of formal, high quality jobs on a large scale and reduction of informal employment and other



precarious jobs. As a result, modern sectors of economy, with high technology endowment, employing highly qualified workers and offering formal jobs, co-exist in Peru with a large, low productivity informal sector (in 2017, 56.1% of economically active persons worked in informal jobs creating 18.1% of GDP). Moreover, the weakness of public sector institutions, including labour inspection, and low levels of public funding for employment promotion (below the average level of spending in Latin America and in OECD) made it difficult to develop adequate active labour market policies and employment services, to implement plans and programmes and enforce labour rights, i.e., actions that otherwise could have contributed to formal job creation and respect for decent work. In 2019, the Government presented a proposal for employment promotion supporting a convergence in demand and supply on the labour market to generate decent job opportunities, facilitating inclusion of women and vulnerable groups into the labour market, supporting skills development and entrepreneurship, and strengthening institutions being in charge of employment promotion, as well as their cooperation, incl. between national, regional and local levels (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú, 2019b). In 2020, Peru has been one of the countries in the region most affected by the Covid-19 pandemic in terms of reduction of income and employment. According to the ILO, this is partly due to the structure of its economy and labour market, not changed significantly over the last 20 years, with a large proportion of people employed in informal jobs and sectors of low productivity. There is a need for a reform to modernise the economy and develop its more sophisticated parts, including supply chains, and invest in professional development of workers and creation of formal decent jobs (ILO, September 2020 and 2020a). It is estimated that in the second quarter of 2020, there were 6.7 million jobs less in Peru than in 2019, with women and young people being most affected. Across sectors, construction has lost the highest proportion of jobs, while the number of jobs increased in agriculture. In the third quarter, the economy started recovering, however, still there were 3 million jobs less than in 2019 (El Comercio, January 2021).

**Figure 1: Labour market participation rates, 2007-2020**



Sources: DANE, Colombia (2020), Principales indicadores del mercado laboral, Agosto 2020 (and Annexes with data from 2002-2020); Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú, Informe Anual del Empleo en el Perú (2017, 2015, 2012); INEI, Perú: Evolución de los Indicadores de Empleo e Ingresos por Departamento, 2007-2018; INEI, Perú (2017-2019), Comportamiento de los indicadores de mercado laboral a nivel nacional; INEC, Ecuador (2018f), Encuesta Nacional de Empleo, Desempleo y Subempleo (ENEMDU), Indicadores laborales, 2018 and 2019

In **Ecuador**, the labour market participation rate decreased from 68.1% in 2007 to 61.7% in 2012 to rise again to 67.7% in 2017 (it fell afterwards to 65.3% in 2019 and 62.8% in 2020<sup>37</sup>) (INEC, 2018f). The unemployment rate decreased from 5.0% in 2007 to 3.8% in 2019 (however, increased then to 6.6% in 2020, with a peak of 13.3% in May-June 2020), recording in the analysed period values between 6.5% and 3.8%, with phases of rise and fall, each of them lasting 4-5 years. The unemployment rate in the urban areas was higher

<sup>37</sup> INEC, Empleo – septiembre 2020: <https://www.ecuadorencifras.gob.ec/empleo-septiembre-2020/>

than the national average (between 4.5% and 7.9% in the analysed period until 2019) while in the rural areas it was lower (between 1.7% and 3.6%). The participation rate in the rural areas was higher than the national average, while in the urban areas it was comparable. Agriculture accounted in 2009 for 28.5% of the total employment (28.3% in 2018), followed by trade (19.5% in 2009 and 18% in 2018), manufacturing (10.6% in 2009 and 11.7% in 2018), education, health care and social services (7.5% in 2009 and 6.2% in 2018), construction (6.9% in 2009 and 6.8% in 2018), hotels and restaurants (4.5% in 2009 and 6.3% in 2018), transport (4.7% in 2009 and 5.8% in 2018), other services (4.1% in 2009 and 3.6% in 2018), and professional, technical and administrative activities (3.6% in 2009 and 4.5% in 2018) (INEC, 2018f).

Factors influencing the situation on the labour market and social situation in the country included the economic growth in the first few years of the analysed period with rates above the average for Latin America (4.6% in 2007-2014 compared to 2.8% for the region), supported by favourable terms of trade with high export prices, high level of remittances (share of 3.8% in GDP in 2007-2013), increasing wage share in GDP compared to returns from capital, and domestic investment in infrastructure, including roads and hydroelectric projects. This was followed by the economic slowdown exacerbated by the fall in exported oil prices in 2014, which reduced revenues and public spending, increased fiscal and public debt, and led to a decline in international reserves. Moreover, dollarization of Ecuadorean economy meant an inability of the country to use the monetary policy to caution effects of external shocks. Rigid regulation of labour market, and finance and related high costs of business operation did not allow for a flexible move of people and capital towards more efficient sectors and companies and encouraged informality. When the dominating until then state-led model of economy could not successfully face the challenges, businesses constraint in their activity by rigid regulations turned out to be unable to step in and compensate decline in public investment (World Bank Group, 2018 and 2019). A reduction in the labour market participation rate in 2007-2012 was at least partly explained by an increase in persons economically inactive continuing education while being of the working age. The later increase in the participation rate in 2012-2017 was partly due to demographic factors and higher numbers of young people entering the labour market, while the other part was explained by an increased number of people from other age groups who used to be economically inactive, including women who used to run the household and who started to look for and take a job (INEC, 2017a and INEC, 2015b).

As mentioned above, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, employment decreased by almost 1.4 million in May / June 2020 compared to 2019 (with recovery in September 2020) and the unemployment rate increased, with a peak of 13.3% in May/June 2020. Subsequently, unemployment fell (to 6.6%) thanks to the re-opening of shops and enterprises that had been closed in the spring to limit the spread of the coronavirus, IMF emergency support in May, Government support measures (although fiscal constraints did not allow for provision of financial stimulus for private sector) and creation of new jobs and enterprises. The Government also negotiated a 27-month extended funding arrangement with the IMF, approved in September 2020, to support Ecuador's policies to stabilize the economy, protect livelihoods, expand the coverage of social assistance programs, ensure fiscal and debt sustainability, and strengthen domestic institutions to underpin economic recovery (IMF, October 2020). The highest number of jobs created in 2020 were in agriculture, exports, and construction (Ecuador chequea, 2020). Also in 2020, the Organic Law on Humanitarian Support was adopted having as objective preservation of jobs, enabling employers to reduce working days of their staff by up to 50% for up to one year, with a possibility to prolong the measure by another year, i.e., to two years in total. The Law also envisaged wage reduction proportionally to cuts in working time, while the new wage could not be lower than 55% of its prior value. Other payments and social security contributions were supposed to be reduced in a similar way, i.e., proportionally to working time reduction (Primicias, 2020). The draft Law has been consulted by the National Assembly with the ILO Office which (while acknowledging the aim of preserving workplaces at the time of the pandemic and the related economic crisis) suggested several amendments, notably related

to the need to consult representatives of workers and to ensure minimum levels of protection envisaged in international labour conventions ratified by Ecuador (ILO, May 2020). The same Law was brought to the attention of the ILO Director General by the Ecuadorean trade unions arguing that it reduces workers' rights and had not been consulted with them before being submitted to the National Assembly for adoption under the urgency procedure (CDES, May 2020). According to information shared with the study team by the Government of Ecuador, the Organic Law on Humanitarian Support helped to preserve 72,000 jobs (mainly in agriculture) and create 170,000 new jobs. Moreover, those who were able to work remotely were encouraged to do so, and finally, to build on the lessons learned for labour market from the pandemic, the Government opened a space for a national dialogue (with all sectors of the economy and groups in the society) "all for work" to discuss challenges and to prepare ground for reforms and job creation, ensuring their operation and resilience in the long-term.

**Table 1: Sectorial shares in total employment in Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador (in %) before the Agreement's entry into force and currently**

Sector	Colombia		Peru		Ecuador	
	2007	2020	2008	2018	2009	2019
Trade, hotels, restaurants	25.4	25.3	24.3	26.6	24.0	24.3
Agriculture and fisheries	17.8	18.6	28.7	25.9	28.5	28.3
Industry	13.8	10.7	11.0	9.0	10.6	11.7
Transport, storage, comms	8.5	7.9	8.0	8.5	4.7	5.8
Construction	5.3	7.1	4.6	6.0	6.9	6.8
Social, communal, and personal services <sup>38</sup>	20.8	no data	23.4	24.0	7.5 <sup>39</sup>	6.2
Professional, scientific, and technical services	no data	6.3			3.6	4.5
Real estate activities	5.8	no data			4.1	3.6
Admin and public services	no data	11.5				
Artistic & recreation activ.	no data	8.0				
<b>All workers (in millions)</b>	<b>17.9</b>	<b>19.7<sup>40</sup></b>	<b>14.2</b>	<b>17.2</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>7.7</b>

Source: Colombia (DANE, 2020; DANE 1958-2020), Peru (INEI, 2017-2019, INEI, 2019, INEI, 2020), Ecuador (INEC, 2019; 2014a, 2018f).

**Table 2: No. of workers in selected industrial sectors in Colombia (in 2012 or 2014 and 2019), trends and potential changes induced by the Agreement**

Sector	Number of workers		Change in no. of jobs due to Agreement based on CGE modelling and 2019 employment
	Start of the Agreement	Latest (2019)	
Other food products	22,938	60,866	+183
Plastic products	48,601	55,340	+166
Chemical products	40,432	46,930	+375
Textiles	no data	32,772	+197
Pharmaceuticals	26,433	27,379	-356
Metal products	no data	19,872	-99
Machinery and equipment	13,684	12,954	-91
Total number of workers in industry (including also other sub-sectors)	676,425 <sup>41</sup>	705,999	-----

Note: "Start of Agreement" refers to 2012 or 2014, depending on data availability

Source: DANE, 2009a, 2014a, 2017b and 2020d and calculations made by the author based on results of the economic modelling

<sup>38</sup> The classification of sectors of economic activity has changed between 2007 and 2020 and there are no matching categories in 2020 for some of those existing in 2007.

<sup>39</sup> Education, health care and social services.

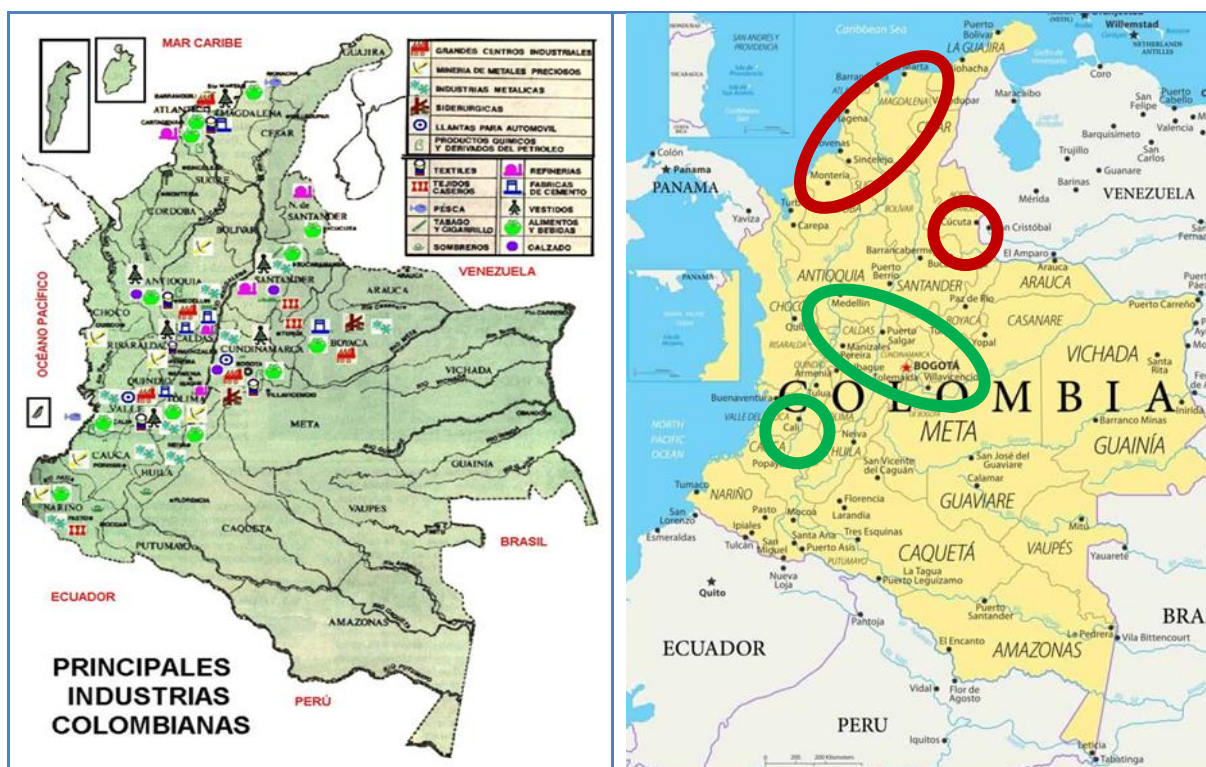
<sup>40</sup> In 2019, the total number of workers in Colombia equalled 22.1 million (DANE, 2020).

<sup>41</sup> In 2007, industry in Colombia employed 637,621 workers in total (DANE, 2009a).

### 1.1.4 Informal economy

The overall level of informality in **Colombia** decreased from 68,5% in 2010 to 59.9% in 2020 (based on information provided by the Ministry of Labour). Regarding metropolitan areas (i.e., excluding agriculture, where the informality rates are the highest), 57% of economically active persons living in 13 of them in 2007 were in informal employment (55.5% among men and 58.8% among women). Out of these, 38.6% worked in the sector of trade, hotels, and restaurants, 18.2% in communal, social, and personal services and 16.5% in industry. 50.5% were self-employed and 38.5% worked in microenterprises employing 2-5 persons. 33.8% of all informally employed lived in Bogotá, 13.7% in Medellín and 13.5% in Cali. Regarding departments (Figure 2), the lowest informality rates were in 2007 and 2019 in Bogotá (capital), Medellín (department of Antioquia), Manizales (Caldas), Tunja (Boyacá), Pereira (Risaralda) and Cali (Valle del Cauca); the highest in Cúcuta (Norte de Santander), Sincelejo (Sucre), Santa Marta (Magdalena) and Montería (Cordoba), the last three on the north coast, belonging to the poor regions in Colombia (DANE, 2007b; 2019a).<sup>42</sup>

**Figure 2: Spatial distribution of informality in Colombia**



**Key:** Red shape – regions with a high level of informality    Green shape – regions with a low level of informality  
 Sources: Proyecto Mapamundi: <https://proyectomapamundi.com/americadel-sur/colombia/> (right panel);  
 Plataforma virtual ciencias sociales: <http://pvcsalicia.blogspot.com/2016/03/a-continuacion-encontraran-un-taller.html> (left panel)

79.3% of all informally employed were covered by the social security system with health care cover (sistema de seguridad social en salud), including 42.1% in the subsidised system and 57.9% in the contribution-based system. 13.9% were covered by the pension scheme (DANE, 2007b). Until 2011, informal employment rate fell to 51.3%, however, this may partly be related with a change in measurement in 2008, which excluded from informal employment workers in enterprises employing 10 or more persons. For the same reason, proportion between different groups of informal workers has changed, e.g., in 2011, self-

<sup>42</sup> Between 2007 and 2019, informality level decreased from 74.4% to 72.1% in Cúcuta, from 70.6% to 60.4% in Montería, from 58.6% to 56.5% in Pereira, from 57.7% to 46.3% in Cali, from 50.8% to 41.4% in Medellín, from 53.8% to 39.3% in Manizales, and from 52.3% to 39.1% in Bogotá (DANE, 2007b and 2019a).

employed accounted for 60% of the total (10 percentage points more than in 2007). The share of trade, hotels and restaurants in the total informal employment increased to 41.8% (DANE, 2011). Since then, according to comparable data, the rate of informal employment continued falling to 46.4% in 2019 (44.1% among men and 49.1% among women). The share of trade, restaurants and hotels remained at the same level (42% in 2019), followed by communal, social, and personal services (17.5% in 2019) and industry (12% in 2019). In a regional overview, the highest share of informality remained in Cúcuta (73.1%), while in Medellin, Bogota, and Manizales it was 40-41% (DANE, 2019a).

### **Box 1: Economic benefits and risks of informal sector activity**

According to a definition used by the ILO, informal economy is understood as enterprises and workers not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements and includes also self-employed. Informal sector means enterprises which have not been registered and usually do not comply either with the domestic legislation related to payment of taxes, and social security contributions, working conditions, e.g., minimum wages or health and safety at work and others. Informal employment relates to situations where a person is not offered a written contract, social security contributions (e.g., to a pension scheme or health care) are not paid, wages are usually low and there are no protections related, e.g., to unemployment, illness, or accidents at work (ILO, 2015). Existence of the informal economy may help to reduce poverty, offer opportunities for internal and external migrant workers (moving from rural to urban areas, and between countries) and cushion effects of economic cycle by offering job opportunity and income to workers who have been laid-off (and e.g. due to the lack of unemployment benefit need to take any job to secure income) or who due to low level (or type) of skills, or the personal situation cannot find a job in formal employment. However, it also imposes limits on seizing the opportunities for development and growth, including those offered by trade agreements. Informal enterprises are characterised by low productivity and due to their status, face constraints in access to funds (preventing them from investing in skills and technology to increase productivity), market (e.g., to public procurement), support schemes for MSMEs and match with new suppliers or customers (given their limited capacity and operation in cash, without invoices). The ILO suggests, therefore, a range of policies and measures encouraging transition of those enterprises from informal to formal economy, including using the opportunity of increased trade flows to reduce the levels of informality (e.g., pursuing export promotion, providing advisory services for MSMEs to develop their exporting capacity, and supporting their inclusion into the value chains of exporting sectors) (ILO, 2015).

Such policy measures are in line with the ILO Recommendation No. 204 (2015) "Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy" which suggests initiatives in areas including trade, taxes, business environment, employment, education, skills development, business and financial services, access to markets, infrastructure and technology, governance and targeted actions facilitating operation of MSMEs. On the other hand, the ILO highlights that increased competition on the market (being a result of the reduction of tariff and non-tariff barriers) may increase outsourcing of certain services or processes and sub-contracting at low cost, thus leading to increased levels of informality (ILO, 2014; 2015).

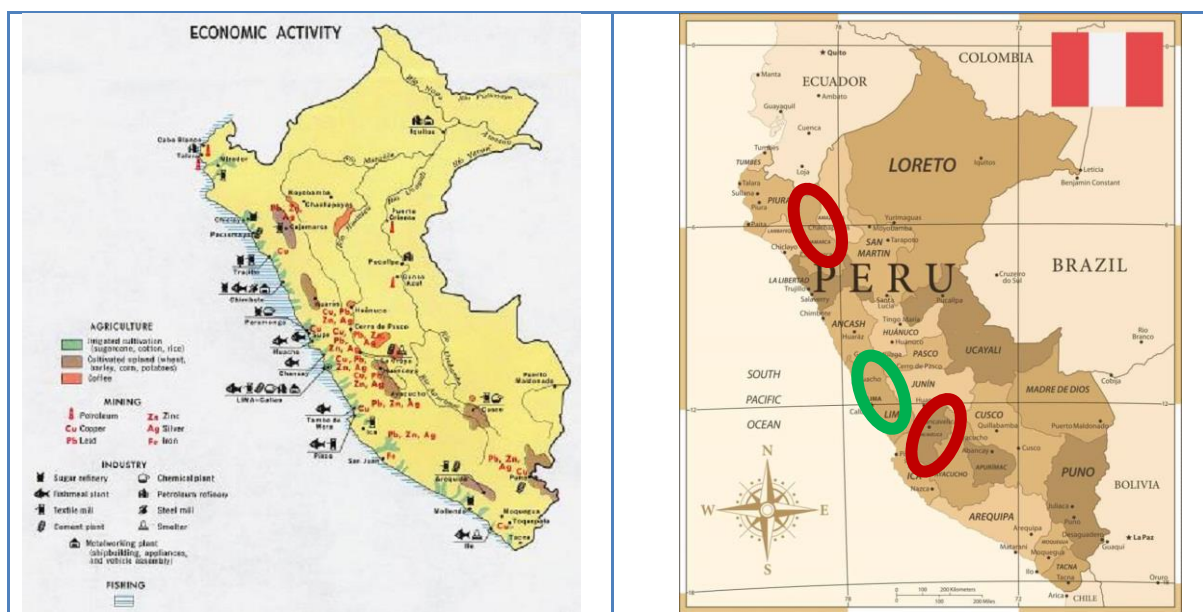
While measuring the level of informality only based on the rates in metropolitan cities does not provide an accurate picture of the situation in the whole country (given high levels of informal employment and informal economic activity in rural areas and agriculture, which have been omitted in Colombian statistics), even based on this partial analysis one can draw preliminary conclusions. Looking at industry, departments with a low informality rate, host refineries, cement factories, metal industry, chemicals, mining of precious metals, pharmaceuticals, textiles, apparel, footwear industry, and food processing. Agriculture in these regions includes vegetables, fruits and nuts, animal breeding, flowers, cotton, sugar cane and coffee cultivation. Regions with high informality rates, host refineries, textiles, apparel, fisheries, banana plantations, cotton cultivation, food processing, and tourism (Asohofrucol, 2018, and maps).

Factors contributing to the observed trends at the beginning of the analysed period included economic growth supported by monetary and fiscal policy, reduced inflation rate, more balanced budget and improved tax system enabling provision of social policies, job creation (notably in services sector) and poverty reduction. At the same time, informality reduction was relatively limited because high productivity sectors (e.g., mining, or financial services) had a low share in employment while those of low productivity (agriculture, trade, hotels and restaurants and services) high. There was also an observed increase in formalization of micro-, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) in urban areas, e.g., increase from 53.1% in 2007 to 77.3% in 2012 in the rate of MSMEs pursuing book-keeping and from 43% to 69.7% the rate of MSMEs being formally registered. It was underpinned by new legislation and non-legislative initiatives supporting entrepreneurship and MSMEs



through availability of funding, access to advice in establishment procedures, public procurement contracts, export support, and production chains, as well as reduction of fiscal burden (i.e., reduced tax rates and social security contributions) (ILO, 2014a). Other measures included policy on national competitiveness, simplification of procedures, a portal for setting up enterprises, measures to limit evasion of social security payments, legislation encouraging employment formalisation, enhancing labour inspection capacity (ILO, 2014c; ILO, 2015a), creation of a national network for labour formalisation and extension of social security coverage (La Red Nacional para la Formalización Laboral) and the Pact for decent work adopted in 2018 by the Government, employers and workers with commitments regarding formal employment creation, respect for labour rights, decent working conditions and social security coverage (Pacto por el trabajo decente, 2018). In 2018, a “Single Window” (one-stop-shop for establishment of formal enterprises) was set up and facilitated establishment of 84,724 formal enterprises until September 2020. There is also progress in consolidation of data regarding all systems of affiliation to social security (Mi Seguridad Social) and creation of one portal bringing together data from those systems counting with 3,515,156 users as of February 2021. Moreover, thanks to activity of the Network for Labour Formalisation, in 2016-2020 training on labour rights was provided to 82,913 persons while some 4,389,342 persons could be reached by awareness raising campaigns carried out by the Network through media in 2019-2020 (data provided by the Ministry of Labour). Formalisation of jobs and enterprises belonged also to the ILO priorities in cooperation with Colombia in 2018-2019 (ILO, 2018b).

**Figure 3: Economic activity and selected regions with informal employment in Peru**



**Red shape** – regions with a high level of informality; **Green shape** – regions with a low level of informality

Source: Proyecto Mapamundi: <https://proyectomapamundi.com/america-del-sur/mapas-de-peru/> (right)

Mapa económico del Perú: <http://perumipais.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/02/produccion-peru-mapa.jpg> (left)

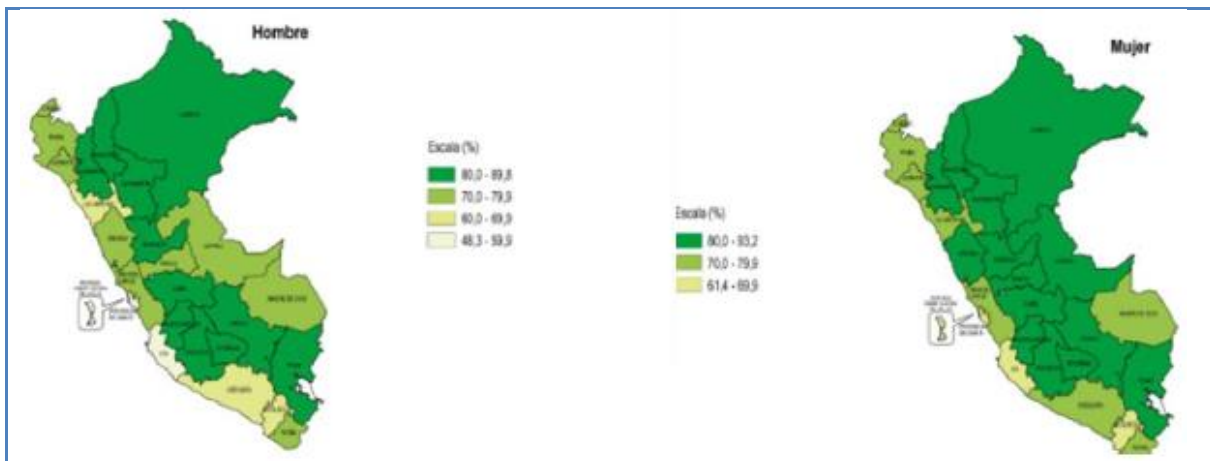
In **Peru**, the rate of informal employment in total employment decreased systematically over much of the analysed period, from 80% in 2007 to 72.7% in 2019 (from 83.6% in 2008 to 75.8% in 2019 for women and from 75.7% in 2008 to 70.3% in 2019 for men), but then increased to 75.2% in 2020, as a result of Covid-19: In urban areas, informal employment reached 68.2% and in rural areas 96.2% (AA, November, 2020, INEI, 2020b). GDP share created by informal economy remained practically the same (18.9% in 2007 and 18.6% in 2017). In the regional overview (Figure 3), the share of informal employment varied in 2019, from 92% in Huancavelica and 87.9% in Cajamarca to 60% in Lima (INEI, 2018d; INEI, 2020b). Regarding industrial activity in regions with low levels of informal employment, it includes mining, refineries, metal processing, cement plants, chemical industry, textiles, and fishing. Agricultural activities in these areas include cultivation of fruits, vegetables, nuts, sugar cane, cotton, and rice. In regions recording high levels of

informality, industry includes mining, and in agriculture there is cultivation of wheat, barley, corn, and potatoes, and animal breeding. Overall, lower rates of informal employment are recorded in the coastal areas thought to be most competitive, while the highest in the mountain regions, which record also high poverty levels.

Across the sectors of economic activity, the rate of informality in the total employment was the highest in agriculture (98% in 2007 and 94 % in 2018), followed by hotels and restaurants (87% in 2007 and 79% in 2017), transport and communication (84% in 2007 and 77% in 2017), construction (82% in 2007 and 77% in 2017) and trade (78% in 2007 and 67% in 2017). Regarding the share of informality in production across sectors, the highest one has been in agriculture (84% in 2007 and 86% in 2017), followed by hotels and restaurants (47% in 2007 and 43% in 2017), transport and communication (34% in 2007 and 2017), construction (28% in 2007 and 26% in 2017), and trade (25% in 2007 and 19% in 2017) (INEI, 2018d, INEI, 2019).

In 2017, 19.8% of informal undertakings had some form of bookkeeping (compared to 62.6% in the formal sector), 58% did not have any office nor a venue to operate in (32% of these were mobile, e.g., as a street vendor, 34% worked in a vehicle to transport persons or goods, 22% operated in the customer's house, and 11% in an improvised venue). Out of those that had a venue, 74% operated in owner's house. Regarding the reason for not having registered the activity for tax purposes, 48.5% owners did not consider it necessary, 33.7% were of the view that the undertaking is very small, 12.2% carried out the activity as an occasional occupation and 1.8% believed not being able to pay taxes if the activity is registered. 57% started own activity after not having been able to find employment, 15% wanted to be independent and 17% wished to have higher incomes (INEI, 2018d; INEI, 2019). According to a survey conducted in 2013 among 301 informal enterprises in Lima, 53%-59% did not meet the requirements enshrined in labour legislation, e.g., did not have their employees included into payroll or did not grant employee benefits (ILO, 2014e).

**Figure 4: Informal employment rate in Peru in 2018 for men (on the left) and for women (on the right)(%)**



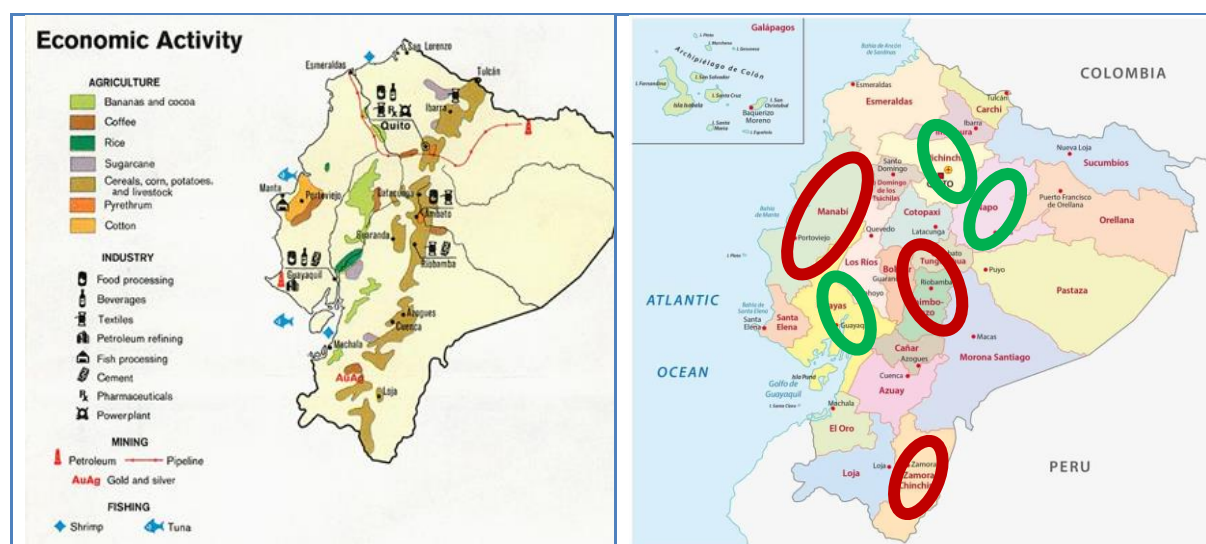
Source: INEI (2019), Perú: Evolución de los Indicadores de Empleo e Ingresos por Departamento, 2007-2018

Factors supporting the decrease in informal employment included economic growth, fiscal and monetary policies aimed at reducing the inflation rate and the public deficit, favourable terms of trade resulting in investment flows, formal jobs creation, social policies aimed at poverty reduction, strengthened surveillance of enterprises through introduction of electronic submission of data related to workers, contracts, wages, taxes and social security contributions, and a reduction and simplification of fiscal burden imposed on SMEs (ILO, 2014d). In 2018, in cooperation with the ILO Peru adopted a Sectoral Strategy for Employment Formalisation 2018-2021 (ILO, 2018a). The Strategy identified main reasons behind informal employment. These include inadequate or low level of knowledge and skills

among workers, costs related to compliance with labour legislation, social security and tax system combined with low benefits of operating formally, insufficient labour inspection capacity, poverty, and low level of economic development. The Strategy outlined initiatives supporting transition from informal to formal employment, e.g., provision of training to increase employability of workers, decent work promotion through Corporate Social Responsibility / Responsible Business Conduct, promotion of social security and its benefits, and a revision of legislation related to labour inspection to encourage better compliance with labour legislation and a move to formality (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú, 2018; ILO, 2017).

In the context of the above, according to the labour inspection services in Peru (SUNAFIL), an implementing legal framework has been developed with dedicated protocols for urban and rural areas, enabling inspections with a view to facilitate formalisation of work. Thanks to related activities undertaken in 2020-2021, SUNAFIL inspectors managed to formalise 202,623 workers across the country, incl. 71,022 in agriculture, 46,127 in the real estate and business services sector, 27,605 in manufacturing, 14,533 in construction and 13,802 in wholesale and retail trade. The highest number of formalised workers was recorded in metropolitan Lima (112,669).

**Figure 5: Economic activity and regions with informal employment in Ecuador**



**Red shape** – regions with a high level of informality; **Green shape** – regions with a low level of informality  
 Source: Proyecto Mapamundi: <https://proyectomapamundi.com/americadel-sur/ecuador/> (right) Mapa Owje: [https://mapas.owje.com/1938\\_mapa-de-actividad-economica-de-ecuador.html](https://mapas.owje.com/1938_mapa-de-actividad-economica-de-ecuador.html) (left)

In **Ecuador**, the rate of informal employment<sup>43</sup> fell from 81.1% in 2007 to 67.1% in 2014 to increase again to 72.9% in 2018. In rural areas, it decreased from 93% in 2007 to 80% in 2014, to increase again to 89% in 2019. A similar pattern was observed in urban areas, where informal employment rate fell from 75% in 2007 to 60% in 2015 and increased to 65% in 2019. The initial reduction in informal employment coincided with economic growth and favourable terms of trade, notably high prices of exported petrol. The second stage was related to economic slowdown. In a break-down by gender, informal employment fell from 81% in 2007 to 68% in 2014 and increased to 74% in 2019 for men, while among women, it changed from 80% in 2007 to 67% in 2014 and 74% in 2019. In a territorial overview, within each of the three big regions (coast, mountains and east), there have been departments with both, low and high levels of informality (marked on a map above). In the coastal region, department of Guayas recorded reduction in informality from 81% in 2007 to 69% in 2019. In Manabí, informal employment decreased from 88% in 2007 to

<sup>43</sup> Definition used in this context by CEPAL (providing data quoted here) considers a person as being in informal employment if that person does not have a formal job contract and does not pay social security contributions.



82% in 2019 (Santo Domingo and Esmeraldas started from 82% in 2007 and arrived at 82% and 84% in 2019). In the mountains, department of Pichincha had a clearly lower level of informal employment than the other during the whole reporting period, recording rates from 70% in 2007 to 54% in 2019. Carchi, Cotopaxi, Bolívar, Chimborazo recorded values between 83% and 90% in 2007 and between 83% and 94% in 2019. In the eastern part of the country, Napo recorded similar values (83%-84%) at the beginning and at the end of the analysed period, however, managed to reduce the rate of formal employment in the years of economic growth (going down to 55% in 2012). Across sectors, the highest rates of informal employment have been in agriculture (96% in 2007; 93% in 2019) and construction (94% in 2007; 91% in 2019), followed by hotels and restaurants (90% in 2007; 82% in 2019), trade (89% in 2007; 81% in 2019) and industry (78% in 2007; 64% in 2019) (CEPAL, 2020).

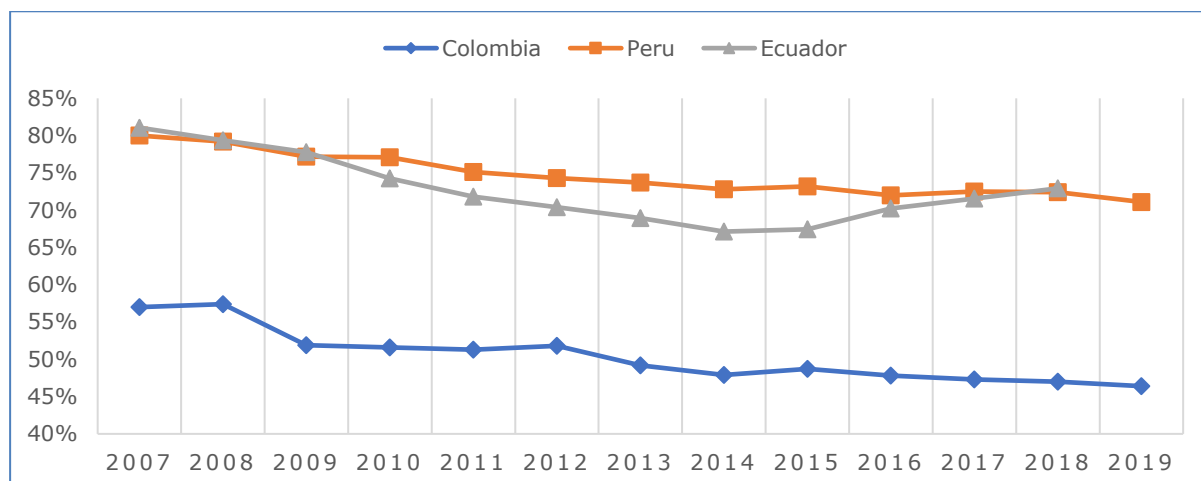
Regarding economic activity in the Ecuadorean regions, those with lower levels of informality host refineries, cement factories, textile, pharmaceuticals, beverages and food processing and agriculture covering banana, cocoa and coffee plantations, sugar cane, rice, potatoes, cereals, corn, and animal breeding. Those with high levels of informal employment host fisheries and fish processing, and cotton, banana, cocoa, and coffee plantations, therefore, have a relatively less diversified economy, focused on agriculture and fisheries.

The observed positive trends in the first few years of the analysed period may result from introduction of a new legislation related to formalisation of labour relations, e.g., reduction of sub-contracting, requirement of social security contributions payment by construction companies working on public contracts and strengthening the labour inspection capacity, with the increased number of inspectors and inspections. Moreover, the new Constitution prohibited precarious forms of employment (e.g., hourly contracts and work intermediation) and the subsequent legislation introduced fines for avoidance of payments of social security contributions and extended social security coverage schemes (e.g., health care insurance) to family members of covered workers. This increased the number of workers with access to the social security system receiving benefits. Economic growth, creation of formal jobs, as well as increased public expenditures on education (supporting skills development) and social transfers for poor families may also have played a role (ILO, 2014f). There are also proposals from the ILO, as part of its technical assistance for Ecuador, to focus on formal and decent job creation in rural areas, combined with support for skills development and engagement with employers and trade unions. The ILO has also conducted studies in areas affected by the earthquake in 2016, notably in their rural part and sectors, such as tourism and banana plantations. Their results will provide a starting point for designing initiatives creating decent jobs and supporting sustainable development in those sectors and regions in Ecuador (ILO, 2018). On the other hand, the increase in the informal employment rate since 2014, may be related to economic recession caused by the fall in exported oil prices (in the same period, statistics record increase in unemployment, reduced in 2017 by public expenditures in the pre-election period, as well as substandard employment, with payment below the minimum wage level and the number of working hours per week lower than 40 despite the willingness to work full time). Other reasons mentioned in the literature include migration from rural to urban areas, and from other countries in the region, notably Venezuela (foreign workers are often ready to accept low quality jobs), relative rigidity of the labour market regulation and the related increase in labour costs, the recent growth in provision of services based on digital platforms and pessimism among workers who remain in unsatisfactory jobs and don't seek better options, as well as reasons related to personal or family situation (e.g., being made redundant) (Arias, 2019; Cordes, 2020; Comercio, Jan 2019 & 2020; Primicias, Jan 2020).

Regarding the situation in the **EU**, according to a study prepared for the European Platform to Tackle Undeclared Work (which facilitates cooperation between relevant authorities from

the EU Member States),<sup>44</sup> undeclared work in the EU has been reported in sectors including construction (26 Member States), hotels and restaurants (23), trade (16), agriculture, forestry, and fishing (16), domestic work (16), and a few other sectors albeit to a lower degree (5-7). Measured as a percentage of GDP, the shadow economy (wider than undeclared work) ranges from 1.6% in Denmark to 24%-30% in Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Croatia, Malta, Portugal, and Romania. Four more countries – Spain, Hungary, Latvia, and Poland – show estimates of up to 23%.

**Figure 6: Informal employment rate (%)**



Notes: 2008 - change in methodology measuring informality in Colombia. Given different methodologies applied in measurement, we do not compare in this chart informality rates between countries but analyse them for each country separately over time.

Source: DANE, Colombia, Informalidad laboral para el total de las 13 áreas (2007-2019); INEI, Perú, Producción y empleo informal en el Perú (2007-2017), INEI, Perú: Evolución de los Indicadores de Empleo e Ingresos por Departamento, 2007-2018; CEPAL (2020), Análisis del sector informal y discusiones sobre la regulación del trabajo en plataformas digitales en el Ecuador

### 1.1.5 Gender equality

In **Colombia**, the number of working women increased from 7.7 million in 2007 to 9.2 million in 2019% (the number of working men increased from 10.9 million in 2007 to 12.9 million in 2019) (DANE, 2007 and 2019). The total employment rate increased from 52.1% in 2007 to 59.2% in 2014 to fall in the following years to 56.3% in 2019 (the employment rate for men increased from 64.9% in 2007 to 69.7% in 2015 to fall to 67.3% in 2019 and 59.4% in 2020 while for women it increased from 38.9% in 2007 to 48.3% in 2015 to fall to 45.6% in 2019 and 34.8% in 2020. The total unemployment rate after falling from 10.8% in 2007 to 8.4% in 2014, increased again to 10.2% in 2019 (the unemployment rate for women increased from 14.1% in 2007 to 15.8% in 2010 then fell to 11.6% in 2015 and rose again to 13.4% in 2019 and 24.2% in 2020; while for men it fell from 8.9% in 2007 to 6.5% in 2015 to increase again to 8% in 2019 and 15.3% in 2020). Further details are provided in the chart below. Regarding employment shares by sector in 2007, 35.6% of women worked in the communal, social, and personal services sector (33.0% in 2019), followed by trade, hotels, and restaurants (30.3% and 32.8% in 2019), manufacturing industry (13.6%; 12.6% in 2019), agriculture (7.0% and 6.8% in 2019), real estate (6.7% and 8.9% in 2019), transport and communication (4.0% and 2.4% in 2019) and construction (0.4% and 1.0% in 2019) (DANE, 2007 and 2019).<sup>45</sup> For further details,

<sup>44</sup> European Commission, DG Employment, undeclared work: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1298&langId=en>

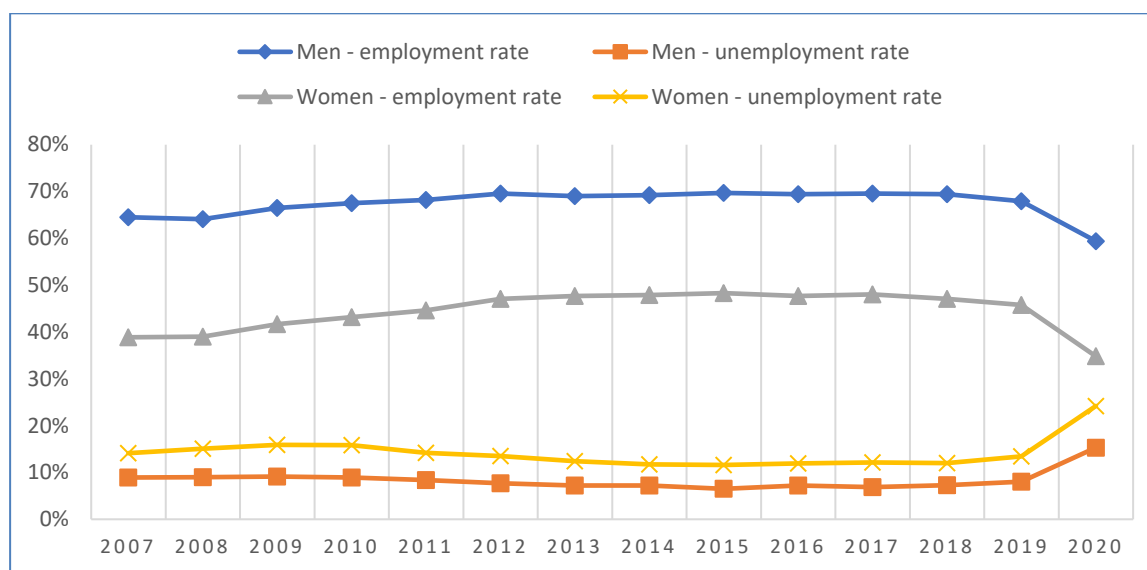
<sup>45</sup> For men in Colombia, the figures were as follows: agriculture (27.5% in 2007 and 23.7% in 2019), followed by trade, hotels, and restaurants (21.2% and 22.6%), manufacturing industry (11.7% and 10.4%), transport (11.2% in both years), communal, social, and personal services (10.4% and 12.1%), construction (8.3% and

please see the chart below. Regarding job quality, in 2020, 26.9% of working women and 27% of working men were in sub-employment, i.e. a situation of having a job not matching the worker's qualifications, with a low wage or insufficient number of working hours. In 2007, these rates were higher (34.7% for women and 36.8% for men). The overall working time decreased from 59.3 hours in 2009 to 58.2 hours a week in 2019, while time dedicated to paid work decreased from 46.2 hours a week in 2009 to 44.3 hours in 2019 and time for non-paid work in the household decreased from 19.7 hours a week in 2009 to 18.2 hours in 2019. In the same period, women worked for around 10 hours longer a week than men, dedicating up to 16 hours more to non-paid work in household and less time to remunerated work. In total, women worked 65.8 hours a week in 2009 (men 55.1 hours) and 63.6 hours a week in 2019 (men 54.4). Regarding paid work, women dedicated to it 41.2 hours a week in 2009 (men 49.5) and 39.5 in 2019 (men 47.7). Regarding non-paid work in the household, women used for it 27 hours a week in 2009 (men 11.1) and 25.7 hours a week in 2019 (men 10.4) (DANE, 2007-2020). The ILO Committee of Experts noted in 2016 the existence of sectorial segregation of women on the labour market, with over 60% of them being concentrated in two sectors, low-paid, low-quality, and often informal jobs. The Committee noted also a decreasing, but still large wage gap between men and women. In this context, the Committee noted that legislative amendment was considered by the Government to bring the existing law on equal pay for work of equal value into conformity with Convention No. 100. Moreover, the Government had adopted the National Plan for Labour Equity with a Gender Differential Approach for Women (CEACR, 2016). In 2019, the wage gap between men and women was of 12.1%. Women were also more likely to lose a job. Moreover, only around 20% of women in retirement age had access to old age pension (DANE, 2020c, Cedetrabajo, March 2020).

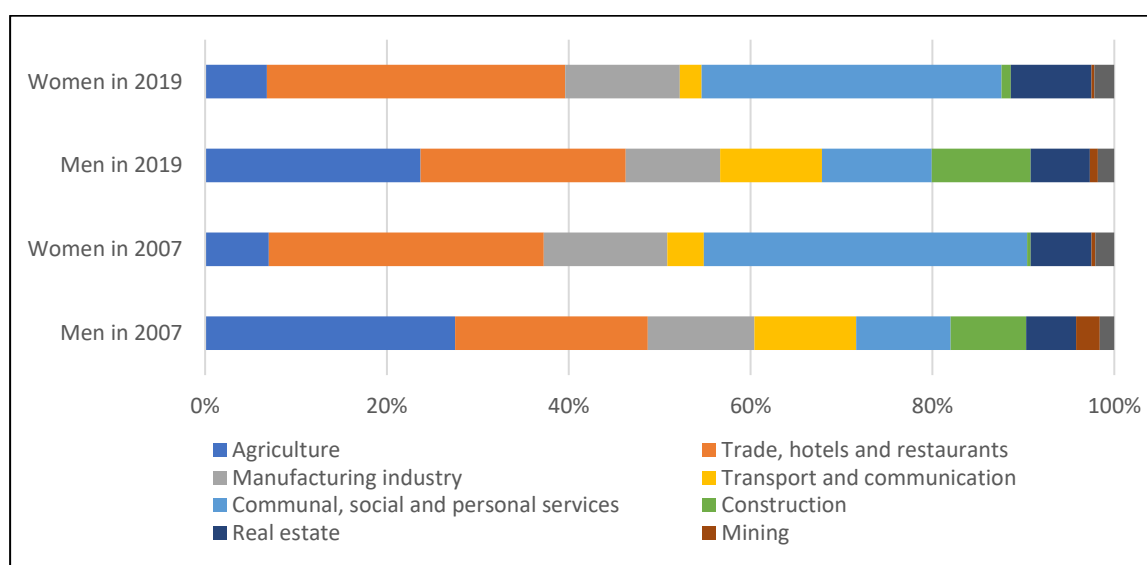
56.3% of working women in Colombia were in informal jobs, 17.3% worked for less than 20 hours a week and 42% earned less than the minimum wage (Un periódico digital, March 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic has worsened the situation of women on the labour market with their unemployment rate in 2020 being 11 percentage points higher than in 2019 (7 percentage points for men) and with an increasing share of women becoming inactive and dedicated to non-paid household work, currently equalling in total around 20% of GDP (Portafolio, August 2020). The Government included gender equity in the National Development Plan 2018-2022 (chapter: Pact for Women's Equity). The proposed actions include e.g. improved access to quality education and retention in education (i.e. lower number of dropouts), encouragement of diversified education paths (currently, women tend to choose social science and health care, with much lower interest in mathematics, engineering or technology, which has an impact on their future career), investment in professional care personnel and facilities for children and dependant adults to enable women to dedicate more time to professional activities, support for women's access to managerial roles and decision making bodies (e.g. being members of parliament), and support for entrepreneurship, including for women from rural areas. Moreover, a seal of gender equity granted to companies promoting gender equity in their operation should be reformed and broadly promoted to encourage companies to apply for it (DNP, 2019, Dinero, February 2019).

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10.9%), real estate (5.5% and 6.5%), and mining (2.6% and 0.9%). The number of working men increased from 10.9 million in 2007 to 12.9 million in 2019 (DANE, 2007 and 2019).

**Figure 7: Men and women on the labour market in Colombia, 2007-2020**

Source: DANE, Colombia, Mercado laboral según sexo – datos históricos, 2007-2020

**Figure 8: Sectors of work for men and women in Colombia in 2007 and 2019**

Source: DANE, Colombia (2007 and 2019), Mercado laboral por sexo

Actions are also foreseen to break stereotypes around women's productivity, professions typically associated with one gender and preference to hire men due to their lower involvement in household and family responsibilities. Moreover, there are proposals to design job offers in a gender-neutral way (currently most are designed for men) (Dinero, February 2019a). In the context of links between trade and employment, Colombia provided in its WTO Trade Policy Review an example of flower sector employing women, and work done to support female workers to get out of extreme poverty or benefit from education and housing projects (WTO, 2018).

**Table 3: Colombia - Enterprises by gender and sector, and impacts of the Agreement on output**

Sector	Share in number of companies (%)		Output changes based on CGE modelling (%)		
	Women-led	Men-led	Weighted average	Min	Max
Wholesale and retail trade	45.7	41.6	0.05	0.05	0.05
Manufacturing	17.0	19.8	0.13	-1.19	1.72
Health care, education and social services	16.0	7.8	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
Financial, professional, administrative and consumer services	12.8	16	0.04	-0.11	0.48
Mining & agriculture	6.9	8.6	0.07	-1.15	0.87
ICT	1.6	6.2	0.10	0.07	0.12
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>0.06</b>		

Sources: Number of companies: GEM (2018-2019); Output changes: authors calculations based on DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), in 2019 Colombia ranked 6<sup>th</sup> in Latin America regarding the rate of new entrepreneurs (22.3%), i.e., persons between 18-64 years of age who have established and ran their own undertaking for less than 4 years (23.8% of men compared to 21.4% of women). Regarding established entrepreneurs being active for more than four years, the overall rate of 4.3% (3.9% for women and 4.6% for men) is the sixth in Latin America. However, this rate has been falling over the last four years and given how low it is compared to the rate of new entrepreneurs, it raises concerns on sustainability of enterprises in Colombia and mechanisms supporting entrepreneurship. Around 90% of entrepreneurs in Colombia started own activity as there were no other job opportunities<sup>46</sup> (GEM 2018-2019a). While 33%-37% of female entrepreneurs believed to have adequate abilities to run an enterprise, the same said 50%-52% of men (GEM 2019). In 2017-2018, 11.6% of men-led enterprises (7.1% for women) exported more than 25% of their production, while around 60% of all enterprises did not export. Regarding sectors of activity, 45.7% of women-led enterprises (41.6% for men) were active in the wholesale and retail trade, 17.0% (19.8% for men) in manufacturing, 16.0% (7.8% for men) in health care, education, and social services, 12.8% (16% for men) in financial, professional, administrative and consumer services, 6.9% (8.6% for men) in agriculture and mining, and 1.6% (6.2% for men) in information and communication technologies (GEM 2018-2019). The level of informality of enterprises operating for less than four years is at 74.5% (81.4% for women-led enterprises and 69.3% for men). The formalisation is higher among enterprises being on the market for a longer time (informal undertakings represent 37.9% and formal ones 62.1%). Regarding business environment, Colombia scored relatively well in perception of entrepreneurship, social and cultural norms, physical infrastructure and services and entrepreneurship in post-graduate curriculum, while other aspects received lower scores. These included public programmes for entrepreneurs, legal and commercial framework, dynamic of internal market, market entry barriers, government support, taxes and bureaucracy, access to finance (and financial support), technology transfer, innovation, and development (GEM 2018-2019a). According to the 2018 Mastercard Index of Women Entrepreneurs, Colombia has improved environment for women entrepreneurs bringing the country from 26<sup>th</sup> to 21<sup>st</sup> rank globally (Mastercard, 2018). The increase in female entrepreneurship has also been recorded by the Bogota Chamber of Commerce, which between 2016 and 2018 supported creation of 5074 women-led enterprises and provides services for more than 69,000 female entrepreneurs. In 2020, the Colombian Government, in cooperation with Farmers Association launched a support programme for women agro-entrepreneurs and female workers from rural areas foreseeing financial and technical assistance, training and support in sales of products. Initially, it will cover 267,000 beneficiaries, with the aim of supporting 0.5 million at the end of the Government term (SAC, July 2020). However, while there is a change in supporting gender equality on labour market and in entrepreneurship, there are still factors, such as traditional division

<sup>46</sup> However, it is to highlight, that a similar GEM survey carried out in 2017-2018, although with a differently phrased questions brought opposite results, i.e., over 80% of both, male and female entrepreneurs saw having an own enterprise as an opportunity and the rest as a necessity.

of time and tasks in household, disciplines chosen for education, sectors of activity, wage gap and lower chance for promotion, which limit opportunities open for women (Portafolio, March 2019 and 2019a; Cámara de Comercio de Bogotá, March 2017). Also, in 2020, the Law on Entrepreneurship was adopted whose objectives include support for setting up and managing enterprises by women, and female contribution to innovation and participation in the use of new technologies. The Law envisages e.g., establishment of a fund which will support initiatives, enterprises and association of women, with a special focus on the sector of agriculture and will facilitate female entrepreneurship in this sector. Moreover, women-led enterprises participating in tenders for public procurement contracts may expect additional points being allocated to their bids. In this context, representatives of private sector emphasise importance of effective implementation of new measures and also of a greater visibility of women-led projects and success stories that could be promoted by organisations of female entrepreneurs. They also highlight a need for capability building and advice or mentoring which would help in developing experience in entrepreneurship (El Tiempo, March 2021).

In **Peru**, the number of employed men increased from 7.9 million in 2007 to 9.3 million in 2018 while the number of employed women increased from 6.2 million to 7.4 million in the same period. However, the labour market participation has decreased from 83% to 80.7% for men and from 64.7% to 64% for women. In 2008<sup>47</sup>, 29% of economically active women worked in agriculture, forestry, and fisheries and 0.2% in mining (21.1% in 2018, combining all these sectors), 36% in all services sectors except trade, including: 24.9% in services, 6.7% in domestic service, 2.7% in financial services, and 1.7% in transport, storage and communications (this block increased to 44.2% in 2018), 22.7% in retail trade, 1.8% in wholesale trade (25.8% in trade in 2018), 10% in manufacturing industry (8.4% in 2018), and 0.3% in construction (0.5% in 2018) (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2008, 2019e). An average wage for men increased from 914.3 in 2007 to 1,588.6 in 2018 (current soles) while for women it increased from 652.3 in 2007 to 1,135 in 2018 (INEI, 2007-2018), i.e., from 71.3% to 71.4% of men's wage. In 2018, 1.7 million of working women (23%) and 2.6 million of men (28%) were in formal employment. The unemployment rate for men was in 2019 at 3.7% and for women at 4.1% (INEI, 2019b). The rate of women being in adequate employment (working 35 hours a week or more and having at least minimum wage) increased from 22.3% in 2007 to 40.4% in 2018 (for men, from 40.7% in 2007 to 62.2% in 2018). The remaining workers were in subemployment, i.e. working part-time, even though they wished to have a full-time job or working for 35 hours or more a week but receiving less than minimum wage. Access to Internet increased from 25.5% in 2007 to 51.4% in 2018 for women and from 30.3% to 56% for men (INEI, 2019). In the 2019 report regarding Convention No. 100 (equal pay), the ILO Committee of Experts noted the gender-based wage gap in Peru and that among factors influencing it were types of contracts, diverse labour regimes applicable in Peru, the total working hours (often lower for women) and the fact that not many women yet were in higher, including managerial, positions. The Committee noted also that while multiannual plans and other initiatives have been announced by the Peruvian Government, there was no information available yet regarding their outcomes and trade unions claimed not being involved in some of them. The Committee requested more information in due time and the Government's work with employers' and workers' organisations to address the problem (CEACR, 2019).

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<sup>47</sup> In 2008 and 2018, the sectorial employment structure for men was as follows: 35.4% in agriculture, forestry, and fisheries, 1.8% in mining (29.6% in 2018 for all these sectors combined), 17.9% in services, 11.2% in transport, storage and communications, 4.5% in financial services (37.3% for all services sectors in 2018), 11% in industry (9.4% in 2018), 8.1% retail trade, 2.4% wholesale trade (13.3% for all trade in 2018), and 7.3% in construction (10.3% in 2018) (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2008, 2019e, 2019f).

**Table 4: Peru - Enterprises by gender and sector, and impacts of the Agreement on output**

Sector	Share in number of companies (%)	Output changes based on CGE modelling (%)		
	Women-led	Weighted average	Min	Max
Wholesale and retail trade	68.1	0.06	0.06	0.06
Manufacturing	13.8	0.22	-0.94	1.56
Health care, education and social services	10.0	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
Financial, professional, administrative and consumer services	4.8	0.03	-0.20	0.09
Mining & agriculture	1.9	0.29	-0.34	1.86
ICT	1.6	-0.01	-0.01	0.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>0.14</b>		

Sources: Number of companies: GEM (2018-2019); Output changes: authors calculations based on DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

Regarding women as entrepreneurs, it was expected that the total number of MSMEs led by women in Peru would reach 1.4 million in 2019, with 122,000 enterprises being set up in 2018, operating mainly in the regions of Lima, Puno, Piura, La Libertad and Ancash. According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, in 2018-2019 women-led enterprises in Peru operated in retail and wholesale trade (68.1%), manufacturing (13.8%), health care, education and social services (10.0%), financial, professional, administrative and consumer services (4.8%), mining and agriculture (1.9%), and information and communication technologies (1.6%).<sup>48</sup> (GEM 2018-2019) In 2017 World Bank Enterprise Survey carried out among 1003 Peruvian enterprises, 15.4% exported directly or indirectly (16.4% among men-led enterprises and 11.4% among those led by women). Regarding the main obstacle in their activity, 33.9% of women-led enterprises and 26.1% led by men named competition from informal sector, for 13.4% of women and 14.8% of men it was corruption, for 14.4% of women and 12% of men it was political instability, followed by labour legislation, lack of adequate knowledge and skills among workers and tax rates (World Bank, 2017b). In 2018, the Peruvian Government launched an initiative "Mujer Produce" (woman produces) with a programme of capacity building to contribute to women's economic empowerment and the move of women-led enterprises higher in the value chain. It is also meant as one of the measures to support women in generating own income, reduce vulnerability and improve the position to participate in decision making in the household and public life. It should also help in fight against gender-based violence which in Peru is estimated to cost around 3.5% GDP (Ministerio de la Mujer y Poblaciones Vulnerables, 2018). Moreover, in 2016, the export promotion agency, PROMPERU established an online platform enabling to filter exports statistics by gender of the owner or manager. 291 women-led enterprises exported in 2016 goods worth USD 1.5 billion, including manufactured products (58%), agricultural products (17%), garments (16%), fisheries (6%) and mining products (3%). For comparison, there were also 2,173 enterprises led by men and 5,045 where it was not possible to identify the gender of the owner (Frohmann, 2018). Women-led enterprises benefit from services provided by PROMPERU in the "exporting route". In 2017, 1,468 women-led enterprises (40% of the total) benefitted from advice on how to improve competitiveness and prepare for exports. Among them were 253 already exporting enterprises, which in 2017, exported products (mainly food and garments) worth USD 813 million (PROMPERU, December 2017). In 2017, Peru also launched a programme "she exports" (ella exporta) supporting development of entrepreneurial and exporting skills of female entrepreneurs and providing coaching related to readiness for exports, access to finance, costs and logistics, digital marketing and international negotiations. In four editions of the programme delivered to-date, 82 female entrepreneurs participated from agro-industry, garment, jewellery, and services sectors (PROMPERU, 2017; 2020). Peruvian female entrepreneurs participate also in targeted initiatives developed within the Pacific Alliance, such as annual events, webinars (e.g., in

<sup>48</sup> According to national data, sectors with the largest presence of female entrepreneurs include wholesale and retail trade (39.5%), agriculture (28.7%), services (24.6%), manufacturing industry (7.2%) (Peru21, 2019).



2020 about international trade in digital era) (Alianza del Pacífico, November 2020) and Community of female entrepreneurs (Comunidad Mujeres Empresarias AP).

In **Ecuador**, the labour market participation rate among women was at 65.5% in 2015, with lower rates in Latin America being recorded in Mexico and Central America (Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo, 2019). According to the national sources, in 2016, the labour market participation rate of women was at 55% and among men at 81%. In urban areas the rates were at 53% and 78% and in rural areas at 58% and 86%. Among indigenous population, the rates were higher (75% and 87%) (Mujeres y territorios). At the same time, only half of male and one third of female workers were in the analysed period in adequate employment, i.e. worked for 40 hours or more a week and received at least the minimum wage (and in case they worked shorter hours, it was in line with their wish and they still received at least the minimum wage). The rate of adequate employment for women was at 32.4% in 2007 (32.6% in 2018) and for men it was 50.5% in 2007 and 47.2% in 2018. Unemployment rate declined for women from 6.7% in 2007 to 5.8% in 2018 and for men from 3.8% in 2007 to 3.5% in 2018 (INEC, 2018f). In 2012, women worked mainly in trade (26.5% of the total female employment), agriculture (20.9%) and manufacturing industry (10%), followed by hotels and restaurants (8.6%) and education (8.2%), however, compared with the total number of workers in the respective sectors, women had the highest share in the domestic service (94.1% of all workers in that sector), social and healthcare services (68.3%), hotels and restaurants (65.8%) and education (61.9%). On average, households led by a woman had incomes at the level of 77.9% of those led by a man, with differences being higher at lower levels of education, e.g. women having no education earning around 57% of male incomes and those having university education receiving 84% of them (INEC, UN Women, 2013). An average monthly income earned by men increased from USD 350.8 in 2007 to USD 366.2 in 2018, while for women, it increased from USD 251.5 in 2007 to USD 302.8 in 2018, i.e. from 71.7% to 82.7% of men's average income (INEC, 2018f). In the report published in 2016, the ILO Committee of Experts expressed regret that despite over 20 years of requests from its side, Ecuador had not changed Art. 79 of the Labour Code to bring it in compliance with Convention No. 100 to guarantee equal pay not for equal work, but for work of equal value (CEACR, 2016).<sup>49</sup>

**Table 5: Ecuador - Enterprises by gender and sector, and impacts of the Agreement on output**

Sector	Share in number of	Output changes based on CGE		
	Women-led	Weighted average	Min	Max
Wholesale and retail trade	69.5	0.34	0.34	0.34
Manufacturing	9.6	-0.52	-4.15	0.60
Health care, education and social services	10.0	0.10	0.10	0.10
Financial, professional, administrative and consumer services	6.4	0.27	-0.55	0.68
Mining & agriculture	8.5	0.58	-4.72	4.09
ICT	2.5	-0.04	-0.15	0.02

Sources: Number of companies: GEM (2018-2019); Output changes: authors calculations based on DG TRADE CGE modelling results.

Regarding women as entrepreneurs, in 2010, they led 50% of microenterprises (237,264 out of 474,844), 30.3% of medium-sized enterprises (5,659 out of 18,684) and 17.9% of large enterprises (733 out of 4,087) in Ecuador (INEC, UN Women, 2013). According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, in 2018-2019 women-led enterprises operated in retail and wholesale trade (69.5%), manufacturing (9.6%), health care, education and social services (10.0%), financial, professional, administrative and consumer services (6.4%), mining and agriculture (8.5%), and information and communication technologies

<sup>49</sup> This is the latest available CEACR report on Convention No. 100 for Ecuador; the next Government report is scheduled for submission in 2022.

(2.5%)<sup>50</sup> (GEM 2018-2019). According to the 2020 GEM Report, Ecuador scores relatively well regarding such elements of business environment, as social and cultural norms and acceptance of professional career through having own business, physical infrastructure (e.g., roads, telecommunication, and access to Internet), postgraduate curriculum in entrepreneurship, dynamic of internal market and legal and commercial framework. On the other hand, lack of dedicated Government support for small enterprises (only in February 2020, the Law on Entrepreneurship and Innovation entered into force), tax rates constituting entry barrier, bureaucracy (time-consuming procedures to set up a business), access to finance (new forms of financing have been envisaged in the Law on Entrepreneurship and Innovation), and technology transfer (access to new technologies at reasonable cost) require improvement (GEM, 2019-2020). In 2017-2018, 30.6% of women and 28.7% of men in Ecuador had a new enterprise operating for less than four years. 53.2% of female entrepreneurs considered having an own undertaking as an opportunity, while for 46.5% it was a necessity (among men the proportions were like 61.7% and 37.9%). 14.0% women and 16.7% men operated an enterprise for longer than four years. 62.4% of female entrepreneurs were solo entrepreneurs (51.8% among men) (GEM, 2018-2019). In the World Bank Enterprise Survey carried out among 361 Ecuadorean enterprises in 2017, 8.2% of the participating enterprises exported directly or indirectly (10.2% among men-led enterprises and 1.5% among those led by women). Regarding the main obstacle in their activity, 19.4% of women-led enterprises and 27.6% of men named political instability, for 9.5% of women and 17.3% of men it was competition from informal sector, for 11.1% of women and 10.6% of men it was access to finance, for 12.4% of women and 9.3% of men it was regulations on customs and external trade, followed by tax rates, licenses and permits for enterprises, and corruption (World Bank, 2017). The EU provided support of €10 million in 2017-2020 for new and existing exporters from Ecuador, incl. women, in international trade missions (to Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Hungary, France, and Spain), adapting product offer to the EU standards, communication and marketing strategy and developing the offer in agricultural products, the latter involving women, indigenous population, Afro-Ecuadorean and young entrepreneurs (3,000 agro-producers in total) (Holanews, October 2020). Women lead two out of the top five enterprises exporting bananas from Ecuador in 2019 and having respectively, 5.2% and 3.2% share in the market (Expresson, February 2020).

The employment rate of women continued to raise in the **EU** to reach 67.4% in 2018, however, the employment gap compared to men remains almost the same since 2013, at 11.5 percentage points. Women are increasingly well-qualified and in certain age groups outperform men in educational attainment (e.g., in 2017, 44.9% of women aged 30-34 had tertiary education compared to 34.9% among men). Yet, they tend to work fewer hours (in 2017, the total EU part-time employment rate for women of 31.1% was higher by 23 percentage points than that for men, 8.2%). Women also tend to have lower-ranking jobs than men and be more present in lower paying sectors. These factors contribute to a gender pay gap (16.2% in 2017, almost unchanged in the last few years), which combined with a usually shorter career translates into lower pensions for women (the gender gap of 35.2% in 2017) (European Commission, 2018a, 2018b, 2017c, 2020a). EU Member States have taken steps to increase the availability of childcare facilities, introduce more balance between men and women in parental leave, encourage women to return to work after childbirth, raise awareness about non-discrimination at work and increase transparency about wage levels for men and women (European Commission, 2018a, 2018b, 2017, 2017c). At the EU level, the Commission presented in 2017 a policy and legislative package

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<sup>50</sup> According to national sources, in 2010, women-led enterprises were active in retail and wholesale trade (60.8%), hotels and restaurants (13.4%), other services (7.0%), manufacturing (4.8%), information and communication (3.8%), education (3.0%) and health care and social services (2.7%) (INEC, UN Women, 2013). In 2019, out of 1.2 million women having an enterprise or being self-employed, 33.7% operated in the sector of retail and wholesale trade, 24.9% in agriculture, 11.0% in hotels and restaurants and 10.2% in manufacturing industry (El Telegrafo, April 2019, *1,2 millones de mujeres son emprendedoras*: <https://www.eltelegrafo.com.ec/noticias/economia/4/mujeres-emprendedoras-ecuador>).

“The initiative on work-life balance for working parents and carers” aiming at modernising EU legislation on family-related leave and flexible working arrangements. The Commission adopted an Action Plan to tackle the gender pay gap 2017-2019 (European Commission, 2018b), and the “EU strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019” (European Commission, 2016).

#### 1.1.6 Labour standards

##### *Elimination of child labour<sup>51</sup>*

In **Colombia**, child labour incidence among children aged 5-17 years, increased from 6.9% in 2007 to 13% in 2011 (1,465,500 working children), and since then started decreasing systematically to 4.9% in 2020 (523,000 persons). The shares increase by 4%-5% if work carried out for household is added. The rate of child labour has been twice as high among boys as among girls (6.3% in 2020 compared to 3.2%). In absolute terms, over the analysed period the number of children involved in child labour decreased from 787,000 in 2007 to 523,000 in 2020 (it was 1.4 million in 2001) (DANE, 2001-2018; 2021). In 2009-2020, the main reason for work (35%-38.8%) was the need to participate in the economic activity of the family, followed by a wish to have own money (32%-34.6%). Agriculture has been the main sector of child labour incidence with the share increasing from 37.3% in 2009 to 44.1% in 2020, followed by trade, hotels, and restaurants (30.5% in 2009 and 31.8% in 2020) and industry (13.5% in 2009 and 8.3% in 2020). However, it is to note that with a significant decrease in the total number of working children, the numbers per sector have also declined, with the number engaged in agricultural activities decreasing more slowly than elsewhere, which may explain increase in the overall share of agriculture among sectors of child labour (DANE, 2011a; 2021). In 2018, out of 645,000 working children in Colombia, 305,000 lived in urban areas and 340,000 in rural ones (Un periódico digital, Universidad Nacional de Colombia, July 2020). While in 2016, the largest population (in absolute numbers) of working children lived in Bogota (93,000), Medellin (35,000) and Cali (29,000) (Universidad del Rosario, June 2016). their highest share compared to the whole age group was identified in the northern coastal departments and in the south-west, close to the border with Ecuador. Low shares were identified essentially in departments with more diversified and better developed economy and lower levels of informal adult employment. On the other hand, while there were exceptions, regions with high child labour rates corresponded with those having high levels of informal adult employment and less diversified economy. For example, the highest levels of informality are registered in Cucuta (74.4% in 2007 and 73.1% in 2019) and at the same time the area was marked as having the third highest level of child labour in 2015 (12.5%) (DANE, 2007b; 2019a) and the highest in 2020 (3.6% in the city, without the rural areas) (DANE, 2021). Further reasons behind child labour include poverty, discrimination, and lack of accessible quality education (INEI, 2017). Labour inspection (SUNAFIL) does not have a sufficient number of inspectors to effectively combat child labour.

In 2009, 11.7% of children aged 5-17 years in Colombia did not attend school (the share was much higher among 15-17 years old, i.e., 25.9%). Among working children aged 5-17 years, 30% on average did not attend school in the analysed period. In 2017, 49% of working children worked for less than 15 hours a week while 26% worked for 30 hours and more (DANE, 2017a, and 2011a). The problem of school dropouts and non-attendance was raised by the Colombian trade unions with the ILO Committee of Experts in 2017. For the same session, the Government provided information about actions to increase school attendance of poor and vulnerable children and teenagers. They include: 1) the

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<sup>51</sup> According to the ILO, child labour is a matter of concern and subject to elimination, when it means an economic activity which interferes with child's physical or mental development, prevents it attending a school or forces to leave the school early or makes it to struggle by combining school attendance with work for long hours and hence does not allow for having enough time for rest or leisure activities adequate for their age and the stage of personal development.

implementation of flexible education models, 2) the school meals programme, 3) assistance for school transport, 4) investment of public funds in educational assistance, and 5) a monitoring system to prevent and analyse the causes of school dropouts (CEACR, 2017). The UN Committee on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights finds that child labour, the recruitment of children by illegal armed groups, and related sexual abuse are still serious problems in Colombia. The measures taken to reintegrate children and adolescents from illegal armed groups are crucial but have shortcomings in terms of access to education, health and psychosocial support (UN Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights, 2017). More targeted actions were taken by the government in 2020. For example, in cooperation with UNICEF and IOM, the government launched a programme "Súmate por me" which aims to prevent recruitment of minors by illegal military groups. Five departments were identified as priority regions within the programme: Putumayo, Chocó, Antioquia, Nariño and Norte de Santander. In November 2020, one more department was added – Guaviare. The government has pledged to invest 690 million US dollars in this department.<sup>52</sup>

In 2008, the Government adopted the National Strategy to prevent and eradicate the worst forms of child labour 2008-2015, in 2017, it concluded work on Public Policy for the prevention and eradication of child labour and protection of young workers 2017-2027 and in 2018, it launched an awareness raising campaign "Working is not the task of children" (Ministerio de Trabajo, December 2018). The National Strategy also provided framework for establishment of the national and local committees for prevention and eradication of child labour (32 at the level of departments and 694 at the municipal level). In 2021, the Colombian Ministries of Labour and Education, the Colombian Network against Child Labour, the Institute of Family Welfare, and representatives of local authorities signed a National Pact for Prevention and Eradication of Child Labour and Protection of Young Workers, in which they emphasised the role of education in the fight against child labour and the need to support return to school after the break caused by the pandemic. They recognised the importance of labour inspection and of the identification of local needs and risk factors which may increase the probability of child labour (Gobierno de Colombia, 2021). The National Development Plan 2014-2018 included actions to prevent and eradicate child labour, including by changing social attitudes and acceptance of child labour in the society, cooperation with employers and trade unions, updating a list of work activities prohibited for persons under 18 years of age (the list was adopted in 2018 and was promoted through 75 workshops across the country, in which 1320 persons participated), creating a list of activities permitted for working teenagers and developing a normative framework for teenagers authorised to work, including consideration of skills development and health and safety at work (DNP, 2014). The National Development Plan 2018-2022 foresees carrying out, in cooperation with the Institute of Statistics (DANE) and an in-depth survey on child labour in 2021. The Plan also admits that despite previous efforts, the rate of child labour in Colombia, while decreasing, was in 2017 higher than the Latin America average. Also, according to data provided in the Plan, child labour incidence in Colombia was clearly related to poverty, e.g., in 2010, the rate of child labour among poor was at 16.4%, while among not poor at 2.3%; in 2017, the rates were at 15.4% and 1.5% (DNP, 2019). In this context, Colombian trade unions in a position submitted to the ILO Committee of Experts in 2017 emphasised that policy on preventing and eradicating child labour should include financial support for families to reduce a need for children to work (CEACR, 2017). In the context of decent working conditions, SDG 8.7 regarding eradication of the worst forms of child labour also provides framework for Government actions. Regarding practice, ICBF (the Colombian Institute of Family Welfare and Well-being) undertakes awareness raising actions about child labour, promotes skills development among teenagers being authorised to work and removes children from child labour<sup>53</sup>. According to the ILO Committee of Experts report, ICBF is also responsible for

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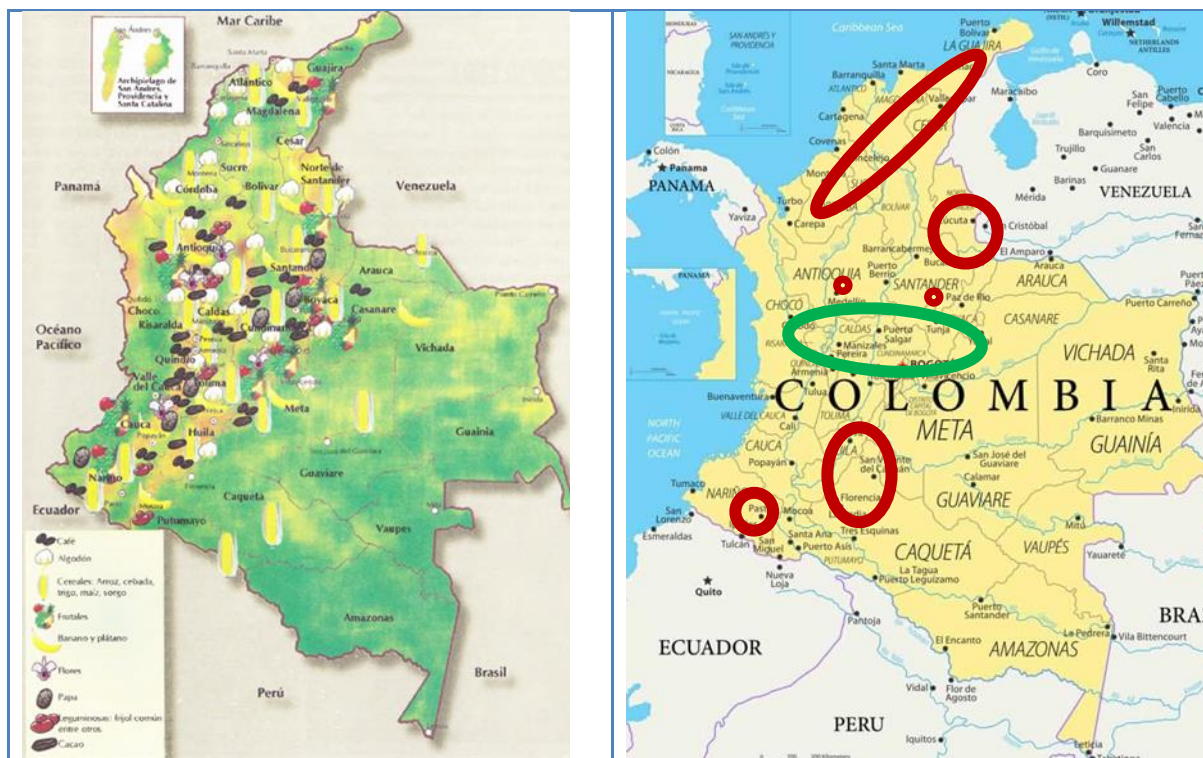
<sup>52</sup> Based on the press releases of the Consejería Presidencial para los derechos humanos y asuntos internacionales: <http://www.derechoshumanos.gov.co/Prensa/2020/Paginas/2020.aspx>

<sup>53</sup> Instituto Colombiano de Bienestar Familiar (ICBF): <https://www.icbf.gov.co/>



providing assistance to children demobilised from armed forces further to the Final Peace Agreement (CEACR, 2017).

**Figure 9: Agricultural activity and regions with child labour incidence in Colombia**



**Key:** Red shape – higher level of child labour    Green shape – lower level of child labour

Source: Atlas geográfico: <https://atlasgeografico.net/produccion-agrícola-en-colombia.html> (left panel); Proyecto Mapamundi: <https://proyectomapamundi.com/américa-del-sur/colombia/> (right panel)

In 2018, training was also provided for labour inspectors raising awareness of child labour, with the participation of 209 inspectors, and there was an opportunity to discuss proposals for improvements of including aspects related to child labour in operation of labour inspection services. A survey was responded by 102 inspectors (information shared by the Ministry of Labour). There are also initiatives including private sector and civil society, e.g., the Colombian Network against Child Labour led by the Ministry of Labour and Global Pact encouraging enterprises to join Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) practices and eradicate child labour in their operations and supply chains. The Integrated Information System for identification, registration and characteristics of child labour and its worst forms (SIRITI) provides a data base for analysis of child labour cases to better understand dynamics and characteristics of this phenomenon and elaborate proposals how to address it. In 2015, 512 representatives of local authorities received training in the use of the system and, as a result, 34,548 children were registered in it in 2015, including 7,111 cases of the worst forms of child labour, 2,455 cases of child labour and 22,412 children at risk. In 2017, the ILO used SIRITI as an example of an information system related to child labour and promoted development of similar tools in Latin America. The event organised by the ILO was attended by representatives from Chile, Ecuador, Panama, and Peru (information provided by the Ministry of Labour).

Moreover, jointly with the ILO, the Government, social partners and other civil society representatives participate in seminars, exchange of good practice and other initiatives to raise awareness and develop measures to address child labour in mining (e.g. through decent work and skills development for adult family members), agriculture (e.g. through certification of enterprises not using child labour, skills development for teenagers and support for trade unions' presence in the sector and respect for workers' rights, as the lack thereof and "the race to the bottom" lead to recourse to child labour as a source of cheap

labour), and supply chains (through certification and a change in the production and operation model) (ILO, 2017c). In 2021, the Colombian Government signed the National Commitment to prevent and eradicate child labour and protect young workers. The initiative to be followed in cooperation with the ILO is supposed to help Colombia achieve SDG 8.7 (ILO, 2021).

In **Peru**, most working children and teenagers come from families where the head of the household works in agriculture, has not more than primary education, and the family has five members or more. Working children less frequently attend school than those who do not work (93% compared to 96.5%). Keeping in mind that different sources of data provide different figures, estimates for 2007 state that 3.3 million children aged 5 to 17 years were economically active in the country (ILO, IPEC, INEI, 2009), by 2015 their number decreased to 2 million (i.e., 26.1% of this age group and 47.6% among indigenous peoples),<sup>54</sup> however, it was at the time the highest rate of child labour in Latin America (INEI, 2016; Peru21, 2018). According to a specialised survey, the latest carried out in 2015 as part of the National Strategy for Prevention and Eradication of Child Labour 2012-2021, the rate of child labour was of 52.3% in rural areas and 16.2% in urban areas, with higher rates for children of indigenous peoples (73.4% in rural areas) (INEI, 2017). According to data shared by the Government of Peru based on Household Surveys, the rate of child labour for children of 5-17 years of age decreased from 31.7% in 2012 to 25.3% in 2020 (12.8% in urban areas and 62.6% in rural areas). Boys (26.8%) worked more often than girls (23.7%). Regionally, the highest rate of child labour was registered in the mountains, 46.9%, with 32.6% in selva and only 9.4% in the coastal area (Figure 10). Moreover, the incidence of child labour was higher in poor families (32.9%) than in non-poor ones (21.7%). The primary sector (agriculture, fisheries, and mining) accounted for the largest share of working children at 70.9%, followed by trade (15.4%), other services (8.7%) and manufacturing (3%).<sup>55</sup>

In 2015, 77.3% of those who worked carried out hazardous work (1,274,100 children). Out of these, 71,800 were in forced labour. Regarding hazardous work, the rate was again higher in rural areas than in urban ones (34.2% compared to 10.2% of the population).<sup>56</sup> 87% of children working in rural areas were involved in agriculture while the main activities in urban areas included trade in a shop (21.6%), selling goods in a street (18.2%), diverse services, including domestic service (20.9%), cleaning services (4.8%), helping in a bar or restaurant (4.1%) and construction (2.3%). Among the indigenous population, while some children were involved in economic activities in their family or community, most worked for others, in plantations, mines, and domestic service, the reasons behind being poverty, discrimination and lack of accessible quality education (INEI, 2017). According to data shared by the Ministry of Labour, the rate of children of 5-17 years engaged in hazardous work decreased from 6.3% in 2012 to 4.2% in 2020. In 2020, more boys than girls were involved in this type of work (4.8% and 3.5% respectively). The rate was also higher in rural areas (10.3%) than in urban ones (2.2%), and in poor families (4.5%) than in the rest of the population (4.0%). The primary sector, i.e., agriculture, fisheries and mining

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<sup>54</sup> From 2012 to 2016, the child labour rate fell from 31.7% to 26.7%, i.e., by around 370,000 (INEI, 2017).

<sup>55</sup> The Government of Peru (Ministry of Labour) provided two data sets. While the above has been defined as data for working children (or the employment rate for children of 5-17 years of age), there are other rates defined as child labour, however, without a definition of the difference between the two. According to the other data set, the rate of child labour for children of 5-17 years of age has decreased from 14.8% in 2012 to 12.0% in 2020, with the rate for boys (13.1%) being higher than for girls (10.8%). The rate for rural areas (32.1%) was around six times higher than for urban ones (5.2%). Moreover, across the three big regions, the child labour rate for the mountain regions was at 23.0%, in the selva regions it was at 16.3% and in the coastal regions at 3.7%. Moreover, the child labour rate was higher in poor families (14.9%) compared to the rest (10.6%). Finally, the primary sector, i.e., agriculture, fisheries and mining accounted for the largest share of child labour, i.e., 73.5%, followed by trade (14.5%), other services (7.6%) and manufacturing (2.1%).

<sup>56</sup> The types of hazardous work involving children included lifting and carrying heavy objects, operating tools or machines, working in closed or narrow spaces or spaces without ventilation, work in continuous noise, work in contact with chemical or toxic substances, and work under water or at height.





to an analysis carried out by the ILO, CEPAL and the Regional Initiative Latin America and the Caribbean free from child labour, the rate of child labour in Peru may increase again, by one to three percentage points as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. The reasons include increase in the unemployment rate in the formal sector, the loss of temporary and informal jobs, and social security coverage for adults, income reduction from wages and business revenues, increase in family poverty rate, and school closure (even if temporary). The Government in Peru and others in the region have been encouraged to provide income support to those in need, incl. families with children in general and notably with children in child labour (ILO, CEPAL, Iniciativa Regional, América Latina y el Caribe Libre de Trabajo Infantil, 2020).

The legal framework in Peru relevant for child labour and authorising teenagers to work includes the Constitution, the Civil Code, the Children and Young Persons Code, the General Law on Labour Inspection, and a Decree about impacts of hazardous work and night work on health of teenagers. The minimum age for admission to work has been established at 14 years, however, for certain sectors or types of work, it has been increased to 15-18 years of age. Moreover, in 2019 an amendment to the Penal Code was adopted, strengthening the protection of children against sexual exploitation, and envisaging jail sentences from ten years to life-long for perpetrators. Further legislative acts adopted in 2018 and 2019 relate to protection and reintegration of victims of trafficking, incl. children (in 2016-2019, there were 1,768 cases of trafficking in persons involving children and adolescents) and fight against sexual exploitation in the tourism sector. In addition, labour inspection has been provided with a new action protocol, giving priority to strengthening capacity to combat the worst forms of child labour (CEACR, 2021). Policy framework is provided by the National Employment Policy, the National Action Plan for Childhood and Adolescence 2012-2021, the 2012-2021<sup>59</sup> National Strategy for Prevention and Eradication of Child Labour and Interinstitutional Protocol against Forced Labour (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, ILO, 2016). Moreover, labour inspection (SUNAFIL) includes a specialised group of inspectors to address child labour and forced labour at workplaces. Its work is coordinated with an Interinstitutional Group including representatives of the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Groups, the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the National Police, among others. It carries out inspections to address questions related to child labour, including prevention of risks and elimination of those forms of child labour which are not permitted by the law and authorised by the relevant institutions. In 2020, it carried out 427 inspections covering all types of work of children and adolescents, including authorised work and worst forms of child labour. The highest number of inspections related to the wholesale and retail trade sector, followed by hotels and restaurants, manufacturing, other services, real estate, and transport.

In its 2019 report, the ILO Committee of Experts noted results of municipal projects implemented within the National Strategy for Prevention and Eradication of Child Labour and outcomes of labour inspections in 2019 in cases related to child labour (460 inspection notices regarding minimum age and 43 infringement cases). The Government also provided information about assistance offered to street children (e.g., issuance of identity documents and access to health care), indigenous peoples (in catching up with the school programme) and children victims to trafficking in persons. On the other hand, the Committee reiterated request for information about prevention and elimination of child labour in mines and domestic service. Peru should also amend the Children and Young

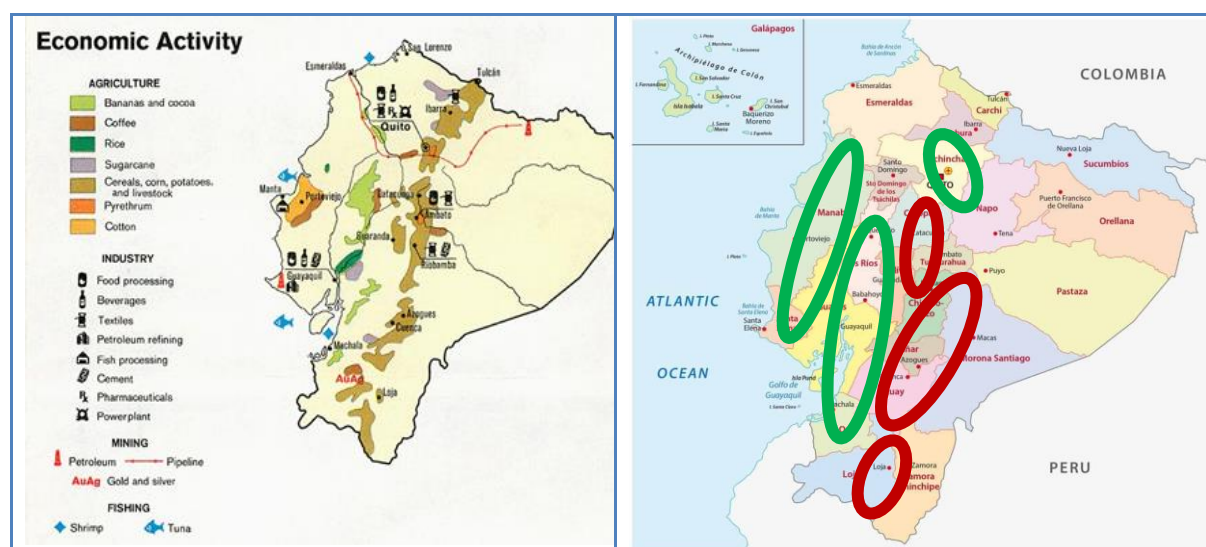
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<sup>59</sup> The Strategy has five priority areas for action, i.e. 1) poverty reduction and increase in family income, 2) provision of education (with the aim to reduce the rate of dropouts and increase the rate of completed education at each stage) and opportunities for spending creatively leisure time, 3) reduction in social acceptance for child labour, 4) improved working conditions for teenagers authorised to work, 5) protection against, and detection and sanction of the use of hazardous child labour and abuse of children and teenagers, and awareness raising as a horizontal consideration (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, ILO, 2016).

Persons Code to ensure that no child under 14 years of age may work and that night work is permitted only to persons of 16 years and more (CEACR, 2019).

In **Ecuador**, the child labour rate among children aged 5 to 17 years decreased from 17% in 2006 to 4.9% in 2013 (INEC, UNICEF, 2015), but due to the economic slowdown, started increasing since then to reach 8.4% in 2017 (375,342 persons) (El Comercio, June 2019; Plan V, June 2020). Moreover, it is estimated that due to COVID-19 and the increasing unemployment among adults and family poverty, child labour may further increase. In addition, children from poor families and vulnerable groups may suffer in different ways, including from lack of clean water to wash hands to prevent spreading the virus (according to UNICEF, half of children in Ecuador do not have access to clean water at home, and the figure increases to 80% among the indigenous population. Moreover, 20% of schools do not offer a possibility for pupils to wash the hands and the situation is worse in rural areas). Only 54% of households have access to adequate food and the school closure means the lack of school meals for poor children. Finally, access to Internet is not widespread and the UNICEF called for providing classes through radio or television to enable children from different backgrounds to follow the school programme (otherwise, there is a risk that children from poor families will not be able to catch up and not having an opportunity to learn, will be more likely to end up in child labour to support family's budget) (UNICEF, June 2020).

**Figure 11: Economic activity and regions with child labour incidence in Ecuador**



**Red shape** – high level of child labour; **Green shape** – low level of child labour

Source: Proyecto Mapamundi: <https://proyectomapamundi.com/america-del-sur/ecuador/> (right), Mapa Owje: [https://mapas.owje.com/1938\\_mapa-de-actividad-economica-de-ecuador.html](https://mapas.owje.com/1938_mapa-de-actividad-economica-de-ecuador.html) (left)

More detailed data regarding child labour in Ecuador is based on a focused national survey carried out in 2012 (INEC, 2012a). According to its findings, 8.6% of children and teenagers aged 5 to 17 years were engaged in an economic activity (15.5% in rural areas and 4.3% in urban areas), whereas the rate for indigenous peoples was much higher (29%, in it, 26% among children aged 5-14 years and 39% for teenagers aged 15-17 years). Around 25% of those who worked did not attend school. Agriculture was the main activity for 66% of working children aged 5-14 years and 50% of teenagers aged 15-17 years, followed by trade (15%-16%), manufacturing (7.4%-10%), construction (8.6% among teenagers) and hotels and restaurants (3.4%-3.9%), while domestic service work was carried out by 0.9%-2.3% (Plan V, June 2020). 56% of working children were engaged in hazardous work prohibited for people under 18 years of age. The main reason for engaging in an economic activity (for 60.4%) was to provide support for the household. In the overview across departments, the highest child labour rates were recorded in the central axis of the country in departments of Cotopaxi (21.9%), Bolívar (20%), Chimborazo (19.3%), Cañar (14.1%), Loja (13.8%) and Azuay (12.7%) and the lowest one in coastal

areas of Manabí and Los Ríos (2.2%), El Oro (3.3%), Santa Elena (3.4%), Guayas (3.5%) and the region around the capital Quito (Pichincha, 3.6%) (INEC, UNICEF, 2015). Departments with a high child labour incidence overlap partly with those having also high poverty rates (e.g., Cotopaxi, Bolívar, and Chimborazo), while the coastal departments and Pichincha were in 2014 among those recording the lowest poverty rates (INEC, 2015). Depending on the age and area of residence, between 30% and 91% of working children and teenagers (to 94% among girls) declared not having incomes, i.e., working as non-remunerated family members. Those who earned money, often received less than the minimum wage. Regarding working time, children aged 5-14 years worked on average around 15 hours a week and teenagers (15-17 years) around 30 hours a week. 23% declared having health problems related to work. The above mentioned 2006-2013 period of child labour reduction was related to economic growth, job creation for adults, poverty reduction, improved access to education and increasing school attendance (INEC, UNICEF, 2015). According to information shared by the Ministry of Labour with the study team, in 2017-2020, there were 13,316 labour inspections aiming to identify children and adolescents in a situation of child labour, 1,766 cases of technical assistance for local authorities supporting development of their own regulations and actions to eradicate child labour, 80,398 persons were involved in training and awareness raising activities related to child labour and 990 children and adolescents were removed from child labour and provided with support to recover their rights.<sup>60</sup>

The legal framework relevant for child labour includes the Constitution, the Childhood and Adolescence Code, the Labour Code, and Organic Penal Code. The work is prohibited for persons under 15 years of age and types of work considered as hazardous are prohibited for persons under 18 years of age. Policy framework for prevention and eradication of child labour has been provided by the National Development Plan 2007-2010, the Social Agenda for Childhood and Adolescence 2007-2010, the National Plan for Prevention and Eradication of Child Labour 2008-2013, Project to Eradicate Child Labour 2013-2017, the National Plan of Decent Life 2009-2013 and 2013-2017, National Strategy for Prevention and Eradication of Child Labour 2012-2021, the National Action Plan for Childhood and Adolescence 2012-2021, the National Agenda for Intergenerational Equality 2013-2017 and 2017-2021 and the National Plan for Lifelong Development 2017-2021 (Consejo Nacional para la Igualdad Intergeneracional, Ecuador, 2018). Moreover, according to the Ministry of Labour, in 2021 the Government adopted a Decree to promote and facilitate formal employment of parents of children being at risk of child labour. The new Government has also undertaken a number of steps to engage with international partners as well as employer and worker organisations to address challenges related to child labour. This also includes cooperation with the EU, which under the Socieux+ programme provides support for developing institutional capacity to address child labour, including for labour inspection services and representatives of the private sector. Under another programme financed by the EU (Eurososial+), instruments of public policy to prevent, address and eliminate child labour have been developed.

In its 2019 report, the ILO Committee of Experts noted with satisfaction that the minimum age of admission to work had been raised in Ecuador from 14 to 15 years of age, and that the list of hazardous work prohibited for children under 18 years of age had been revised. The Committee also noted Government initiatives targeting children (7,892) engaged in child labour, 71 agreements concluded in 2017 with local government, civil society organisations and religious bodies to eradicate child labour, and awareness raising

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<sup>60</sup> Updated data for the period 2018-2021 for the same categories included 17,704 labour inspections aiming to identify children and adolescents in a situation of child labour. They were carried out mainly in diverse sectors of agriculture, including banana, rice, tropical fruits, palma, and flowers, as well as fisheries, mining, construction and trade. Moreover, there were 1,655 cases of technical assistance for local authorities supporting development of their own regulations and actions to eradicate child labour, 78,212 persons were involved in training and awareness raising activities related to child labour and 1,162 children and adolescents were removed from child labour and provided with support to recover their rights.

campaign. The Committee encouraged the Government to strengthen efforts to combat child labour in the context of the National Development Plan 2017-2020, including increasing the school attendance rate of children under the age of 15 and reducing the drop-out rate (CEACR, 2019).

In the **EU**, Child safeguarding standards have been developed for the use of organisations that implement assistance projects, with the aim of preventing children from countries and communities where the projects are implemented, from any related harm by the staff or by the way how the project is managed (Keeping Children Safe). Moreover, in 2013, the Staff Working Document on trade and the worst forms of child labour was published analysing the root causes of child labour and ways of addressing it in the context of trade relations (European Commission, 2013). In 2017, EU Council adopted Guidelines for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of the Child in the EU external action, in cooperation with partner countries and other actors (EU Guidelines for the Promotion...).

### ***Non-discrimination at work, vulnerable groups of workers***

Given that the situation of women as workers will be discussed separately under Task 10.8, here we will focus our analysis on other groups of workers who may face challenges on the labour market, e.g., disabled persons, migrant workers, youth, and indigenous peoples.

In **Colombia**, in 2018<sup>61</sup>, statistics recorded 639,000 new migrant workers from Venezuela while 300,000 of them (i.e., 1.3% of the labour force in Colombia) entered the Colombian labour market late in the year including 170,000 self-employed and 130,000 employees (out of whom 250,000 had informal jobs) putting pressure on the labour market and raising unemployment rate to the highest level since 2012. Overall, at the end of 2018, 1,240,000 persons living in Colombia (2.6% of the population) declared having lived in Venezuela 5 years earlier (85% of them, i.e., 1,054,000 persons<sup>62</sup> were Venezuelan citizens while 15% were Colombians who had returned to the home country). The unemployment level among migrants fell slightly from 20.9% in 2017 to 18% in 2018 (El Tiempo, February 2019) (according to estimates, some 200,000 to 600,000 workers from Venezuela were looking for a job in Colombia in 2018). Given the lack of appropriate migration documents, many workers from Venezuela decided to look for informal jobs, incl. in bars and restaurants, while many Colombian employers looking for low skilled workers used the situation and hired migrants to cut costs (paying less than the minimum wage for 12-hour work a day). It is estimated that in this way, 100,000 to 300,000 persons without documents or with a Special Residence Permit were hired. This contributed to an increase in informality in Colombia and unemployment among low-skilled workers, as well as increased competition for Colombian enterprises, especially in sectors of personal services (beauty salons), security services and courier services. In 2018, 700 Colombian enterprises were fined for the abuse of the vulnerability of migrant workers without documents (i.e., not having permit to live and work in the country).

The Colombian Government reacted by allowing more migrants from Venezuela (442,462) to obtain the Special Residence Permit created in 2017 which allows them to remain in Colombia for up to two years and provides for access to basic health care, formal education and jobs (El libre pensador, March 2019). The Government requested also support from the international community. In 2019, the ILO allocated USD 2 million for an assistance programme supporting socio-economic integration of the Venezuelan migrant workers and refugees in Ecuador, Peru, and Colombia. The programme includes collection of data related to professional skills of Venezuelan migrants to facilitate their inclusion into the labour market, encouragement for setting up enterprises, analysis of supply chains to

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<sup>61</sup> At the end of 2015, the number of Venezuelan migrants and refugees in Colombia was estimated at 39,000 (Plan Regional, 2019).

<sup>62</sup> The number of Venezuelan migrants and refugees in Colombia a year later (at the end of 2019) was estimated at 2,274,660 persons (Plan Regional, 2019).

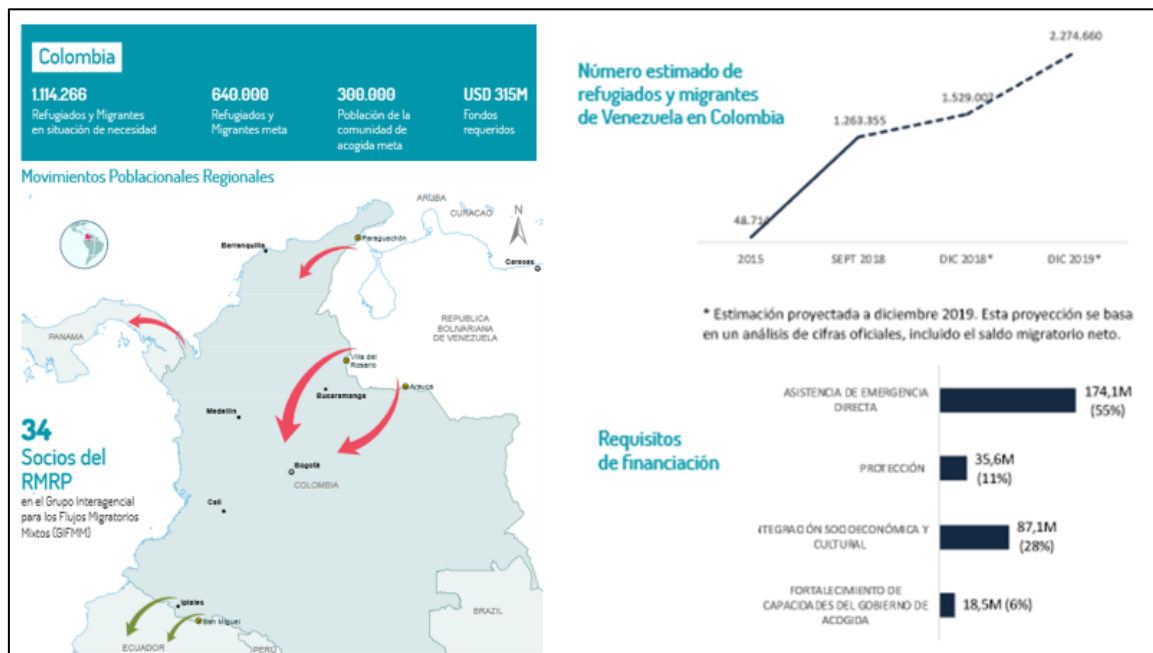
estimate a possibility of job creation, and an awareness raising campaign to support inclusion of Venezuelan migrants while avoiding discrimination of local population in this context and negative sentiments against migrants. The programme has been delivered as part of the Regional Response to the situation of migrant workers and refugees from Venezuela (ILO, 2019e; Plan Regional, 2019). According to research, 71% of Venezuelan migrants are at the working age (56.3% are at 18-39 years of age) and 84.7% of them have completed at least the secondary education, which means that on average they are younger and better educated than the Colombian peers. The migrants are concentrated in Colombian regions close to the border (31% of them remain in eight municipalities), however, some moved to other regions across the country and in the metropolitan cities, such as Bogota or Medellin represent less than 1% of the population which may enable their inclusion into the local labour market (Bahar, Dooley, Huang, 2018).

Colombia has ratified the Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities and therefore should recognise the right to work of those persons and having an income generating work, freely chosen, and carried out in an open, inclusive, and accessible environment. Persons with disabilities in Colombia have on average a lower level of educational attainment than the overall population, i.e., in 2018, 31% did not have any completed education, 42% had primary education, 20% had secondary education, 2% had a technical education and 2% completed a university (ANDI, 2019). In 2018, there were 3,134,036 persons in Colombia reporting difficulties in exercising daily activities while 1,784,372 of them (57%) needed assistance of other persons or had a severe disability limiting their independence<sup>63</sup>. Out of this group, 24.6% were not able to work at all, 23.8% carried out household-related work, and 20.8% delivered an income generating activity. In a comparison across gender, 39.6% of women remained in the household carrying out related activities (5.2% of men), 13.4% of women and 29.5% of men had an income generating activity, 21% of women and 28.5% of men were not able to work, while 1.5% of women and 2.8% of men did not work, but had a company providing income. 65.4% did not have access to Internet which means limited possibilities to work from home, as well as access to education and diverse services (shopping, health care, psychological support) available online in the COVID-19 pandemic (DANE, 2020e).

Disabled persons face challenges in finding a job given that employment centres and other traditional channels are usually not adjusted to their needs. Moreover, the family attitudes (over protection) and the lack of broader support from the society also contribute to this. The Ministry of Labour has launched some initiatives to change the situation, e.g., obliging public institutions to reserve a certain percentage of workplaces for disabled persons. There are also reductions in public contributions (similar to taxes) for enterprises which employ persons with disabilities. Non-governmental institutions also support this process providing advice to enterprises to prepare them for employment of disabled persons (Fedesarrollo, May 2018). In 2015, out of 179,584 persons with disabilities registered as working, 38,921 (21.7%) worked in the services sector, 37,031 (20.6%) in agriculture, 34,620 (19.3%) in other activities, 28,098 (15.6%) in trade, and 9,374 (5.2%) in industry, while 31,540 (17.6%) have not defined the sector. Regarding type of their occupation, 60,794 worked as self-employed, 32,935 as an employee, 25,030 as workers hired by day, 11,330 as domestic service, 8,010 as employee of the public service (Government), 6,281 as non-paid family member, 4,011 as an employer (entrepreneur) while 31,179 have not defined their position. Regarding formal aspects of work relations, 122,513 persons (i.e., 68%) did not have a contract (i.e., worked informally), 15,243 had a permanent one, 10,069 had a fixed-term contract and 31,813 did not provide details on it (Ministerio de Salud y Protección Social, 2015). At the same time, according to the National Development Plan 2018-2022, around 70% of persons with disabilities are classified as vulnerable and live in poverty (DNP, 2019).

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<sup>63</sup> In 2005, there were 2.6 million persons with disabilities in Colombia (Fedesarrollo, May 2018).

**Figure 12: Migrants and refugees from Venezuela in Colombia**

The estimated number of Venezuelan migrants and refugees in Colombia, financial needs related to support and the map of migration flows.

Source of pictures and data: Plan Regional de Respuesta para refugiados y migrantes, para las personas refugiadas y migrantes de Venezuela (2019): <https://r4v.info/es/documents/download/68669> (chapter: Plan de respuesta para refugiados y migrantes en Colombia)

Indigenous peoples in Colombia have limited access to quality education and formal jobs, which in turns limits their opportunities for social mobility and getting out of poverty. In 2016, 52.1% of indigenous population declared having completed primary education, while 38.4% secondary and 5.5% the university. For the rest of the Colombian society, between 15.5% and 18.1% had only primary education, between 47.7% and 57.9% secondary and between 23.1% and 32% tertiary. Indigenous peoples use less frequently employment services when looking for a job (in 2018, 19823 persons from ethnic groups were registered as looking for a job, which means 1.8% of all registered in 2018) (DANE, 2019d). They also end up more frequently in informal employment (with the informality rate of 77.9% in ethnic groups in 2016 compared to 66.4% for the rest of the population). Moreover, 77.4% worked as self-employed and 76.8% declared that the received income is insufficient to cover the needs. Among the white Colombian population, 47% declared income as insufficient and among the Afro-Colombian group, 66.7% (ANDI, 2019).

Regarding situation of young people on the labour market in Colombia, the unemployment rate increased from 18.4% in 2007 to 20% in 2009 to fall to 15.5% in 2016 and increase again to 18.1% in 2019 and 25.9% in 2020. The labour market participation rate increased from 52.1% in 2007 to 58.2% in 2014 before starting to fall to 55.8% in 2019 and 52.4% in 2020. The employment rate behaved similarly, i.e., increased from 42.5% in 2007 to 49.1% in 2014 and fell to 45.7% in 2019 and 38.9% in 2020 (DANE, 2020b; DANE, 2015). This means that the labour market participation rate of young people over the analysed period was 5-7 percentage points lower than the rate for the whole working age population, while the unemployment rate was 8-9 percentage points higher than the overall one. In 2020, 21.5% of working young people were employed in wholesale and retail trade, 18.5% in agriculture, 10.9% in manufacturing industry, 8.5% in public administration, 8% in other services, 7.1% in construction, 6.6% in hospitality sector, 6.4% in transport and storage and 5.8% in scientific, professional, technical, and other activities (DANE, 2020b). It means the same employment shares across sectors as for the whole working population, with the only exception of public administration, where the share for young people is slightly lower (around two percentage points). For previous years, the break-down by sector in statistics was different and therefore there is no direct comparison across all sectors. However, in



2008, the share of young people working in the combined trade, hotels, and restaurants sector was of 27.4% (i.e. very close to 28.1% of 2020), 18.2% in agriculture (almost the same as in 2020), 15.3% in industry (i.e. 4.4 percentage point higher than in 2020), 9.2% in transport and communication, 16.7% in communal, personal and social services, 5.2% in real estate and 4.8% in construction (2.3 percentage points less than in 2020) (DANE, 2008). Regarding impacts of COVID-19, around one third of young people have not reported any difficulties, while also one third declared a reduced economic activity and incomes. Up to 20% felt alone, stressed, and worried, while also up to 20% were not able to pay bills or debts. Among unemployed young people in Colombia, around one third have lost the job or the source of income due to the pandemic and also around one third could not get or look for a job or start own business in 2020. Up to one fourth were not able to pay bills or debts and a similar group felt alone, stressed, or worried (DANE, 2020b).

In **Peru**, the General Law on Persons with Disabilities establishes that each public sector entity should foresee not less than 5% of jobs for persons with disabilities and in the private sector, enterprises with at least 50 employees, should reserve 3% of their jobs. Ministry of Labour has also issued advice for employment centres to support employers and people with disabilities looking for a job. In 2017, there were 3,051,612 persons with disabilities (10.4% of the population), out of which 2,716,366 were of the working age (9.2% of that group). The proportion of formal enterprises with at least 10 employees employing persons with disabilities increased from 5.1% in 2014 to 6.5% in 2018 in 30 cities in Peru. While the share of medium-sized enterprises decreased from 3.5% to 2.6%, the share of large ones almost doubled, from 14.1% to 27.6%. In the construction sector in Lima, the share of enterprises employing persons with disabilities increased from 4.2% to 4.8%. Across regions, in three cities (Paita, Ica and Tumbes), the share of enterprises employing persons with disabilities doubled between 2014 and 2018, achieving respectively 20.7%, 17.1% and 15.7%. On the other extreme of the scale, in Sullana, the share decreased from 2.5% to 0.9%. The share of persons with disabilities in the total number of employees in formal enterprises increased from 0.16% in 2014 to 0.28% in 2018. Around two thirds of disabled persons in the study (with an increasing share) worked intellectually while one third carried out physical work. Moreover, persons with disabilities were increasingly employed by big enterprises, from 60.1% of the total in 2014 to 82.9% in 2018. Regarding sectors, industry had the highest share of the analysed persons with disabilities (39.3% in 2014 and 30.8% in 2018), followed by trade (10.6% in 2014 and 30.1% in 2018), services, including hotels and restaurants, personal, communal and social services, education, business services, financial services and water, electricity and gas supply (35.4% in 2014 and 24.5% in 2018) transport, storage and communications (7.7% in 2014 and 7.5% in 2018), agriculture and extractive industries (6.9% in 2014 and 7.0% in 2018) (Ministerio De Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019). Given that 77% of people with disabilities remain outside labour market in Peru, the Government launched in 2018 a programme with local authorities and the UN to promote access to labour market for this group, in particular for women (UNFPA, 2018).

Regarding young persons (from 14 to 24 or 29 years of age), their number increased from 8.3 million in 2007 to 8.7 million in 2018, representing however a decreasing share (from 41.3% in 2007 to 36.2% in 2018) of the total population of working age. Regarding their share in economically active population, young persons moved from 36.4% in 2007 to 29.5% in 2018, with absolute number also decreasing (from 5.4 million to 5.1 million). In the analysed period, the level of completed education improved, with the share of persons having only the primary education decreasing from 18.1% to 8.5%, and the share of those with a university degree increasing from 26.1% to 40.3%. The labour market participation decreased from 65% to 59%, however, this may be related with a longer time dedicated to education and a delayed moment of entry onto labour market. The number of inactive young persons increased from 2.9 million in 2007 to 3.6 million in 2018, while the number of those in employment fell from 4.9 million to 4.7 million. Out of those who worked in 2007 or 2018, over two third were employed in micro and small enterprises of up to 10 employees. Regarding sectors, in 2018, 32.5% of young persons worked in other services (including water, electricity and gas supply, health care and social services, communal and



personal services, domestic service and financial intermediation), 22.5% in agriculture and mining, 19.9% in trade, 9.7% in manufacturing industry, 9.4% in communications and transport and 6.0% in construction. In 2018, 33.3% of those between 14 and 24 years of age had an adequate employment (i.e., at least a minimum wage and a sufficient number of working hours a week), while this share for workers older than 24 years, was of 51.4% to 60.6%. At the same time, 56% of young persons was in sub-employment (with a part-time job or less than a minimum wage), while this share for older workers was of 36.4% to 47%. The unemployment rate of young persons was of 10.7% while for older workers 1.7% to 3.0%. The share of young persons in informal employment decreased from 88.4% in 2007 to 78.8% in 2018 (INEI, 2019).

**Table 6: Sectorial shares (in %) in total employment of disabled persons, youth, migrant workers, and indigenous peoples in Peru**

Sector	Disabled persons		Youth	Indigenous peoples <sup>64</sup>	Migrant workers <sup>65</sup>	
	2014	2018	2018	2007	Self-employed	Hired workers
Trade	10.6	30.1	19.9	12.6	82.0	33.0
Agriculture, mining, fisheries	6.9	7.0	22.5	50.8	---	----
Industry	39.3	30.8	9.7	6.3	----	----
Transport, storage, comms	7.7	7.5	9.4	4.3	6.0	3.0
Construction	----	----	6.0	5.5		6.0
Water, gas, electricity supply				----		----
Hotels, restaurants				3.8		11.0
Social, communal, and personal services <sup>66</sup>				1.7	6.0 – diverse services	10.0
Business services	35.4	24.5	32.5	----		33.0 – diverse services, including security, client & cleaning services
Education / Health				2.9		
Financial services				----		

Source: Ministerio De Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019; INEI, 2019; ILO, 2015e; IOM, 2019

Regarding indigenous peoples, 43.5% of those who worked were in adequate employment in 2018 (45.1% among Afro-Peruvian population), while 53.5% were in sub-employment and 3.0% were unemployed (50.8% and 4.1% among Afro-Peruvian group respectively) (INEI, 2019). In 2007, 49% of indigenous population worked in agriculture, 12.6% in retail trade, 6.3% in manufacturing industry, 5.5% in construction, 4.3% in transport, storage and communications, 3.8% in hotels and restaurants, 3.2% in domestic service, 2.9% in education, 1.8% in mining, 1.8% in public administration, 1.7% in communal and social services and 1.6% in real estate (ILO, 2015e).

Regarding migrant workers in Peru, persons at the working age born in other countries represented 0.2% of the population in 2007 (39,220 out of 20,187,260), while until 2016, this increased slightly to 0.3% (65,057 out of 23,401,625). In 2016, the largest group of migrants was from Colombia (13.4%), followed by Spain (10.4%), the US (8.9%), and countries from Latin America. Regarding profession, the most represented were scientists, professionals and intellectuals (46.1%), followed by office employees (12.3%) and persons with technical education (7.6%) (ILO, Migración laboral, Perú). Further to crisis in Venezuela, the number of persons from this country residing in Peru increased from 2,351 in 2015 to the estimated 1,368,703 in 2019. They could apply for asylum and in addition, those that arrived in Peru until 31 October 2018 could receive a temporary residence permit providing the right to work. Many migrants face difficulties with receiving formal jobs and recognition of their professional qualifications, and academic grades given the high levels of informality in Peru and complex regulations. This forces them to take informal jobs related to low levels of protection and exposure to abuse (Plan Regional, 2019). The

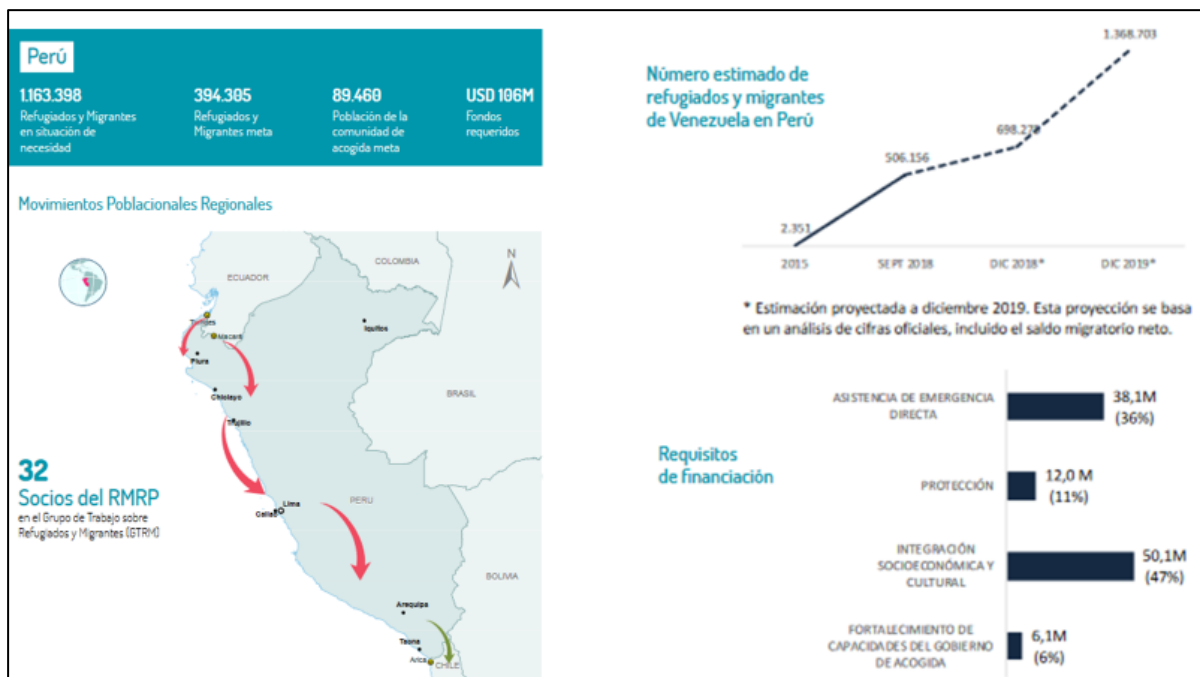
<sup>64</sup> In addition, 3.2% worked in domestic service, 1.8% in public administration, and 1.6% in real estate (ILO, 2015e).

<sup>65</sup> The figures are provided based on a sample of 1,600 Venezuelan workers surveyed in Peru.

<sup>66</sup> The classification of sectors of economic activity has changed between 2007 and 2020 and there are no matching categories in 2020 for some of those existing in 2007.

majority of Venezuelan migrants (57.3%) had technical or higher education sought after by Peruvian employers. However, the Peruvian legislation imposes limits on the possibilities to hire migrant workers, e.g., their share among employees in a company cannot exceed 20% and their salaries 30% of the total. A contract cannot exceed three years (afterwards, it can be renewed) and the migrant employee may begin working only after the contract and the migration status have been approved by relevant authorities which represents an obstacle for many to take a formal job. Moreover, those who work for less than 183 days in Peru in a year (e.g. arrived in the second half of the year) pay a 30% rate of income tax while those having residency permit pay between 8% and 30% (El Comercio, 2018). In a survey carried out in 2018 with 1,600 Venezuelan migrant workers in Peru, 38% of them declared to operate as self-employed. Out of these, 82% worked in retail trade, 6% as moto-taxi and 6% as small service providers. Out of those who had an employer, one third worked in retail trade, one third in security services, administrative services, client service and cleaning services and one third in other sectors, incl. hotels and restaurants (11%), beauty salons (10%), construction (6%), transport (3%) and others. Only 7.6% worked in their original profession. A large proportion worked in precarious conditions. 82% declared working hours longer than 48 allowed by the legislation (27% between 49 and 60 hours and 55% more than 60 hours a week), while 17% worked for less than 48 hours which may suggest involuntary part-time work (i.e., working part-time despite willing to have a full-time job). 27% said that despite working more than 60 hours a week did not receive the minimum wage. In total, 46% of those surveyed received less than a minimum wage (58% of women and 37% of men). 92% worked informally, without a contract. The arrival of a large number of migrant workers (750,000 within two years) has put pressure on the labour market in Peru (notably in informal economy and for low-skilled workers) and public services, e.g., health care and education. After the initial preference of employers to hire Venezuelan workers (followed by cases of their abuse with payment of low wages, long working hours, delayed payments and retention of money or documents), this trend slowed down against xenophobic sentiments in a few cities receiving migrants (IOM, 2019).

**Figure 13: Migrants and refugees from Venezuela in Peru**



The estimated number of Venezuelan migrants and refugees in Peru, financial needs related to support and the map of migration flows.

Source of pictures and data: Plan Regional de Respuesta para refugiados y migrantes, para las personas refugiadas y migrantes de Venezuela (2019): <https://r4v.info/es/documents/download/68669> (chapter: Plan de respuesta para refugiados y migrantes en Perú)

In **Ecuador**, the rights of migrants are established by the Constitution (IOM, 2018a), while the Organic Law on Human Mobility (2017) provides for the right to work, social security, education, and citizenship (after three years of residency, through the naturalization process). In 2007 persons at the working age born in other countries represented 0.8% of that part of the population (78,772 out of 9,309,489 persons). Until 2016, the share increased to 1.0% (122,849 out of 11,696,131 persons). The largest group originated in Colombia (44,706 persons in 2007), followed by the US (9,723 in 2007), Chile (4,542 in 2007), Canada (3,498 in 2007), Peru (3,450 in 2007), other Latin American countries and a few European ones (Germany, Spain, and Italy). In 2012, migrant workers were employed in trade, hotels, and restaurants (30,562), communal, social and personal services (22,529), agriculture (13,979), industry (9,681), construction (4,990), transport (3,513) and domestic service (3,062) (ILO, Migración laboral, Ecuador). Further to crisis in Venezuela, the number of migrants from that country in Ecuador increased from 8,901 in 2015 to 506,000 in 2019 (Plan Regional, 2019). According to available data, migrants from Venezuela are younger than the Ecuadorean population (being on average of 26 years of age compared to 29) and better educated (the largest group of Ecuadoreans, i.e., 44.7% has the primary education, while the largest migrant group has the secondary, i.e., 44% followed by those having university education 37.4%, while only 13.9% of people in Ecuador has a degree from a university). However, despite these characteristics, migrant workers face less favourable working conditions: work on average five hours longer a week, receive payment by 42% lower than the Ecuadoreans and are more likely to end up in the informal sector (56.8% compared to 52%). There is also data suggesting that migrants who arrived in Ecuador in 2016-2018 have on average higher salary and are less likely to work in the informal sector than those who came in 2019 (World Bank Group, 2020a). This may be related to the fact that situation in the Ecuadorean labour market used to be more favourable a few years ago, but also with the time people may be able to receive residency permits, develop knowledge of local circumstances and requirements, and be able to prove their expertise, and therefore be able to get better jobs than immediately after arrival.

**Figure 14: Migrants and refugees from Venezuela in Ecuador**



The estimated number of Venezuelan migrants and refugees in Ecuador, financial needs related to support and the map of migration flows.

Source of pictures and data: Plan Regional de Respuesta para refugiados y migrantes, para las personas refugiadas y migrantes de Venezuela (2019): <https://r4v.info/es/documents/download/68669> (chapter: Plan de respuesta para refugiados y migrantes en Ecuador)

Ecuador belongs to the regional initiative launched in 2018 (Quito Process) coordinating response to migration flows from Venezuela. In 2019, its members recommended devising a regional strategy for socio-economic integration of migrants in the receiving communities and setting up a network of public employment services facilitating mobility across the region. The strategy being developed by the ILO includes regularisation of the status of Venezuelan migrants and description of their social and professional characteristics. It also calls for professional development and recognition of titles and qualifications and support to increase their employability. Other elements refer to entrepreneurship and opportunities for setting enterprises, access to social protection, financial inclusion, and social cohesion (ILO, May 2020a; Cancillera de Colombia, November 2020). In 2019, employers called for simplification of the regularisation process of migrants and trade unions expressed interest in being included in further work of the initiative given the challenges related to creation of decent jobs and working conditions for migrant workers (ILO, August 2020).

In 2017, there were 433,169 persons with disabilities in Ecuador<sup>67</sup>, out of whom 65,804, 15.2% worked, 74% of them in the private sector and 26% in the public sector. According to literature, companies in Ecuador consider a possibility to hire a person with disabilities in the context of costs of adapting working environment, including access to the building, facilities, etc. as well as productivity and speed of carrying out tasks. In some companies or institutions, tensions emerge among staff around permissions and different treatment of persons with disabilities due to their health condition, salaries, etc. The Ecuadorean Constitution provides for the right of disabled persons to work in conditions of equality of opportunities, access to professional development and support of public authorities through policies facilitating inclusion of persons with disabilities into the labour market. The Organic Law on Disabilities envisages that disabled persons should have access to work on equal terms with others regarding job application, the selection process, terms of contract, professional development, and remuneration. It requires as well that both, in public and private sector, disabled persons should represent 4% of staff. The Labour Code envisages that every company and institution, public or private having at least 25 employees should employ at least one disabled person, while incompliance with this provision is sanctioned in the private sector by a fine equal to ten basic salaries a month. In the public sector, there is an administrative sanction imposed. On the other hand, the Organic Law foresees tax reductions for companies that hire more persons with disabilities than the required 4% of staff (Espinoza and del Pilar Gallegos, 2018).

The economic participation of indigenous population (7% of the total population in 2018) in Ecuador is quite high for both, men (86.1%) and women (74.6%) and the difference in participation rates between both groups belongs to the smallest in Latin America (like in Peru, while e.g., in Guatemala, 90.7% of men are economically active compared to only 38.9% of women). However, the number of working hours for men and women reveals substantial difference, with 62.1 hours per week for men compared to 86.3 (data of 2012) meaning that women dedicate much more time to non-paid work. While the overall amount of time dedicated to work is lower for other ethnic communities in Ecuador, the difference is of around 20 hours between men and women. Poverty and extreme poverty levels tend to be much higher in the indigenous population (slightly below 50% for poverty and 25% for extreme poverty in 2016) than in the remaining part of the Ecuadorean society (around 20% and 4% respectively), with almost no difference between men and women in both groups. Indigenous women have also the lowest education levels on average, with 26.7% of them being illiterate (among white women, the rate is of 4% and the national average is of 7.5% for women and 5.8% for men). Indigenous people, in particular women, earn also less than other groups, e.g., as Government employees, women earned in 2012, 43% less than men and indigenous people had salaries 43% lower than other groups. In private

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<sup>67</sup> In 2020, 476,360 persons with disabilities were registered in Ecuador (56% of these are men and 44% women). 70,128 are economically active (out of these, men represent 64.7% and women 35.3%). See: Consejo Nacional para la Igualdad de Discapacidades, Estadísticas de Discapacidad: <https://www.consejodiscapacidades.gob.ec/estadisticas-de-discapacidad/>

sector, the gender pay gap was of 20% and the ethnic one of 37%. Indigenous people are also more likely to be in sub-employment (i.e., full-time employment with wages lower than the minimum wage or working part-time, despite being ready to work full time). In 2008, only 3% of indigenous women and 16% of men were in full (adequate) employment (the rest being in sub-employment), with the share rising slightly to 2012, i.e., to 5% for women and 18% for men (Báez, 2015). For comparison, for the total working population in Ecuador, the rate of adequate employment increased from 43.2% in 2007 to 49.3% in 2014. Since then, it started falling to 38.3% in 2019. Over the same period, the rate of sub-employment went up from 18.2% in 2007 to 21.4% in 2017 to decrease again to 17.8% in 2019 (INEC, 2018f; INEC, 2015b; INEC, 2017a; INEC, 2020). The vulnerability of indigenous people in the labour market is also related to low levels of social security coverage (in 2016, 81.2% of indigenous women and 76% of men were not covered by social security system in Ecuador compared to 54.4% of non-indigenous women and 53.2% of men) (Gestión Digital, September 2020).

In 2017, almost three quarters (72%) of young people (15-24 years of age) on the labour market were in different forms of inadequate employment, including 21.7% in sub-employment, i.e., work in jobs with wages below the minimum wage or insufficient number of hours (in some regions, such as Bolívar, Napo and Carchi, the sub-employment rate was between 30% and 40%). In rural areas, inadequate employment included also non-paid family members. Moreover, young people represented a large proportion of all unemployed (40%) and their jobs are vulnerable to changes in the economic cycle (FES, 2018). In 2017, the unemployment rate among young people was of 10.9%, i.e., over three times higher than among the rest of the adult working population (3.5%) and over twice the national average (4.6%). 41.7% of young people had informal jobs (with the national average at 44.1%). 61% of working young people were men and 39% women. 67% lived in urban areas and 33% in rural ones. Around 70% of working youth were not covered by social security. Regarding sectors, 24% worked in agriculture, 22% in trade, 12% in manufacturing industry, 8% in construction, 8% in hotels and restaurants and 5% in transport and storage. This means that a large share of young people worked in sectors with high levels of informality and the likelihood of precarious employment, i.e., agriculture (69% of informality), trade (27%) and manufacturing (30%), while only a small group (around 3%) was employed in sectors, such as professional activities or financial services with levels of informality of respectively 4% and 0%. At the same time, 36% of working youth have not completed the secondary education and in some regions (Esmeraldas and Pastaza) this rate went up to 55%. Young people belonged to those looking for a job for a longer time than others, which may be explained by the fact that employers expect professional experience and skills relevant for the job, which many young people did not have, either due to a low level of completed education or due to a mismatch between studied subjects and labour market needs (Ministerio del Trabajo, Ecuador, 2018).

In **the EU**, the Strategy for the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2021-2030 focuses on three areas. These include 1) the right to move to another EU country and to participate in the political process, 2) the right to live independently and to enjoy inclusion in the community, and 3) non-discrimination, protection from violence and equal opportunities in, and access to, justice, education, culture, sport and tourism (European Commission, 2021). The EU is also a signatory of the UN Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities. In 2011, the employment rate of people with basic difficulty in activity was 47.3% (European Commission, 2017g). Disabled persons belong in the EU to groups most exposed at risk of poverty or social exclusion, with the rate of 28.7% in 2018 compared to 19.2% of people with no limitations in activity (a gap of 9.5%). Moreover, 68.1% of disabled persons in the EU would be at risk of poverty if no social benefits were provided (EUROSTAT, 2019). People with a migrant background are exposed to twice as high risk of poverty as the EU-born citizens (37.3% compared to 20.1% in 2018). Young people are more likely to be in temporary employment than the rest of the working age population (43.3% in 2018 compared with 12.1% for those aged 25 to 54 and 6.6% for those aged 55 to 64) (European Commission, 2020a).



### *Prohibition of forced or compulsory labour*

In **Colombia**, according to the Global Slavery Index 2018, around 131,000 people lived in slavery conditions (0.27% of the population) (Dinero, 2018). The Government has taken steps to address it, e.g., by capacity building of labour inspection to increase awareness and help to identify victims of forced labour, as well as prevent, identify, and combat trafficking in persons for purposes related to forced labour. Cases of trafficking have been recorded e.g., in Valle del Cauca, Antioquia, Risaralda and Cundinamarca (Prevencionar.com, August 2019; Ministerio del Trabajo, Colombia, 2017). In 2005, an Interinstitutional Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons was established and in 2016, the National Strategy in this area was adopted with objectives of prevention of trafficking, provision of support to victims, more effective prosecution of trafficking in persons, further interinstitutional and international cooperation and analysis into trafficking for a more targeted design of actions to combat this phenomenon (Estrategia Nacional, 2016-2018). In 2019, further to cooperation with the UN Office on Drugs and Crime, a National Strategy to combat trafficking in migrants was adopted (UNODC, March 2019). In 2018, the Government, employers and trade unions adopted Decent Work Pact (Pacto por el trabajo decente, Colombia, 2018), in which they committed to eradicate forced labour. Moreover, a more detailed analysis and identification of forms of forced labour and affected regions and groups has been included in the National Development Plan 2018-2022, among actions to take to ensure decent work and respect for labour standards (DNP, 2019). In 2021, the Ministry of Labour, in cooperation with international partners, the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees, the UN Office on Drugs and Crime and the Office of the General Prosecutor, launched a campaign to collect more information about vulnerable persons, potential victims of human trafficking and forced labour, and to share with a broad audience information about methods applied by criminal groups who aim to attract people into false job adverts which are in fact traps leading to forced labour. The campaign used social media and mirrored methods used in attracting people into false job offers. It attracted 3,216 persons, out of whom 77% were migrants of Venezuelan origin. It helped to develop an understanding of the characteristics of vulnerable persons and ways of reaching out to them. It also raised awareness, preventing people from falling into forced labour and protecting vulnerable groups, including migrant workers from Venezuela.

The ILO Committee of Experts report published in 2019 and data from the Colombian Ministry of Interior provide data on the number of cases of trafficking in persons. Accordingly, the number recorded annually has been increasing each year since 2013 (from 62 in 2013 to 113 in 2019) mainly thanks to a better identification of trafficking in persons. In total, between 2013 and 2019, there were 615 cases, out of which 363 were related to sexual exploitation and 200 to servile marriage, begging and servitude. Young people (between 18 and 30 years of age), children and women are the most frequent victims of trafficking and exploitation (CEACR, 2019; RCN Radio, December 2019).

In **Peru**, according to the Global Slavery Index 2018, some 80,000 people are estimated to live in conditions of slavery (0.2% of the population). Types of forced labour occurring in Peru and discussed in the Second National Plan to Combat Forced Labour (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú 2013a; ILO, 2018e) include wood extraction in the regions of Amazon involving indigenous peoples, illegal mining activities, notably in the region Madre De Dios (affecting migrants from other Andean countries, Bolivia, and Brazil) and domestic work (involving mainly women migrating from other Peruvian regions due to poverty or violence at home). Prior to adoption and implementation of the Plan, the Government had identified several factors supporting occurrence of forced labour, including poverty (and lack of social security offered in the most affected regions), low level of education among vulnerable groups (with knowledge and skills not adequate for formal employment), discrimination of vulnerable groups in access to labour market, insufficient legislative framework, weak law enforcement and lack of information or support for victims. In the report published in 2018, the ILO Committee of Experts noted the lack of information about implementation of the National Plan to Combat Forced Labour and the lack of

regional committees which were supposed to be set up in regions with an identified high risk of forced labour. Moreover, due to insufficient funding, it was not possible to implement action plans under the National Plan, nor to strengthen administrative capacity at national or regional level (CEACR, 2018). In the following report, the Committee noted the Government's information that due to the design of the National Plan, and lack of baseline values and targets, it was not possible to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of the Plan. However, its implementation helped to better understand forced labour. Moreover, a new protocol for action for labour inspection related to forced labour envisaged collecting information about sectors and regions with where forced labour cases have been identified, followed by dissemination of information and awareness raising activities, protection of the fundamental rights at work and capacity building of labour inspection services in relation to forced labour (CEACR, 2021). In 2019, the Government adopted the Third National Plan to Combat Forced Labour 2019-2022 with five areas for action, incl. prevention, detection, support for victims and sanction for perpetrators, reintegration of victims into the society, and institutional set up. Peru also joined the initiative Alliance 8.7 to work with the ILO, other international organisations, and civil society towards achieving the goal 8.7 of the 2030 Agenda to eliminate child labour and forced labour (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú, 2019g; ILO, 2019a). Moreover, since 2017, forced labour is included into the Criminal Code and depending on its form, the perpetrators may be imprisoned for up to 12 or 15 years (CEACR, 2018). According to different sources, there were 380 cases of forced labour between 2010 and 2017 (register and statistics on trafficking in persons RETA, national police), 591 between 2010 and 2014 (Public Ministry, system of strategic information about trafficking in persons, SISTRA), or 48 between 2011 and 2016 (judiciary). The estimation of the real scale of forced labour, incl. trafficking in persons for this purpose is difficult, given that many cases are related to informal jobs and enterprises, rarely visited by the labour inspection and to domestic work, where victims remain invisible to the public (Perú21, July 2017).

In **Ecuador**, according to the Global Slavery Index 2018, ca. 39,000 people lived in slavery conditions (0.24% of the population). Since 2014, the Penal Code addresses forced labour and envisages sanction of 10 to 13 years of imprisonment for everyone who would impose on others forced labour or other forms of exploitation (El Telégrafo, May 2014). In 2017, the Organic Act on human mobility and its implementing regulations were adopted. The Act establishes the framework for prevention of trafficking in persons, as well as the protection, support, and reintegration of victims. It also provides for the creation of a register for the identification of victims and the analysis and collection of data to develop a better understanding of trafficking in persons and enable the development of public policy in this area (CEACR, 2019). In 2019, the Government adopted the Action Plan against the Trafficking in Persons. In the analysis of factors conducive to trafficking in persons it mentions poverty, in particular in rural areas and among indigenous population and those of African origin, limited access to quality education and as a result to decent and formal employment, gender-based violence and violence against children and teenagers (potential victims wish to leave the place, family or community where their rights are violated), regional migration, e.g. from Venezuela, and insecurity and instability in the regions neighbouring Colombia, affected by the former armed conflict, activity of armed groups and criminals and influx of displaced vulnerable population. Trafficking in persons in both directions occurs also across the border with Peru, where victims are used for labour in mines and plantations. It is difficult to estimate the real scale of the problem as not all cases are notified to the authorities, some are classified in a different way, e.g., as a missing person or case of sexual exploitation, but not as case of trafficking. Moreover, data collected by different institutions is not always compatible. According to the available data, between 2014 and 2016, there were 352 cases of human trafficking, out of which 295 for the purpose of sexual exploitation and 39 for labour, with the total number increasing every year (Ministerio de Gobierno, 2019). In its report published in 2019, the ILO Committee of Experts noted the activity of the Ecuadorean Interinstitutional Coordination Committee for combatting trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants, that is responsible for the implementation of the 2006 National Plan to Combat Trafficking in



Persons. The Committee focuses on prevention, protection, and investigation, including on ensuring that appropriate assistance is provided to victims. Between 2013 and 2016, more than 180 persons received support under the Unified National Protocol for protection and comprehensive assistance for victims of trafficking (CEACR, 2019).

Forced labour or modern slavery has been identified in the abacá sector (a species of banana tree originating from Philippines and known for very resistant fibres used in products such as tea bags, machine filters, banknotes and high-quality paper, face masks, and in the automotive and textile industries). The plant is cultivated in the north-east of Ecuador in the region of Santo Domingo de los Tsáchilas, Los Ríos and Esmeraldas. It was brought to Ecuador by the Japanese company Furukawa in 1963 that also organised its exports to international markets, including the US, Europe, and Asia. According to the literature the system was organised in a way that the company rented out the land to farmers through intermediaries thus avoiding employment relations and obligations related to paying social security contributions or concluding job contracts. Wages were low, between \$80 and \$100 a month, not enabling satisfaction of basic needs (a report of the Ministry of Economic and Social Inclusion carried out for 400 farmers found out that 83% of them lived in extreme poverty), the work involved long hours (up to 17 hours a day), and farmers did not receive protective equipment. This led to several injuries given that the plant could cut the skin like a blade and old machines used in crushing fibres could cause more severe injuries. Farmers live in houses without electricity, drinking water or toilet facilities and are not allowed to use the land for other purposes than cultivation of abacá, which means that they cannot plant vegetables for own consumption to improve food security. Reportedly, this situation affected 1,200 persons, incl. children. The Ministry of Labour claimed it had carried out inspections in plantations in 2017-2020 and handed fines, incl. for child labour. In 2018, 123 workers brought the case to the court receiving support from CDES, Centre for Economic and Social Rights (Equal Times, February 2021) The ruling of February 2021 recognised the case as one of modern slavery, and another one of April 2021 identified the state as responsible for the lack of action to prevent the abusive practices. According to the court, each of the farmers should be compensated by receiving 5 hectares of land or an equivalent in money. The company will need to apologise in the main newspapers and the Ministry of Labour will need to issue an apology on its website (BBC, May 2021). However, abacá has not been exported to the EU in recent years (neither raw nor in twine), and in any case the Agreement does not provide for any preferential treatment for raw abacá (which is duty free in the EU), and therefore no link between the identified cases of modern slavery in the sector and the Agreement can be drawn.

In the **EU**, the Victims' Rights Directive entered into force in 2015. It lays down a set of rights for all victims of all crimes and corresponding obligations to the Member States.<sup>68</sup> Further elements of policy and legislative framework include the Directive on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims<sup>69</sup> and the EU Strategy towards the Eradication of Trafficking in Human Beings 2012-2016.<sup>70</sup> Both recognise a need to cooperate with the private sector as an essential element in reducing the demand for trafficking in human beings and developing supply chains which are "trafficking-free". In the context of the Strategy, the Commission Services in cooperation with Eurofound<sup>71</sup> developed a best practice guide for labour market intermediaries and the role of the social

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<sup>68</sup> Directive 2012/29/EU establishing minimum rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA.

<sup>69</sup> Directive 2011/36/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 April 2011 on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims and replacing Council Framework Decision 2002/629/JHA. The Directive creates legal obligations on businesses, namely the liability and sanctioning of legal persons for trafficking in human beings' offences (Article 5).

<sup>70</sup> EU Strategy towards the Eradication of Trafficking in Human Beings 2012-2016: [https://ec.europa.eu/anti-trafficking/sites/antitrafficking/files/eu\\_strategy\\_towards\\_the\\_eradication\\_of\\_trafficking\\_in\\_human\\_beings\\_2012-2016\\_1.pdf](https://ec.europa.eu/anti-trafficking/sites/antitrafficking/files/eu_strategy_towards_the_eradication_of_trafficking_in_human_beings_2012-2016_1.pdf)

<sup>71</sup> The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

partners in preventing trafficking in human beings for the purpose of labour exploitation. In 2017, the Commission adopted a Communication outlining three priority areas for action 1) Stepping up the fight against organised criminal networks including by disrupting the business model and untangling the trafficking chain, 2) Provide better access to and realise the rights for victims of trafficking, 3) Intensify a coordinated and consolidated response, both within and outside the EU (European Commission, 2017e, 2019b). According to the Global Slavery Index 2018,<sup>72</sup> in the EU, the number of people living in conditions of slavery ranged from 145,000 in Italy to less than 1,000 in Luxembourg. The Netherlands, Sweden, Portugal, Croatia, Belgium, and Spain, are among countries that developed a national response against modern slavery, including adoption of a dedicated legislation.

### *Freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining:*

In **Colombia**, the Constitution sets out a right for employers and workers to establish their own associations or trade unions, for which they adopt the rules of procedure, and which should be able to operate freely, without any interference from the Government or other state institutions (Ostau de Lafont de León, 2017). There are several forums involving social partners, both at the national and international level, including tripartite Permanent Commission for policies related to wages and other labour aspects, National Council for Planification, National Council for risks at work, national delegation to the ILO meetings, Ibero-american Ministerial Conference with participation of employers and workers, participation in bodies and meetings related to implemented trade agreements, and others. In 2017, there were 5,523 trade unions in Colombia. The highest number was in public administration and social protection, followed by wholesale and retail trade, health care and social services and manufacturing, transport, and agriculture, while the highest number of members was in education, followed by public administration, industry, health care and social services, agriculture, trade, and transport. Domestic service was at the low end in both categories (ENS, 2018). Also in 2017, the Ministry of Labour carried out in cooperation with six trade union confederations a trade union census. According to its results, Single Confederation of Workers of Colombia (CUT) had 577,532 members and operated in several sectors, ranging from education and health care over mining and agriculture, incl. coffee sector, to informal economy. General Confederation of Labour (CGT) had 606,073 members and operated mainly in agriculture and agro-industry, health care sector, prisons, and other public and private sectors. Confederation of Workers of Colombia (CTC) had 169,291 members and was active in the electric sector, agriculture, and agro-industry, social (solidary) economy and transport. Confederation of trade unions of civil servants and public services of Colombia (CSPC) had 7,873 members working in the public sector. The National Workers Confederation (CNT) had 31,153 members in transport and public sectors. Colombian Labour Union (CTU) had 32,126 members working in judicial system (prosecutors), migration services, small-scale retail trade and as informal vendors. Union of Colombian Workers (UTC) did not participate in the census and therefore their members were not calculated (Ministerio del Trabajo, 2018). Trade union leaders and activists in Colombia have been affected by a high crime rate. Between 1986 and 2014, more than 3,000 trade union activists have been killed, 230 disappeared and others have suffered from threats, harassment, and other forms of violence. In the last few years, the number of cases has been decreasing, but remains high compared to other countries, including OECD members. The number of trade unionists' homicides decreased from 53 in 2010 to 13 in 2019, while the total number of cases of violence decreased from 723 in 2011 to 123 in 2019<sup>73</sup>. The most affected regions included Antioquia, Santander, Valle del Cauca, and sectors, such as education, agriculture, incl. banana, mining, and manufacturing. In 2011, the protection system was strengthened as part of the US-Colombia Labour Action Plan and the National Protection Unit was created to bring together different protection systems including for teachers and trade unionists. In 2016, it provided

<sup>72</sup> Global Slavery Index 2018 – G-20 countries: <https://www.globalslaveryindex.org/2018/findings/importing-risk/g20-countries/>

<sup>73</sup> Written contribution by civil society organisations Oidhaco and catapa.

protection to 677 trade union activists, mainly from Antioquia, Santander, Valle del Cauca, Atlántico, and Bogota. The Prosecutor General's Office has also been increased, and judicial police examines after a homicide whether the victim was a trade unionist, while an analytical team carries out research into patterns of trade unionists' murders in the country. Moreover, the ILO has provided training for judges and prosecutors on labour rights and investigations into crimes against trade unionists (OECD, 2016). However, progress has been considered not sufficient and questions around violence against trade unionists, cases of protection refusal (resulting in killing of those without protection), high levels of impunity (87% for homicides and 95% overall for anti-union violence), low rates of collective bargaining (below 0.5% in the private sector and progress in the public sector being achieved only after strike), the continuous practice of negotiating collective pacts (over 200 a year) with non-unionised workers, and the lack of progress on respecting the right to strike (following the Avianca case where trade union leaders and pilots were dismissed for participation in a strike as the strike was considered illegal by the Colombian Supreme Court)<sup>74</sup> were raised among other concerns in the context of Colombia's accession to OECD and corresponding recommendations have been included into the post-accession monitoring process (OECD, TUAC March 2018 and May 2018). At the TSD Sub-committee meetings in 2019 and 2020, Colombia provided information about the implementation of the protection system of social and trade union leaders and human rights activists, in particular in communities estimated as being at risk. Regarding the fight against impunity of perpetrators, 949 sentences were passed until autumn 2019 (this number increased to 966 at the end of 2020) In 2020, 14 trade union activists were killed, fewer than in 2019. Progress was possible inter alia thanks to work of the Prosecutor General's Office and National Protection Unit. Colombia informed also about a study conducted with the ILO analysing sentences against perpetrators and actions taken to protect trade unionists (see European Commission, 2019c; 2020c). In the Reports published in 2020 and 2021, the ILO Committee of Experts expressed deep concern about persisting violence against trade union leaders and the heavy impact it has in particular in the agriculture, education, transport, mining and energy sectors and in rural areas, including those previously controlled by FARC and currently being under control of paramilitary forces and criminal groups. It took note of the evidence provided by trade unions regarding cases of murders of trade unionists and other forms of anti-union violence, including death threats, attempted murders, cases of forced disappearance and others (in total 998 cases of violations between 2016 and May 2020). The Committee also noted information provided by the Government about steps taken, but also about challenges faced in the fight against criminal groups and urged the Government to ensure protection of trade union members, to allocate sufficient resources for this purpose, and (referring to cases considered by the Committee on Freedom of Association) to improve the effectiveness of investigations and criminal proceedings against perpetrators. The Committee also noted that the so-called trade union contracts (practiced in particular in the health sector) where a trade union organises work for its members and acts as a de facto employer or work intermediary are likely to generate a conflict of interest with the primary trade unions' role to protect and defend workers' rights. They should therefore be analysed, and measures should be taken to ensure that trade unions' primary mission is not undermined. In 2015, there were 1,975 trade union contracts in the country, incl. 1,929 in the health care sector (ENS, 2018). In 2020/2021, there were 1,700 such contracts and only in the first half of 2020, 567 trade union contracts were registered. The Committee also noted diverging numbers of collective accords provided by trade unions (suggesting an increase from 141 in 2017 to 222 in 2019) and the Government suggesting a decrease in their use since 2015 (although, the Government quoted figures for half of 2019 only) (CEACR, 2021) The Committee also requested legislative changes to bring provisions on the right to strike in line with

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<sup>74</sup> The Colombian trade unions submitted the request to the ILO to pronounce its interpretation regarding the right of pilots to strike and the legality of actions taken in the case of Avianca. The ILO clarified that air transport cannot be considered as an essential service and therefore pilots have a right to strike while all actions taken by the pilots in the case of Avianca followed the rules prescribed by the legislation. AIL, November 2018)

Convention No. 87, and to ensure (under Convention No. 98) that collective agreements with non-unionised workers are negotiated only in cases where there are no trade unions in the company (CEACR, 2020; 2021). In 2019, in the framework of a project funded by Norway and delivered by the ILO, workers, employers, labour inspectors and Government representatives were trained in the prevention and resolution of labour conflicts (ILO, 2019f).

**Table 7: Number of trade unions and trade union members by sector in Colombia, 2010, 2013 and 2017**

Sector	No. of trade unions	% of workers in sector	No. of trade union members	No. of trade unions	% of workers in sector	No. of trade union members	No. of trade unions	% of workers in sector	No. of trade union members
	2010	2010	2010	2013	2013	2013	2017	2017	2017
Trade	562	8.4	68,498	741	8.7	83,730	818	8.4	86,742
Public admin.	520	11.9	96,532	827	11.3	108,821	1,041	11.8	121,153
Manufacturing	384	10.2	83,090	511	12.0	115,076	625	11.7	120,758
Agriculture	326	8.9	72,733	440	9.2	88,341	509	8.9	91,250
Transport, comms & storage	307	8.6	70,091	430	8.2	78,853	542	8.4	86,192
Social & health care services	168	9.8	79,628	466	9.8	94,589	648	11.1	114,559
Social, communal, personal serv.	165	1.7	14,218	198	1.6	15,616	234	1.8	18,595
Education	151	30.5	247,417	219	28.0	268,693	270	26.3	270,965
Construction	92	0.8	6,436	108	0.8	7,330	125	0.8	7,956
Real estate	81	0.7	5,942	115	1.4	13,465	154	1.6	16,493
Financial intermediation	41	2.8	23,252	55	2.8	26,597	80	2.4	24,579
Gas, water, electricity supply	38	2.8	22,567	62	2.6	25,366	88	2.9	30,355
Mining	35	1.3	10,524	52	1.9	17,974	77	1.8	18,971
Fisheries	31	0.2	1,495	33	0.2	1,569	37	0.2	1,742
Hotels and restaurants	28	1.1	9,102	41	1.0	9,908	53	1.0	10,328
Domestic service	6	0.03	273	9	0.05	488	15	0.1	778
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,936</b>		<b>811,850</b>	<b>4,384</b>		<b>959,214</b>	<b>5,523</b>		<b>1,028,764</b>

Source: Escuela Nacional Sindical, ENS (2011), Sistema de información laboral y sindical, Reporte a diciembre de 2010; ENS (2016), Sistema de información laboral y sindical, Reporte a diciembre de 2014; ENS (2018), Sistema de información laboral y sindical, Reporte a diciembre de 2017

**Table 8: Number of active trade unions in Colombia, 2008 to 2017**

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2015	2016	2017
Number of active trade unions	2933	2885	2936	3459	3868	4384	5229	5449	5523

Source: Sistema de Información Sindical y Laboral (Sislab)

**Table 9: Violence against trade union representatives**

Type of violence	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019*
Threat	321	450	337	244	121	202	137	175	51
Harassment	41	50	63	78	30	30	26	8	7
Murder	24	25	37	21	21	20	22	34	9
Attack	10	9	18	24	17	18	17	10	1
Forced displacement	17	91	3	1	0	1	1	2	0
Arbitrary detention	12	19	24	17	8	5	9	0	0
Illegal search and seizure	1	3	2	2	2	8	1	1	0
Enforced disappearance	1	5	1	0	2	0	1	3	0
Torture	1	2	0	1	4	2	1	1	1
Kidnapping	3	0	4	0	3	0	0	0	1
<i>Total cases of violence</i>	<i>431</i>	<i>654</i>	<i>489</i>	<i>388</i>	<i>208</i>	<i>286</i>	<i>215</i>	<i>234</i>	<i>70</i>

\* Data until July 2019

Source: based on data of Sistema de Información de Derechos Humanos (Sinderh), Escuela Nacional Sindical.

In **Peru**, the Constitution recognises the right to association, collective bargaining, and strike. The Law on Collective Relations at Work and related regulations set out trade unions' rights in the private and public sector. In addition, Civil Service Law (2013) establishes trade unions' and workers' rights in public sector imposing restrictions, e.g., prohibition of negotiating economic compensations and wage increase in social benefits which would go beyond the list provided in the legislation, the maximum duration of collective agreements, a long notice before strike can be declared and the possibility of replacing striking workers. Moreover, Peru has ratified (in addition to Conventions No. 87 and 98) the ILO Convention No. 151 about work relations in public administration and No. 189 on domestic workers. There are also other parts of legislation which may have an impact on the exercise of trade unions' rights. These include regulations about short-term and seasonal labour contracts, incl. in non-traditional exporting sectors and agriculture which may be renewed a non-limited number of times<sup>75</sup> (ILO, 2019). In the period 2010-2016, between 69,041 and 83,425 workers were contracted in each year under the non-traditional exporting regime, mainly in the textile sector. Some of them worked for 15 and more years in the sector on several consecutive short-term contracts, not providing any certainty or stability in either personal or professional life. According to the ILO and the Ministry of Labour, such forms of contracts may decrease the possibility to join a trade union and, as a result, trade unions' operation in these sectors. In the case submitted by the Peruvian trade unions (CGTP) on the matter, the ILO Committee on Freedom of Association called on the Government to ensure that the contract regime in non-traditional exports does not interfere with the exercise of trade unions' rights<sup>76</sup>. The same was raised by the EU in TSD Sub-committee meetings in 2018 and 2019 to highlight concerns of the civil society about the abuse of fixed-term contracts which may make the exercise of freedom of association more difficult. Peru informed that the existing legislation foresees cancellation of fixed-term contracts, and their turn into permanent ones, if they are used in a fraudulent way. Peru admitted the need to strengthen inspection services and informed about the possibility to discuss specific cases of concern in bilateral meetings with the National Federation of Textile Workers (European Commission, 2018d and 2019c). However, the number of unionised workers in the sector decreased from 7,769 in 2010 to 2,265 in 2016, i.e., from 10% to 3.2% (Queja contra el gobierno peruano, 2017). There is also a special regime for microenterprises which has been extended on other companies, and which requires e.g., to have at least 20 employees to form a trade union, which may discourage or make

<sup>75</sup> In the sector of agriculture covered by the special regime, the number of workers increased from 170,110 in 2009 to 239,194 in 2016, while the rate of trade union membership varied between 3.3% and 5.1% during the same period. Until legislative changes of 2019-2020, workers in the sector often received short-term or seasonal contracts and much lower benefits than those operating under the general regime, e.g. 15 days if holidays instead of 30, the monthly wage of USD 403 in 2016 (on average) compared to USD 696 under the general regime and lower compensation in case of being dismissed. Moreover, contracts are often not renewed if the worker undertakes trade union activity (Queja contra el gobierno peruano, 2017).

<sup>76</sup> In 2016-2018, there were two proposals to modify the Law on non-traditional exports, however, they didn't get the priority in the National Congress. At the same time, the Government considered prolongation of the regime by another 24 years (Actualización de la queja contra el gobierno peruano, May 2018).

impossible trade union operation in microenterprises and SMEs. Finally, provisions related to work intermediation and short-term contracts for work and provision of services restricts possibilities of workers to form or join a trade union. In 2017, in total 379,844 workers (having formal jobs) were affiliated to a trade union in Peru, out of which 54% (i.e., 205,116 persons) worked in public sector and 46% (i.e., 174,728 persons) in private<sup>77</sup>. Regarding trade union density, i.e., the share of workers being trade union members, between 2013 and 2017, it was around 16% in public sector while in private sector, it decreased from 6.4% in 2013 to 5.2% in 2017. In the latter, 7.4% male workers were unionised in 2016, while this was true only for 1.5% female workers (out of all trade union members in private sector, 90% were men and only 10% were women). In the public sector, the affiliation rate was more equal, with 16.3% for men and 15.4% for women (55% of trade unionist being men and 45% women). The highest number of trade union members were registered in the construction sector, mining, fisheries, and manufacturing industry, which jointly provided two thirds of all trade union members. In 2017, the highest affiliation rate was in the sector of electricity, gas, and water supply (37.2%), followed by construction (25.5%), fisheries (10%) and manufacturing industry (8%). On the other end, were sectors, such as hotels and restaurants (0.2%), trade (0.8%) and agriculture (1.3%). In the latter the rate decreased from 1.8% in 2013 (ILO, 2019). The number of strikes in the analysed period was the highest in the first half of 2010s, with 99 strikes in 2009. Otherwise, the annual number of strikes increased from 73 in 2007 (63 in 2008) to 99 in 2009 to remain between 83 and 95 in 2010-2014 falling then to 47 in 2015 and increasing to 67 in 2019. Regarding collective agreements, their total number per year, after increasing from 478 in 2007 to 550 in 2011, fell to 298 in 2019, with the highest number in 2019 (112) in manufacturing industry, mining (43), electricity, water and gas supply (25), public administration (19), education (17), transport (12), wholesale and retail trade (11) and agriculture (10) (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019d). In the report published in 2019, the ILO Committee of Experts requested a revision of the Civil Service Act to allow public sector employees to exercise their right to organise in line with Convention No. 87. Moreover, it invited the Government to consider changes to the Act on the Promotion of Non-Traditional Exports in tripartite consultations with trade unions and employers' organisations. It also requested information about measures taken by labour inspection to ensure that workers on short-term contracts will not face a threat of their non-renewal for their trade unions' activity (CEACR, 2019). In 2017 and 2020, the EU organised workshops in cooperation with Peru on labour conflict management.

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<sup>77</sup> At the end of 2019, the number of unionised workers in private sector was 198,488 (out of 3,815,692 workers in private sector in total, i.e., 5.2%). Across sectors, the number of unionised workers in private sector was as follows: agriculture and forestry (3,099), fisheries (3,149), mining (26,115), manufacturing industry (44,185), electricity, water and gas supply (7,805), construction (54,866), wholesale and retail trade (5,902), hotels and restaurants (309), transport, storage and communications (15,786), financial intermediation (3,193), real estate (19,865), public administration (204), education (6,801), social and health care services (2,063), social, communal and personal services (4,545), and others (601). In the public sector, there were in total 1,363,869 workers (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019d).



**Table 10: Number of trade unions and trade union members in the private sector in Peru, by sector, 2007-2019<sup>78</sup>**

Sector	2007		2013		2019	
	% of workers in sector	No. of trade union members	% of workers in sector	No. of trade union members	% of workers in sector	No. of trade union members
Trade	1.7	3,157	0.6	3,251	1.0	5,952
Public administration	33.6	16,245	6.6	382	3.3	202
Manufacturing industry	4.1	12,296	7.2	35,973	8.0	43,413
Agriculture	4.96	3,871	1.8	3,372	0.9	2,921
Transport, comms & storage	5.1	4,116	5.4	12,252	5.1	16,426
Social and health care services	44.6	18,108	2.3	1,276	2.5	2,064
Services: social, communal, personal	2.4	1,572	3.1	6,534	2.1	4,899
Education	3.4	3,411	3.2	6,246	2.7	6,692
Construction	16.1	12,268	32.7	74,446	26.7	57,285
Real estate	1.9	4,320	3.4	21,027	3.0	21,852
Financial intermediation	2.5	1,930	1.1	1,295	2.2	3,165
Gas, water, and electricity supply	44.7	5,665	39.6	5,830	35.1	7,876
Mining	20.1	13,395	23.6	28,083	25.6	27,151
Fisheries	0.1	19	2.7	480	12.1	2,283
Hotels and restaurants	0.5	263	0.2	272	0.2	295
Domestic service	No data	No data	No data	No data	-----	No data
Others			1.7	254	3.2	693
<b>Total</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>100,636</b>	<b>----</b>	<b>200,973</b>	<b>-----</b>	<b>203,169</b>

Source: Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú (2019d), Anuario estadístico sectorial; Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú (2007), Anuario estadístico sectorial; Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú (2013), Anuario estadístico sectorial

In **Ecuador**, the Constitution recognises the right to organise and prohibits intermediation in work relations, and some types of contracts, e.g., on hours. In 2015, out of 3,179 labour organisations, trade unions (751 in total) represented 24%, while associations of public servants (1,567) accounted for 49%. Enterprise committees (9%) and private associations (14%) formed the rest (El Comercio, Apr 2015). In 2017, three trade union confederations, i.e., Central Union of Workers (CUT), United Front of Workers (FUT), and Ecuadorean Labour Parliament (PLE) had 1,430 member organisations and represented 879,000 workers from 21 sectors, i.e., some 4% of all workers. The trade union affiliation was low in particular in private sector, e.g., out of 204,000 of PLE members, 70% were public servants (CUT represented 650,000 members and FUT 25,000). One of the reasons may be a high number (30) of minimum workers needed to set up a trade union in an enterprise which may prevent workers to set up a trade union in an SME (the requirement of minimum 30 workers was considered too high by the ILO, in particular if compared with other countries in the region, e.g., 8 in Chile, 12 in Costa Rica and 25 in Colombia). The National Labour Council provides a forum to discuss employment and wage policies (El Comercio, 2017). However, for the wage policy to be effective, there is a need for a representative composition of those who participate in negotiations, including a wide representation of workers. In 2017, Ecuador was considered as an individual case by the ILO Committee on the Application of Standards with regard to Convention No. 87. The Committee called upon the Government to ensure that public servants can exercise their right to organise and establish organisation of their own choosing, including protection against dissolution (given that according to the Constitution, public servants could only be represented by one organisation, and the National Federation of Education Workers, UNE, after rejection of registration in 2016, was dissolved by the Government which confiscated its assets). The

<sup>78</sup> There was no explanation provided regarding methodology, however, judging upon figures, the approach to counting and classifying trade union members in public sector must have changes between 2007 and 2019 (see differences for public administration and social and health care services).



Committee also requested amendments in the existing legislation to bring it in line with the Convention. This included Basic Comprehensive Penal Code which foresaw penal sanctions for participation in a peaceful strike. Moreover, the minimum requirement in the Labour Code of 30 workers to establish a trade union at the enterprise level in the private sector was considered too high (it was 15 before the previous change in 1985).<sup>79</sup> Finally, trade union elections should be regulated by trade unions themselves (CAS, 2017). Subsequently, the Government agreed with the ILO the provision of technical assistance for the legislative reforms. The same issues as above were raised by the ILO Committee of Experts in reports published in 2018 and 2020. The Committee asked the Government to reply in 2020 and expressed trust that the technical assistance will support the process of legislative reforms (CEACR, 2018; 2020). In the report published in 2021, the Committee of Experts recalled that the technical assistance mission had taken place in December 2019 during which a roadmap had been presented to tripartite partners with a view to structure their discussion about legislative reforms. The Committee noted with regret that the Government's report had not mentioned either the technical assistance or any follow-up actions or work to finalise and implement the roadmap. The Committee also reiterated its previous comments on aspects mentioned above noting the lack of progress on any of these (CEACR, 2021). In the report published in 2019, the ILO Committee of Experts noted observations from the Trade Union Association of Agricultural, Banana and Rural Workers (ASTAC) that three Ministerial Orders of 2017 and 2018 which establish new forms of contract for banana plantation workers and agricultural workers, obstruct the effective exercise of the right to collective bargaining in those sectors (CEACR, 2019, 2020). Further to two requests for information (in 2019 and 2020), in the report published in 2021, the Committee noted the response of the Government that Ministerial Orders referred to temporary jobs which are common in the banana sector and that it had been precisely thanks to those new forms of contractual relations that the situation of temporary workers was regularised. The Government also informed that four collective agreements had been reached in agriculture between June 2019 and June 2020, three of which in the banana sector, which according to the Government confirms that the new rules do not impede trade union activity in the sector (CEACR, 2021). According to the Ministry of Labour, in May 2021 a court in the Ecuadorean province of Pichincha ruled that the Ministry of Labour should register ASTAC as a trade union.

In the **EU**, Member States have developed different models of social partners' engagement in the design and implementation of relevant policies.<sup>80</sup> They have been involved in the reform of wage setting mechanism, including minimum wage, anticipation of skills needs, vocational education and training reforms, assistance for long-term unemployed, and labour law reform (European Commission, 2005-2018 and 2020a). In addition, at the EU level, the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (Article 154) obliges the Commission to consult social partners on EU policy and legislative initiatives related to social field. This includes health and safety at work, working conditions, social protection, conditions of employment of third country nationals, equality between men and women at work and others (TFEU, 2012). The Commission facilitates also sectorial and cross-industry social dialogue between social partners at the EU level.<sup>81</sup> Rates of trade union membership have

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<sup>79</sup> In this context, the Ministry of Labour of Ecuador has shared with the study team a list of 32 worker organisations (associations, trade unions and committees at the enterprise level) in the banana sector bringing together from 15 to 4,104 workers (many organisations have not provided the exact number of members). Two of those organisations have respectively 15 and 19 members which is below 30, i.e., the number established as the minimum number of members to establish a trade union.

<sup>80</sup> Employment Guideline 7 and the European Pillar of Social Rights call upon Member States to ensure the involvement of social partners in the design and implementation of relevant reforms and policies, in line with national practices, including through support for increased capacity of the social partners (European Commission, 2020a).

<sup>81</sup> For more information, please see the website of Directorate General (DG) Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=329&langId=en>

been falling over time and vary between Member States. In 2007, they ranged from 7.6% in Estonia to 78.4% in Sweden, and in 2018, from 4.3% in Estonia to 66.5% in Denmark.<sup>82</sup>

#### 1.1.7 Working conditions, incl. social protection<sup>83</sup> coverage of workers and enforcement mechanisms (labour inspection)

In **Colombia**, in 2019, 24.6% of workers in 23 cities and metropolitan areas were in sub-employment, i.e., jobs with an insufficient number of hours per week (part-time), and low wages inadequate to acquired competences (DANE, 2019c). In 2007, the national average rate of sub-employment was 34.3% (DANE, 1958-2020). In 2016, an average working week in Colombia was of 44.6 hours (Portafolio, July 2017). Regarding health and safety at work, in 2009, in 448,433 enterprises employing in total 6.7 million workers, 403,519 accidents at work were recorded, including 586 fatal. Depending on the risk category, sectors with high number of accidents included mining, construction, manufacturing industry, agriculture, real estate, and trade. In 2019, in the total of 839.016 enterprises employing 10.4 million workers, 611,275 accidents at work were reported, including 488 fatal.<sup>84</sup> This means a decrease in the average number of accidents per 100,000 workers from 6,022 in 2009 to 5,860 in 2019 while the number of fatal accidents per 100,000 workers decreased from 8.7 in 2009 to 4.7 in 2019. Moreover, as the table below shows, while trends in the number of accidents at work compared to the number of workers have not been entirely uniform (with some ups and downs, e.g., an increase in the number of non-fatal accidents per 100,000 workers in 2009-2012) over the analysed period, in general, since 2014 there is a tendency to a decrease in the number of fatal and non-fatal accidents per 100,000 workers. In 2018, the sectors with higher number of accidents included construction, manufacturing industry and agriculture (Prevencionar.com, 2018).

**Table 11: Accidents at work in Colombia in 2009-2019**

Year	Number of workers	Number of non-fatal accidents at work	No. of non-fatal accidents at work per 100,000 workers	Number of fatal accidents at work	No. of fatal accidents at work per 100,000 workers
2009	6.700.842	403.519	6,022	586	8.7
2010	6.813.664	450.564	6,612	689	10.1
2011	7.499.493	555.479	7,407	692	9.2
2012	8.430.801	659.170	7,818	676	8.0
2013	8.271.919	622.486	7,525	706	8.5
2014	8.936.935	688.942	7,709	564	6.3
2015	9.656.830	723.836	7,495	563	5.8
2016	10.039.527	701.696	6,989	602	5.9
2017	10.237.816	660.110	6,448	564	5.5
2018	10.487.602	645.119	6,151	567	5.4
2019	10.431.583	611.275	5,860	488	4.7

Source: Sistema General de Riesgos Laborales: <https://sistemas.fasecolda.com/rldatos/>

There are projects implemented in cooperation with the ILO to improve health and safety at work in individual sectors, e.g., in the coffee supply chain employing directly around 743.000 people in Colombia (ILO, 2019b). Others aim at capability building of inspection services to improve respect for labour standards and working conditions, including health and safety at work in rural areas (ILO, 2019c).

In a survey carried out in April and May 2020, among workers from plantations of banana, oil palm, sugar cane and cut flowers in Colombia, the ILO (in cooperation with trade unions and other organisations) checked working conditions in COVID-19 circumstances given that agriculture had been excluded from sectors covered by lockdown measures. 96.9% of

<sup>82</sup> See: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=TUD>

<sup>83</sup> Other public policies, such as health care and education, has been discussed under human rights analysis.

<sup>84</sup> Sistema General de Riesgos Laborales: <https://sistemas.fasecolda.com/rldatos/>

surveyed workers were members of one of trade unions active in agriculture and 90% had a permanent contract. 35.6% of them were at least 53 years old, which means a risk of catching the virus and potentially serious consequences thereof. 38.7% were considered vulnerable due to pre-existing health conditions and out of these around half (52%) worked normally, while the rest had been sent back home or asked to take holidays. Thanks to a collective agreement in the banana sector, workers staying at home continued to receive wages (at the level of a minimum one plus 8%), and the enterprise continued to pay their social security contributions. 22% of those who continued working, declared having a shorter working day and 34% reported reduced payments (mainly due to a shorter working day). The majority confirmed use of certain protective measures, such the social distance, personal protective equipment (e.g., face cover or gloves) disinfection at plantations, and at the entry to and exit from them, time, and possibility to wash hands more frequently, dividing workers into groups for transport to the plantation or for the meal at the canteen, measuring temperature and others. The lowest shares of positive responses came from the oil palm and cut flowers sectors (ILO, 2020a).

**Table 12: Accidents at work in Colombia in selected sectors in 2009 and 2019**

Sector	Number of workers	Number of non-fatal accidents at work	No. of non-fatal accidents at work per 100,000 workers	Number of fatal accidents at work	No. of fatal accidents at work per 100,000 workers
<b>2009</b>					
Agriculture	267,234	35,874	13,424	29	10.8
Mining	113,350	12,213	10,775	50	44.1
Industry	860,427	74,150	8,618	53	6.1
<b>2019</b>					
Agriculture	396,867	62,585	15,770	66	16.6
Mining	159,336	19,655	12,336	79	49.6
Industry	1,137,844	101,619	8,931	29	2.5

Source: Sistema General de Riesgos Laborales: <https://sistemas.fasecolda.com/rldatos/>

In the 2015 Report (the latest available, the next one on Convention No. 81 is envisaged for 2022), the ILO Committee of Experts noted that the 2014-2018 National Development Plan of Colombia included strengthening of labour inspection as one of the policy objectives supposed to contribute to formalization of labour relations, respect for labour standards, including freedom of association, and extension of social security coverage. The Committee also noted that the number of posts for inspectors increased from 424 in 2010 to 904 in 2014, while the number of inspectors occupying them increased from 530 in 2013 to 826 in 2015. However, the Committee noted that out of 826 inspectors, only 100 were public servants covered by the administrative career system and 726 held temporary contracts. The Committee noted the Government's position that the latter enjoy relative employment stability, nevertheless noted also position expressed by trade union (CTC) about precarious working conditions of labour inspectors and that they can be freely appointed or removed from their posts. It also expressed concern that the number of labour inspections decreased from 10,253 in 2011 to 8,037 in 2014 (CEACR, 2015). In 2019, a project funded by the EU and implemented in cooperation with the ILO was launched, aiming at strengthening labour inspection in agriculture (European Commission, 2018d). Moreover, at the 2019 TSD Sub-committee meeting, Colombia informed about the ongoing work to harmonise procedures and sanctions applied by labour inspectors in relation to priority areas of action in 35 territorial directorates and 85 municipal inspectorates (European Commission, 2019c). In the 2020 TSD Sub-committee meeting, Colombia informed that all inspectors were covered by the administrative career system and virtual inspections were carried out during the Covid-19 pandemic (European Commission, 2020c).

Moreover, according to information shared by the Colombian Ministry of Labour, the number of labour inspectors appointed permanently in a civil service competition increased reaching 744 in December 2020, with further 635 aspirants. In 2019, the number of mobile inspection teams increased by 45% compared to 2018 and national strategy for inspection

was developed focusing on increase in the number of inspections during the year and their effectiveness. Moreover, the budget of inspection services has increased (e.g., in 2017, it was at the level of 3 billion Colombian pesos while in 2018, it reached 8 billion) and salaries of labour inspectors grew by 77% between 2009 and 2016 (for comparison, salaries of civil servants increased in the same period by 32.7%). Also, virtual training courses for labour inspectors have been developed. The Government has been implementing a plan of extending presence and work of labour inspection services on the whole territory of the country, notably rural areas and those which have been marked by the armed conflict, poverty, illegal activities, and weak institutions (information provided by the Ministry of Labour). According to other sources however, there is still a lot that needs to be done, e.g., the information system on inspection, surveillance, and control was implemented in 2020 in 36 Territorial Offices and in 101 municipal offices of the Ministry of Labour out of 119 that exist nationwide. Moreover, regarding the number of cases being treated, as of 30 June 2020, "there were 71,885 registered files, 35,806 of which were finalized (processes executed) and 36,079 were active (processes ongoing) (CUT, CTC, CGT et al., 2021). which means a high number of open files per inspector. The same source highlights as well a need to extend the network of inspection services in rural areas through permanent employment rather than preventive training or visits.

In **Peru**, the rate of workers with adequate employment (working for 35 hours or more a week and earning more than the minimum wage) went up from 32.6% in 2007 to 52.5% in 2018. At the same time, the share of workers being in a situation of sub-employment (working for less than 35 hours a week despite being ready to work full-time or earning less than a minimum wage despite working for 35 hours or more a week) decreased from 54.3% in 2007 to 41.2% in 2018 (for those who earned less than the minimum wage) and from 8.4% in 2007 to 2.4% in 2018 (for working less than a full week). The proportion was less favourable for the indigenous population, where in 2018, only 43.5% of workers had adequate employment and 53.5% were in a situation of sub-employment. The average weekly number of hours worked decreased from 47 hours in 2008 to 45 in 2018. Transport and communication sector recorded the longest working week (59 hours in 2008 and 55 in 2018) followed by mining (57 hours in both years), and fisheries (57 hours in 2008 falling to 47 in 2018). Other two sectors exceeding 50 hours a week in 2008 were administration (52) and trade (51). The working time was reduced to 49 hours in 2018 in both cases. On the other end of the scale was the sector of education (38 hours in 2008 and 37 in 2018) and agriculture (40 and 38 hours respectively). Other sectors, including manufacturing, hotels and restaurants and construction recorded working time of 45-49 hours a week in 2008 and a reduction of 3-4 hours in 2018 (INEI, 2019). The Peruvian Constitution foresees and eight-hours' working day with the working week not exceeding 48 hours. Moreover, it recognises the right to social protection (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019b). Regarding contractual relations at work, 49.6% of workers in 2007 had a contract (56.4% in 2018). In 2007, 18.1% of workers had a permanent contract (15.9% in 2018), and 25.5% had a fixed-term one (34.5% in 2018) (INEI, 2019).

An increased use of fixed-term contracts started in 1990s with the reform introducing more flexibility in their forms, use, and the total duration (five years), which also lifted much of control of their use and legality and enabled operation of work intermediaries (the 1997 Law on Productivity and Labour Competitiveness). This has a negative impact on work and live quality given that workers having fixed-term contracts are less likely to receive credits or loans, have less opportunities of training to develop skills (as employers do not invest in them) and are less able or willing to join trade unions or be covered by collective bargaining agreements, and as a result have less power to negotiate e.g., wage increase. For example, between 1990 and 2000 (when the use of fixed-term contracts increased), the share of trade union members in the total of workers decreased in Lima from 22% to 3%. Workers on fixed-term contracts face also risks of breaks in periods of employment and the related breaks in social security coverage and contributions. Agriculture and agro-industry with its part focused on non-traditional exports is provided in this context as an example of a sector where exports have contributed to creation of formal jobs, however,

these were in the majority (65%) related to short-term or seasonal contracts, used by some companies as a method to avoid trade union activity (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019b). According to information provided by the Government of Peru, in 2019 Law No. N° 27360 establishing the special regime for agriculture (limiting workers' rights) was amended to equalise the rights of workers under this regime with the general regime regarding compensation for the time of service, holidays (from 15 to 30 days annually), and protection against arbitrary dismissal. Moreover, in 2020, a new Law (No. 31110) was adopted which established that workers will be able to have part in profit of enterprises where they work, starting from 5% in 2021 and increasing to 10% from 2027. The same Law also sets out working conditions and conditions regarding health and safety at work, foresees preference for contracting workers by the same enterprise in consecutive seasons and speaks about promotion of freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining in agriculture and agro-industry, especially above the enterprise level acknowledging that in this sector, workers face difficulties in exercising their rights due to temporary or seasonal forms of employment. In addition to that, a regulation setting out minimum rights and the right to collective bargaining in the sector was adopted. The changes also include contribution to health care insurance that will increase from 4% of wage to 9% in 2029, the daily wage increase by 8% and the compensation in the case of arbitrary dismissal increasing from 15 to 45 daily wages for each year of service, to 360 in total (up from 180) (El Comercio, Dec. 2020; La pasión por derecho, Dec. 2020).

While in 2007, 45.3% of workers had a health care insurance, this rate increased to 77.3% in 2018. The share of workers covered by pension system increased from 2007 to 2018 by 4.7% annually to reach the level of 35.5% (INEI, 2019). Regarding health and safety at work, for the month of December 2011, 337 non-fatal accidents at work were reported and 25 fatal accidents. Mining was the most affected sector (88 accidents in total), followed by manufacturing industry (81). In the whole 2011, 4732 accidents at work were registered (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2011). In December 2019, 2685 non-fatal accidents at work were reported, and 23 fatal ones, while in the whole year 2019, there were 35,083 accidents at work in Peru. Manufacturing industry became a sector with the highest rate of accidents (603 out of 2708, i.e., 22.3%), followed by real estate activities (491 cases, i.e., 18%), construction (345, i.e., 12.6%), transport (317, i.e., 11.6%) and trade (262, i.e., 9.7%) (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, 2019c). Regarding enforcement of norms, incl. on health and safety at work, in 2019, the labour inspection services (National Labour Inspection Authority - SUNAFIL) carried out 55,928 inspections. 72% of them followed a complaint, with the highest number being in the real estate sector followed by trade, manufacturing industry, transport, administration, and construction (SUNAFIL, 2019). In its 2016 report, the ILO Committee of Experts noted that based on Act No. 29981 of January 2013 setting up labour inspection (SUNAFIL), in the transition period of six years, the inspection services should work as a private service provider, before a public service career system is implemented based on Civil Service Act of July 2013. Initial Personnel Assignment Table for inspection services envisaged 460 posts of auxiliary inspectors, 205 labour inspectors and 89 supervisors (by September 2015, out of 754 posts in total, 332 were occupied, of which 199 were auxiliary inspectors, 112 inspectors and 21 supervisors. By September 2016, the total number of personnel increased to 466, however, no break-down by categories was provided). At the TSD Sub-committee meeting in 2020, Peru informed that the number of labour inspectors had increased to 723 in 2019 and 810 in 2020 (European Commission, 2020c). It also informed about development of a training programme for inspection services, including occupational safety and health, inspection procedures and social and labour standards. Information was also provided about equipment (27 vehicles in Lima and one in each of 17 regional offices) and guidance regarding reimbursement of transport costs and supervision of daily expenses. On the other hand, the Committee of Experts received (in addition to information provided by the Government) a position of the Autonomous Workers' Confederation of Peru, referring to the absence of sufficient personnel to ensure the effective operation of the inspection services; the lack of sufficient financial and material resources (premises, equipment and vehicles); freedom of access to workplaces for inspection; the reimbursement of expenses

incurred by labour inspectors in the discharge of their duties; and the procedure for issuing penalties which, does not fulfil its function (CEACR, 2016). In the report published in 2021, the Committee of Experts noted further information provided by the Autonomous Workers' Confederation of Peru, according to which the insufficient number of inspectors means that those who work are overloaded. In addition, SUNAFIL does not provide a safe and healthy working environment, e.g., protective equipment is missing during the pandemic. The Committee also noted, based on information provided by the Government, that the transition of labour inspectors into the civil service system (see above) had not been finished yet and is conducted in stages (CEACR, 2021). At the workshop for this study, the Ministry of Labour delivered a presentation, according to which, the number of labour inspections in enterprises in Peru increased from 21,657 in 2014 to 55,403 in 2020. For 2021, the plans assumed 94,970 inspections. Out of these, in 2020, 86% of all inspections were carried out in micro- and small enterprises. The overall number of micro- and small enterprises inspected in 2020 increased by 32% compared to 2019 and by 61% compared to 2018. The number of large enterprises inspected in 2020 increased by 18% compared to 2019 and by 43% compared to 2018. A small, but also increasing number of inspections took place in public sector. In the year to 15 March 2021, 49,978 cases of different violations of workers' rights were reported to labour inspection, most of them (32,508) in Lima. In the same period, 21,488 workers benefitted from actions to improve or ensure health and safety at work, and labour inspection closed 116 workplaces where 3,819 workers were exposed at a high level of risk. By 2020, the number of regional inspectorates increased to 26 covering the whole territory of the country (Ministerio De Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Perú, 2021). In 2018, cooperation with the ILO, representatives of the construction sector and the Government started a health and safety campaign (no more than 25 kg!) to reduce the weight of cement bags and thus to prevent occupational diseases (at the time, the cement bags in Peru were of 42.5 kg) (ILO, 2018d). Another project launched in 2013 aimed at improved health and safety at work and productivity in enterprises from the agro-exporting sector.<sup>85</sup>

In **Ecuador**, the rate of adequate employment increased from 43.2% in 2007 to 49.3% in 2014. Since then, it started falling to 38.3% in 2019. The rate of adequate employment is understood in this context as a share in the total employment representing workers that work for 40 or more hours per week and earn at least the equivalent of a minimum wage. They may also work for less than 40 hours (because they do not want to work more) and earn at least the minimum wage. Over the same period, the rate of sub-employment went up from 18.2% in 2007 to 21.4% in 2017 to decrease again to 17.8% in 2019. This rate illustrates the share of workers who either have a part-time job (less than 40 hours per week) even though they would like to work full-time, as well as those who work for 40 or more hours per week, but earn less than the minimum wage. Additionally, the rate of those who work part-time for different reasons increased from 23.7% in 2007 to 28.0% in 2019. This group included e.g., women working part-time to run the household for the rest of the time, students combining work with education, persons with disabilities not able to work longer, but also (with an over 50% share in the group) persons operating in the informal economy, in non-registered firms or as self-employed. Both groups included persons with a low level of educational attainment (completed primary education or less). Regarding other job quality indicators, the situation has improved over the analysed period around the social security coverage of workers. While in 2007, 70.5% of workers did not have any social security insurance, this share decreased to 56.9% in 2018. There were, however, large differences between employees and self-employed, and those who had an adequate employment (the share of persons without a social security cover decreased in this group from 54.1% in 2007 to 30.1% in 2014), compared to those in sub-employment or other forms of inadequate employment (here, the share of persons without a social security cover decreased from 84.7% in 2007 to 79.5% in 2014). 90.7% of workers not having a

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<sup>85</sup> ILO, Seguridad y salud en el trabajo y Productividad en la Agroexportación no tradicional en el Perú: [https://www.ilo.org/lima/programas-y-proyectos/WCMS\\_226631/lang-es/index.htm](https://www.ilo.org/lima/programas-y-proyectos/WCMS_226631/lang-es/index.htm)



social security cover in 2014 worked in microenterprises<sup>86</sup>. Another job quality indicator, wages, were increasing between 2007 and 2013, while in the following period, their levels recorded fluctuations and remained at a similar level between 2016 and 2018 (INEC, 2018f; INEC, 2015b; INEC, 2017a; INEC, 2020). One of the elements deciding about the wage level is the minimum wage setting mechanism, according to each, if the tripartite talks do not end with an agreement, wages are set by the Ministry of Labour and then discussed in 22 sectorial councils to establish levels within each sector and across occupations. This may lead to discrepancies between sectors and minimum wage levels for the same occupations in different sectors being set at different levels (e.g., the minimum wage of a driver in the transport sector equals 60% of the minimum wage of a driver in the telecommunications sector). The system is said not to reflect productivity of sectors or enterprises. Therefore, its simplification is recommended e.g., by the World Bank, with a new design being focused on skills levels or age categories (World Bank Group, 2019). Regarding working time, the Labour Code envisages an eight-hour-day and 40 hours a week, essentially, from Monday to Friday. In 2019, 39% of workers in Ecuador worked for 40 hours a week, 19% between 41 and 59 hours and 7% worked for 60 hours or more a week. In 2021, Ecuador ratified ILO Convention No. 190 on Violence and Harassment at the workplace (information provided by the Government of Ecuador).

The number of recorded accidents at work has been increasing systematically in Ecuador, from 6,304 in 2007 to 19,089 in 2017 (including an increase in fatal accidents from 135 in 2007 to over 200 annually in the following years (e.g., 274 in 2011)). Around two thirds of accidents (64.3%) happened at the workplace while 19.2% during the journey to or from work.<sup>87</sup> Labour inspectors carried out 15,600 inspections in 2018 and 26,000 in 2019, out of which 20% resulted in fines for companies (Expresso, January 2020; Ecuador TV (January 2019)). In the first ten months of 2020, labour inspectors conducted 7,409 inspections (European Commission, 2020c). According to the ILO Committee of Experts reports of 2015 and 2019, further to the initial increase in labour inspectors in Ecuador, from 65 in 2006 to 245 in 2013, the number fell again to 207 in 2015 (63 with permanent contracts, 108 with temporary appointments and 24 under call order contracts), allocated to seven regional and 32 provincial branches. Moreover, from 2017 to 2018, the number of inspectors decreased by 22.5% (although it is not clear, how it evolved between 2015 and 2017). At the 2020 TSD Sub-committee meeting, Ecuador informed that there were in total 135 labour inspectors in the country, which means a further reduction compared to previous years (European Commission, 2020c). The Committee of Experts also noted that out of 31 labour inspectors appointed in 2018 none had a permanent contract due to austerity measures. The Committee noted in that context that labour inspection should be composed of public officials whose status and conditions of service provide for stability of employment and ensure independence of changes of government and improper external influences. It also noted a Ministry of Labour project “Integrated Management System of Inspections Project, Integral Inspector 2.0” launched in 2016 aiming to improve work of labour inspection (CEACR 2015; 2019).

In 2019, the Trade Union Association of Agricultural, Banana and Rural Workers (ASTAC) outlined in a complaint working conditions in the banana sector directly employing 200,000 workers and up to 2 million indirectly. The sector displays a substantial concentration of production and exports of banana (e.g., four big enterprises possess 43% of cultivation area while ten enterprises controlled 43% of banana exports in 2017) and imports (supermarket chains), as well as production and distribution of chemicals and technical inputs. Supermarkets play an important role in setting the import price, which (when established at the low level) has a direct impact on revenues, workers’, and producers’ incomes, as well as respect for labour and environmental standards. In a survey carried

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<sup>86</sup> In this context, it is important to note that the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute has (as of 2020) only 60 inspectors to check social security affiliation of workers in 91,562 companies in the country. In 2019, further to 5,977 inspections, social security cover was provided to 40,345 workers (El Comercio, Feb 2020).

<sup>87</sup> IESS, *Boletín Estadístico*: <https://www.iesg.gob.ec/es/web/guest/estadisticas>



out among workers in the sector, 68% did not have a formal contract and 82% who had a written one had not received its copy and did not know its provisions. Moreover, 70.3% did not receive payslips and were not able to check how their salaries had been calculated, including extra hours (80% of workers had working days extended to 10 hours a day), around half of workers did not receive 13<sup>th</sup> or 14<sup>th</sup> salary and two thirds did not have holidays. Protective clothing and tools provided at the plantations were deducted from salaries, as were other (not explained) items. Tasks allocated to workers were in many cases not possible to be completed during a day, which in turn reduced incomes below the minimum wage level. Furthermore, only 49% of workers were covered by the social security contributions (contrary to the existing legislation which foresees penalties for no affiliation of workers to social security by their employer). In 2017 and 2018, three Ministerial regulations introduced special regimes for temporary contracts in the banana sector reducing stability of working relations, and worsening conditions for trade union operation and collective bargaining in the sector. In addition, the requirement of having at least 30 workers to establish a trade union represented a hurdle in the sector where many enterprises are small and owners apply practices to avoid trade union activity (e.g., by dividing enterprises into parts, keeping workers without social security affiliation, creating own trade unions, using threats, etc.) Finally, the use of chemicals has proved to have negative impacts on health of workers and inhabitants in the plantation areas (ASTAC, 2019). In 2017 and 2018, three Ministerial regulations introduced special regimes for temporary contracts<sup>88</sup> in the banana sector, agriculture and agro-industry reducing job quality, stability of working relations, and worsening conditions for trade union operation and collective bargaining in the sector (Iturralde, 2021).

In **the EU**, the proportion of temporary workers to all employees remains stable, at 14%. Temporary workers more often face challenges in access to training, career advancement, job security and decision autonomy. They are also three times more likely to be at risk of poverty than those with permanent contracts (16.3% compared to 5.8% in 2017). Since 2008, the number of part-time jobs increased substantially (being at 19.2% in 2018), however, it started slightly decreasing since 2016. Moreover, the share of involuntary part-time jobs (i.e., people working part-time although willing to have a full-time job) in all part-time jobs decreased from a peak of 29.6% in 2014 to 24.6% in 2018. Self-employed without employees account for 9.8% of employment in the EU, in some cases hiding a *de facto* employee-employer relationship circumventing labour law (e.g., about the minimum wages and working hours), collective agreements, employment tax and social security contributions. The share of “platform workers” in total employment was of 1.4% (as the main activity) in 2018. The lack of clarity concerning their status and form of employment, i.e., employees compared to self-employed, may raise questions about their job quality, rights, and social security coverage. According to a one-off study, undeclared work in the EU was at 9.3% in 2013, with differences between Member States. The European Platform to Tackle Undeclared Work facilitates cooperation between relevant authorities from the EU Member States (European Commission, 2020a).<sup>89</sup> Regarding working time, a full-time employee worked in the EU on average 37.1 hours a week in 2019 (EUROSTAT, 2020). Regarding health and safety at work, the incidence of non-fatal accidents per 100,000 workers decreased slightly between 2012 and 2018 (by 0.8%) with the highest rate being recorded in four sectors: construction, transportation and storage, administration, and manufacturing (EUROSTAT, 2020a). In October 2020, the Commission presented a proposal for an EU Directive aiming to ensure adequate minimum wages for workers across the EU (Advancing the EU social market economy, October 2020). In the annual editions

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<sup>88</sup> Acuerdos Ministeriales No. MDT-2017-0029, del 21 de abril de 2017, que regula las relaciones de trabajo especial en el sector agropecuario, ganadero y agroindustrial; MDT-2018-0096 10 de mayo de 2018 que establece un "Contrato de Trabajo Especial por Actividades a Jornada Parcial para el Sector Agrícola"; MDT-2018-0074, que establece un "Contrato de Trabajo Especial por Actividades a Jornada Parcial para el Sector Bananero".

<sup>89</sup> European Commission, DG Employment, undeclared work: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1298&langId=en>

of a report Employment and Social Developments in Europe, the Commission analysed situation on the labour market and in the EU's economy, progress achieved and challenges ahead and provided proposals for policy responses (Employment and Social Developments in Europe, 2020 and 2019). The EU is also committed to implement the ILO Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work (Joint Statement, 2019).<sup>90</sup>

#### 1.1.8 Consumers, prices, welfare, poverty, and inequality

In **Colombia**<sup>91</sup>, the share of population living below the poverty line has decreased from 42% in 2008<sup>92</sup> to 27% in 2018 (with a later increase to 29% in 2019) and the rate of those living in extreme poverty decreased from 17.8% in 2008 to 7.4% in 2017 increasing then to 10.9% in 2019. For 2020, the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC/CEPAL) forecast a further increase in poverty level to 34.1% and in the extreme poverty to 14.3% (MSN Dinero, July 2020). In the regional overview, there were large differences in poverty and extreme poverty levels between metropolitan areas (30.7% and 6.8% in 2008), towns (39.8% and 13.1% in 2008) and rural areas (65.2% and 32.6% in 2008). The lowest poverty levels in cities were recorded in 2008 in Bogota (22.5%), Bucaramanga (24.7%), Villavicencio (29.2%) and Cali (30.1%), while the highest ones were in Manizales (47.7%) and Montería (41.7%).<sup>93</sup> In 2018, the lowest poverty levels among 23 cities were reported by Manizales (11.9%) and Bogota (12.4%), while the highest ones were recorded in Quibdó (48.3%), Riohacha (47.5%) and Cúcuta (36.2%)<sup>94</sup>. Nationally, higher levels of poverty were related to cases where women acted as heads of households (around 3-5 percentage points higher than in cases when men played that role) and in cases of households led by persons with low level of education, unemployed or being economically active as self-employed (often meaning informal employment), not having social security coverage and in cases where there were three or more children in the family. The Gini coefficient<sup>95</sup> illustrating inequality rate has slightly improved from 0.589 in 2008 to 0.508 in 2017 (values moving towards zero indicate lower level of inequality) (DANE 2008-2019).

Regarding household expenditures, the largest share was related to costs of an apartment (or house), i.e. rent and charges (28.7% in 2016/2017 compared to 23% in 2006/2007), followed by diverse goods and services, e.g. social security, insurance, personal objects (18.3% in 2016/2017 and 19.6% in 2006/2007), food and non-alcoholic beverages (15.9% and 19.2% respectively), transport (9.5% and 9.1%), hospitality, e.g. eating out (8.4% and 9.1%), clothing and footwear (3.9% and 4.5%), household furniture, other equipment and maintenance (3.5% and 3.6%) (DANE, 2018, El Tiempo, 2018). Incomes in 2006/2007 were in 60-80% coming from wages and incomes of self-employed, transfers (10%-25%) and in a much smaller part from capital revenues (1.7%-4.3%) and occasional work

<sup>90</sup> ILO Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work (2019): [https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed\\_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_711674.pdf](https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_711674.pdf)

<sup>91</sup> In addition to other quoted sources, a presentation of the Colombian Department of National Planification (2018) provides a detailed overview of indicators related to poverty in 2007-2017 (Pobreza monetaria y multidimensional en Colombia): <https://colaboracion.dnp.gov.co/CDT/Desarrollo%20Social/Presentaci%C3%B3n%20Pobreza%202009%20-%202017.pdf>

<sup>92</sup> DANE publications from 2008-2009 provide higher values of poverty rate for these two years, i.e. 46% in 2008 and 45.5% in 2009, calculated in line with a previously applied methodology.

<sup>93</sup> Regarding extreme poverty, in 2008, the lowest levels were recorded in Bucaramanga (3.3%), Bogota (3.9%) and Villavicencio (6.0%) while the highest were in Manizales (12.7%) and Barranquilla (10.5%).

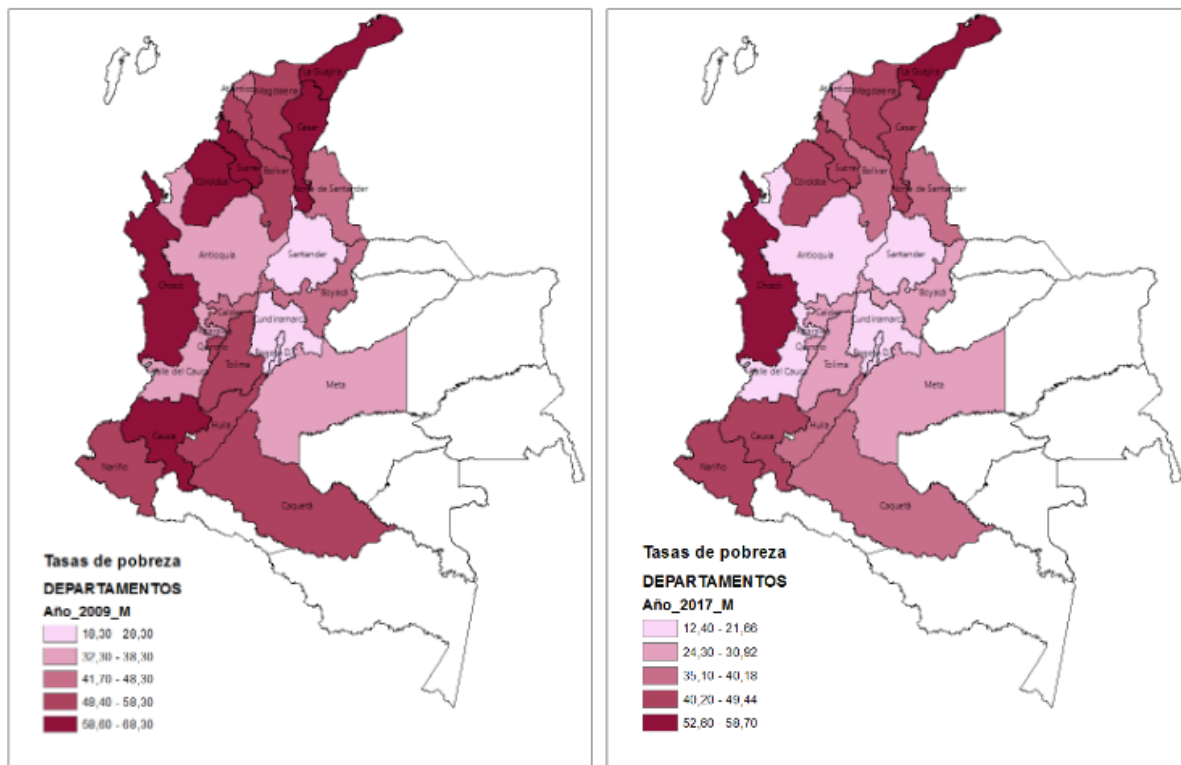
<sup>94</sup> Regarding extreme poverty, in 2018, the lowest levels were recorded in Bucaramanga (1.6%), Pereira (1.7%) and Manizales (2.1%), while the highest were in Quibdó (16.9%), Riohacha (16%).

<sup>95</sup> The Gini coefficient is a measure of statistical dispersion intended to represent an income or wealth distribution among the residents of a given country or region and is the most commonly used measure of inequality. Zero expresses perfect equality, where all values are the same (e.g. everyone has the same income) and 1 (or 100%) maximal inequality among values (e.g. one person has all the income or consumption, and all others have none).

(1.6%-5.1%) (DANE, 2009). In 2016/2017, incomes from wages accounted for 48%, self-employed provided 26.1%, transfers 15%, and capital revenues 5.4% (DANE, 2018).

Factors contributing to poverty reduction included economic growth, job creation, increase in per capita income, stable prices, notably food prices, and the peace process (including land restitution, reparations for victims and projects supporting vulnerable communities). At the beginning of the decade, economic growth was supported by macroeconomic policies and favourable terms of trade, including high commodity prices which encouraged exports and foreign direct investment in oil and mining (World Bank, 2015; 2016). Further to fall in commodity prices in mid-2010s, Colombia increased public deficit, adjusted exchange rate, and reformed tax system in 2016 to create other sources of public revenues and to reduce dependency on incomes from oil exports. Greater public revenues were also meant to support public transfers to further reduce poverty and inequality and to support public investment, e.g., in infrastructure. Other measures simplifying procedures to establish and run enterprises and reducing fiscal burden should help create formal jobs and reduce levels of informality. In this context, OECD recommended to Colombia to take further measures, e.g., to improve the quality and coverage of the education system, and skills development to include also disadvantaged regions and increase productivity (OECD, 2017b).

**Figure 15: Poverty rate in Colombia in 2009 and 2017**



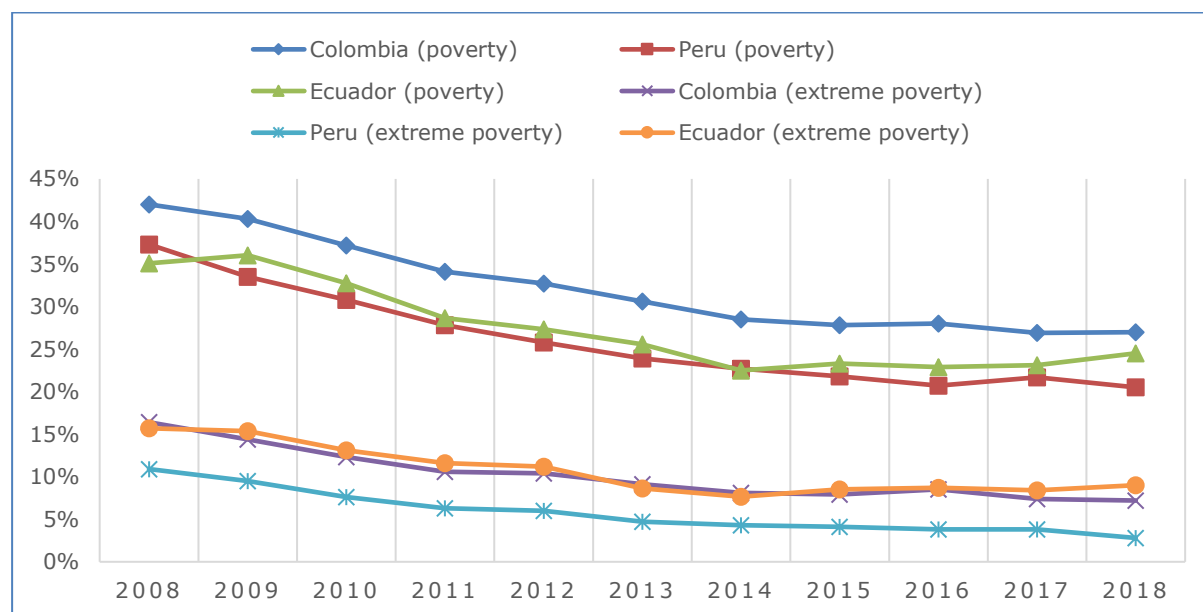
Source: Departamento Nacional de Planeación (2018), Pobreza monetaria y pobreza multidimensional, análisis 2010-2017

In **Peru**, the share of population living in poverty decreased from 42.4% in 2007 to 20.5% in 2018. In the same period, the rate of extreme poverty decreased from 11.2% to 3.8%. Poverty levels in rural areas also decreased from 74% in 2007 to 42.1% in 2018, although during the whole analysed period remained around twice as high as the national average and around three times higher than in urban areas (30.1% in 2007 and 14.4% in 2018). It is estimated that due to COVID-19 and the loss of precarious jobs and incomes, notably in the services sector in urban areas, the levels of poverty may increase in Peru in 2020 to 27%, while the share of people in poverty in urban areas may go up from 15% to 20%. In rural areas, poverty it is likely to increase from 41% to 45% (RPP noticias, September 2020). Moreover, even without taking COVID-19 impacts into account, it is estimated that

further 34% of the population faces a risk of falling into poverty if their situation is not addressed. In urban areas, this is 30.7%, while in rural areas of 46.2%, with agriculture being the sector where the highest share of that group works (Gestión, December 2020). In the regional overview, the lowest rates of poverty were recorded in the coastal regions (14.4% in 2017) and the highest in the mountains (31.6% in 2017). Higher poverty levels were reported among children and teenagers, indigenous population (64.8% in 2007 and 33% in 2017), in households with over four persons and where members represented low levels of education attainment. In 2018, most of the poor (83%) had health care insurance (which marked significant progress compared to 2007 when only 36.2% had it), while only 11.5% had a social security cover with an entitlement to old age pension. 94.4% were in informal employment, mainly in agriculture (55.3%), followed by services, incl. hospitality sector (14.2%) and trade (12.3%). In 2017, 82.6% worked in microenterprises employing 1-5 persons (increase from 78% in 2007). This included 47.4% working as self-employed (INEI, 2018a; 2019a).

Real expenditures increased between 2007 and 2017. The largest expenditure category was represented by food to eat at home (31.4% in 2007 and 26.5% in 2017), followed by costs related to apartment (16.4% in 2007 and 19.5% in 2017), food eaten out (13.7% and 13.4%), health (7.9% and 8.0%), transport (6.4% and 7.2%), diverse goods and services (4.9% and 5.1%), communication (4.3% and 3.9%), education (3.8% and 4.1%), culture and recreation (3.7% and 4.0%), clothing and shoes (3.6% and 4.3%), furniture and house equipment (3.5% and 3.7%). Real incomes also increased although since 2012, the upward trend has been quite flat and in 2017-2018 a drop in incomes measured in current prices was recorded (La República, November 2019; Info Capital Humano, April 2018; Paz, Urrutia, 2015). Slightly over 70% of incomes (in 2007 and 2017) originated from work, and 7.0%-9.0% from transfers, the rest from savings on rent, and public and private donations (INEI, 2018a; 2018b).

**Figure 16: Poverty and extreme poverty levels in Colombia, Ecuador and Peru, 2008-2018**



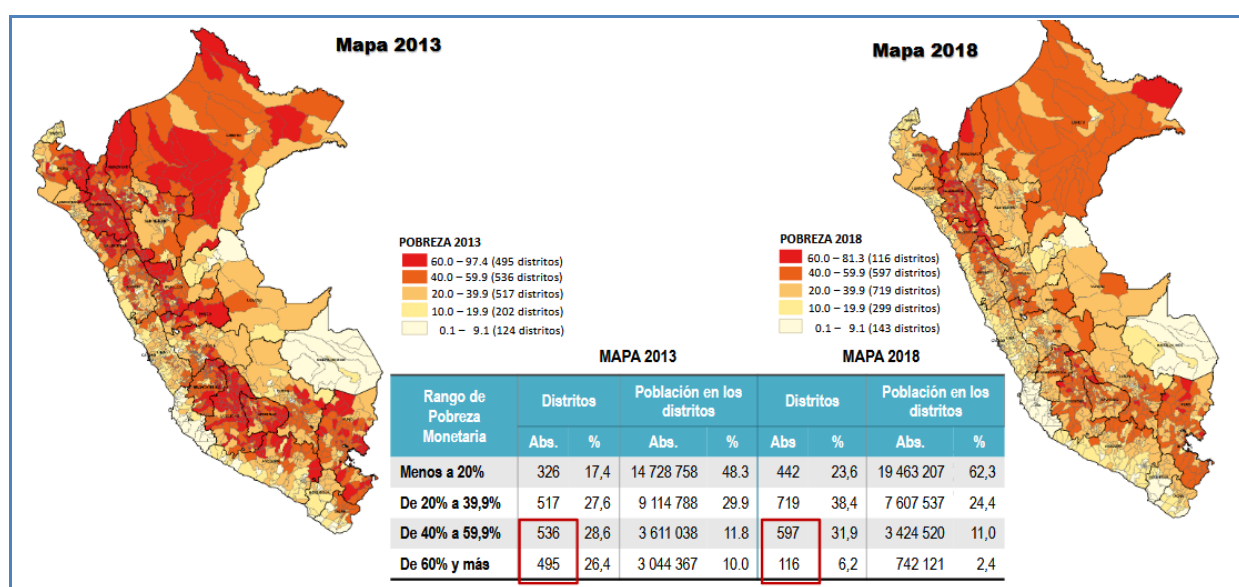
Sources: DANE, Colombia, 2008-2019, Pobreza y desigualdad; INEI, Perú Evolución de la pobreza monetaria 2007-2017; INEI, Perú, Resultados de la pobreza monetaria 2018; INEC, Ecuador (2014), Reporte de pobreza por ingresos; INEC, Ecuador (2016 and 2018), Reporte de pobreza y desigualdad

Factors which contributed to poverty reduction in Peru include economic growth at the beginning of the analysed period driven by high prices of raw materials exported mainly to China, foreign direct investment, trade agreements, low inflation rate, reduced public deficit and redistributive policies, e.g., transfer of half of taxes coming from the mining industry to regions and municipalities where the raw materials had been extracted



(Herrera, 2017). Moreover, the Government designed social interventions supporting households living in poverty in access to health care, education, nutrition programmes in schools, income generation opportunities (e.g., family farms and enterprises) and monetary transfers for persons of the retirement age to support their incomes and welfare.<sup>96</sup> Against the background of the fall in prices of exported commodities halfway through the last decade, some authors advocated the use of reform in tax system to increase income taxes and tax collection and to decrease the burden of indirect taxes. They also supported continuation of social investment programme with expenditures for health care and education, diversification of the economy (to reduce dependency on commodities) and sustainable development, speaking against lowering of labour and environmental standards or introducing too much of flexibility e.g., in the labour market (Oxfam, 2015).

**Figure 17: Poverty rate in Peru in 2013 and 2018**



Source: INEI (2020), Comisión Consultiva de Pobreza, Mapa de pobreza monetaria distrital

In **Ecuador**, the share of population living below the poverty line decreased from 36.7% in 2007 to 22.5% in 2014 to rise again to 24.5% in 2018 (showing also fluctuations along that period) and the rate of extreme poverty has decreased from 16.5% in 2007 to 7.6% in 2014 to increase in 2018 to 9%. In the same period, the level of equality has improved, and the Gini coefficient has changed its value from 0.551 in 2007 to 0.462 in 2017 and 0.472 (slightly worse) in 2018 (INEC, 2014; 2018d). It is estimated that between 2007 and 2017, around 1.6 million people exited poverty and one million extreme poverty in Ecuador (World Bank Group, 2018). However, it is also estimated that due to COVID-19 and job loss, in 2020 the poverty level in Ecuador will increase again, from 27.2% in 2019 to 37.6%, i.e., by 1.8 million persons, and the extreme poverty from 10.7% in 2019 to 19.2% which may nullify (at least in the short-term perspective) the gains from the last decade (Primicias, 2020a). According to Unicef, 715,000 families with children may fall into poverty and be unable to satisfy their needs regarding education, health care, food, place to live, work and social protection. It is also estimated that the lockdown measures and fall in demand for goods and services in 2020, and the resulting job reductions and closure of enterprises may reduce the middle class from 32% to 24.7% of the society (Primicias, 2020b). Regarding the area of residence, poverty levels were higher in the last decade in rural areas (61.5% in 2006 and 47.3% in 2014) than in urban ones (24.9% in 2006 and 15.5% in 2014) and the same goes for extreme poverty, i.e. 26.9% in 2006 and 13.5% in 2014 in rural areas compared to 4.8% in 2006 and 1.9% in 2014 in urban ones. In the regional overview, the highest poverty rates were in the Amazonia region (59.7% in 2006

<sup>96</sup> Ministerio de Desarrollo e Inclusión Social (2018) and Herrera & Cozzubo (2017<sup>a</sup>); BBC (January 2017).

and 47.7% in 2014), followed by coastal region (40.3% in 2006 and 24.7% in 2014) and mountains (33.8% in 2006 and 24.5% in 2014).<sup>97</sup> In the overview across departments and their main cities, there is no clear pattern regarding the poverty rate in the analysed period until 2019. Out of five cities, Cuenca (department of Azuay) and Ambato (Tungurahua) swap in leadership displaying the lowest poverty rates (e.g., Cuenca 4.15% in 2013 and 2.8% in 2018), followed by Quito (Pichincha). Guayaquil (Guayas) and Machala (El Oro) record higher rates. There is no such pattern regarding extreme poverty rates and all cities swap in showing the lowest rates in different years over the analysed period (INEC, 2013, 2014, 2018d). A higher poverty likelihood has been related with children, households having on average five persons or more, indigenous population that has not experienced the same pace of poverty reduction as other groups (poverty rate of 70.9% in 2006 and 64.8% in 2014), low levels of educational attainment (primary or less), work in agriculture (ca. 50% in 2006-2014).

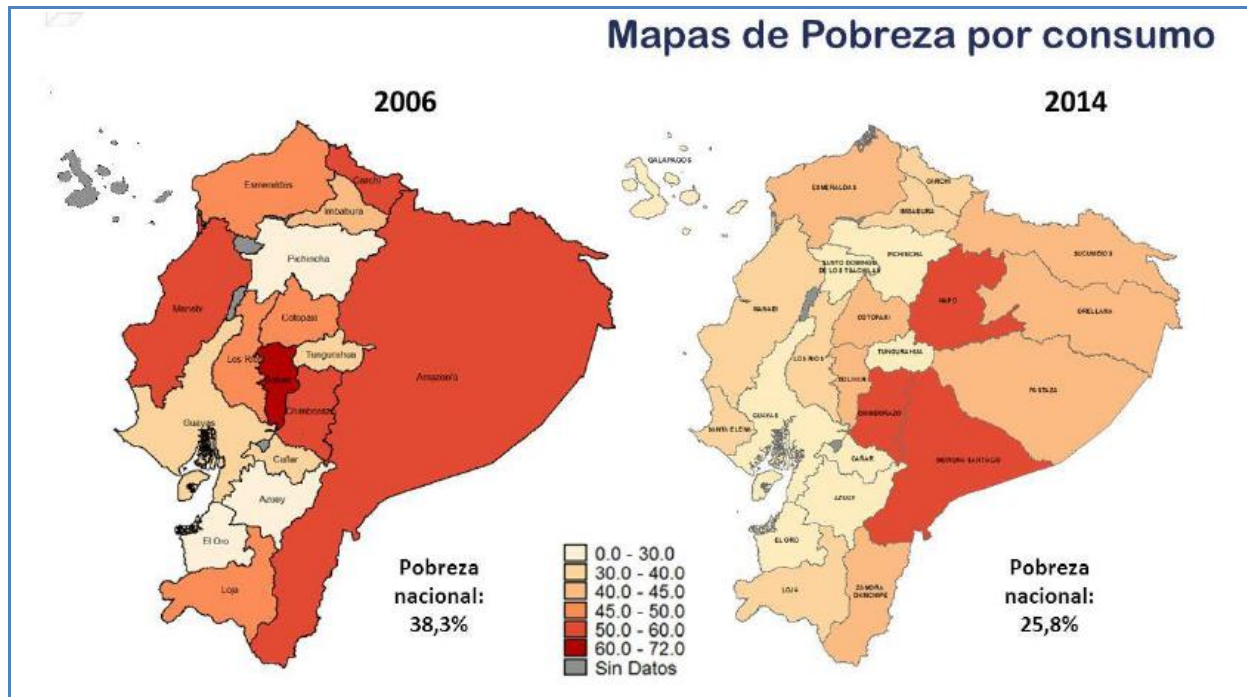
In the first part of the analysed period poverty reduction was related with economic growth, an increase of urban population (due to migration from rural areas), job creation in urban areas (e.g. in construction and services), as part of public investment, real wage increase (by 41% to 51% in the poorest 40% of the population) and minimum wage increase, social policies including extended social security coverage, broader access to health care services and education, and public transfers from the Human Development programme (Bono de Desarrollo Humano) (World Bank, 2018 and 2016a; ODI, 2015). In 2018, the Government adopted the Plan for Prosperity (2018-2021) assuming better management of public funds (e.g., via streamlining of public institutions, improved public procurement, strengthening of the Central Bank, preserving public investment in infrastructure and other development projects, including through public-private partnerships and access to external financing of public debt on better conditions). It also envisaged increased incomes from oil extraction and responsible mining. Regarding the vulnerable part of the population, the Plan included extension of social security coverage, a credit encouraging entrepreneurship in families receiving social cash transfers, access to funds for MSMEs and programmes in agriculture, and improvement of investment conditions for private sector with a view of job creation (Gobierno de Ecuador, 2018).

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<sup>97</sup> Regarding extreme poverty, the highest rates were recoded again in the Amazonia region (39.6% in 2006 and 21.8% in 2014), however, this time in the mountains they were higher (12.2% in 2006 and 5.6% in 2014) than in coastal region (10.8% in 2006 and 4.2% in 2014). See: INEC, Encuesta de Condiciones de Vida 2013-2014: <https://www.ecuadorencifras.gob.ec/encuesta-de-condiciones-de-vida-ecv/>. However, other sources quote different figures, see, e.g.: World Bank Group (2018), *Ecuador Systematic Country Diagnostic*: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/30052>



**Figure 18: Poverty rate in Ecuador in 2006 and 2014**



Source: INEC (2015), Presentación de resultados, Encuesta de Condiciones de Vida 2013-2014

The new credit programme agreed with IMF for USD 6.5 billion for 27 months foresees inter alia extension of the social protection cover in Ecuador. The Government committed to provide it to 80% (instead of the current 37%) families from the 30% of the population having the lowest incomes. This means supporting 225,000 instead of 62,240 families with the Bono de Desarrollo Humano in 2020 and another 400,000 families in 2021. The country has also been advised to review the social register (data base providing reference for social assistance) to ensure that it covers all persons and families in need. This would serve also as a starting point for a broader support to persons eligible for pensions and other social benefits (the Human Development Credit). In the spring 2020, the Government provided financial assistance to families in extreme poverty to buy food and to ensure health care (Primicias, 2020a).

Regarding purchasing power of the society as consumers and their expenditures, in 2011-12, costs of food and non-alcoholic beverages accounted for 24.4% of average household expenditures, followed by transport (14.6%), diverse goods and services (9.9%), clothing and footwear (7.9%), hotels and restaurants (7.7%), health (7.5%), apartment/house (7.4%), furniture and other equipment (5.9%), communication (5%), culture and recreation (4.6%) and education (4.4%) (INEC, 2012).

#### 1.1.9 Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) / Responsible Business Conduct (RBC)

**Colombia** adopted in 2015 the National Action Plan on Business and Human Rights, with an emphasis on three sectors: mining and energy, agro-industry and infrastructure given that they have a potential to create social conflicts and have impacts on human rights and environment (Consejería Presidencial DDHH, 2015). The Plan has been aligned with the National Strategy for Human Rights 2014-2034 and Public Policy for Business and Human Rights (2014). Two reports analysing its implementation were published in 2017 and 2018 (Consejería Presidencial DDHH, 2017a and 2018a) followed by recommendations issued in 2018 concerning its revision and update, meant as a guidance for the new Government in Colombia (Consejería Presidencial DDHH, 2018b). Among achievements of the Plan, there are guidelines for socially responsible public procurement and human rights policy for the mining sector (Consejería Presidencial, 2018). In this context, it is worth to mention that

civil society representatives from the EU and the Andean partner countries gathered at the annual joint meeting under the Trade and Sustainable Development Title in Lima in 2017 emphasised the role which the National Action Plan on Business and Human Rights can play in encouraging respect for human rights by enterprises. They noted however, that the 2015 version of the Plan should be revised to take account of the Peace Agreement and that civil society, and the affected communities should have an opportunity to contribute to the updated version. They also made a reference to the Roadmap set by the European Parliament in 2012 to improve respect for human rights and labour and environmental standards in Colombia.<sup>98</sup> Indeed, the work on the new National Action Plan started in 2019 and public consultations were carried out. The Plan was adopted in 2019 (Consejería Presidencial DDHH, 2019). Colombia belongs to Parties adhering to OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises and has established the National Contact Point in the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Tourism. Between 2016 and 2020, it has considered five specific instances in total, i.e., complaints against companies not complying with the Guidelines. The cases were related to the mining sector, hospitality, communication, insurance and oil and gas sectors<sup>99</sup> According to the state of 2018, in addition to the existing international instruments in the area of CSR, there was some guidance in Colombia regarding practices which may be followed by companies, however, there was no legislation which would regulate any of their elements. In 2010, the Constitutional Court passed the ruling saying *inter alia* that CSR practices are voluntary and should complement, in the spirit of solidarity, the economic dimension of company's operation (La República, April 2018).

Colombian enterprises pursue CSR/RBC practices. In the Sustainability Yearbook published in 2019 by RobecoSAM (a company specialised in environmental, social and governance data), 12 Colombian enterprises were listed among leading in their sectors, including two classified in the "gold class" (Bancolombia SA in the banking sector and Grupo Argos in the construction materials sector). Moreover, three companies representing food products, financial services, and construction materials ranked in the silver class, while one from the electric utilities sector in the bronze one.<sup>100</sup> In a survey carried out in 2016 in Colombia among 5,238 persons: CSR experts, financial analysts, economic journalists, Government representatives, NGOs, trade unions, consumer associations, social media managers and company managers, analysing CSR/RBC practices applied by Colombian enterprises, the top four scorers included a banking group, two representatives of the food and drink sector and a company from the construction materials sector. In a similar ranking of 2019, three of them remained at the top (Dinero, 2017).

In **Peru**, work on the National Action Plan for Business and Human Rights started in 2018 and has been led by the Ministry of Justice and Human Rights with contributions from civil society organisations and universities, the latter being invited to prepare diagnosis of the state of play in the country, as a baseline preceding formulation of the Plan (Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú, August 2019; July 2020). The Plan was adopted in June 2021 (ILO, June 2021a). There are also other initiatives, e.g., the programme Responsible Peru, promoting CSR/RBC practices and culture through training, workshops and technical assistance for enterprises to improve their competitiveness and sustainability with a focus on those forming part of value chains of large enterprises or being suppliers of public sector institutions. Another part of the programme aims at improving employability and creating jobs and entrepreneurship opportunities for people from vulnerable groups, through cooperation between business, universities, regional and local authorities, and civil society organisations. While aiming at reducing inequalities in opportunities in the society, it also

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<sup>98</sup> Summary of the discussion and key messages of civil society representatives and participants from the EU, Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador (TSD Title), 2017: <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/en/final-declaration>

<sup>99</sup> OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises: <http://mneguidelines.oecd.org/>

<sup>100</sup> The participating companies from 60 sectors and countries from across the world were assessed in a number of criteria. Those that scored 60 points and above and were in the top 1% of their industry qualified to the gold class. Those with at least 57 points and ranking within 1% to 5% of the top companies in their sector qualified to the silver class and those within the top 5% to 10% and with at least 54 points fell in the bronze class (RobecoSAM, 2019).

contributes to achieving SDGs. The programme improves visibility of CRS/RBC practices by maintaining register of socially responsible enterprises, national directory of companies with sustainability reports, and granting a certificate "Responsible Peru" to enterprises managed in a socially responsible way (Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo, Peru Programa Nacional). Moreover, belongs to Parties adhering to the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises and has established the National Contact Point at the Investment Promotion Agency (PROINVERSION) (NCP for OECD Guidelines, Peru). Between 2009 and 2018, it handled five specific instances, i.e., complaints against businesses operating in the mining sector, telecommunications, metal processing, and hotel industry.

According to a survey carried out by the National Confederation of Private Business Institutions (CONFIEP) with 260 Peruvian enterprises, 45% of them pursued human rights policy in their operations and 76% of these applied it in relations with their suppliers (Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos, July 2019). Peruvian enterprises and multinationals operating in the country provide also examples of CSR/RBC practices, including those outlined in the annual report of the international network Corresponsables. In its 2017 Peru edition, each participating company was also assessed regarding its contribution to attainment of SDG (Corresponsables, Perú, 2017a).

With an event held in October 2020, **Ecuador** launched the process of elaboration of the National Action Plan on Business and Human Rights (Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores de Ecuador, October 2020). The Government will be supported in this work by OECD, UN agencies, the ILO, and the EU. The Plan will form part of the EU project implemented since 2019, related to promoting CSR/RBC practices in countries of Latin America and the Caribbean (Secretaría Técnica Planifica Ecuador, October 2020). Ecuador does not adhere yet to the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises and therefore does not have an NCP within this framework. However, there are examples of CSR/RBC practices followed by companies and outlined in the annual report of international network Corresponsables (2017 edition for Ecuador) (Corresponsables, Ecuador, 2017).

## **Annex C-2: Environmental Policy Profiles**

### *1.1.1 Ratification and implementation of Multilateral Environmental Agreements by the Parties*

The **EU** reported progress on the implementation of MEAs under Article 270, and actions to implement its Paris Agreement (PA) commitments (third annual implementation report, 2017). It had tabled several important regulatory proposals to implement its Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) under the PA, including the third Energy Package (TSD Sub-Committee, 2016). In December 2019, the EU communicated the Green Deal in which it expressed the ambition to become the first climate-neutral continent in the world (by 2050). Based on the Green Deal now, it is committed to reduce its emissions by 55% in 2030 compared to 1990 (COM, 2020). The Green Deal should contribute to the implementation of the PA, MEAs, as well as other European environmental policies. The Green Deal is discussed in more detail in the following section (1.1.2).

In the analysed period, **EU Member States** made progress regarding the implementation of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES). In 2015, the EU became a member of the CITES (TSD Sub-committee, 2015). The second annual report (2016) discussed progress on the implementation of the Rotterdam Convention on the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in International Trade plans for an EU Action Plan Against Wildlife Trafficking. The EU has ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) Nagoya Protocol on Access to Genetic Resources and the Fair and Equitable Sharing of Benefits and is progressing on its implementation (TSD Sub-committee, 2016). In 2017, Minamata Convention on Mercury<sup>101</sup> was approved by the EU.

**Colombia** reported progress on implementation of MEAs under Article 270, such as the Basel Convention, the Montreal Protocol, the Convention on Biological Diversity, the Cartagena Protocol, and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (1<sup>st</sup> annual implementation report, 2015). Colombia has not yet ratified the Nagoya Protocol (CBD, n.d.).

It also reported progress on the implementation of the CITES as its national legislation status belongs to the first (i.e., best) CITES category<sup>102</sup>. There has been continued dialogue between the EU and Colombia regarding the implementation of robust control mechanisms for trade in CITES-listed crocodile and caiman skins (Annual implementation report, 2017). During the CITES COP (COP18) of 2019, Colombia discussed among others the proposals for the inclusion of marine species in the appendices of the Convention and the engagement mechanism for rural communities (TSD Sub-committee, 2019). In several TSD Sub-committees, Colombia emphasised their commitment to the PA and the CBD (TSD Sub-committee, 2016, 2019). Colombia ratified the PA in 2018. The year 2019 is regarded as an important year concerning Colombia's progress on climate policies and to complete the so-called Katowice package (i.e., emission monitoring/reporting as per the rules of the PA) as agreed at COP24.

In 2019, the country ratified the Minamata Convention (TSD Sub-committee, 2019). Colombia was a key player in the final stage of the negotiations for the Minamata Convention. As a recognition of leadership and for having been host of the preparatory sessions of the Group of Latin America and the Caribbean (GRULAC), the UNEP awarded the country the "Mercury Club Bronze Award"<sup>103</sup>.

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<sup>101</sup> The Minamata Convention on Mercury is an international treaty designed to protect human health and the environment from anthropogenic emissions and releases of mercury and mercury compounds.

<sup>102</sup> Legislation that is believed generally to meet the requirements for implementation of CITES

<sup>103</sup> For more information see <http://www.mercuryconvention.org/Negotiations/HgClub/tabid/4222/Default.aspx>

**Peru** reported progress on the implementation of the CITES Convention. Its legislation is considered among the first (best) category of CITES. Peru ratified the Nagoya Protocol in 2014. It expressed its commitments to the PA and the CBD. In 2017, it ratified the Minamata Convention. During the TSD Sub-committees, Peru mainly presented its progress on national environmental policies, which have contributed indirectly to the implementation of MEAs (TSD Sub-committee, 2016, 2019). These concrete policies are discussed in section 1.1.2 further down.

In 2017, organisations representing civil society expressed their concerns about Peru not being compliant with its TSD commitments (TSD Sub-committee, 2017). As a response, the Peruvian government and the EU intensified their dialogue, and several technical meetings were held with civil society stakeholders to address the complaints. Since then, Peru worked on several concrete measures (e.g., strengthening the environmental impact assessment system), which are discussed in more detail in section 1.1.2. As Peru predominantly reported on changes in the light of national legislation, progress with respect to MEAs is not discussed here.

**Ecuador** reported progress on the implementation of the CBD. The CBD's 6th national report was finalised in 2018. Ecuador updated its NDC (Nationally Determined Contribution)<sup>104</sup> for the PA in 2019, which contains national commitments designed to keep the temperature below 2 degrees Celsius, in accordance with the objectives set out in the PA (TSD Sub-Committee, 2019). Ecuador reported that it is making progress on the implementation of the REDD+ Action Plan, a national policy that will contribute to the goal of zero net deforestation by 2030 (TSD Sub-Committee, 2019). Ecuador ratified the Nagoya Protocol in 2017. Progress is also reported on the Protocol's implementation as Ecuador started two projects to strengthen the implementation (TSD Sub-committee, 2019). Moreover, a national committee for biosafety was established in relation to the Cartagena Protocol, and the Minamata Convention.

During the 6<sup>th</sup> TSD Sub-committee in Bogota, Ecuador reaffirmed its commitments to the implementation of CITES as Ecuador. Ecuador, unlike Colombia and Peru, is grouped under CITES category 2<sup>105</sup>. It was, however, successful in their efforts to include the species *Cedrela* under Appendix II of the CITES Convention. It has also supported the CITES authorities, the Environmental Protection Unit of the National Police and INTERPOL in conducting operational control activities. Moreover, recommendations made by the secretariat of CITES Convention are included in the Organic Environmental Code (COA) (further discussed in the next section) In 2019, Ecuador and the Secretariat of CITES agreed on a revised legislative analysis.<sup>106</sup>

In 2018, the Escazú Agreement on Access to Information, Public Participation and Justice in Environmental Matters was approved. This agreement is the first regional environmental human rights treaty in **Latin America and the Caribbean**. The three Andean countries all signed the Agreement in 2019.<sup>107</sup> **Ecuador** has ratified the agreement (in 2020), unlike Colombia and Peru.

### 1.1.2 Environmental Policies

In the analysed period, the **EU** announced the European Green Deal,<sup>108</sup> which is the European new growth strategy to obtain a climate neutral Europe by 2050. It proposes a European Climate Law and the possibility of having carbon border adjustment mechanism

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<sup>104</sup> See also <https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/ndcstaging/PublishedDocuments/Ecuador%20First/Primera%20NDC%20Ecuador.pdf>

<sup>105</sup> Legislation that is believed generally to meet not all the requirements for implementation of CITES.

<sup>106</sup> See also [https://cites.org/sites/default/files/LAC/Legislative\\_status\\_table\\_October\\_2020.pdf](https://cites.org/sites/default/files/LAC/Legislative_status_table_October_2020.pdf)

<sup>107</sup> UN (2020) United Nations Treaty Collection. Chapter XXVII 18.

<sup>108</sup> See for more information [https://ec.europa.eu/info/strategy/priorities-2019-2024/european-green-deal\\_en](https://ec.europa.eu/info/strategy/priorities-2019-2024/european-green-deal_en)



(CBAM) that is compatible with the WTO standards (TSD Subcommittees 2019 and 2020). In addition, the EU Green Deal proposes two action plans to 1) boost the efficient use of resources, by moving to a clean and circular economy and 2) restore biodiversity and cut pollution. The EU Green Deal aims for a just and inclusive transition and provides financial support and technical assistance to help those that are most affected by the move towards the green economy (i.e., Just Transition Mechanism). At least €100 billion will be mobilised to support the most affected regions over the period 2021-2027 (European Commission, 2019).

With the 2030 Biodiversity Strategy, the EU commits to strengthen its work on biodiversity conservation. Key elements of the new strategy include targets to establish at least 30% of protected land and 30% of protected sea in Europe (European Commission, 2019). During the TSD Sub-committee meetings in 2019 and 2020, the EU highlighted the need for cooperation to combat biodiversity loss and reach an ambitious agreement at the next CBD COP.

In 2014, the EU, together with 16 other members of the WTO, developed the Environmental Goods Agreement, liberalising the environmental goods and services (European Commission, 2016).

**Colombia** is making progress in the areas of circular economy, green growth, and green businesses. In 2018, it launched the National strategy for **Circular Economy**, one of the central vehicles to meet the Colombian government's goals of increasing the recycling and reuse of solid waste to 17.9% by 2030 (Minambiente, 2018b). More information on circular economy and waste can be found in section 7.1.3 of the main report. An important strategy of the National Development Plan (PND) (2018-2022) is to promote **Green and Sustainable Businesses** (i.e. National Green Business Plan). In line with this strategy, Colombia created the Green Business Generation Programme in cooperation with the EU. During the 5<sup>th</sup> TSD Sub-Committee in Quito (2018), Colombia announced that the programme resulted in 683 green businesses, corresponding with 4,835 jobs and 118 million Colombian pesos in sales<sup>109</sup> (TSD Sub-committee, 2018). The PND also included environmental objectives related to biodiversity, land use planning, climate change, and green growth.

**Peru** is advancing on air quality and on environmental impact assessments, evaluations, and monitoring. Regarding **air quality**, the modification of the Selective Consumption Tax aims to promote the purchase of cleaner and more efficient vehicles. Likewise, the National Protocol for the Monitoring of Environmental Air Quality was approved in 2019 (TSD Sub-committee, 2019). Peru also strengthened the capacity of monitoring of the air quality, as it increased the number of monitoring stations (TSD Sub-committee, 2018). More information on air quality can be found in section 7.1.3 of the main report.

Peru strengthened its **environmental impact assessment system** as a reaction to civil society organisations' complaints about e.g., potential lowered environmental protection levels.<sup>110</sup> Actions include:

- The National Service of Environmental Certification (SENACE) has been assigned responsibility for environmental impact assessments in various sectors (mining, electricity generation, hydrocarbons, transport, agriculture and solid waste management);

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<sup>109</sup> For more information see: <https://www.minambiente.gov.co/index.php/noticias-minambiente/3807-con-cooperacion-de-la-union-europea-programa-de-generacion-de-negocios-verdes-logro-ventas-por-118-000-millones-en-el-ultimo-ano>

<sup>110</sup> In 2017, civil society organisations issued a complaint to the EU, expressing their concerns about Peru's lack of compliance with its trade and sustainable development commitments.



- Development of a guide for the construction of baselines in environmental impact studies within the framework of National System of Environmental Impact Assessment (SEIA);
- Improved information availability for administrations and civil society, which enables civil society to have better access to records of complaints, among others. The implementation of the Computer Platform of the Single Window of Environmental Certification (EVA) increases the information availability to citizens, as all EIA studies since November 15, 2018 are available;
- Better monitoring of the results of the interventions carried out in priority impact areas which contributes to greater efficiency in its management (TSD Sub-committee, 2018, 2019).

Regarding **environmental enforcement**, Peru has taken several actions such as:

- The Legislative Decree 1389 of 14 September 2018 strengthening the Assessment and Environmental Control Agency (OEFA);
- Expanding the number of sectors that fall under the (OEFA). The agricultural sector will be included as well (TSD Sub-committee, 2018, 2019).

The strategy axes "Perú Limpio" (Clean Peru) and "Perú Natural" (Natural Peru) includes several environmental priorities, such as biological diversity, especially forests; climate change adaptation and mitigation; efficient management of solid waste; integrated coastal zone management; prevention and control of pollution; green business and eco-efficiency. Related key instruments are among others 1) the green investments guide (i.e., the R.M. 178-2019-MINAM),<sup>111</sup> 2) the approval of Law N° 30884 on solid waste management, which regulates the single-use plastic and containers or packaging disposable (D.S. 006-2019-MINAM), 3) the *Antonio Brack Egg national environmental award* which is related CSR,<sup>112</sup> and 4) environmental education and information campaigns (TSD Sub-committee, 2016, 2018, 2019).

In 2017, **Ecuador** approved the new Organic Code of the Environment (COA)<sup>113</sup> which became the most important standard in environmental matters. It includes among others protected area management, sustainable forest management, environmental regulation, climate change, coastal marine management, and citizen participation. With the adoption of the COA regulation in 2019, three committees were established to coordinate intersectoral public policy on 1) Environmental Quality, 2) Biosecurity and 3) Natural Heritage (TSD Sub-committee, 2018, 2019).

The Ministry of Environment made several improvements in relation to environmental regulation, these are among others; the strengthening of the licensing process and development of a manual to clearly define the procedures for environmental licensing. Ecuador developed a new mining policy (period 2019-2030), which was developed in a participatory process with civil society, companies, and state institutions.

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<sup>111</sup> Guidelines for the formulation of investment projects in the typologies of ecosystems, species, and support for the sustainable use of biodiversity

<sup>112</sup> The Antonio Brack Egg National Environmental Award is the highest recognition that the Peruvian State grants to natural or legal persons that contribute to environmental protection, sustainable management of natural resources and environmental conservation, through practices that can be replicated.

<sup>113</sup> This law replaces the old Forestry and Conservation Law of natural areas and wildlife (FAO, 2017).



## ANNEX D: ANALYSIS OF ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

### *Annex D-1: Environmental baselines in the Parties - Performance*

In this section, the baseline situation is described for three different environmental impact areas: climate change, biodiversity and national resources, and other key environmental parameters (including three additional topics: water, air quality, and waste management and circular economy). In these baselines, both the governance framework per country and the environmental performance in the period around the Agreement are discussed.<sup>114</sup> The baselines serve various purposes:

- They set the scene with regard to environmental performance in the Parties over the past years to inform civil society; and
- They allow for (and contribute to) a more efficient, effective, and targeted assessment of the environmental impacts of the Agreement.

We note that the baselines are based on a descriptive analysis on trends and developments in different environmental impact areas in different countries, but do not establish any causal links between the Agreement and the impact areas.

#### *1.1.1 Climate change*

##### *1.1.1.1 Climate change in the Andean countries*

According to the Climate Risk Index (CRI)<sup>115</sup>, Colombia and Peru are particularly vulnerable as they are identified in the first quartile<sup>116</sup> of countries most vulnerable to climate change globally (GermanWatch, 2019).

Climate related impacts differ across (climate) regions (Magrin et al., 2014) (CEPAL, 2018). Along the **coastline**, the major impacts related to climate change are sea level rise (which increases the incidence of floods), coastal erosion, and more frequent extreme weather events. Aside from the coastal effects, climate change also poses a significant threat to ocean life as it leads to acidification, which is likely to negatively affect aquatic ecosystems (i.e., fish population).

In the **Andean highlands**, the major climate impacts are related to water as climate change alters precipitation, run-off patterns and glacier melt. As a result, water is expected to become even more scarce in dry season. In wet season, more extreme water run-off is expected, increasing the risk for floods and landslides (Magrin et al., 2014). These impacts on water availability are in turn expected to negatively affect the agricultural sector (GFDRR, 2011; IPCC, 2019).

In the tropical areas, like **the Amazon**, extreme droughts and record floods have been observed since the start of this millennium. Reduced rainfall may lead to irreversible replacement of Amazon forests by savanna-like vegetation (Magrin et al., 2014). This could in turn have major impacts on biodiversity and the global and regional climate. In all

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<sup>114</sup> The governance sections are presented in Annex D-2.

<sup>115</sup> The Global Climate Risk Index (CRI) analyses quantified impacts of extreme weather events (storms, floods, heat waves etc.) both in terms of fatalities as well as economic losses that occurred based on data from the Munich Re NatCatSERVICE (GermanWatch, 2019).

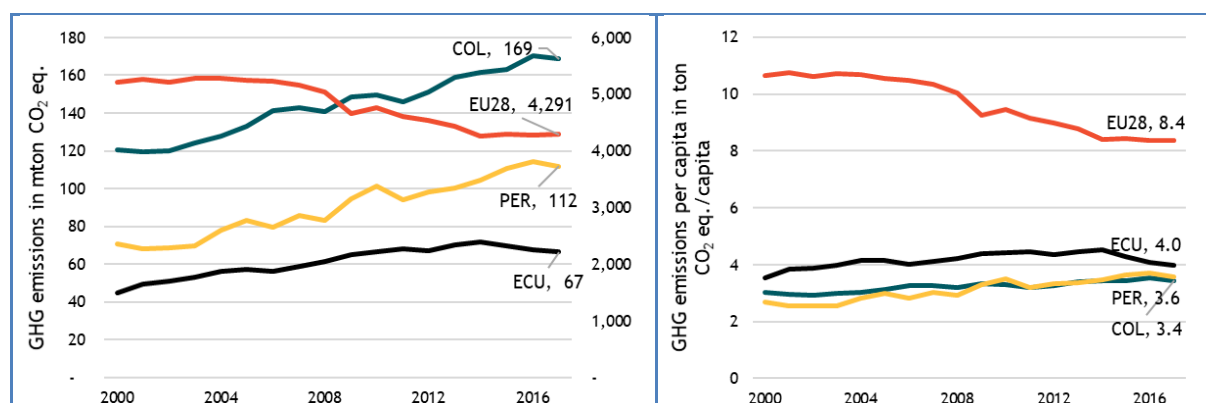
<sup>116</sup> Colombia is ranked 44, Peru 47 (among the 25% of data points with higher values) and Ecuador 100 out of 181 in the Climate Risk Index (which assesses the climate risks between 1999-2018) (GermanWatch, 2019).

regions discussed, climate change is also expected to intensify the incidence of tropical diseases like dengue fever and malaria.

#### 1.1.1.2 Evolution in gross greenhouse gas emissions

In the Andean countries, GHG emissions seem not to have peaked yet: emissions have been growing during this millennium and no clear downward trend has been observed for a longer period (as shown in Figure D-1, left panel). In absolute terms, however, total GHG emissions in the EU28 (4,291 megatonne CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent<sup>117</sup>) were still magnitudes higher than the emissions in Colombia (169 mtonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq.), Ecuador (67 CO<sub>2</sub>-eq.) and Peru (112 CO<sub>2</sub>-eq.) in 2017. As the Andean countries differ substantially from the EU, both in terms of population and economy size, these numbers are difficult to compare. Yet, also after correction for population differences, EU GHG emissions are still significantly higher compared to the Andean GHG emissions, as shown in Figure D-1 (right panel). Thus, the same pattern is observed, both in absolute as well as per capita GHG emissions: GHG emissions in the EU are significantly higher than emissions in the Andean countries, but emissions have been decreasing in the EU, in contrast to emissions in the Andean countries.

**Figure D-1: Gross GHG emissions (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) in Mtonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq., excluding LULUCF emissions (left panel; EU28 on secondary axis) and gross GHG emissions per capita in tonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq., excluding LULUCF emissions (right panel)**



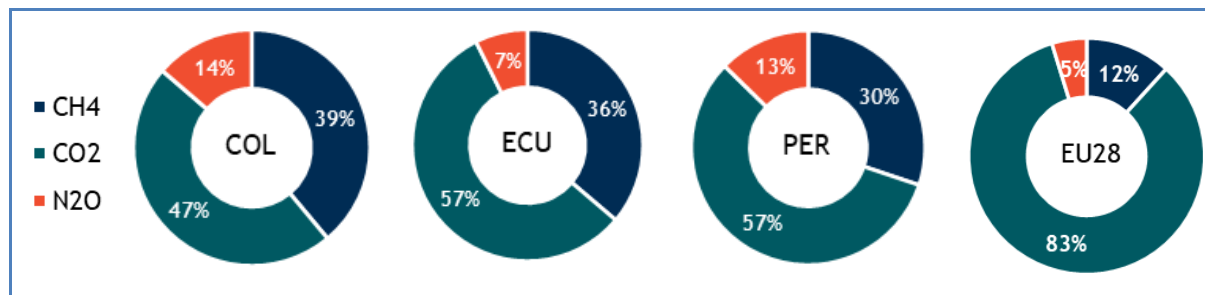
Source: Trinomics, based on PRIMAP, EDGAR and World Bank

The Andean countries differ substantially from the EU in terms of the relative shares of different GHGs. Figure D-2 shows the shares of the three most significant<sup>118</sup> GHGs in 2012. **Even though CO<sub>2</sub> emissions represent the largest share of emissions, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions accounted for a much larger share in the EU (83%) than in Colombia (47%), Ecuador and Peru (both 57%).**

<sup>117</sup> GHGs differ in terms of their *global warming potential* (GWP). The GWP refers to the heat absorbed by any GHG in the atmosphere, relative to the heat absorbed by the same mass of CO<sub>2</sub>. As such, the GWP is 1 for CO<sub>2</sub>. CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalence (CO<sub>2</sub>-eq.) is the unit used to compare the climate effects of different GHGs and corrects for the differences in GWPs.

<sup>118</sup> Most significant in terms of emissions in tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. per year.

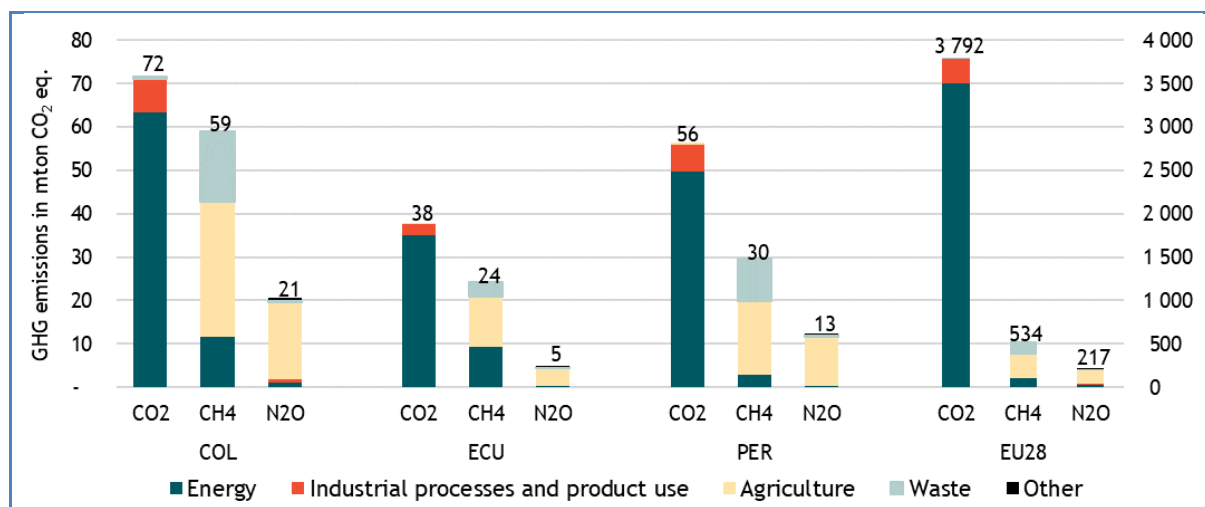
**Figure D-2: Shares of different GHG emissions (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) in 2012, per country**



Source: Trinomics (2021), based on PRIMAP

The differences in terms of the proportions of different GHGs are predominantly caused by fundamental economic and geographical differences between the EU and the Andean countries (Figure D-3). In the EU, most of the GHG emissions are driven by energy use and industrial processes.<sup>119</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> is the major GHG related to energy generation and industrial processes. **In the Andean countries, emissions related to energy use and industrial processes account for a significant share of total GHG emissions. However, compared to the EU, emissions related to energy use and industrial processes account for a much smaller share, while the share of agricultural emissions is much larger in the Andean countries compared to the EU.** Whereas in the EU, the agricultural sector accounts for roughly 10% of total GHG emissions, the sector accounts for roughly 20-30% of the total emissions in the Andean countries. The major GHG emissions related to agriculture are CH<sub>4</sub> (livestock) and N<sub>2</sub>O (soil).

**Figure D-3 Greenhouse gas emissions (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) per sector in 2012 (EU on secondary axis)**



Sectors defined as per IPCC 2008 classification (transport emissions are therefore reported under "energy"). Source: Trinomics (2021), based on PRIMAP, Edgar.

When analysing the targets set in the first NDCs from both the EU and the Andean countries as part of the Paris Agreement (PA), independent estimates had concluded that most of the targets set were not consistent with holding global warming below 2°C (CAT,2020a). However, these estimates do not consider the updated NDCs submitted in 2020. The European Commission updated the **EU** target to at least a 55% reduction compared to 1990. **Colombia** committed in December 2020 to a 51% reduction compared to BAU and to reduce black carbon emissions by 40% compared to 2014 in 2030. **Peru** committed to

<sup>119</sup> A significant share of the emissions categories as energy-related emissions are resulting from energy use in the industrial sector and therefore still related to economic differences between the EU and the Andean countries.

limit its GHG emissions to a maximum level of 208.8 Mtonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. (unconditional) and 179.0 Mtonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. (conditional) in 2030. **Ecuador's** latest NDC was submitted in 2019 (after a unique participatory process), where the country presents its commitment in lines of action by sector (instead of GHG reductions), in (inter alia) energy, agriculture, and industrial processes.

#### 1.1.1.3 The role of LULUCF

The role of land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) in reducing GHG emissions has long been recognised, as some activities within the sector can drive changes in the exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> between the terrestrial biosphere system and the atmosphere. On the one hand, LULUCF can mitigate climate change by the removal of GHGs from the atmosphere and halting the loss of carbon stocks; and on the other hand, some LULUCF activities have the potential to result in great amounts of GHG emissions if not properly managed (e.g., by illegal logging or unsustainable forest management) (UNFCCC, n.d.a).

Colombia, Peru and Ecuador included emission reductions in the LULUCF sector in their NDCs commitments to the PA. First, Colombia's NDC reaffirms its pledge to reduce deforestation in the Amazon region as a key strategy to reduce emissions. Similarly, in its NDC, Peru presented eight measures specifically targeting emissions of the LULUCF sector including the conservation of the Amazon forest, promotion of sustainable forest management, assignment of rights to uncategorised lands of the Amazon, and encouraging forest plantations for commercial and restoration purposes. For its part, Ecuador's NDC contained eight lines of actions such as expanding protected areas and strengthening forest monitoring that jointly have the potential to result in sectorial GHG reductions of 4% (16% under the condition of sufficient international support).

Besides the commitments set in the PA, the Andean countries joined the Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+ Programme) aiming to reduce the LULUCF-related emissions. REDD+ is a framework negotiated under the UNFCCC to guide activities in the forest sector to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, as well as the sustainable management of forests and the conservation and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (UNFCCC, n.d.b). In **Colombia**, in the context of REDD+, the REDD Early Movers (REM) is an example of a programme that was established to prevent deforestation in the Amazon. REM is a programme created by the German government and administered by the German Development Bank KfW, and signed by Colombia in 2015. The programme is based on pay-for-results financing scheme and rewards measurable and verified emission reductions from deforestation in the Amazon biome. This program is executed through the Amazon Vision Programme (PVA), which is led by Minambiente as the strategy to implement a green growth model that seeks to reduce emissions from deforestation (Minambiente, 2018c).

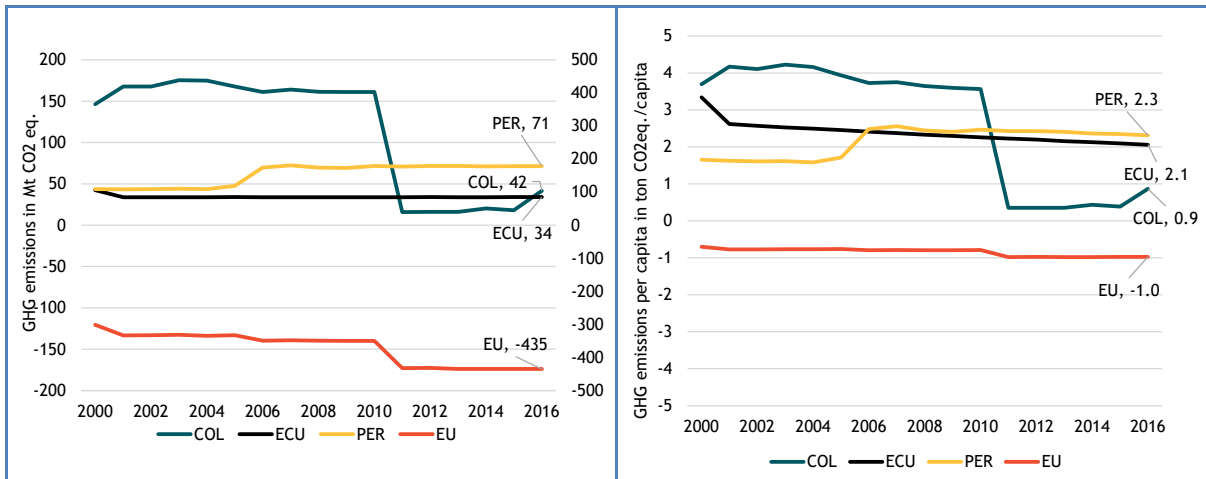
In **Peru**, the REDD+ strategy is still under development, led by MINAM and financed by international organizations such as the Moore Foundation and the German bank KfW (MINAM and CIFOR, 2012). Finally, In **Ecuador**, the REDD+ Action Plan is framed on the National Climate Change Strategy and guides LULUCF emissions mitigation actions that include sustainable forest management, and transition to sustainable production systems, among others (MAE, 2017a).

As shown in Figure D-4 (left panel) the LULUCF sector of the Andean countries *emit* between 34 and 70 Mtonne of CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. to the atmosphere every year. In contrast, the LULUCF sector in the EU *removes* annually about 435 Mtonne of CO<sub>2</sub>-eq. After correction considering population differences, Peruvian emissions are higher compared to the other countries as shown in Figure D-4 (right panel). The abrupt change in 2011 of the LULUCF



emissions from Colombia before 2011 is due to a change in methodology, as reported by the country.<sup>120</sup>

**Figure D-4: LULUCF gross GHG emissions (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) in Mt CO<sub>2</sub> eq. (left panel; EU on secondary axis) and LULUCF gross GHG emissions per capita in tonne CO<sub>2</sub> eq. (right panel)**



Source: Trinomics (2021), based on CAIT Data and World Bank Open Data

In the Andean countries, the LULUCF sector is one of the biggest contributors to GHG emissions. In **Colombia**, between 2011 and 2017, LULUCF emissions rose from 16 to 42 Mtonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq., as shown in Figure D-4, reaching a share of at least 20% of the total GHG emissions of the country in 2017 (CAIT Data). The high degradation and deforestation of the Amazon (70% of the total national deforestation has occurred in this region in 2018) have been a major pressure on the local CO<sub>2</sub> sinks, and agriculture (incl. change of land to pastures, illicit crops), livestock, and illegal mining are some of the drivers of the deforestation and associated emissions (IDEAM, 2018). In **Peru**, 43% of the total GHG emissions came from the LULUCF sector in 2017 (CAIT Data). Agriculture, gold mining, extensive cattle ranching, hydroelectric generation, and the exploitation of hydrocarbons, among others, are the main drivers of a high deforestation rate and thus of the significant GHG emissions (CDP, 2019). In **Ecuador**, where the LULUCF sector was responsible for 35% of the total GHG emissions, changes in agricultural land are the main pressure contributing to the emissions of the sector (97% of the sectorial emissions) (CAIT Data) (MAE, 2017b).

### 1.1.2 Biodiversity and natural resources

The Andean countries are known for the abundance and diversity of their habitats and species resulting from the variety in geographical characteristics and climate. The countries hold important ecosystems such as forest systems (e.g., the Amazon forest, mountain forest of the Andes, and the Chocó region), freshwater and coastal wetlands (including mangroves), grasslands, mountains, and deserts ecosystems (CEPF, 2015). These serve as natural carbon sinks and generate unique conditions for rich biodiversity. **Notably, the three countries are among the 17 megadiverse countries in the world.**<sup>121</sup> As of

<sup>120</sup> While both inventories are based on IPCC guidelines from 2006, the BUR used tier 1 and 2 guidelines while the Third National Communication is based on tier 2 and 3 guidelines, which include also local emission factors. As a result, emissions in 2010, which is used as base year in Colombia's INDC, are much higher in the Third National Communication when compared to the BUR. See: [https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/sites/default/files/medien/1410/publikationen/2018-11-01\\_climate-change\\_25-2018\\_country-report-colombia.pdf](https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/sites/default/files/medien/1410/publikationen/2018-11-01_climate-change_25-2018_country-report-colombia.pdf).

<sup>121</sup> In July 2000, the World Conservation Monitoring Centre recognised 17 'megadiverse countries', most located in the tropics. Together, these 17 countries harbour more than 70% of the earth's species (Mittermeier et al. 1997).

2015, the Andean region contains about one-sixth of all plant life in the world. It has the largest variety of amphibians with 981 distinct species, 1,724 bird species, 570 mammal species and takes second place for reptile diversity at 610 species (CEPF, 2015). Yet, various pressures are present, such as agricultural activities, (illegal) mining and logging practices, deforestation and forest degradation, wildlife trading, overfishing, urbanization, and climate change. These pressures are putting the region's rich biodiversity at risk.

Table D-1 shows the environmental performance of the Andean countries, based on the Environmental Performance Index (EPI). The EPI is based on 32 underlying performance indicators (including biodiversity and habitat) covering 11 categories. All scores are scaled from 100 to 0 (Wendling et al., 2020). Colombia is ranked higher than Peru and Ecuador with regards to the general EPI indicator. However, Ecuador obtained the highest score for the biodiversity and habitat category<sup>122</sup> and outperformed the other Andean countries in the ecosystem services category<sup>123</sup> (Wendling et al., 2020).

**Table D-1: EPI scores for the Andean countries for the year 2020**

	EPI score	Global Rank	EPI score for biodiversity and habitat	Ecosystem services
<b>Colombia</b>	52.9	50 <sup>th</sup>	76.8 (regionally <sup>124</sup> ranked. 7 (Reg. 7))	36.4 (Reg. 11)
<b>Ecuador</b>	51	57 <sup>th</sup>	77.3 (Reg. 6)	38.3 (Reg. 8)
<b>Peru</b>	44	90 <sup>th</sup>	59.5 (Reg. 17)	37 (Reg. 10)

Source: Wendling, et al. (2020).

## Protected areas

Ecosystem-based adaptation practices, such as the establishment of protected areas<sup>125</sup> and their effective management, are important measures to protect biodiversity (Magrin et al., 2014). The CBD Secretariat (n.d.) defines protected area drivers and pressures as any human activity or related process that has a negative impact on key biodiversity features, ecological processes, or cultural assets within a protected area. Several key drivers are (illegal) exploitation of resources, deforestation, transportation (i.e., roads and ship lanes) and human intrusions, including inappropriate recreational activities. The associated pressures are modification of natural ecosystems, such as altered hydrological and fire regimes, invasive alien species, pollution, and climate change-related threats, such as coral bleaching. A more indirect pressure is the low awareness in society about the importance of protected areas (Crofts et al. 2020). Drivers and pressures to protected areas can be addressed by effective management of protected areas, as well the evaluation of management effectiveness (Hockings et al. 2006).

In **Colombia**, there is **strong growth of protected areas since 2005** (UNEP-WCMC, 2020) because of the SINAP and other conservation strategies (see governance section). In 2018, a total of 1093 areas were protected, of which 58 via the Forest Reserves Zones (RFZ), 59 via System of National Natural Parks (PNN) (Ibid.). The other protected areas fall under regional and private<sup>126</sup> protected areas. **Colombia is close to meeting Aichi Target 11**<sup>127</sup> with 15.9% of protected coastal and marine areas and 13.7% terrestrial protected areas (Ibid.). However, the effectiveness of protected areas needs to be assessed for the actual conservation of biodiversity and ecosystem services. Currently, 12.9% of terrestrial protected areas and 4.4% of coastal and marine protected areas are evaluated

<sup>122</sup> Indicators of Terrestrial biome protection (protected areas) (40% of weight), marine protected areas (20% of weight), Protected Area Representativeness Index (PARI) (10% weight), Species Habitat Index (SHI) (10% weight), Species Protection Index (SPI) (10% weight), Biodiversity Habitat Index (BHI) [10% weight].

<sup>123</sup> Includes tree covers loss (90% weight), grassland loss (5% weight) and wetland loss (5% weight).

<sup>124</sup> The region includes Latin America and Caribbean.

<sup>125</sup> According to the IUCN definition of 2008, a protected area is a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated, and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values.

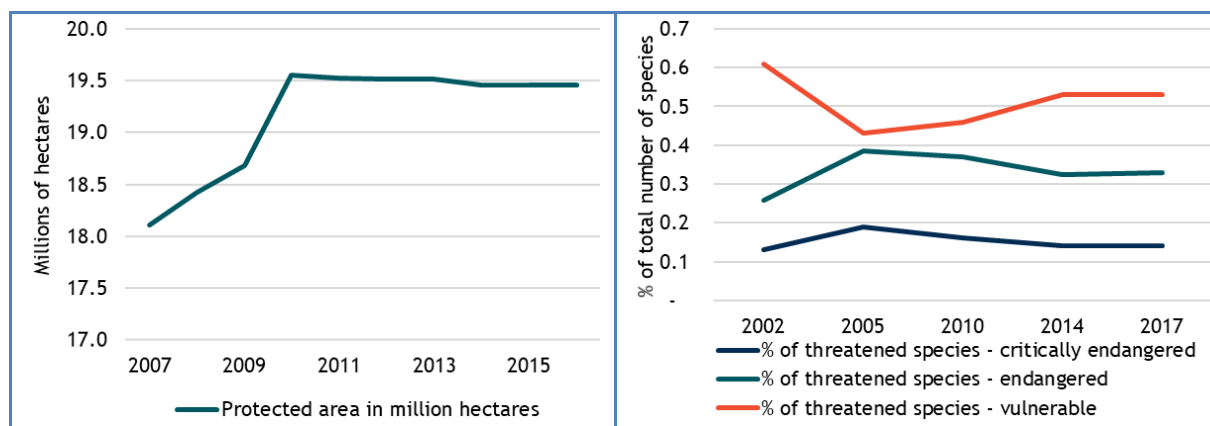
<sup>126</sup> Civil society nature reserve (RNSC).

<sup>127</sup> Aichi Biodiversity Target 11 calls for the conservation of "at least 17% of terrestrial and inland water areas and 10% of coastal and marine areas.

on their effectiveness (Ibid). Due to a gap in legislation for protected areas, **only a very small proportion of protected areas is truly protected** (Aldana and Mitchley, 2013). Deforestation, mining, and oil exploration affects the protected areas (Minambiente, 2019a). In the BAP (2017), it was reported that 44 mining areas were granted in the PNNs and 57 areas in ZRFs, including highly biodiverse areas of the Amazon, Orinoco and Chocó (Minambiente, 2017b).

In **Peru**, protected areas coverage increased between 2008 and 2011, but growth stagnated from 2011 onwards (see Figure D-5). In 2020, Peru contained 263 protected areas of which 74 (14.1%) included effective management evaluations. The protected areas correspond to 27,962,000 hectares of terrestrial protected areas (21.5%) and 403,700 hectares of marine and coastal area protected (0.5%) (UNEP-WCMC, 2020).

**Figure D-5: Peruvian protected land and marine area in 2007-2016 (left panel) and percentage of threatened species according to the IUCN categories in Colombia compared to total number of species in 2001-2017 (right panel)**



Sources: MINAM (n.d.) and Alexander von Humboldt Biological Resources Research Institute (n.d.)

In 2014, the SINANPE provided protection to 19,528,800 hectares (15.2% of total land) (Fajardo et al., 2014). According to the Sixth National Report (2018), the protected areas in Peru are effective in conserving biodiversity. In less than 5% of protected areas, anthropic pressures were reported. However, in a study by Fajardo (2014) it was found that national system of protected areas does not provide sufficient protection for many species according to the specified conservation goals. **Especially the conservation of species in coastal regions was found to be insufficient, whereas Amazonian species are the best represented, followed by the Andean species.** This is mainly due to the fact the protected areas are smaller in the coastal areas (Ibid.)

**Ecuador** has **steadily expanded its coverage of protected areas since 1980** and currently contains 82 protected areas, of which 25 include effective management evaluations (UNEP-WCMC, 2020). The 82 protected areas correspond to 22.4% of the total terrestrial area and 13.4% of the total marine and coastal area (UNEP-WCMC, 2020). With this number, **Ecuador meets Aichi Target 11**. The Galapagos National Park Marine Reserve is included in this total. In 1959, 97% of the Galapagos Islands (7,665,100 hectares) was declared a National Park (UNESCO, n.d.).

In 2015, it was estimated that PANE covers around 4,300,000 hectares and the SocioBosque Program covers around almost 1,500,000 hectares. However, **major ecosystem and species conservation shortages are identified** which were mostly concentrated in the Southern Andes, Central Amazon, and the Central and Southern portions of the Coastal plain. For instance, endemic and threatened species are poorly represented in the current national protected areas system (Cuesta et al., 2017).

## Deforestation

Deforestation is among the main pressures to the conservation of biodiversity in the Andean countries. The principal drivers of deforestation in the Andean forests are mining, (illegal) logging, agricultural production including oil crops (e.g., palm oil) and illicit crops, and population growth (Minambiente, 2017b). Moreover, deforestation in the Amazon region is closely related to drivers such as poverty, social inequality, the lack of opportunities and armed conflict in the region (FAO, 2020). Associated pressures are land use conversion (forest encroachment), infrastructure projects, urbanisation, and overgrazing (Boucher, et al., 2011).

**Colombia lost 5.3% of its forest cover between 2001 and 2019 of which 36% of the tree cover loss happened in area of humid primary forests** (Global Forest Watch, 2020). The total area of humid primary forest in Colombia decreased by 2.7% (ibid.). Deforestation in the country continues to be concentrated in the Amazon region (64%), followed by the Andean (16%) and Caribbean (7.5%) regions (IDEAM, 2021). In 2020, the deforestation increased 8% (171,685 ha) in relation to 2019 (Ibid). In previous years, it was estimated that 10% of forest loss was reported in the jurisdiction of indigenous reservations (20,713 hectares), and that 75% of the annual timber production comes from natural forests and 25% from commercial plantations (Minambiente, 2019a). About **42% of this production is illegal**, contributing 480 km<sup>2</sup> of annual forest degradation and overexploitation of 21 tree species (Minambiente, 2017b). According to IDEA, the main direct causes of deforestation are associated with land grabbing, poor extensive livestock practices, unplanned infrastructure, illicit crops, illicit mineral extraction, illegal logging, and expansion of the agricultural frontier (IDEAM, 2021). Especially crops as cocoa and avocados showed a notable increase in area planted of 88% and 127% between 2012 and 2016 respectively (IDEAM, 2019).

### Box D-1: Transformed ecosystems in Colombia

In **Colombia, land-based and insular ecosystems have changed most over the past years**, while those that are aquatic and coastal ecosystems seem to be preserved in greater proportion (Minambiente, 2017b). Colombia contains 91 types of general ecosystems (marine, aquatic, coastal, terrestrial, and insular), of which 70 corresponds to natural ecosystems and 21 to transformed ones. Between 2005-2009 and 2010-2012 33.5% and 35.1% of the terrestrial ecosystems were transformed, respectively. For island areas, the proportion of changed area is 46.2% between 2010-2012 (IDEAM et al., 2017). **Habitat loss has been related to extensive agriculture for traditional export products and bioenergy crops** (Minambiente, 2019a).

**Peru lost 4% of its tree cover between 2001 and 2019** (Global Forest Watch, 2020). Over the same period, the total area of humid primary forest in Peru decreased by 2.8%. In 2018, the loss of Amazon rainforest was 154,766 hectares, slightly less than the loss reported the previous year (MINAM, 2019). **In 2018, the remaining area of the Amazon rainforest equalled 684 million ha and occupies 53.2% of the total area of the country. In 2005, 55.1% of the total area of the country was forest area (INEI, 2018).**

Despite the large number of rules to regulate deforestation, **surveillance and control reportedly remains ineffective** to combat illegal logging (Development Solutions et al., 2009; FAO, 2016). Notably, **palm oil production is growing in the Amazonian region, where 72% of new plantations have expanded into forested areas, representing 1.3% of the total deforestation for that country for the years 2000–2010** (Gutiérrez-Vélez et al., 2011). In 2014, the growing international demand for organic

products<sup>128</sup> is still considered insufficient to promote a change in performance in the national agricultural sector (MINAM, 2014).

As part of the UN-REDD Programme, the Peruvian Government set-up several indigenous forest monitoring initiatives to generate useful data and information for the management of forest resources and to empower local and indigenous communities to monitor and measure forests (UN-REDD, 2019). Although it is too early to report on the effectiveness of Community-based forest monitoring initiatives in Peru, several studies point out that the initiatives contribute to efficiency in tracking deforestation through Peru's National Forest Monitoring System (NFMS) (UNREDD, 2019). In addition, the community engagement strengthens the legitimacy of forest conservation programmes (Kowler, et al. 2020).

In **Ecuador**, native forest represents 50.7% of the continental territory and agricultural land represents 35.98% of the continental territory, according to the Coverage and Land Use map (2016) (MAE, 2017). Between 2001 and 2019, the **country lost 4.3% of its tree cover** (Global Forest Watch, 2020). Over the same period, the total area of humid primary forest in Ecuador decreased by 1.6%.

In the Ecuadorian Sixth National Report under the CBD, it was stated that **99.4% of deforested areas between 2000 and 2008 were transformed into agricultural areas**. In 1990, the deforestation rate peaked on 129,100 hectares / year. Between 2000-2008, the rate dropped to 75,300 hectares/year and between 2008 and 2012, the deforestation rate was 65,880 hectares/year (MAE, 2018). In section 8.3.2.2. of the main report, a case study on shrimp farming in Ecuador is included.

## Species

Drivers of biodiversity loss are linked to the drivers of deforestation and threats to protected areas. Pressures are habitat loss - resulting from ecosystem transformation driven by e.g., forestry, agriculture and mining activities. Other drivers and pressures to biodiversity are for instance illegal trafficking of wildlife species, introduction of exotic species, and climate change (Minambiente, 2020b).

**Colombia** contains 54,871 species of which 1,203 are at various threat levels as identified by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (Minambiente, 2019a). More specifically, 173 species are identified as critically endangered, 390 species as endangered and 640 species are categorized vulnerable (Ibid.). **The proportion of threatened species in the critically endangered category and the threatened category lowered since 2005 and has been stable since 2014, whilst the proportion of species in the vulnerable category grew since 2005 and remained stable since** (Alexander von Humboldt Biological Resources Research Institute, n.d.).

According to the National Information System (SINIA), in 2015 **Peru** had 24,079 flora and fauna species of which 8,567 were endemic. The number of species have been growing since 1996 (20,611 species) which can partly be explained by increase in knowledge associated with the species (MINAM, n.d.). The IUCN Red List however, indicates that **there has also been an increase in the number of threatened species since 1999, with 1,269 threatened species in 2014** (MINAM, 2014).

**Exports of native plant and wildlife species have been increasing**, with annual values reaching more than USD 250 million (CBD Secretariat, n.d.).

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<sup>128</sup> The contribution of eco-friendly businesses to the national economy has increased considerably in recent years, with a recorded increase of 20% in exports of bio products, as well as a 25% increase in surface dedicated to organic or ecological production.



In **Ecuador**, the number of species on the IUCN Red List of threatened species grew from 2,308 species in 2015 to 2,497 in 2019 (IUCN, n.d; Statista, 2020). As such, Ecuador **has the highest number of species on the IUCN Red list of threatened species among the countries in Latin America** (Statista, 2020).

Between 2004 and 2015, a minimum value of USD 35 million a year was estimated for the trading of wildlife. Among others, frogs, and salamanders (of which one third are CITES listed<sup>129</sup>), shark meat and orchids are traded (Sinovas and Price, 2015).

#### Box D-2: Fisheries in Ecuador and Peru

The fish sector is very important for Ecuador and Peru (CBD Secretariat, n.d.). In **Ecuador**, the supply chain of **marine commodities** (fishers, processors, transportation, refrigeration, etc.) **represented 1.5% of the Ecuador's total GDP in 2015** (Global Marine Commodities, n.d.). Ecuador is among the top 25 countries of wild fish capture with 715,357 tonne reported in 2016 of which the three most significant fisheries by volume were the small pelagic (337,053 tonne) tuna (286,946 tonne) and mahi-mahi (6,153 tonne) fisheries. Between 2010-2016, 65.5% of all profits in the fishing sector are derived from the tuna sector, making tuna fishing an economically attractive option (MPCEIP, 2017).

However, the **use of fish aggregating devices such as FAD<sup>130</sup> brings the population of the yellowfin tuna in further risk** of extinction as these devices capture the adolescent and small tunas who are important for the reproduction of the specie. The Asociación de Trabajadores del Mar, a union that organises fishermen of the country's largest tuna fleets, publicly stated its concerns about the use of fish aggregating devices (FES-ILDIS and CDES, 2017).

Other fish populations are also affected by (over)fishing and harmful practices such as bycatch<sup>131</sup> and discards. Between **2004-2014, about 9,000 tonnes of sharks were caught annually as bycatch in Ecuador** (MAE, 2018).

In **Peru**, the cold sea holds a large number of fish species (McKinley et al., 2019) as the world's largest upwelling system, which flows from Chile to northern Peru – is very nutrient-rich and supports the world's largest fishery, namely anchoveta (a species of fish from the anchovy family) (The Nature Conservancy, 2019). **The Peruvian anchovy population is considered by WWF (2009) as a global priority as it plays a key role in the eastern Pacific food chain** and supports the largest fishery in the world (oil and fishmeal exports surpass US\$ 1,500 million per year) (WWF, 2009).

Despite programmes and policies for the sustainable use of the marine resources, analysts report that there is a need for better environmental and economic policies to ensure there is sustainable framework to promote diversification, regulate fisheries, support sustainable development, and ensure the responsible use of aquatic resources (McKinley, et al., 2019). Compared to terrestrial ecosystems, scientific research, and conservation of the marine ecosystems in Peru has been limited (Ibid.). However, the **proportion of sustainable fishing with respect to GDP is increasing from 0.4% in 2013 to 0.6% in 2018** (INEI, 2018).

### 1.1.3 Other key environmental indicators

#### 1.1.3.1 Water

##### 1.1.3.1.1 Water use

Figure D-6 shows the sectoral use of water in each of the partner countries. The two main water consumers across Colombia, Ecuador and Peru, and EU 27 are the energy generation and agriculture sectors, the latter being in most cases the predominant water user.

<sup>129</sup> A list of species that are protected by CITES (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora) against over-exploitation through international trade

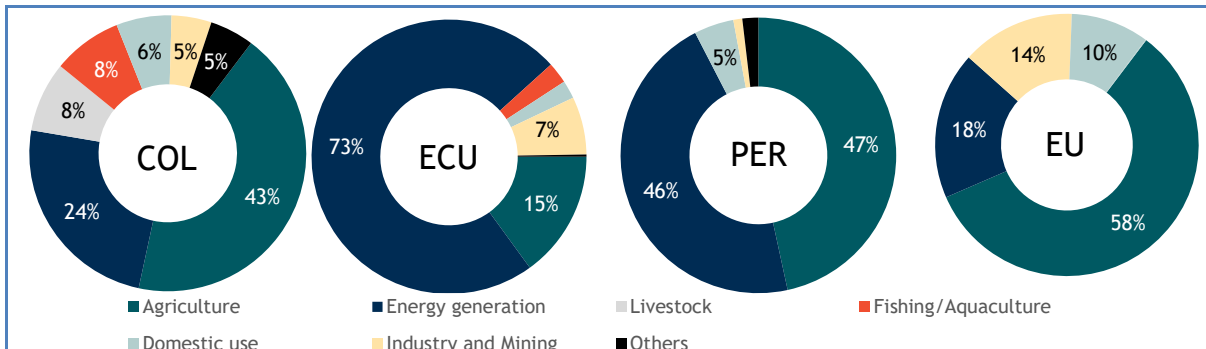
<sup>130</sup> FADs are artificial fish aggregating devices i.e. "food islands" that are installed with materials based on plastic polymers in certain parts of the Ocean and attract tuna to facilitate their capture

<sup>131</sup> The capture of unwanted sea life while fishing for a different species



Differences in the climatic conditions, as well as the structure of the energy generation systems of the countries, are two of the main reasons for the variations of water use across regions.

**Figure D-6: Water use (%) per sector**



Note: Data presented is the latest available at the time of data collection: COL (2017), ECU (2016), PER (2013), and EU (2017).

Sources: IDEAM (2018); SENAGUA/ARCA (2017); DAR (2017); EEA (2019)

As shown in Figure D-6, according to the ENA (2018 National Water Study) in **Colombia** the main economic sectors driving higher water demand are agriculture (43.1%), energy generation (24.3%), and livestock (8.2%) (IDEAM, 2019). Particularly, the water demand driven by **electricity generation** sector has increased 9% compared to 2012, which corresponds to the pressure on water resources caused by the entry into operation of new hydropower plants and more intensive use of thermal generation plants because of El Niño<sup>132</sup> (Ibid). Moreover, concerning the **agriculture sector**, pressure on the land resources has been driven by the expansion of the agricultural area in Colombia (which increased by about 21%, compared to 2014). In particular, the permanent crops (i.e., with a constant area throughout the year) of coffee, palm, sugarcane, and banana consumed 57% of the water demand of the agriculture sector; while the transitory crops (mainly rice and corn) used 18% (Ibid). The crops with the largest water footprint are summarised in Table D-2. Though the water footprint of some crops is today relatively smaller compared to others, the ENA predicts a further increase in water demand due to the expanded production of avocado, cacao, and palm oil. In fact, it is estimated that the area planted with avocados (whose exports increased by 1519% between 2014 and 2017, with EU countries being the main importers) already increased by 127% in last years (Ibid). Regarding virtual water trade from Colombia, the largest share was attributed in 2016 to coffee exports (65%), followed by palm oil (16%) and sugar cane (8%). Pressure on water resources was also driven by the **livestock sector**, of which cattle constitute roughly 70%, pork 22%, and poultry 7% of the sectorial water demand (Ibid).

In **Peru**, water use is driven mainly by **agriculture** (46%) and **energy generation** (47%) sectors (DAR, 2017). However, in some regions of the country, the **mining sector** also requires a significant share of the total water demand. Specifically, 57% of the water used by the mining sector is consumed in the Pacific region while 41% is consumed in the Amazon (mainly in the Peruvian highlands) (Ibid). Most of the crop production in Peru is concentrated in the arid coastal region and part of the Andean zone. Of the crops currently produced in Peru, the five with the largest water footprint are rice, coffee, potatoes, alfalfa, and sugar cane, as summarised in Table D-2.

<sup>132</sup> El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is the Earth's most important weather-producing phenomenon. During an El Niño event, the surface waters in the central and eastern Pacific Ocean become significantly warmer, which in Colombia has led to a decrease of the water levels in hydropower dams by 60 to 70% compared to normal years, and thus, to the addition of new thermal power plants (WEC, 2016).

In contrast, in **Ecuador**, the highest share of water is employed for the power generation sector (see Figure D-6), which increased from 52% in 2006 to 73% in 2016 (total water use during this period in Ecuador increased 380%, from 22 784 to 109 422 l/s) (SENAGUA and ARCA, 2017). By this estimate, power generation is responsible for 92% of the growth in water use over this time. The water used by the **agriculture sector**, on the other hand, increased from 9,341 l/s in 2006 to 16,413 l/s in 2016. As depicted in Table D-2, banana, palm, and sugar cane are among the permanent crops with the highest water demand in the country (Silva, A., 2015).

Finally, as shown in Figure D-6 the **EU**, on average, allocates throughout the year most of its water resources for agriculture production (58%), followed by energy generation (18%) and industry and mining (14%) (EEA, 2019a). Concerning the use of water by the agricultural sector, it is estimated that between 2005 and 2016, crop production became 12 % less water-intensive (EEA, 2019b). The large differences in climatic conditions and the structure and properties of agricultural production systems across Europe does not allow to have instructive average values for the region.

**Table D-2: Water use of crops as share of total water use by the agriculture sector.**

Country	Water use of crops as share of total water use by the agriculture sector
<b>Colombia</b>	Permanent crops: Plantain (26%); Palm (19%); Sugar cane (12%); Casava (12%); Cacao (7%). Transient crops: Rice (65%); Corn (22%); Potato (5%) Cotton (2%)
<b>Ecuador</b>	Permanent crops: Banana (24%); Palm (21%) Sugar cane (14%). Transient crops: Rice (28%); Corn (11%); Potato (1%)
<b>Peru</b>	Rice (26%); Coffee (26%); Potato (12%); Alfalfa (10%); Sugar cane (8%)

Sources: IDEAM (2018); SENAGUA/ARCA (2017); Silva, A. (2015); EEA (2019)

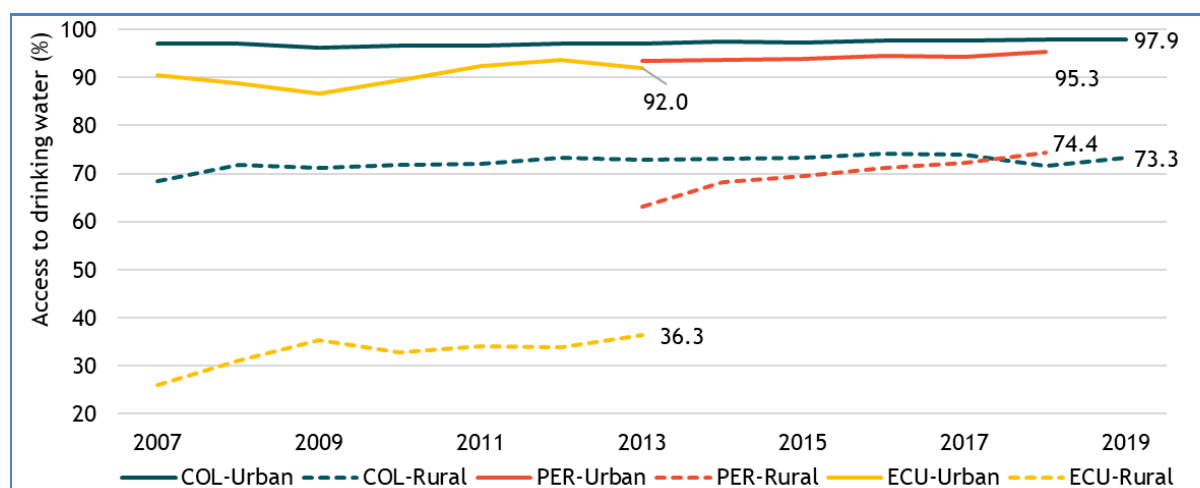
#### 1.1.3.1.2 Access to clean and safe water

The Sustainable Development Goal 6 (SDG 6) calls for ensuring universal access to safe and affordable drinking water, and adequate and equitable sanitation for all. It also aims at improving water quality by reducing pollution, and sustainably increase water-use efficiency. A recent analysis of the SDG 6 in the Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) showed that in 2015 only 40% of the rural population had access to safely managed drinking water (compared to 82% in urban areas), and only 28% of the rural population had access to safely managed sanitation (CEPAL, 2019). Moreover, as the analysis reports, concerning wastewater, most LAC countries treat less than 50% of their wastewater adequately (Ibid).

Figure D-7 shows the share of the population of rural and urban areas in Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador with access to clean and safe water. The data availability varies per country, and therefore, the time frame presented in the figure is different in every case. Despite these disparities, **the increasing access to improved water sources** is a noticeable trend in all partner countries. Furthermore, the difference in the improvement degree of urban and rural water access is clear, with still a relatively small share of people (especially in Ecuador) having access to safe water.

With regard to wastewater, **Colombia** treats safely 43% and 85% of its domestic urban and industrial wastewater, respectively (DNP, n.d.). However, in some regions **mining exploitation** is driving the increase in the discharge of untreated water considerably (IDEAM, 2019). In the Colombian Amazon, for example, the environmental impacts of mining have been intensified in the last years due to pressure caused by the extraction of gold, cobalt, copper, among others. Furthermore, it is reported that there has been a considerably increased use of fertilisers driven by the **agriculture sector**, affecting the wealth of water bodies (Ibid).

**Figure D-7: Access to drinking water (% of total population)**



Data presented is the latest available at the time of data collection.

Sources: SDG Tracker Colombia; ODS Territorio Ecuador; Sistema De Monitoreo y Seguimiento de los indicadores de los ODS de Perú.

In **Peru**, only 15.8% of wastewater is reported to be treated safely.<sup>133</sup> **Mining** is currently the sector driving the release of the largest amount of treated water into the Peruvian rivers, followed by the domestic and energy sector. Even though mining is the sector with the highest amount of treated wastewater, a recent study showed it still dumps on average 22 tonnes of arsenic, 44 tonnes of lead, 11 tonnes of cadmium, 110 tonnes of copper and more than 331 tonnes of zinc annually (DAR, 2017).

Finally, in **Ecuador**, the **untreated sewage of human settlements** is the main driver of contamination of water bodies, but other sources of pollution may also play a significant role in specific regions of the country. On the coast, for example, water pollution is, among other factors, closely related with **shrimp and aquaculture activities**,<sup>134</sup> and with the pressures caused by application of pesticides and fertilisers driven by the **production of banana and African palm** (SENAGUA, 2019). Similarly, in the highlands, pressures on the environment due to the extensive use of pesticides and fertilisers to produce **flowers and broccoli** makes these products some of the main drivers of water pollution; while in the Amazon, **oil extraction and mining activities** are the major contributors to the water pollution problem (Ibid).

#### 1.1.3.2 Air quality

Air pollution has been recognised as one of the world's largest health and environmental problems (Hannah R., 2019). Fine particle matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) (i.e. a complex mixture of extremely small particles and liquid droplets) can be carried over long distances by wind and then settle on ground or water. Depending on their chemical composition, the effects of this settling may include making lakes and streams acidic, changing the nutrient balance in coastal waters and large river basins, depleting the nutrients in soil, damaging forests and crops affecting the diversity of ecosystems, and contributing to acid rain effects, ultimately affecting human wellbeing (EPA, n.d.). Besides, many air pollutants contribute to climate change by affecting the amount of incoming sunlight that is reflected or absorbed

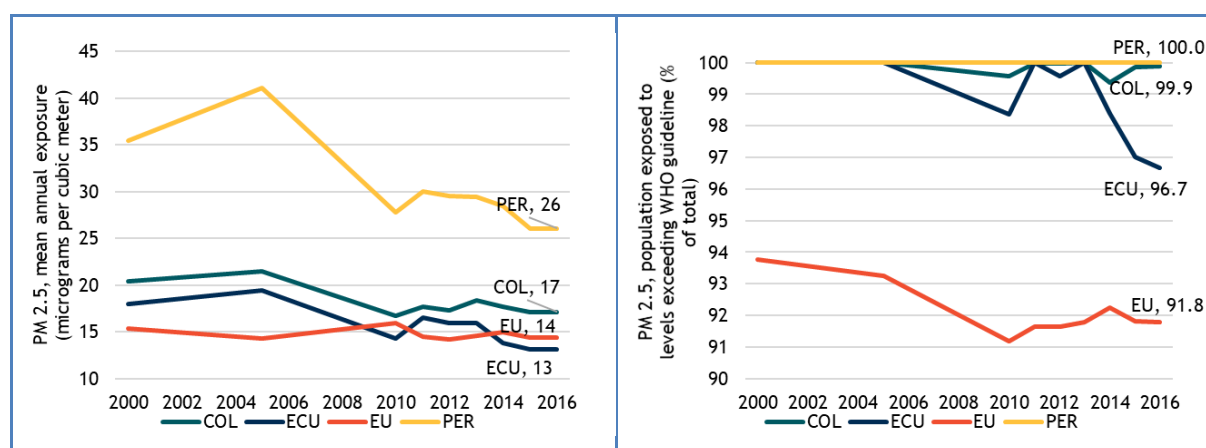
<sup>133</sup> Value provided for *Servicios de Saneamiento Gestionados de Manera Segura (SMS1)*. Available at: <http://ods.inei.gob.pe/>.

<sup>134</sup> The impact of shrimp production on water bodies in Ecuador is a controversial topic. The National Chamber of Aquaculture and the Ministry of the Environment and Water (MAA) have indicated that the sector has increased its sustainability standards (El Universo, 2020).

by the atmosphere, with some pollutants warming and others cooling the Earth (IASS, n.d.).

As shown in Figure D-8, all Andean countries have lower air quality than the EU, considering exposure to particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>). The mean annual exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub> (left panel) is higher in Peru compared to the other countries and the EU, but it has shown a relative improvement going from 42 mg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2005 to 26 mg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2016. In contrast, in the EU, the mean annual exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub> has remained relatively constant between 2000 and 2016. Furthermore, regarding the percentage of population exposed to levels exceeding WHO guidelines, Figure D-8 (right panel) shows that entire population of Colombia (99.9%) and Peru (100%) are exposed to unsafe<sup>135</sup> levels of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. In comparison, Ecuador has experienced an improvement (going from 100% of its population exposed to unsafe levels of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in 2000 to 97% in 2016).

**Figure D-8: PM<sub>2.5</sub>, mean annual exposure (left panel; micrograms per cubic meter) and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, population exposed to levels exceeding WHO guideline (right panel ; % of total)**



Source: Trinomics, based on World Bank

In **Colombia**, the results of a national emissions inventory in 2014 showed that important pressures to air pollution (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) at the national level are caused by **natural causes** (38%) (e.g., natural fires), the **residential use of firewood** (29%) and **agricultural burning** (8%). The remaining 25% is contributed by stationary (19%) (e.g., industry, waste) and transport (5%) emission sources. In contrast, in urban areas, the main drivers of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions are automotive transport (80%) and the **industrial sector** (20%). Within the industrial sector, the brick kilns contribute about 40% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and coal-fired boilers 19% in Bogota, while in other regions such as the Aburrá Valley, the **textile sector** is the main driver of air pollution (Minambiente, 2019b). Besides, air pollution near **open-pit mining** areas affecting the poor, working in illegal, traditional, and unauthorised mining is also of concern (OECD, 2014).

In **Peru**, studies have shown that the main pressures on air quality are the increase in the number of internal combustion engine (ICE) **vehicles**, other use of **fossil fuels** and other activities such as **brick kilns, mineral extraction and casting, fishing** and **electricity generation** (CEPAL and OECD, 2016).

In **Ecuador**, the main environmental pressures on air pollution are related to urbanisation, the **industrial sector**, the use of obsolete technologies in **productive and transport activities, poor fuel quality**, and **farms open-pit mining**, among others (MAE, 2010).

<sup>135</sup> Based on the World Health Organization (WHO) Air Quality Guidelines (AQG), which defines these AQG for various air pollutants based on an epidemiological assessment of the link between pollution exposure and health consequences (Hannah R., 2019). The WHO have set a AQG annual average concentration for PM<sub>2.5</sub> of 10 micrograms per cubic meter (10µg/m<sup>3</sup>) (WHO, 2006).

In particular, the emissions from the Esmeraldas refinery and thermal power station have been reported as significant drivers of air pollution (Ibid).

#### 1.1.3.3 Waste management and circular economy

Improper waste management can result in severe environmental impacts, including **water** and **soil pollution**, as well as the **emission of black carbon and GHGs** (UN Environment, 2018). Although proper final disposal of solid waste has significantly improved over the past decades in the LAC (Latin America and the Caribbean) region, approximately 145 000 tonne/day (equivalent to the waste generated by 170 million people) end up in (illegal) dumpsites, are burned or are otherwise inadequately disposed of (Ibid).

Data compiled by the *What a Waste* report by the World Bank shows that waste generation and management practices do not vary widely across the three Andean countries. Regarding waste generation, over half (50-60%) of the municipal waste generated is food, as shown in Figure D-9. Dry recyclables (plastic, paper and cardboard, metal and glass) account on average for a quarter of the waste generated (24-26%). Municipal waste generation per capita (Figure D-9, secondary axis) in Ecuador is higher (0.89 kg/capita/day) compared to Colombia and Peru. By comparison, approximately 1.4 kg/capita/day of municipal waste were generated in the EU in 2019.<sup>136</sup> Concerning collection rates<sup>137</sup>, these are above 80% in the three Andean countries (81% in Colombia, 83% in Peru, 84% in Ecuador). The informal sector (i.e., active pickers collecting recyclable materials) is highly active within the region (Kaza et. al., 2018).

In terms of waste disposal<sup>138</sup>, Colombia disposes of most of its municipal waste (89%) in sanitary landfills (Kaza et. al., 2018). Ecuador and Peru show a lower use of landfills for waste disposal (53% and 24%, respectively) (Ibid). In contrast, open dumping accounts for a larger share in Peru (56%) compared to Ecuador (22%), and Colombia (4%). Recycling is still very limited across the three countries (ranging from 4%<sup>139</sup> in Peru to 13% in Ecuador and 17% in Colombia) (Ibid). Correspondingly, in the EU, more than a half (54%) of the waste was treated in 2018 in recovery operations<sup>140</sup>: recycling (38 % of the total treated waste), backfilling (10 %) or energy recovery (6 %). The remaining 45.8 % was either landfilled (39 %), incinerated without energy recovery (0.7 %) or disposed of otherwise (6 %).

In general, data on the generation, collection, treatment and disposal of other types of waste (e.g., industrial, electronic, and construction waste) in the Andean Countries is very limited. Regarding e-waste, it is estimated that 5.4 kg of e-waste per inhabitant is generated each year in Colombia, 4.5 kg in Ecuador and 5.9 kg in Peru (Kaza et al., 2018). In contrast, in 2017, the collected e-waste varied across the EU Member States, ranging from 2.4 kg to 14.1 kg per inhabitant<sup>141</sup>). In Colombia, **mining and quarrying waste** is also reported as major driver of waste in the country (however, data are not available for these waste streams) (OECD, 2019).

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<sup>136</sup> Based on Eurostat. *Municipal waste statistics*.

<sup>137</sup> Waste collection figures of Colombia and Peru are based on the share of population covered by the waste collection system. Ecuador reports its collection rate as the number of households covered.

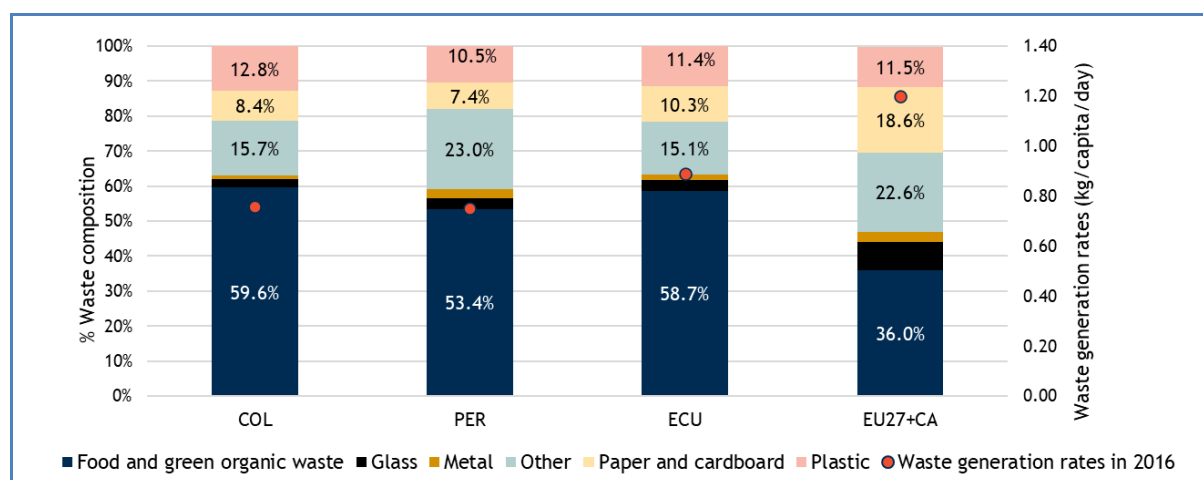
<sup>138</sup> The figures presented for waste disposal methods are provided as reported in the *What a Waste* report. In some cases, values do not add up to 100 percent or sum more than 100 percent. Refer to the *What a Waste* report for further information about the original sources (Kaza et. al., 2018).

<sup>139</sup> Recycling rate may be higher (14%), as reported by (WWF and CyclosGmbH, 2019).

<sup>140</sup> Based on Eurostat. *Waste treatment statistics*.

<sup>141</sup> Based on Eurostat. *Waste statistics - electrical and electronic equipment*.

**Figure D-9: Municipal solid waste composition (left panel; %) and waste generation rate (on secondary axis; kg/capita/day)**



Note: For comparability purposes, the values presented here under EU27+CA correspond to the average regional figures for 'Europe and Central Asia' as reported by WorldBank. Source: What a Waste 2.0 (Kaza et al., 2018)

Efforts to move toward a circular economy are gaining momentum in all the Andean countries assessed. In 2019, the Colombian Government published the National Strategy on Circular Economy (ENEC), the central instrument to maximise the added value of industrial and agricultural systems and sustainable cities in economic, environmental and social aspects based on circularity, technological innovation, and development of and collaboration in new business models. The national strategies of Peru related to waste management and circular economy are presented in the *National Plan for Comprehensive Solid Waste Management 2016-2024 (PLANRES)*. Similarly, governmental institutions in Ecuador have been working since 2019 on the construction of a country roadmap towards a *National Strategy of Circular Economy: The White Book of the Circular Economy*. According to the Horizon 2020 CICERONE Project, which analysed the CE context in countries outside Europe, though the concept of CE is fairly new in Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru, and has only been applied within a limited scope, increasing concerns with respect to the availability of resources is leading to raising awareness on the need to move towards more circularity in these countries (CICERONE, 2019). It was concluded that private sector initiatives (e.g., food and IT sectors), as well as improvements in the agri-food sector for export, are more advanced in Colombia than in Peru and Ecuador (Ibid.), though Peru also announced circular economy measures in their National Productivity and Competitiveness Plan from 2019 and initiatives for extended producer responsibility. In addition, Peru has established specific milestones for the 2019-2025 period, including a *Roadmap towards a circular economy in the industrial sector* (El Peruano, 2020). Research trends related to waste technologies are dominating the list of research activities in Ecuador, while in Colombia and Peru, the main technological trend is related to the replacements of single use plastic packaging through biodegradable/sustainable packaging or other options with a lower footprint (CICERONE, 2019).



## **Annex D-2: Governance Baselines**

### *1.1.1 Climate change*

The main legislative instrument on climate change in the partner countries is the **Paris Agreement** (PA). Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador belong to the group of 189 parties that have ratified the PA. Consequently, the Andean countries submitted their National Determined Contributions<sup>142</sup> (NDC) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) with their 2030 climate targets. In its NDC (updated in 2019) Ecuador targets a conditional 20.9% GHG reduction from business as usual (BAU) by 2030, and a 9% GHG reduction unconditionally. Colombia's NDC (updated in 2018) commits to a 30% GHG conditional, and 20% unconditional reduction. Finally, Peru targeted a unconditional 20% and an conditional 30% reduction. None of the countries has submitted a second NDC<sup>143</sup>; however, in December 2020, Colombia announced that a new target of 51% emissions reductions by 2030 compared to the projected baseline will be included in its updated NDC (WWF, 2020).

Besides the PA, Peru and Colombia were already part of the Independent Association of Latin America and the Caribbean (AILAC), a group of eight countries constituted with the objective, among others, to generate coordinated positions during multilateral negotiations on climate change since 2012. The most recent agreement at the regional level is the Andean environmental charter, which was signed in December 2020 by the governments of Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru and is intended to facilitate co-operation in efforts to tackle the climate crisis and accelerate the implementation of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (Cancillería de Colombia, 2020).

As such, the first important landmark of the **Colombian** climate change governance framework dates to 1994 when the country joined the UNFCCC (Law 164), which was followed by the approval of the Kyoto Protocol (Law 629) (Minambiente, n.d.). The years that followed saw the development of the climate policy framework of the country, including, for instance, the publication of Climate Change Policy Guidelines in 2002, outlining the main strategies for mitigating climate change in the country (Minambiente, 2002).

Subsequently, the Climate Change Law, approved by the Colombian Government in 2018, was regarded as a milestone in the country's environmental regulatory framework (Cortés, 2019). It establishes the principle institutional aspects, planning instruments, and information systems (i.e. National Information System on Climate Change-SISCLIMA), as well as the financial mechanisms for climate change. Among other instruments, the Law establishes the National Policy on Climate Change (PNCC), and at the territorial level, the Comprehensive Territorial Climate Change Management Plans (PIGCCT) as the main instruments through which the regional authorities define measures for climate adaptation and mitigation.

At the national level, the Intersectoral Commission on Climate Change (CICC), formed by the Director of the National Planning Department and the Ministers, acts as the guiding body for the implementation of the National Climate Change Policy through four main strategies: i) the National Climate Adaptation Plan, ii) the Colombian Low-Carbon Development Strategy, iii) the National Strategy for Reduction of Emissions caused Deforestation and iv) the Strategy for financial protection against disasters (Minambiente, 2017b). At the regional level, Regional Hubs support the plans and policy implementation.

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<sup>142</sup> Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) outline the post 2020 climate actions of individual countries in the light of the Paris Agreement. Contributions are reported to the UNFCCC Secretariat.

<sup>143</sup> At the time this section was written (December 2020).

In June 2020, Colombia presented its Long-term Strategy for Climate Resilience (E2050), which seeks to achieve carbon neutrality by 2050 (Minambiente, 2020c).

In line with other countries of the region, **Peru** joined the UNFCCC in 1993 and in 2016 ratified the PA. Thereupon, the Peruvian government approved in 2018 a Framework Law on Climate Change, which assigns specific tasks, duties, and responsibilities for each of the different sectors and actors associated to the Peruvian climate action. According to the Law, the Ministry of the Environment (MINAM) is the national normative authority that coordinates, designs, implements, monitors, and evaluates the national public policies aimed to mitigate and adapt to climate change (MINAM, 2018). As such, MINAM reports annually to the Plenary of the Congress on the progress of compliance with the climate-related targets, including those included in the Peruvian NDC. In consequence, it is the entity in charge of, among others, the preparation of national GHG and carbon stocks inventories, in coordination with public entities of the three levels of government.

Besides MINAM, other Ministries, as well as regional and local governments, are requested by the Law to support the design, monitoring and implementation of public policies related to climate change in accordance with the NDC, and report to MINAM the execution of sectorial strategies that contribute to the achievement of the national targets (Ibid.). Furthermore, in 1993 Peru created the National Commission on Climate Change (CNCC) chaired by MINAM, which supports both the public sector and civil society to monitor the compliance with public policies on climate change, promoting especially the participation of civil society (MINAM, n.d.). Finally, the High-Level Commission on Climate Change created in July 2020 is a multi-sector commission under MINAM responsible for the proposal of the climate mitigation and adaptation measures for Peru and for the elaboration of the NDC technical report to be submitted to the UNFCCC in line with the Paris Agreement (MINAM, 2020).

In **Ecuador**, the Ministry of Environment and Water (MAE) is the entity in charge of the formulation and execution of the national strategies aimed at raising awareness of climate change in Ecuador. In particular, MAE is responsible for overseeing the National Directorates for Adaptation and Mitigation to Climate Change of Ecuador under the Secretary of Climate Change (SCC) (MAE, n.d.a). Their activities are framed by the Constitution of Ecuador which, since 2008, includes a specific section for climate change (Art. 414) (MAE, n.d.b). Further, the Climate Change National Strategy 2012-2025 (ENCC) was established as State policy in Ecuador in 2013 (MAE 2012). Since then, additional strategies have been developed to guide the climate change activities in the country, including the National Plan for Good Living 2017-2021. This plan was inspired by the teachings of indigenous cultures on *sumak kawsay* or “good living” and promotes harmonious co-existence with nature (Senplades, 2017). The plan aims at promoting environmental practices that contribute to the reduction of pollution, and to the conservation, mitigation, and adaptation to climate change at the national and global level as well as the complementary national strategies for climate adaptation and mitigation (Ibid). In 2020, Ecuador published its National Strategy for Climate Finance (EFIC), which seeks to define the priorities, strategic lines and enabling conditions to improve the access to climate finance and the mobilization of international, national, public and private resources (MAE, 2020).

### 1.1.2 Biodiversity

The Andean countries signed and ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD),<sup>144</sup> the Cartagena Protocol<sup>145</sup> and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES).<sup>146</sup> The Nagoya Protocol<sup>147</sup> was initially only ratified by Peru and Ecuador. Colombia signed the protocol in 2014. In December 2020, Colombia, Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru signed the Andean environmental charter, an instrument to facilitate co-operation in efforts to protect local ecosystems and tackle the climate crisis, as well as to establish shared goals for sustainable development (Republic of Colombia, 2020; LatinNews, 2020).

In **Colombia**, the National Policy for the Comprehensive Management of Biodiversity and its Ecosystem Services (PNGIBSE) was launched in July 2012 and introduced a new way of addressing biodiversity in the country (CBD, n.d.). PNGIBSE recognises the intrinsic value of species and ecosystems and the functions derived from them, and links biodiversity to human well-being and social viability of local communities.

In 2016, the Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development launched the Biodiversity Action Plan 2016-2030 (PAB), an instrument that guides the implementation of PNGIBSE (Minambiente, 2017b). In the CBD's Sixth National Report, Colombia reported the implementation of various important management improvements driven by PAB, which have resulted in progress of the Strategic Plan 2011-2020 and its Aichi Targets (Minambiente, 2019a).

As part of the PAB, Colombia is expanding its protected areas which are managed by the National System of Protected Areas (SINAP). Forest protection started with the introduction of Law 2 of 1959, which created seven large (national) Forest Reserves Zones (RFZ) for developing the economy and protecting water resources, soils, and wildlife (Mes, 2008). There are a variety of schemes targeting the conservation of Colombia's natural and cultural wealth, such as Ramsar sites, biosphere reserves, and Peasant Reserve Areas,<sup>148</sup> Zero Deforestation Agreement (Minambiente, 2017b and 2020a). Despite these institutional and regulatory frameworks, the PAB reports that there are several factors<sup>149</sup> preventing the effective implementation of forestry and biodiversity protection measures (Minambiente, 2017b).

In **Peru**, the National Biodiversity Strategy for 2021 and its Action Plan (2014-2018) was developed by the Ministry of the Environment (MINAM) in coordination with the National Commission for Biological Diversity (MINAM, 2014). The Strategy is in line with the 1997 Law on Conservation and Sustainable Use of Biodiversity and is the main instrument for the management of biodiversity in Peru.

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<sup>144</sup> The Convention on Biological Diversity aims to 1) conserve the biological diversity, 2) sustainably use of the components of biological diversity and 3) fair and share equitably and fairly the benefits arising out of the utilisation of genetic resources

<sup>145</sup> The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety to the Convention on Biological. The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety to the Convention on Biological Diversity was adopted by the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on 29 January 2000.

<sup>146</sup> CITES aims to ensure that international trade in specimens of wild animals and plants does not threaten their survival.

<sup>147</sup> The Nagoya Protocol on Access to Genetic Resources and the Fair and Equitable Sharing of Benefits Arising from their Utilization to the Convention on Biological Diversity. The protocol was adopted by the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity at its tenth meeting on 29 October 2010 in Nagoya, Japan.

<sup>148</sup> Zones that were established to support small scale farmers. It prevents the expansion of the agricultural frontier and neutralize the concentration of ownership

<sup>149</sup> These factors are: i) institutional weakness, reflected in poor implementation of enforcement mechanisms (especially related to illegal logging) and ii) conflicts related to land-use planning (i.e. conflicts between human settlement, production activities, (legal and illegal) and extraction of renewable and non-renewable natural resources (Minambiente, 2017b).

The Natural Protected Areas System (SINANPE) only includes areas at the national level. Areas at regional level and privately protected areas are referred to as “areas complementary to SINANPE” (IUCN, 2009). Until 2008, the Ministry of Agriculture managed the protected areas system. In 2008, the Ministry of Environment was created and was tasked with implementing the SINANPE (SINIA, n.d.). Peru developed its first National Biodiversity Strategy in 2001.

Despite Peru’s institutional and legal framework for the conservation of biodiversity, the OECD (2018) reports that a number of challenges remain to effectively protect the country’s biodiversity, such as improving private sector involvement, strengthening capacity of the public sector with a focus on the sub-national level, improving the quality and coverage of data to inform biodiversity mainstreaming, and scaling up biodiversity finance including through the use of economic instrument (p. 57-60).

### **Box D-3: Peru’s governance for biosafety**

Peru adopted the National Biosafety Law related to the prevention of risks derived from the use of biotechnology in 1999. Notably, in 2011, the Moratorium Law was adopted which declared a ten-year moratorium on the entry of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) into Peru for cultivation, breeding, or as any other type of transgenic product (ICTSD, 2011). In 2012, Peru began implementing the National Biosafety Framework project, in order to fill existing gaps in the implementation of the national regulatory framework. As such, progress has been made over the past years to achieve biosafety, however sectoral regulations for biosafety are still limited (CBD Secretariat, n.d.).

The Forests and Wildlife Law aims to integrate forest conservation with the sustainable use of resources and services (MINAM, 2014). This law was published in 2011 as a response to the introduction of the free trade treaty with the United States (US), where the US specifically required improvements for assurance of legal forest trade (Yale University, n.d.). Under this law forest plantations must have authorisation certificates<sup>150</sup> and management plans, to ensure the legal origin of their forest and wildlife products. However, the new law also created loopholes to convert forest land into agricultural land via reclassification of land use (Yale University, n.d.).

In **Ecuador**, the Ministry of Environment developed the National Biodiversity Strategy (ENB) in 2015 (MAE, 2016). This strategy was developed to implement provisions from Ecuador’s new Constitution (passed in 2008) and the National Development Plan for Good Living (2013-2017) (see climate change baseline). The ENB aims to foster the responsible use of Ecuador’s strategic natural resources. Other relevant policies, developed by the Ecuadorian Ministry of the Environment, include the National System of Protected Areas (PANE) and the forest conservation incentive program SocioBosque (PSB). The latter involves both private and community lands.

While all environmental laws in Ecuador are legally enforceable, the control and enforcement practises in most areas of environmental law are not fully implemented, as stated in a previous EU-Andean Trade Sustainability assessment (Development Solutions et al., 2009).

With the installation of a newly elected Government in May 2017, a new National Development Plan titled “All a Life” (2017-2021) was developed. The new government’s ambitions regarding biodiversity conservation are not reflected in the ENB and in the Sixth national report under the CBD it was stated that the ENB has not been properly implemented (MAE, 2018). In 2017, the new Organic Code of the Environment (COA)<sup>151</sup> was approved. This provision has been regarded as the most important norm for environmental matters and is in line with the *buen vivir* (“good living”) principle (MAE, n.d.c.), as discussed in the previous section on climate change. The COA aims to strengthen

<sup>150</sup> Regulated by the National System of Forestry and Wildlife Information (SERFOR)

<sup>151</sup> This law replaces the old Forestry and Conservation Law of natural areas and wildlife (FAO, 2017).

the management of protected areas. However, there are also several environmental setbacks<sup>152</sup> related to this new code as it eases the exceptional authorisation mechanism for extractive activities of non-renewable resources in protected areas (FES-ILDIS and CDES, 2017). As such, shrimp sector benefits from an exemption in the secondary regulation regarding the prohibition of expansion of productive activities in mangrove areas which is energised by the Agreement (Vega, 2020).

Fishing and aquaculture activities are regulated by the revised Fisheries and Fisheries Development Law. In 2019 Ecuador received a “yellow card” by the European Commission to flag Ecuador’s limited action against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) fishing<sup>153</sup> (European Commission, 2019). In February 2020, a new Fishing and Aquaculture Law passed: The Organic Law for the Development of Aquaculture and Fishing. This law is designed to strengthen the existing system of sanctions related to IUU and to improve surveillance, control and monitoring and will replace the Fisheries and Fisheries Development Law on this topic (European Commission, 2020; MPCEIP, 2020).

Regarding the protection and recovery of mangroves forests, several protection mechanisms, sustainable forest management and reforestation programs are implemented by different institutions and communities. Examples of these laws, regulations and programs are 1) **Mangroves are declared as Protective forests** since 2003<sup>154</sup>, covering 11.99% Ecuadorian mangroves 2) **the National System for protected areas (SNAP)** which cover 45% (72 thousand ha) of mangroves in 2018. Although these two laws forbid the expansion of shrimp production in mangrove areas, mangrove coverage reduced between 2010-2018 most likely by shrimp farms expansion, showing a weakness in the control, surveillance and monitoring of these areas and an illegality on the part of the shrimp farms 3) **Network of Marine and Coastal Protected Areas of Ecuador** to guarantee biological connectivity between ecosystems by creating connectivity corridors and conserving the biodiversity of the SNAP 4) **Sustainable use and Custody Agreements of mangrove forests** is seen as ‘a management tool’ under which mangrove forests are handed over to ancestral users to custody these areas. Custodians obtain the right to sustainably use bio-aquatic resources and at the same time are responsible for the control and surveillance of mangrove and report the progress of its management. In 2018, 42.85% (69 thousand ha) of the Ecuadorian mangrove area is reported under custody agreements. The management effectiveness of 20 mangrove custody agreements in El Oro was evaluated as “satisfactory management” (ranging from 46.7% to 93.5% effectiveness) (Rodríguez, 2018) 5) **Governmental incentive program for forest conservation: Socio Manglar**, which is part of SocioBosque Program which provides an economic incentive to “custodians” of mangrove forests and lastly 6) the **National Action Plan for the Conservation of Mangroves in Ecuador** that was approved in 2019 and aims to improve the protection, recovery and sustainable use of mangroves, with a focus on improving the quality of life of ancestral and traditional users.

Some measures aimed to lessen the effect of the potential environmental pressures have been supported by the EU. For instance, the Sustainable Shrimp Partnership (SSP) created in 2017 received 74,000 USD funds from the EU, seeking to establish a round table on sustainable shrimp with the private sector, academics and some non-governmental and intergovernmental organizations. Besides, in 2018 the IDH (the Sustainable Trade Initiative) partnered with the Sustainable Shrimp Partnership in Ecuador for the zero use of antibiotics (Acción Ecológica, 2020). In 2018, 90% of shrimp farms hold a state or private certification of good aquaculture practices, accredited to the European Union

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<sup>152</sup> Oil exploration in the buffer areas of the Tagaeri Taromenane Intangible Zone (i.e. an indigenous community) and shrimp farming within mangrove ecosystems have been authorised by the Ministry of the Environment (Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung and Ecuador and Centro de Derechos Económicos y Sociales (n.d.).-

<sup>153</sup> As part of the EU’s IUU regulation.

<sup>154</sup> Presidencia de la República del Ecuador. (2003). Texto Unificado de Legislación Secundaria de Medio Ambiente. Decreto Ejecutivo 3516. Registro Oficial Edición Especial 2 de 31-mar. 2003

standards (Piedrahita, 2019). Some sources report that certified fish farms hide behind “sustainability discourse” without substantially contributing to the integral recovery of a biodiverse mangrove system which is showcased by the lack of reporting on data related to 1) water management (dumping of untreated water, 2) reforestation (i.e., restoring mangroves ecosystems) 3) feeding based on fishmeals, reducing the availability of a valuable food source for fishing and gathering communities (Benavides, 2021).

### 1.1.3 Other **environmental indicators**

#### 1.1.3.1 Water

**Colombia** has a unique institutional framework in Latin America, with decentralised environmental authorities and a market-based regulation for potable water and electricity utilities (Blanco, 2018). The regional environmental authorities (CAR) are the institutions in charge of implementing the national policies and regulations regarding, among other, water resources. The CAR is responsible for the evaluation, control, and monitoring of the uses of water, including the discharge of waste into water bodies. The CARs are responsible for the issuance of the respective environmental licenses, concessions, and safeguards and for formulating and adopting the Territorial Ordering Plans (POT), which means that the CAR would issue the authorisation of the use of water for electric generation, domestic use, and agriculture irrigation (CAR, n.d.). Access to potable water, abstraction, storage, distribution, discharge, and wastewater treatment of residual water is the responsibility of the municipal authorities. Further, the Institute of Hydrology, Meteorology and Environmental Studies (IDEAM) is the technical and scientific entity of the National Environmental System (SINA), and thus, the official source of environmental information in the areas of hydrology and meteorology.

In **Peru**, the National Water Authority (ANA) of the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation (MINAGRI) is the governing body and highest regulatory and technical authority of the country. Since 2008, the ANA is the entity responsible for managing and monitoring the national natural water sources, which includes the issuing of authorisations to water service providers for its use and distribution, as well as for the permits for wastewater discharge and reuse. The ANA is a decentralised organisation, which works through 14 Water Administrative Authorities (AAA), 71 Local Water Administrations (ALA), and 12 Cuenca Water Resources Councils (CRHC) (ANA, n.d.). Among other functions, the AAAs are responsible for water management at a basin-level, authorising studies and works (e.g. distribution systems), and issuing water use rights. The ALAs, complementarily, support the AAA in their functions and provide training, awareness-raising actions, and communication campaigns related to water issues at the national level. Finally, the CRHCs were conceived as institutional spaces for dialogue, where the water sector’s stakeholders exchange and reach consensus on the implementation of key actions and plans (Ibid.).

The main legal instrument for water management in Peru is the Water Resources Law (Law No. 29338) which entered into force on March 30, 2009 (Congreso de la República de Perú, 2009). In addition, the ANA is the entity in charge of the National Water Resources Management System (SNGRH), a platform comprising all public sector institutions and users with functions related to water management in the country. The SNGRH articulates the actions of all its members to ensure compliance with the National Water Resources Policy and Strategy and the National Water Resources Plan (ANA, n.d.). In 2019, the ANA presented its Institutional Strategic Plan 2019 – 2024 (ANA, 2019).

In **Ecuador**, the Ministry of Water and Environment oversees the water resources in the country. According to the 2008 National Constitution, drinking water and irrigation water services are the exclusive responsibility of the State. This is supervised by the Executive Authority of Water Resources (SENAGUA) (SENAGUA, n.d.). Since 2014, the work of SENAGUA is regulated by the Law on Water Resources and the Use of Water (LORHUyA), which guarantees the right for all people to have clean, sufficient, accessible, and



affordable water in Ecuador, besides imposing provisions on the administration of water catchment areas (Asamblea Nacional, 2014). The Law includes a prioritisation for the use of the Ecuadorian water resources: a) drinking water; b) irrigation water; c) ecological flow; and, d) productive activities; and it is characterised by enhanced cooperation between the central government and subnational authorities (Martínez, A and Larson, R, 2019).

Besides the LORHUYA, the Law of Environmental Management from 2004 promotes comprehensive participation between sectors to issue and apply technical standards and general parameters for environmental protection (Congreso Nacional del Ecuador, 2004a). Other regulatory instruments of relevance within the Ecuadorian water sector include the Law on Prevention and Control of Environmental Pollution, which describes the responsibilities and intersectoral coordination on technical standards and regulations related to water discharges; and the Mining Law, which establishes the regulatory framework to prevent water contamination due to mining activities (Congreso Nacional del Ecuador, 2004b). Seeking alignment with the SDGs, Ecuador formulated the National Strategy for Water Quality (ENCA) 2016-2030, an instrument that articulates actions of various institutions related to water resources (SENAGUA, 2016).

#### *1.1.3.2 Air quality*

In **Colombia**, the main governmental body responsible for air quality is Minambiente, which designed the main instruments for air pollution regulation including, among others, the Resolutions 610, 650 and 2154 of 2010 that define the national protocol for the monitoring and control of air quality indicators (IDEAM, n.d.). Through these instruments, Minambiente established maximum permissible levels of pollutants, such as particulate material (PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>), sulphur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), and tropospheric ozone (O<sub>3</sub>). These air pollutants are monitored by the Environmental Authorities (Regional Autonomous Corporations, Sustainable Development Corporations and Urban Environmental Authorities) through Air Quality Surveillance Systems (SVCA), designed and operated by Minambiente. In 2019, Minambiente published the Air Quality National Strategy that presents a set of actions aimed to achieve a considerable reduction of the particulate material level in cities (Minambiente, 2019b).

In **Peru**, air quality issues are managed within an institutional framework established at the national level, that includes the participation of MINAM, the General Directorate of Environmental Health (DIGESA), the National Service of Meteorology and Hydrology of Peru (SENAMHI) and the Environmental Assessment and Enforcement Agency (OEFA), which monitor indicators such as Environmental Quality Standards (ECA), and Maximum Permissible Limits (LMP) (MINAM, 2016). Moreover, MINAM coordinates the Environmental Technical Study Groups (GESTA) with the objective of developing air quality action plans and monitoring their implementation, as well as air quality surveillance programs (Ibid.).

In **Ecuador**, the Unified Text of Secondary Environmental Legislation of the Ministry of Environment (TULAS, Book VI: Environmental Quality) establishes the basic environmental policies related to air quality. In addition, the National Plan of Air Quality (PNCA) developed by the MAE in 2010 presents the current national framework that guides air quality management and monitoring through various institutions (i.e., at the national, regional, and sectoral levels) (MAE, 2010). For instance, CORPAIRE was created in 2004 in Quito to monitor the air quality index of Quito (IQCA) which measures key parameters such as PM<sub>2.5</sub>, CO, NO<sub>x</sub> (Ibid.).

#### *1.1.3.3 Waste and circular economy*

**Colombia's** framework of waste management is mainly defined by the National Policy for the Integral Management of Solid Waste published in 2016 (DNP, 2016). Further, Resolution 1407/2018, obligates all producers to create Environmental Management Plans

(PGA) for their packaging and subsequent packaging waste and requires manufacturers and importers to support the producers' PGAs while contributing to the research of innovative packaging solutions (Minambiente, 2018a) (WWF and CyclosGmbH, 2019). As such, today circular economy (CE) in Colombia is mainly promoted by the collaboration between Minambiente, the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism (MINCIT), and the National Planning Department (DNP). This alliance led to the publication in 2018 of the National Strategy on Circular Economy, one of the central vehicles to meet the Colombian government's goals of increasing the recycling and reuse of solid waste to 17.9% by 2030 (Minambiente, 2018b). The strategy presents six lines of action, with their corresponding indicators and goals: (i) industrial materials and mass consumer products, (ii) packaging materials, (iii) biomass flows, (iv) energy, (v) water, and (vi) construction materials (Ibid.).

In **Peru**, the regulatory structure governing waste management follows different levels of authority: (i) national government agencies, which determine the legal requirements for waste management within the various sectors that produce solid waste; (ii) sectorial authorities that regulate waste origin; (iv) regional government promoting waste management in the field of their jurisdiction; and (iv) provincial and municipal authorities, which develop policies, regulate practices, and institutionalise programs for solid waste management (WWF and CyclosGmbH, 2019). Overall, MINAM, the Ministry of Production (PRODUCE) and the National Industry Society (SNI) are the main organisations joining the efforts to encourage the adoption of circular economy models in the country (Ibid). In 2018, SNI created the Circular Economy Commission aiming to seek mechanisms to encourage the adoption of circular economy models in the national industry and gather key stakeholders from different sectors (Rodriguez D., 2020). Subsequently, in coordination with MINAM and PRODUCE, the SIN guided the development of the *Roadmap towards a Circular Economy in Industry* (Supreme Decree No. 003-2020-PRODUCE), which complemented the *National Plan for Comprehensive Solid Waste Management 2016-2024* (PLANRES) (Ñiquen, A., 2020; MINAM, 2017). According to MINAM, the strategic axes and objectives of PLANRES are currently being updated for the period 2021-2031, which will be approved by Supreme Decree. Furthermore, the legal framework of the sector in Peru includes the Law of Management of Solid Waste (MINAM, 2000), Law No. 29419 (MINAM, 2010) that regulates the activity of waste pickers, the Single Use Plastics and Disposable Containers Law No. 30884 (MINAM, 2019). In addition, Peru has established technical legal instruments such as Legislative Decree No. 1278, which promotes the Extended Producer Responsibility and the Circular Economy, and the National Plan of Productivity and Competitiveness (Supreme Decree No. 237-2019-EF).

In **Ecuador**, the Organic Environmental Code (COA) is currently the most important norm in the country in environmental matters, including waste management. The Ministries of Environment and Water of Ecuador (MAE) and of Production, Foreign Trade, Investments and Fisheries (MPCEIP)–, have been working since the beginning of 2019 in the development of a country roadmap towards a National Strategy of Circular Economy: The *White Book of the Circular Economy*, which will establish the route for the country's industry to participate in the development of the model of circularity at a national level. Additionally, the government has promoted a Pact for the Circular Economy, which gathers 161 signatories of the industrial and academic sectors (MPCEIP, 2019). In Ecuador, the instrument Institutional Framework for Environmental Incentives establishes economic incentives for the private and public sector to develop environmental initiatives related to, among others, the promotion of a circular economy (MAE, 2015). Further, a Law that prohibits single-use plastics is expected to enter into force in Ecuador in the first quarter of 2021 (Infobae, 2020).

### **Annex D-3: Impact screening and scoping of potential environmental impacts**

The impact screening exercise is based on the following information:

- The **environmental baselines** covering the current performance and governance framework (to identify the most prevailing environmental threats in the countries/regions);
- Additional information from **literature and stakeholders** (governments, NGOs, research institutions) on the implementation of the Agreement and on potential effects of the Agreement; and
- The **Agreement** (to identify the environmental areas which are likely to be most affected by the Agreement):
  - The characteristics and specific provisions within the **TSD chapter** of the Agreement;
  - **CGE results** prepared for this ex-post evaluation for changed economic activity by sector due to the Agreement, and where possible compare these with CGE modelling undertaken for the SIA; and
  - The *nature* of these impacts, the geographical scope and duration, as well as their potential *cumulative* effect.

Based on this information, 'impact alerts' have been identified. The matrices show the economic impacts (based on the CGE results), the environmental status (for different environmental impact areas), and relevant issues (e.g., risks or potential impacts) related to certain environmental impact areas or sectors. The relevant issues are numbered in the tables. In the accompanying table of each matrix, further information on the numbered issues is provided.

The incidence and intensity of potential impacts across a given sector (horizontal) or impact area (vertical) have informed:

- the identification of priority areas, which are to be assessed in detail in the evaluation; and
- decisions on case study selection, along with other considerations.

#### **Impact screening and scoping results**

Below, we present the impact screening matrices for transparency reasons. These matrices show *potential* risks and impacts. We have not established (possible) causal links between the Agreement and these potential impacts.

##### How to read the matrices:

The rows contain all CGE sectors and more aggregated (overall) sectors. The columns contain all environmental impact areas. In this matrix you can (1) see the production changes per sector resulting from the Agreement (economic impact) based on CGE (++ refers to relatively large increase in production), (2) various potential impacts that may have been caused by the Agreement or general environmental threats in specific countries. Each number refers to a specific issue, which is explained in the corresponding table below each matrix.

## Colombia

Table D-3: Impact screening and scoping matrix Colombia

Sectors			Econ. impacts	Environmental status				
Overall sector	CGE Sector			Climate change	Biodiversity and natural resources	Other environmental parameters		
						Water	Waste management and CE	Air quality
Horticulture	1	Paddy rice		1	1,2,4	1	1,2	
	2	Wheat						
	3	Cereal grains						
	4	Vegetables, fruit	+					
	5	Oils seeds						
	6	Sugar cane/beet						
	7	Plant-based fibres						
	8	Crops	+					
Animals	9	Cattle, sheep, goats						
	10	Animal products	-					
	11	Wool	--					
	12	Forestry		1,5	2,5			
	13	Fishing			6			
	14	Coal		2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	
	15	Oil		2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	
	16	Minerals		2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	
	Meat/ dairy pr.	17	Bovine meat products					
18		Meat products	-					
19		Vegetable oils and fat						
20		Dairy products						
V. food pr.	21	Processed rice			1,4	1,4	1,4	
	22	Sugar cane / beet						
	23	Other food products	+					
	24	Beverages, tobacco products						
Cloth- ing pr.	25	Textiles	+	8	4		8	9
	26	Wearing apparel						
	27	Leather products	+					
Wood pr.	28	Wood products			5			
	29	Paper products						
	30	Petroleum						
Chem- ical pr.	31	Chemical products	+	8	8	8	8	9
	32	Basic pharmaceutical products	--					
	33	Rubber, plastic products	+					
	34	Mineral products			2,3,8	2,3,8	2,3,8	
Metal pr.	35	Ferrous metals			2,3,8	2,3,8	2,3,8	
	36	Metals	++					
	37	Metal products	-					
	38	Computer, electronic	+					
Machinery pr.	39	Electrical equipment	+	8	8	8	8	8
	40	Machinery and equipment	-					
	41	Motor vehicles and parts						
	42	Transport equipment	++					
	43	Manufactures						
	Elec- / gas	44	Electricity					
45		Gas manufacture, distribution	+					
46		Water						
	47	Construction		8	8	8	8	8
	48	Trade			4	2,5	2,5	
	49	Accommodation, food and services						
Trans- port	50	Transport						
	51	Water transport						
	52	Air transport	+					

++ refers to large positive economic impact, + refers to moderate positive economic impact,  
 -- refers to large negative economic impact, - refers to moderate negative economic impact.  
 The numbers shown in the matrix refer to the numbers in the table on the next page

**Table D-4: Impact screening and scoping matrix Colombia, details**

#	Topic	Issue
1	Potential impacts of horticultural sector	<p>Potential positive impact on the production of and trade in <b>sustainable and organic products</b> (e.g., coffee, cocoa). This may be affected by strict SPS regulations, EU customer expectations, and support from REDD and DG DEVCO (Stakeholder input, DG DEVCO). Particularly in the case of Colombia, a recent study showed that the import of sustainable palm oil from Colombia to the EU increased from 23% to 31% between 2014- 2018, and that a growing trend of certified biofuels has been observed (using the ISCC certification) (from 7% in 2017 to 26% in 2018) (Solidaridad, 2019).</p> <p>Increased agricultural production may have resulted in <b>land use conversion</b> (e.g., deforestation) and may have affected <b>water availability and quality</b> (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009). Specific concerns have been expressed regarding palm oil, which besides being associated with deforestation of tropical forests, traditionally uses large quantities of fertilisers, and thus may pose a negative impact on the local soil and water quality. If the Agreement increased the production of palm oil, these pressures may have been intensified. Furthermore, it has been reported that a considerably increase in the use of fertilisers for agriculture has been observed, affecting the wealth of water bodies (IDEAM, 2019). In Colombia, the main economic sectors driving higher water demand are agriculture (43.1 %) (IDEAM, 2019). Particularly, pressure on the land resources has been driven by the expansion of the agricultural area (which increased by about 21%, compared to 2014) (Ibid.)</p>
2	Environmental standards and regulation	<p>As per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to <b>effectively implement various multilateral environmental agreements</b>, which could result in positive impacts (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>The effective implementation of the TSD chapter with regards to the environmental provisions has been criticised by civil society representatives as stakeholders noted that no mechanisms to resolve <b>disputes over non-compliance</b> claims have been established (EPRS and ICEI, 2018). Some stakeholders argue that the net effect has been a lowering of environmental regulation (ICEAI, 2018). In a response to resolution 2628, Colombia developed <b>roadmaps to improve environmental rights</b>. The effective implementation of this roadmap has been questioned (OIDHACO, 2017; Fritz, 2018).</p>
3	Pressures resulting from mining	<p>In general, trade agreements may have supported initiatives and <b>certification standards</b> towards a sustainable mining (e.g. Better Gold Initiative, Fairtrade and Fairmined) (Stakeholder input) In Colombia, the Agreement may have helped advancing in environmental legislation for the mining sector, as, for instance, in March 2018, the Congress of Colombia approved Colombia's joining of MINAMata Convention on Mercury (EPRS and ICEI, 2018). Besides, co-founded by the European Union, the Colombian government signed in 2018 an agreement to take stronger action to implement OECD Due Diligence Guidance in Colombian gold supply chains, including better mining registry, monitoring mechanisms to assess risk, and support capacity building for industry and government (OECD, 2017). Further, the European Parliament asked the Colombian government, within the framework of the Agreement, to be informed about the measures adopted to guarantee the effective application of the legislation on the protection of the environment and diversity, especially related to deforestation and the extraction of raw materials (Delgado and Hawkins, 2020)</p> <p>The mining sector (both legal and illegal mining) has historically been related to negative environmental impacts in Colombia, such as deforestation, soil depletion, and water pollution. If the Agreement increased mining activities, these pressures may have been intensified. In some regions of Colombia, mining exploitation is driving the increase in the discharge of untreated water considerably (IDEAM, 2019). In the Colombian Amazon, for example, mining is reported to have increased in the last years due to the extraction of minerals such as gold, cobalt, copper, among others (Ibid).</p>
4	Biodiversity and property rights	<p>As per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to conserve the biological diversity in accordance with the CBD (see chapter IX of the Agreement). Moreover, efforts have been made to increase the protection of biodiversity by safeguarding local wildlife species in Colombia: for instance, the Colombian government developed the sustainable management framework of an indigenous species of caiman under the Agreement, leading to positive impacts on wildlife biodiversity in Colombia (EPRS and ICEI, 2018).</p> <p>The <b>intellectual property</b> rights related to <b>biodiversity</b> (knowledge from indigenous people) may not have been addressed sufficiently in the Agreement (Stakeholder input). In addition, a potential increase in the production of non-traditional products for export may have affected the variety of cultures and thus possibly the ecosystems of the respective lands (Giorgetti, 2015; Delgado et al. 2020). The link with the Agreement with the EU remains unclear. Regarding wildlife spices, concerns have been raised about the enforcement and effectiveness of the legislative framework on reptile skins exports and their impact on wild caimans (Eurogroup for Animals, 2020).</p>
5	Forestry	<p>As per the TSD chapter, the parties commit to improve forest law enforcement and the effective implementation of <b>CITES</b> for endangered timber species (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>At the same time, the impact on the forestry sector may also have been negative in case the improvements of the <b>institutional environmental</b> frameworks have not kept pace with the potential increased export of forest products (Stakeholder input; Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009; Cantaurias Salaverry, et al., 2015). In Colombia in particular, experts flag deforestation (e.g. in the Amazon) as a major issue.</p>
6	Fish resources	The Agreement may have led to <b>improved cooperation</b> in the context of Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMO) and combat IUU (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009).
7	Climate change	<p>Increased production in various sectors may have led to increased greenhouse gas emissions. In addition, the Agreement's impact on the <b>LULUCF sector</b> is of particular importance for the Andean countries, given the importance of the Amazon in this respect.</p> <p>Under the TSD chapter, all parties commit to promote trade in energy efficiency, renewable energy, innovation, and <b>technologies to mitigate and adapt to climate change</b> + reduction of emissions from deforestation and forest degradation ('REDD') (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p>
8	Industrial pollution, electronic waste and circular economy	<p>In the SIA, increased <b>pollution</b> was identified as a risk in case the Agreement would lead to higher production levels of chemicals, textiles, rubber, plastics, and metals (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester, 2009)</p> <p>The EU and Colombia started cooperating on <b>circular economy</b> (Stakeholder input, DG ENV; EPRS 2018).</p>
9	Urban air pollution	Urban <b>air pollution</b> has been mentioned as an important environmental challenge in large cities in the SIA (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester, 2009).

**Green**=potential positive impact, **red**=potential negative impact, **yellow**=mixed-undefined potential impact

## Identification of priority areas in Colombia

The identification of priority areas is based on a joint analysis of the expected (economic and regulatory) impacts of the Agreement and the existing environmental framework and performance. The selected priority areas will be assessed in more detail in the next stage of the evaluation.

The following priority areas<sup>155</sup> have been identified for Colombia:

1. **The potential impact of the Agreement through the horticulture sector on land conversion (related to climate change and biodiversity) and water availability** – this has been identified as a priority area based on the Agreement's positive impact on output in the horticulture sector, especially for the products under the categories 'vegetables, fruits' and 'other crops' (e.g., etc., flowers), and the existing environmental pressures within the sector, related to deforestation, biodiversity loss, pollution and water use. The assessment of this priority area will also consider the potential impact of the Agreement on the promotion of sustainable and organic products, as the Agreement may have improved the (export) position for sustainable and organic products (e.g., bananas). This, in combination with the provisions on sustainable production in the TSD chapter, warrant additional research on this matter.
2. **The potential impact of the Agreement on climate change through economic changes** – the Agreement affected the production in different sectors in all countries in various ways. As shown in Table D-3 and Table D-4, the economic modelling showed a moderate economic impact of the Agreement on 'gas manufacture and distribution', and 'air transport', both of which may have caused appreciable changes in the GHG emissions of the country, as the energy sector accounts for a significant share of the local GHG emissions (see baseline analysis in section 7.1 of the main report and Annex D-1). Furthermore, in Colombia the Agreement had a large economic impact on the output of 'metals' and 'transport equipment', which may have involved an important change in the GHG emissions of these sectors. To a lesser extent, the Agreement's output in products such as 'textiles', 'leather', 'chemicals', 'rubbers and plastics' may imply a change in the associated GHG emissions. In other sectors, output decreased instead. Finally, given the importance of the Amazon, and the LULUCF sector for the GHG emissions inventory of Colombia (responsible for over 20% of the total GHG emissions, as highlighted in the baseline analysis in section 7.1 of the main report and Annex D-1), particular attention will be spent on this aspect. For all these reasons, evaluating the impact of the Agreement on greenhouse gas emissions is considered a priority.
3. **The potential impact on air pollution through economic changes** - the changes in the economic outputs of and 'transport equipment', resulting from the Agreement (see Table D-3 and Table D-4) bring attention to the potential effect on air pollution (through the increased imports and production of transport equipment) as a result of the Agreement.
4. **The potential impact of the Agreement on the improvement and effective implementation of environmental standards** – as per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to effectively implement various multilateral environmental agreements. As such, it can be expected that the Agreement has improved the (implementation of) environmental agreements in all countries. Yet, based on literature and stakeholder input, various concerns are raised concerning the effective implementation of environmental agreements and standards, related to e.g., the mechanisms for disputes

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<sup>155</sup> Note that all priority areas are equally important, and that the listed order of priority areas does not give any indication regarding importance.



over non-compliance claims, (exploration) certification procedures, and intellectual property rights related to biodiversity. Having regarded the positive impact on metals, chemicals, and horticulture, the environmental standards associated with these sectors will be given special priority (see Table D-3 and Table D-4).

The following environmental issues have not been selected for further analysis:

- **Pressures on biodiversity due to skin exports:** Even though concerns have been raised about the enforcement and effectiveness of the legislative framework on reptile skins exports, the Agreement does not show a change in the export of animal products (which includes skins). For this reason, this aspect will not be considered a priority for the next stages of the analysis.
- **Pressures due to mining due to coal and minerals extraction** since no economic impact of the Agreement on the extraction of coal or minerals have been observed (and as potential regulatory issues are covered will be covered under point 4), the potential impacts of these products previously considered of concern (as described in Table D-3 and Table D-4) will not be considered a priority.

## Peru

Table D-5: Impact screening and scoping matrix Peru

Sectors			Econ. impacts	Environmental status				
Overall sector	CGE Sector			Climate change	Biodiversity and natural resources	Other environmental parameters		
						Water	Waste management and CE	Air quality
Horticulture	1	Paddy rice		1,7	1,4	1	1	
	2	Wheat						
	3	Cereal grains						
	4	Vegetables, fruit	++					
	5	Oils seeds	+					
	6	Sugar cane/beet						
	7	Plant-based fibres	+					
	8	Crops	-					
Anim-als	9	Cattle, sheep, goats						
	10	Animal products						
	11	Wool						
	12	Forestry		1,5,7	5			
	13	Fishing			6			
	14	Coal		2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	
	15	Oil		3	2,3	2,3	2,3	
	16	Minerals		2,3	2,3	2,3	2,3	
Meat/ dairy pr.	17	Bovine meat products						
	18	Meat products						
	19	Vegetable oils and fat	+					
	20	Dairy products						
V. food pr.	21	Processed rice			1,4	1,4		
	22	Sugar cane / beet						
	23	Other food products	++					
	24	Beverages, tobacco products						
Clot- hing pr.	25	Textiles		8	8	8	8	9
	26	Wearing apparel	+					
	27	Leather products						
Woo d pr.	28	Wood products			5			
	29	Paper products	-					
	30	Petroleum						
Chemical pr.	31	Chemical products	++		8	8	8	9
	32	Basic pharmaceutical products	-					
	33	Rubber, plastic products						
	34	Mineral products			2,3,8	2,3,8	2,3,8	
Metal pr.	35	Ferrous metals	-		2,3	2,3	2,3	
	36	Metals	-					
	37	Metal products						
Machinery pr.	38	Computer, electronic	-					8
	39	Electrical equipment	-					
	40	Machinery and equipment	-					
	41	Motor vehicles and parts						
	42	Transport equipment						
	43	Manufactures	-					
Elec./ gas	44	Electricity						
	45	Gas manufacture, distribution						
	46	Water			1,3	1,3	1,3	
	47	Construction		8	8	8	8	8
Servi- ces	48	Trade						
	49	Accommodation, food and services						
Trans- port	50	Transport			8			
	51	Water transport						
	52	Air transport						

++ refers to large positive economic impact, + refers to moderate positive economic impact,

-- refers to large negative economic impact, - refers to moderate negative economic impact.

The numbers shown in the matrix refer to the numbers in the table on the next page

**Table D-6: Impact screening and scoping matrix Peru, details**

#	Topic	Issue
1	Potential impacts of horticultural sector	<p>Potential positive impact on the production of and trade in <b>sustainable and organic products</b> (e.g., coffee, cocoa). This may be affected by strict SPS regulations, EU customer expectations, and support from REDD and DG DEVCO (Stakeholder input, DG DEVCO). However, it was also discussed in the biodiversity baseline that the growing international demand for organic products<sup>156</sup> is still insufficient to promote a change in performance in the national agricultural sector (MINAM, 2014).</p> <p>Increased agricultural production may have resulted in <b>land use conversion</b> (e.g. deforestation) and may have affected <b>water availability</b> (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009). Specific concerns have been expressed regarding avocado production, biofuel production (e.g. palm oil and sugar cane) and asparagus production in the Ica and Villacurí valley (Stakeholder input, DG ENV and EUD Peru; EQUIDAD, 2017; EPRS and ICLEI, 2018).</p>
2	Environmental standards and regulation	<p>As per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to <b>effectively implement various multilateral environmental agreements</b>, which could result in positive impacts (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>The effective implementation of the TSD chapter with regards to the environmental provisions has been criticised by civil society representatives as no mechanisms to resolve <b>disputes over non-compliance</b> claims have been established (EPRS and ICEI, 2018). Some stakeholders argue that the net effect has been a lowering of environmental regulation (ICEAI, 2018). In a response to resolution 2628, Peru developed <b>roadmaps to improve environmental rights</b>. The effective implementation of this roadmap has been questioned (OIDHACO, 2017; Fritz, 2018).</p>
3	Pressures resulting from mining	<p>Trade agreements may have supported initiatives and <b>certification standards</b> towards a sustainable mining (e.g. Better Gold Initiative, Fairtrade and Fairmined) (Stakeholder input)</p> <p>The mining sector (both legal and illegal mining) has historically been related to negative environmental impacts, such as <b>deforestation, soil depletion, and water pollution</b>. Mining is currently the sector driving the release of the largest amount of treated water into the Peruvian rivers, followed by the domestic and energy sector. If the Agreement increased mining activities, these pressures may have been intensified. In the Artisanal and Small Scale Mining (MAPE) sector, illegal mining has been an issue, using toxic reagents such as mercury and cyanide for the extraction of e.g. gold). Increased hydrocarbon exploitation is a pressure to deforestation (Stakeholder input, DG ENV and DG DEVCO).</p>
4	(Genetic) biodiversity and intellectual property rights	<p>As per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to conserve the biological diversity in accordance with the CBD (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>The <b>intellectual property</b> rights related to <b>biodiversity and/or traditional knowledge of indigenous peoples</b> may not have been addressed sufficiently in the Agreement. As such, other (non-Peruvian) parties commercially benefit from these rights without benefiting the native populations (Stakeholder input; EPRS and ICEI, 2018). The link with the Agreement with the EU remains unclear. The Agreement may have resulted in increased production of <b>non-native crops</b>, affecting biodiversity. Regarding wildlife species and native plants, concerns have been raised as the exports of these products are increasing (CBD Secretariat, n.d.).</p>
5	Forestry	<p>As per the TSD chapter, the parties commit to improve forest law enforcement and the effective implementation of <b>CITES</b> for endangered timber species (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>The impact on the forestry sector may also have been negative in case the improvements of the <b>institutional environmental</b> frameworks have not kept pace with the potential increased export of forest products (Stakeholder input; Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009; Cantaurias Salaverry, et al., 2015). Despite the large number of rules to regulate deforestation, surveillance and control of forest reportedly remains ineffective (Development Solutions et al., 2009). Notably, palm oil production is growing in the Amazonian region, where 72% of new plantations have expanded into forested areas, representing 1.3% of the total deforestation for that country for the years 2000–2010 (Gutiérrez-Vélez et al., 2011).</p>
6	Fish resources	<p>The Agreement may have led to <b>improved cooperation</b> in the context of Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMO) and combat IUU (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009). Moreover, a small increase in the <b>proportion of sustainable fishing</b> with respect to GDP is reported in 2018 (INEI, 2018).</p> <p>Despite programmes and policies for the sustainable use of the marine resources, analysts report that there is a need for better environmental and economic policies to ensure there is sustainable framework to promote diversification, regulate fisheries, support sustainable development, and ensure the responsible use of aquatic resources (McKinley, et al., 2019).</p>
7	Climate change	<p>Under the TSD chapter, all parties commit to promote trade in energy efficiency, renewable energy, innovation and <b>technologies to mitigate and adapt to climate change</b> as well as to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation ('REDD') (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>Agriculture, gold mining, extensive cattle ranching, hydroelectric generation, and the exploitation of hydrocarbons, among others, are the main drivers of a high deforestation rate and thus of the significant GHG emissions (CDP, 2019). In addition, the Agreement's impact on the <b>LULUCF sector</b> is of particular importance for the Andean countries, given the importance of the Amazon in this respect. In Peru, 43% of the total GHG emissions came from the LULUCF sector in 2017 (CAIT Data).</p>
8	Industrial pollution and circular economy	<p>The EU and Peru started cooperating on <b>circular economy</b> (Stakeholder input, DG ENV; EPRS and ICEI 2018)</p> <p>In the SIA, increased <b>pollution</b> was identified as a risk in case the Agreement would lead to higher production levels of chemicals, textiles, rubber, plastics, and metals (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009).</p>
9	Urban air pollution	<p>Urban <b>air pollution</b> has been mentioned as an important environmental challenge in large cities in the SIA (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009).</p>

**Green**=potential positive impact, **red**=potential negative impact, **yellow**=mixed-undefined potential impact

<sup>156</sup> The contribution of eco-friendly businesses to the national economy has increased considerably in recent years, with a recorded increase of 20% in exports of bio products, as well as a 25% increase in surface dedicated to organic or ecological production.

## Identification of priority areas in Peru

The identification of priority areas is based on a joint analysis of the expected (economic and regulatory) impacts of the Agreement and the existing environmental framework and performance. The selected priority areas will be assessed in more detail in the next stage of the evaluation.

The following priority areas<sup>157</sup> have been identified for Peru:

1. **The potential impact of the Agreement through the horticulture and oil seed sector on land conversion (related to climate change and biodiversity) and water availability** - this has been identified as priority area based on the Agreement's positive impact on output in the horticulture sector and the existing environmental pressures, related to deforestation, biodiversity loss, pollution and water use. Special attention will be given to palm oil production as the Agreement has a positive impact on the output of the oil seed sector (see Table D-5 and Table D-6) and as historically a large share of the new plantations is located in the Amazonian region.
2. **The potential impact of the Agreement on the promotion of sustainable and organic products** – various stakeholders argue that the Agreement may have improved the (export) position for sustainable and organic products in Peru (e.g. bananas). This, in combination with the provisions on sustainable production in the TSD chapter, warrant additional research on this matter.
3. **The potential impact of the Agreement on climate change through economic changes** – the Agreement affected the production in different sectors in various ways. These sectors have different emission intensities. Evaluating the impact of the Agreement on greenhouse gas emissions is considered a priority, given the global importance of climate change. In addition, the pressures related to climate change in Peru are mostly related to the land use conversion in the Amazon. For that reason, particular attention will be spent on the LULUCF sector.
4. **The potential impact of the Agreement on the improvement and effective implementation of environmental standards** – as per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to effectively implement various multilateral environmental agreements. As such, it can be expected that the Agreement has improved the (implementation of) environmental agreements in all countries. Yet, based on literature and stakeholder input, various concerns are raised concerning the effective implementation of environmental agreements and standard, related to e.g., the mechanisms for disputes over non-compliance claims, (exploration) certification procedures and intellectual property rights related to biodiversity.
5. **Potential impact of the Agreement on industrial pollution** – The Agreement has resulted in output changes in various industrial sectors (i.e., wearing apparel and chemical products). These sectors have historically been related to soil and water pollution. Moreover, industrial pollution, driven by increased production, has been identified by the SIA as a key environmental threat. Based on these reasons, industrial pollution will be analysed in more detail.

The following environmental issues have not been selected for further analysis:

1. **The potential impact of the Agreement through the mining sector** – the mining sector in Peru has been related to various negative environmental impacts. However, as no economic impact of the Agreement on the mining sector has been observed (and

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<sup>157</sup> Note that all priority areas are equally important, and that the listed order of priority areas does not give any indication regarding importance.

as potential regulatory issues are covered under point 4), the potential impacts on the mining sector are not considered a priority.

- 2. (Genetic) biodiversity and property rights** – although there is no absolute consensus in the literature on the impact of the provisions of the Agreement on the protection of IPR, due to lack of information, the topic of property rights is not included in the assessment. Moreover, biodiversity conservation is discussed in relation to point 1 and 4 as biodiversity loss is often associated with loss and degradation of ecosystems.

The following environmental topic areas have been identified in the baselines as important, but due to a missing positive impact of the Agreement on the related sectors, they are not selected as a priority area:

- 1. Trade in sustainable forest products**
- 2. Fish resources**
- 3. Urban air pollution**

**Ecuador****Table D-7: Impact screening and scoping matrix Ecuador**

Sectors			Econ. impacts	Environmental status				
Overall sector	CGE Sector			Climate change	Biodiversity and natural resources	Other environmental parameters		
						Water	Waste management and CE	Air quality
Horticulture	1	Paddy rice		1,7	1,4	1	1	
	2	Wheat	--					
	3	Cereal grains	++					
	4	Vegetables, fruit	+					
	5	Oils seeds	--					
	6	Sugar cane/beet	-					
	7	Plant-based fibres	--					
	8	Crops	--					
Anim-als	9	Cattle, sheep, goats						
	10	Animal products						
	11	Wool	--					
	12	Forestry		1,5	5			
	13	Fishing	+		6	6		
	14	Coal		3	3	3	3	
	15	Oil		3	3	3	3	
	16	Minerals		3	3	3	3	
Meat/ dairy pr.	17	Bovine meat products						
	18	Meat products						
	19	Vegetable oils and fat	--					
	20	Dairy products						
V. food pr.	21	Processed rice						
	22	Sugar cane / beet	-		1	1	1	
	23	Other food products	++					
	24	Beverages, tobacco products						
Cloth- ing pr.	25	Textiles	--	8	8	8	8	8
	26	Wearing apparel	+					
	27	Leather products	--					
Woo- d pr.	28	Wood products	-		5			
	29	Paper products	--					
	30	Petroleum						
Chemical pr.	31	Chemical products	--	8	8	8	8	8
	32	Basic pharmaceutical products	-					
	33	Rubber, plastic products	--					
	34	Mineral products			3	3	3	
Metal pr.	35	Ferrous metals	-					
	36	Metals	--					
	37	Metal products	+					
Machinery pr.	38	Computer, electronic	-	8	8	8	8	8,9
	39	Electrical equipment	--					
	40	Machinery and equipment						
	41	Motor vehicles and parts	--					
	42	Transport equipment						
	43	Manufactures						
Elec./ gas	44	Electricity						
	45	Gas manufacture, distribution	-					
	46	Water			1,3	1,3	1,3	
Servi- ces	47	Construction	+	8	8	8	8	9
	48	Trade	+					
	49	Accommodation, food and services			5			
Trans- port	50	Transport						
	51	Water transport						
	52	Air transport						

++ refers to large positive economic impact, + refers to moderate positive economic impact,

-- refers to large negative economic impact, - refers to moderate negative economic impact.

The numbers shown in the matrix refer to the numbers in the table on the next page



**Table D-8: Impact screening and scoping matrix Ecuador, details**

#	Topic	Issue
1	Potential impacts of horticultural trade	<p>Potential positive impact on the production of and trade in <b>sustainable and organic products</b> (e.g., coffee, cocoa). This may be affected by strict SPS regulations, EU customer expectations, and support from REDD and DG DEVCO (Stakeholder input, DG DEVCO).</p> <p>Increased agricultural production may have resulted in <b>land use conversion</b> (e.g. deforestation) and may have affected <b>water availability and quality</b> (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009). In the Ecuadorian Sixth National Report under the CBD, it was stated that 99.4% of the deforested areas between 2000 and 2008 were transformed into agricultural areas. Deforestation remains a pressing issue as the country lost 4.3% of its tree cover between 2001 and 2019 (Global Forest Watch, 2020). The production of fruits, and especially <b>bananas</b>, may be related to the harmful use of <b>pesticides</b>, which has violated labour rights and generated negative environmental impacts in plantations and their surroundings (Heifer Foundation, 2014; Instituto de Estudios Ecuatorianos, ASTAC and FES, 2019). Banana production may also <b>affect the water quantity and quality</b> of the local water resources (SENAGUA, 2019). Moreover, an increase of the illegal use of land and irrigation water has been reported in the banana sector resulting from increased production (Heifer Foundation 2014; Vera, 2020). In Ecuador, water pollution is also related to shrimp farming (Silva, 2015; Acción Ecológica, 2020)</p>
2	Environmental standards and regulation	<p>As per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to <b>effectively implement various multilateral environmental agreements</b>, which could result in positive impacts (see chapter IX (TSD) of the Agreement).</p> <p>The effective implementation of the TSD chapter with regards to the environmental provisions has also been criticised by civil society representatives as no mechanisms to resolve <b>disputes over non-compliance</b> claims have been established (EPRS and ICLEI 2018). In Ecuador, several regulatory reforms (e.g., COA; see section Annex D-1) have been implemented which may have <b>lowered the environmental protection levels</b> (de la Vega, 2020).</p>
3	Pressures resulting from mining	<p>Trade agreements may have supported initiatives and <b>certification standards</b> towards a sustainable mining (e.g. Better Gold Initiative, Fairtrade and Fairmined) (Stakeholder input).</p> <p>The mining sector (both legal and illegal mining) has historically been related to negative environmental impacts, such as <b>deforestation, soil depletion, and water and soil pollution</b>. If the Agreement increased mining activities, these pressures may have been intensified.</p>
4	(Genetic) biodiversity and property rights	<p>As per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to conserve the biological diversity in accordance with the CBD (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>The <b>intellectual property</b> rights related to <b>biodiversity</b> (knowledge from indigenous people) may not have been addressed sufficiently in the Agreement. The Agreement may have resulted in increased production of <b>non-native crops</b>, affecting biodiversity.</p>
5	Forestry	<p>As per the TSD chapter, the parties commit to improve forest law enforcement and the effective implementation of <b>CITES</b> for endangered timber species (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>The impact on the forestry sector may also have been negative in case the improvements of the <b>institutional environmental</b> frameworks have not kept pace with the potential increased export of forest products (Stakeholders, Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009). Ecuador's Wood Industry Association has estimated that 70% of all timber sold in the country is illegally harvested (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009, 85).</p>
6	Pressures resulting from fisheries and in particular shrimp production	<p>The Agreement may have led to <b>improved cooperation</b> in the context of Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMO) and combat IUU (Stakeholders, Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009). Moreover, sustainable partnerships and initiatives for shrimp production have been developed (e.g. <b>Sustainable Shrimp Partnership (SSP) and Sustainable Trade Initiative (IDH)</b>) as of 2017. They aim to reduce industry-wide antibiotic use and the impacts of climate change among others (Acción Ecológica, 2020)</p> <p>In 2019 Ecuador received a <b>"yellow card"</b> by the European Commission to flag Ecuador's limited action against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) fishing (European Commission, 2019). The mangrove areas of Cojimies estuary, the Chone estuary and the Jambelí Archipelago estuary have lost most of their mangrove coverage, predominately driven by land use change related to shrimp farming (Rodríguez, 2018).</p>
7	Climate change	<p>Under the TSD chapter, all parties commit to promote trade in energy efficiency, renewable energy, innovation and <b>technologies to mitigate and adapt to climate change</b> + reduction of emissions from deforestation and forest degradation ('REDD') (see chapter IX of the Agreement).</p> <p>Increased production in various sectors may have led to increased greenhouse gas emissions. In addition, the Agreement's impact on the <b>LULUCF sector</b> is of particular importance for the Andean countries, given the importance of the Amazon in this respect. In Ecuador, where the LULUCF sector was responsible for 35% of the total GHG emissions, changes in agricultural land is the main pressure contributing to the emissions of the sector (97% of the sectorial emissions) (CAIT Data) (MAE, 2017b).</p>
8	Industrial pollution and circular economy	<p>In the SIA of 2009, increased <b>pollution</b> was identified as a risk in case the Agreement would lead to higher production levels of chemicals, textiles, rubber, plastics, and metals (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009).</p>
9	Urban air pollution	<p>Urban <b>air pollution</b> has been mentioned as an important environmental challenge in large cities in the SIA (Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester 2009).</p>

**Green**=potential positive impact, **red**=potential negative impact, **yellow**=mixed-undefined potential impact

## Identification of priority areas in Ecuador

The identification of priority areas is based on a joint analysis of the expected (economic and regulatory) impacts of the Agreement and the existing environmental framework and performance. The selected priority areas will be assessed in more detail in the next stage of the evaluation.

The following priority areas<sup>158</sup> have been identified for Ecuador:

- 1. The potential impact of the Agreement through the horticulture sector on land conversion (related to climate change and biodiversity) and water availability** - this has been identified as priority area based on the Agreement's positive impact on output in the horticulture sector (see Table D-7 and Table D-8). and the existing environmental pressures, related to pesticides use, water use and land conversion, which are associated with ecosystem degradation and biodiversity loss as well as global warming. The assessment of this priority area will especially focus on the banana sector as several reports express concerns regarding with respect to pesticide and water use. The assessment will also consider the potential impact of the Agreement on the promotion of sustainable and organic products, as the Agreement may have improved the (export) position for sustainable and organic products and trade in forest-related products. This, in combination with the provisions on sustainable production in the TSD chapter, warrant additional research on this matter.
- 2. The potential impact of shrimp farming** the change in the economic output of 'fishing' resulting from the Agreement indicates that the environmental pressures caused by this sector (e.g., water pollution, negative effects on mangrove ecosystems) may have been intensified by the Agreement. Since the fishing sector and, in particular, shrimp production in Ecuador has been related, by some local stakeholders, to various negative environmental impacts, as described in Table D-7 and Table D-8, this issue is considered a priority for the next stages of our analysis. The evaluation of this priority area will also consider the potential impact of the Agreement on the promotion of sustainable fishing practices (e.g., Sustainable Shrimp Partnership).
- 3. The potential impact of the Agreement on climate change through economic changes** – the Agreement affected the production in different sectors in all countries in various ways. These sectors have different emission intensities. Evaluating the impact of the Agreement on greenhouse gas emissions is considered a priority, given the global importance of climate change. In addition, the pressures related to climate change in Ecuador are mostly related to the land use conversion in the Amazon (which is closely related to priority area one). For that reason, particular attention will be spent on the LULUCF sector.
- 4. The potential impact of the Agreement on the improvement and effective implementation of environmental standards** – as per the TSD chapter, all parties commit to effectively implement various multilateral environmental agreements. As such, it can be expected that the Agreement has improved the (implementation of) environmental agreements in all countries. Yet, based on literature and stakeholder input, various concerns are raised concerning the effective implementation of (international) environmental agreements and standards.

The following environmental issues have not been selected for further analysis:

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<sup>158</sup> Note that all priority areas are equally important, and that the listed order of priority areas does not give any indication regarding importance.

- 1. Pressures resulting from mining** since no economic impact of the Agreement on the extraction of coal or minerals have been observed (and as potential regulatory issues are covered will be covered under point 4), the potential impacts of these products previously considered of concern will not be considered a priority.

The following environmental issues are not included as no specific evidence was found on a potential positive or negative impact:

- 1. (Genetic) biodiversity and property rights** (biodiversity loss is discussed under priority area one and four)
- 2. Industrial pollution and circular economy;** and
- 3. Urban air pollution.**

## References applied in impact screening

Below we list additional references applied in the impact screening but not listed in the references to the main report:

Acción Ecológica (2020). Cuando el Mar Entra la Terra. Producción Camaronera en Tierras Altas; Su expansión en la cuenca baja del río Guayas, tierras campesinas y comunas ancestrales. Available at : <https://www.accionecologica.org/cuando-el-mar-entra-a-la-tierra/>

Cantuarias Salaverry, F., Barbosa, J., D., Stucchi, P. (2015). Acuerdo Comercial Unión Europea Colombia Perú. Available at: [https://works.bepress.com/juan\\_david\\_barbosa/18/](https://works.bepress.com/juan_david_barbosa/18/)

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de la Vega (2020). Intervención de Pablo DE LA VEGA, coordinador del Subgrupo de Organizaciones de la Sociedad Civil, DAG/CCI Ecuador, y coordinador del Centro de Documentación en Derechos Humanos

Delgado, G. and Hawkins, D. (2020). Trabajo Y Justicia Social: Comercio Justo. Estudio de Impactos del Tratado de Libre Comercio entre la UE y Colombia en la Agricultura. Available at: <http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/iez/16299.pdf>

Development Solutions, CEPR, and University of Manchester. 2009. 'EU-Andean Trade Sustainability Impact Assessment. Final Report'.

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Instituto de Estudios Ecuatorianos, ATAC (Asociación Sindical de Trabajadores Agrícolas Bananeros y Compesinos) and FES (Friedrich Ebert Stiftung) (2019) Complaint from banana worker for violation of rights under the framework of the Multiparty Trade Agreement of Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and the European Union. 978-9978-94-199-7. Available at: <http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/quito/15297.pdf>

OECD (2017) Due Diligence In Colombia's Gold Supply Chain Overview. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/daf/inv/mne/colombias-gold-supply-chain.htm>

OECD (2018). Mainstreaming Biodiversity and Development in Peru. Insights and lessons learned. Available at: <http://files.pucp.edu.pe/departamento/economia/Jos%C3%A9-Carlos-Orihuela-Mainstreaming-Biodiversity.pdf>

Solidaridad (2019) Barometer on sustainable production and trade of palm oil in Colombia. Available at: <https://www.solidaridadnetwork.org/publications/colombian-palm-oil-barometer-opportunities-to-consolidate-a-leading-role-in-the-global>

Vera, J., (2020) Banana producers Manifesto (Manigfiest de Productores Bananeros del Ecuador)

## **Annex D-4: Potential impacts of the Agreement on land use change: Detailed quantitative analysis**

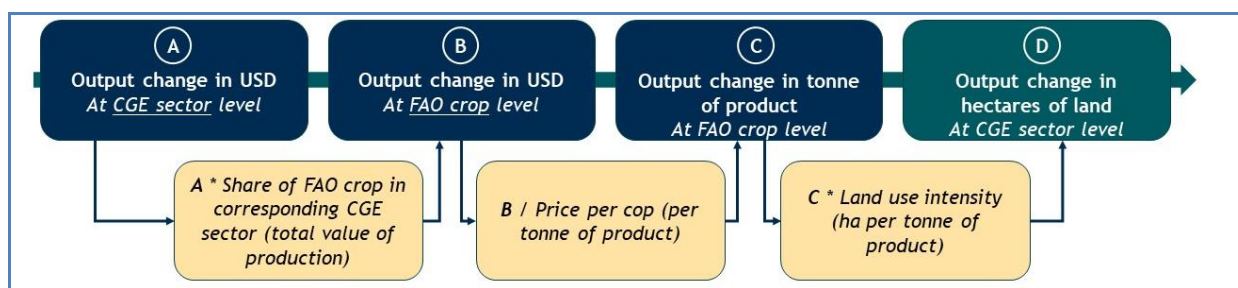
### **1.1.1 Stage 1: Estimating the land footprint of the Agreement based on output changes (CGE)**

The methodology uses the results of the CGE model as inputs to estimate the extent to which the tariff reduction-induced output change resulted in permanent deforestation. The CGE modelling results are used because they provide the most (and only) reliable estimate of tariff reduction-induced changes by calculating the difference between the actual observed situation and the modelled (hypothetical) situation without the Agreement. As such, the results of the CGE model show the tariff reduction-induced economic changes in 2020. The CGE results cannot be directly used to assess the impact on land use change and deforestation as the results are in monetary units (millions of USD). The first step therefore aims to transpose the CGE results on tariff reduction-induced output changes per sector into a spatial metric (hectares of land). The following steps are followed to get to the result of stage 1:

- A. The first step is to extract the **tariff reduction-induced output changes per sector (in million USD)** from the CGE model. The output changes at sector level are then disaggregated to output changes at crop level (B). This is done by multiplying the output changes at sector level by the relative share (%) of the total value of production of a certain crop in the total value of production from the overarching sector. This is a necessary step as both the price information and land use intensity are only available at crop level.
- B. Now that the **tariff reduction-induced output changes per crop are estimated (in million USD)**, the output change per crop in terms of tonne of product can be calculated. To do this, the output change in million USD per crop is divided by the price of that crop.
- C. This results in the estimated **tariff reduction-induced output change at crop level (in tonne of product)**. The output change at crop level is multiplied by the average land use intensity of that crop, to estimate the hectares of land corresponding with the tariff reduction-induced output change.
- D. The last step is to aggregate the data again to estimate the **tariff reduction-induced output change in hectares of land per sector**.

This section explains these steps in detail. Figure D-10 summarises the main steps.

**Figure D-10: Overview stage 1 - Estimating the hectares of land corresponding with the tariff reduction-induced output change in the agricultural sector**



#### **1.1.1.1 Output change in USD at CGE sector level**

As explained above, the tariff reduction-induced change in output per country at sector level serves as the basis for this analysis. This data results from the (economic) modelling

exercise performed by DG Trade to assess the impacts of this Agreement. Although the CGE results cover 59 sectors in total, only the (nine) sectors related to agriculture are included in this analysis, as the objective is to analyse the biodiversity impacts related to changes in the agricultural sector as the agricultural sector is responsible for most deforestation (we exclude the potential of illegal deforestation that we cannot accurately estimate in this analysis). Table D-9 shows the relevant sectors from the CGE model and columns 3-5 show the estimated tariff reduction-induced output change in 2020 per sector per country.

#### 1.1.1.2 Output change in USD at FAO crop level

To estimate the corresponding hectares of land associated with economic activity changes, the output changes in USD are first transformed to output change in volumes of product (based on price data) and then to hectares of land (based on land use intensity data). In these steps, FAO data on prices and land use intensity at crop level is used. As the CGE results on output change are not at crop level, the CGE data is distributed over crops using share (%) of the total value of production of a certain crop in the total value of production in the corresponding CGE sector. Data on the total value of production was extracted from FAO and the average shares between 2012-2018 (to correct for yearly differences).

Lastly, the CGE results on output per sector are multiplied with the calculated share (%) of the total value of production of a certain crop in the total value of production in the corresponding CGE sector, to estimate the CGE results at crop level.

#### 1.1.1.3 Output change in tonne of product/crop

In the next step, the output change in million USD at crop level is divided by the price per tonne of product to estimate the output change per crop in tonne of product. For this analysis, producer price data<sup>159</sup> from FAO has been used (the average price between 2012-2018 has been used).

#### 1.1.1.4 Output change in hectares of land

The output change in tonnes of product at crop level was then multiplied by land use intensity per crop to estimate the corresponding area of land. For land use intensity data, FAO statistics at national level have been used (average value between 2012-2018).

The final step was to aggregate the results (from crop level to CGE sector level), which resulted in estimates of tariff reduction-induced output change in hectares of land at CGE level. As shown in Table D-9, in all Andean countries, the *vegetables, fruits nuts* sector experiences the largest tariff reduction-induced output change (in USD). The second largest in output change (in USD) the *crops nec* sector, which includes cocoa and coffee production. The negative *net* impact of tariff reduction-induced output change on cropland area in Peru and Ecuador is driven by the negative *gross* impacts on the *crops nec* sector (the average land use intensity of crops under the *crops nec* sector is larger than the average land use intensity of the crops under the *vegetables, fruit, nuts* sector). It is also noted that the tariff reduction-induced output change in the sector related to grazing (*bovine cattle, sheep, and goats*) is negative. As such, it is considered very unlikely that the Agreement contributed to deforestation through grazing activities. For that reason, the analysis focusses on estimating the impacts through the tariff reduction-induced changes in cropland area.

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<sup>159</sup> Producer prices are considered the relevant price to estimate volumes of production. The CGE results show the output change in the agricultural sector, dominated by agricultural producers. Ultimately, producers receive a production price. Output change (USD) divided by the production price is considered the most accurate way to estimate production volumes.



**Table D-9: Tariff reduction-induced output change in 2020 and corresponding hectares of land**

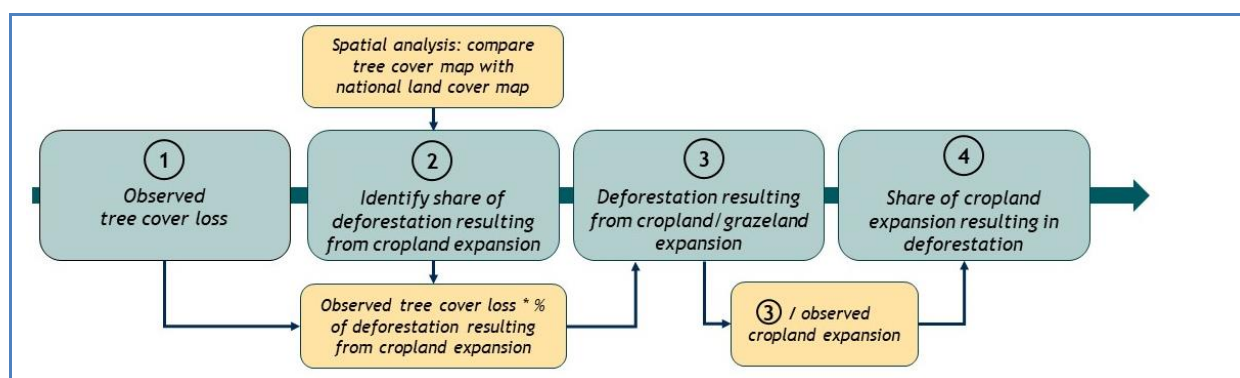
#	Sector	Agreement-induced output change in 2020 (in mln USD)			Sector	Estimated land use change (in ha)		
		COL	PER	ECU		COL	PER	ECU
1	Paddy rice	0.0	2.0	1.0	Cropland	10,766	-4,336	-2,007
2	Wheat	0.0	-3.5	-0.1				
3	Cereal grains nec	-0.5	1.7	5.0				
4	Vegetables, fruit, nuts	45.9	54.8	27.1				
5	Oil seeds	-1.4	2.5	-2.4				
6	Sugar cane, sugar beet	-2.3	2.0	-3.0				
7	Plant-based fibers	0.0	1.6	-2.7				
8	Crops nec	8.3	-26.0	-7.3	Grazing	n/a	n/a	n/a
9	Bovine cattle, sheep and goats	-5.9	-0.4	-0.4				

Source: European Commission (2020) for the CGE results and Trinomics (2021) for land use change estimates

### 1.1.2 Stage 2: Spatial analysis

The second stage is to analyse past trends related to land use conversion in the Andean countries and to perform the spatial analysis. This is schematically shown in Figure D-11.

**Figure D-11: Overview stage 2 - Estimating the share of deforestation resulting from cropland and grazing activities**



#### 1.1.2.1 Estimating deforestation due to agricultural activities between 2012-2019

Increased agricultural output can be achieved in various ways. As such, the relation between output change in the agricultural sector and deforestation is a not given. The first step to assess this, was to extract data on observed **tree cover loss** from Global Forest Watch data<sup>160</sup> (GFW, 2021).

Next, estimates on the share of tree cover loss due to commercial agriculture activities resulting in permanent deforestation from Curtis et al. (2018) were consulted. The three countries differ in terms of respective shares of commercial agriculture in total deforestation. Based on the estimates, it was decided to discontinue the analysis for Ecuador as the role of commercial agriculture in forest clearing is negligible (which suggests that increased agricultural output is increased in other ways) and because the CGE results show a net decrease in cropland area resulting from tariff reduction-induced output change. The uncertainties related to this analysis are larger than this (uncertainty in the input data and our estimates).

<sup>160</sup> The GFW data is available for the period 2012-2019, which we used for our estimates.

Table D-10 shows the observed tree cover loss per country between 2012 and 2019, the share of tree cover loss due to commercial agriculture activities resulting in permanent deforestation, and the multiplication of these numbers to show the estimated amount of deforested areas due to commercial agriculture. Note that, except for the data on observed tree cover loss, these values are not used in the next parts of the analysis.

**Table D-10: Role of commercial agriculture in deforestation between 2012 and 2019**

Country	Observed tree cover loss ('12-'19)	% of deforestation due to commercial agriculture ('12-'19)	Deforested areas due to commercial agriculture ('12-'19)
<b>Colombia</b>	2,026,000 ha <sup>161</sup>	35.2 %	713,000 ha
<b>Ecuador</b>	378,000 ha	0.5 %	2,000 ha
<b>Peru</b>	1,802,000 ha	24.8 %	447,000 ha

Source: Global Forest Watch data (2021) and Curtis et al. (2018)

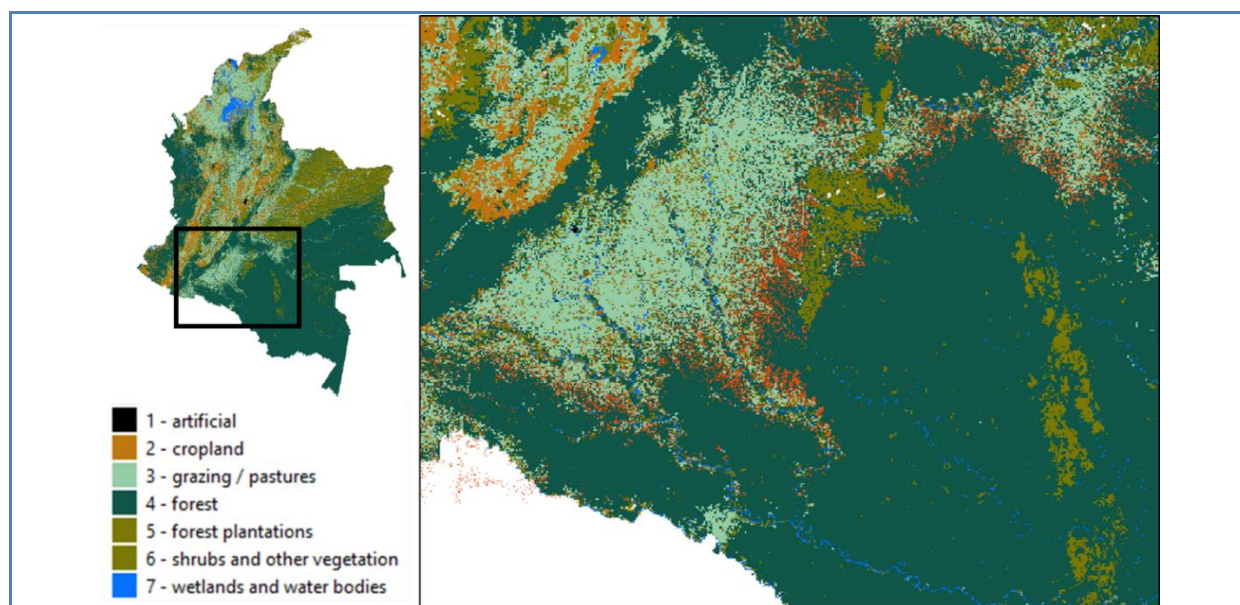
#### 1.1.2.2 Share of deforestation resulting from and livestock grazing

No reliable data exists to distinguish the share of deforestation caused by cropland and livestock grazing in Colombia and Peru over the analysis time period. Spatial land *use* data, combined with regularly updated tree cover loss data from Hansen et al. (2013), has therefore been used to identify this relation.

Most recent national land use has been used, available from different national authorities in the respective countries (IDEAM, 2020; MAGAP, 2014; MINAM, 2015). It is noted that, even though this data is the most up-to-date data available, a time lag remains.

Based on a geographic information system (QGIS Development Team, 2020), it was then estimated to what extent deforestation could be attributed to cropland and livestock grazing per country. **The tree cover loss data for the period 2000-2015 was overlaid with the national land cover maps to identify what the forests in the countries were converted to.** An example is provided in Figure D-12.

**Figure D-12: Overlaying observed deforestation (red locations) with a land cover map on the example of Colombia**



<sup>161</sup> Data after 2016 was considered unreliable for Colombia. The analysis is therefore based on the data between 2012 and 2016. Observed tree cover loss in Colombia between 2012 and 2016 is equal to 942,900 ha.

Based on this spatial analysis, it is concluded that livestock grazing is the main driver for deforestation in all three countries. As shown in Table D-11, it is estimated that 64% to 90% of deforestation resulting from commercial agriculture is driven by livestock grazing. These findings were then validated using academic literature on deforestation drivers in the Andean countries, which confirmed that:

- In **Colombia**, livestock grazing (in the form of extensive ranching systems) is the predominant deforestation driver, being relatively inexpensive (see for example Armenteras et al., 2013; Clerici et al., 2020).
- In **Peru**, livestock farming is also the main driver for deforestation, though non-agricultural activities (e.g., mining and forestry) are also important drivers. Among the main drivers for deforestation in Peru are oil palm plantations, cocoa and banana plantations (Raschio et al., 2018; Vijay et al., 2016).

**Table D-11: Estimated shares of cropland and livestock grazing in deforestation due to agricultural activities (in %), based on data between the period 2000-2015**

Country	Estimated % of cropland in deforestation due to agricultural activities	Estimated % of livestock grazing in deforestation due to agricultural activities
<b>Colombia</b>	10.2 %	89.8 %
<b>Ecuador</b>	N/a	N/a
<b>Peru</b>	35.9 %	64.1 %

Source: Trinomics and IVM based on IDEAM, 2020; MAGAP, 2014; MINAM, 2015

As noted in section 1.1.1.4, it is unlikely that the Agreement resulted in increased grazing activities in any Andean countries. For that reason - and because the Agreement does not cover illicit crops, which are important deforestation drivers in the wider Central American and Andes region (Armenteras et al., 2013; Quintero-Gallego et al., 2018; Tellman et al., 2020) - the focal point of the analysis is deforestation due to cropland activities.

#### 1.1.2.3 Cropland change resulting in deforestation

The next step was to identify the extent to which cropland expansion resulted in deforestation. This **share of cropland expansion resulting in deforestation** has only been calculated for Colombia as no net cropland increase has been observed over the last years in Peru and Ecuador, as a result of which such a share cannot be calculated for these countries. In fact, statistics from FAO (FAO, 2021) show that cropland areas in Ecuador and Peru decreased in the analysis period. This was also confirmed by looking at alternative data sources (World Bank, 2021).

The numerator in the share is equal to the observed tree cover loss multiplied by the share of deforestation caused by cropland expansion (10.2%). Due to lack of certain data after the year 2016 in Colombia, it was decided to base the estimates for the period 2012-2016. The observed tree cover loss in this period in Colombia was equal to 942,900 ha. The denominator is based on FAO statistics (FAO, 2021) on observed **change in cropland area** for Colombia over the same period (273,200 ha). The result of this calculation shows the share of cropland expansion resulting in deforestation in Colombia between 2012 and 2016, which equals 34.5% (as shown in Table D-12).

**Table D-12: Final calculation to estimate the share of cropland change resulting in deforestation in Colombia (2012-2016)**

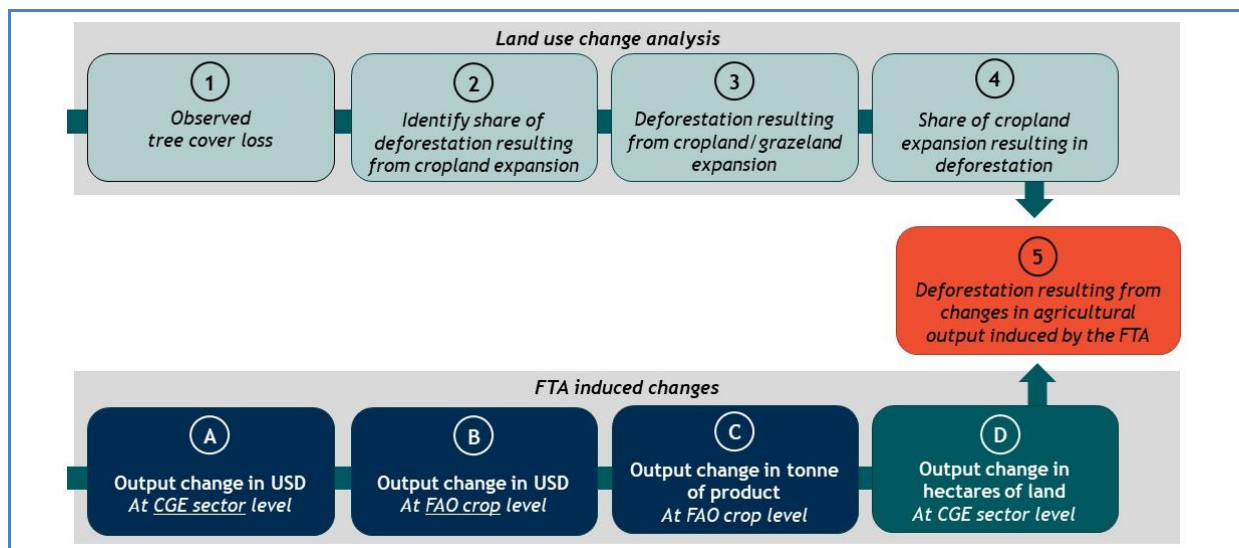
Country	Observed tree cover loss	% deforestation caused by cropland expansion	Observed change in cropland area	% cropland expansion resulting in deforestation
<i>Retrieved from</i>	<i>Section 1.1.2</i>	<i>Section 1.1.2.2</i>	<i>Section 1.1.2.3</i>	<i>N/A</i>
<b>Colombia</b>	942,900 ha	10.2%	273,200 ha	34.5%

Source: Calculations Trinomics and IVM

### 1.1.3 Stage 3: Deforestation resulting from tariff reduction-induced changes in agricultural output and related biodiversity impacts

In stage 3, the outcomes of the previous stages are combined to estimate the deforestation resulting from changes in the agricultural sector induced by the Agreement, as shown in Figure D-13.

**Figure D-13: Overall approach**



#### 1.1.3.1 Deforestation resulting from tariff reduction-induced changes in agricultural output

The final step is to multiply the cropland area corresponding with the tariff reduction-induced output change in the agricultural sector by the share of cropland resulting in deforestation. It is noted that the analysis is focussed on cropland area in all Andean countries. This is justified by the fact that the CGE results show negative tariff reduction-induced output changes in the grazing sector, making it highly unlikely that the Agreement has contributed to deforestation through grazing activities.

**For Colombia, it is estimated that the tariff reduction-induced output change in the agricultural sector resulted in 3,500 to 4,000 hectares of land being permanently deforested, which corresponds to roughly 0.5% of observed deforestation driven by commercial agriculture:**

- Overall, it is estimated that the Agreement resulted in a *net* increase in cropland area in Colombia, compared with the hypothetical situation without an Agreement (based on the estimated cropland area corresponding with the CGE results, as calculated in section 1.1.1.4). This increase is driven by the *vegetables fruits and nuts* sector, in which the tariff reduction-induced output change equals + 46 million USD and the *crops nec* sector (+ 8 million USD). The corresponding estimated amount of cropland area equals roughly 11,000 ha of crop land. Using the share from section 1.1.2.3 on the percentage of cropland expansion resulting in deforestation, it is estimated that the tariff reduction-induced output change in the agricultural sector is related to 3,500 to 4,000 ha of permanent deforested area.
- It is difficult to single out individual crops responsible for most deforestation in Colombia. Evidence suggests, that deforestation patterns from similar countries in the vicinity (Brazil, Peru), where soybean and oil palm are major deforestation drivers, have not yet fully emerged in Colombia, also due to the lack of road infrastructure, high poverty levels in the forested areas and overall earlier stage of colonization processes (Armenteras et al. 2013). Nevertheless, cocoa and coffee could have resulted

in deforestation in Colombia as well, and in the Caribbean part of the country also banana (Blanco et al. 2012). For all these reasons, we treated all cropland as potential deforestation driver, and did not isolate individual crop types like in Peru.

**For Ecuador, there is no evidence to conclude that the tariff reduction-induced output change in the agricultural sector resulted in permanent deforestation:**

- Overall, it is estimated that the Agreement resulted in a *net* decrease in cropland areas in Ecuador (considering *all* crops produced). Despite the net decrease in cropland area, cropland area for specific sectors increased (in particular the *vegetables fruits and nuts* sector where output increased by + 27 million USD, corresponding with roughly 6,000 ha). This *could* have resulted in deforestation. However, as only 0.5% of deforestation can be attributed to commercial agriculture in Ecuador over the past years, it is unlikely that the Agreement induced output change in the agricultural sector resulted in permanent deforestation in Ecuador.

**For Peru, there is no evidence to conclude that the tariff reduction-induced output change in the agricultural sector resulted in permanent deforestation:**

- Overall, it is estimated that the Agreement resulted in a *net* decrease in cropland areas in Peru (considering all crops produced). Despite the net decrease in cropland area, cropland area for specific sectors increased, which could have resulted in deforestation. For instance, the estimated tariff reduction-induced output change in 2020 in the *vegetables fruits and nuts* sector equals + 55 million USD, corresponding with roughly 14,000 ha. The *vegetables fruits and nuts* sector includes crops that are usually associated with deforestation in Peru, such as banana (e.g. Horgan, 2005; Zambrano et al., 2021), but also crops which are not associated with deforestation (e.g. potatoes, which account for 25% of total value of production in the sector). Evidence suggests that most bananas for export are being produced in the region of Piura (Guirkingner, 2008; Mills-Novoa, 2019). Piura is a semi-dry region, where it is difficult to differentiate between deforestation for banana production and other activities such as firewood collection (Ektvedt, 2011). No evidence was found on banana related deforestation in the Piura region (GFW, 2021), based on which it is unlikely that the Agreement resulted in deforestation through economic changes in this sector, over this period.
- Other crops that are related to deforestation in Peru are cocoa (e.g. Raschio et al., 2018) and coffee (e.g. Barham and Weber, 2012). Yet, the CGE results show that the tariff reduction-induced change in output in the *crops nec* sector (in which cocoa and coffee jointly account for 88% of the total value of production) is negative, which implies that the tariff reduction-induced output change should not have led to deforestation in this sector.
- The most notable crop related to deforestation in Peru is oil palm (Gutiérrez-Vélez et al., 2011). The CGE results show that output in the corresponding sector (oil seeds, in which oil palm represents almost 50% of the total value of production) increased by 0.4% compared to a situation without the Agreement, corresponding with 2.5 million USD. This would correspond with about 611 ha in oil palm production. This amount is considered too low to attribute to deforestation within reasonable boundaries of uncertainty; it could have also been produced in existing oil-palm areas, or on former deforested areas<sup>162</sup>.
- The tariff reduction-induced output change in the grazing sector is negative. As such, it is unlikely that the Agreement contributed to deforestation through grazing activities.

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<sup>162</sup> Oil palm is used to restore formerly deforested areas in Peru (Chazdon et al., 2016)



Table D-13 summarises the findings.

**Table D-13. Estimated shares of cropland expansion resulting in deforestation for the three countries**

Country	Agreement driven cropland change (ha)	Cropland change resulting in deforestation (%)	Agreement induced deforestation (ha)	Total (net) cropland change (ha)	% of total net cropland change resulting from Agreement
<b>COL</b>	10,766	34.5%*	3,500-4,000 ha	+273,200	1.4%
<b>ECU</b>	-4,336	N/A	N/A	-176,900	N/A
<b>PER</b>	-2,007	N/A	N/A	-726,300	N/A

\* This estimate is based on 2012-2016 data. Due to the post conflict period after 2016 the data fluctuates considerably and is too uncertain to use

#### 1.1.3.2 Estimating the biodiversity impact using spatial allocation in Colombia

##### 1.1.3.2.1 Spatial allocation – modelling

To estimate the related biodiversity impact of deforestation related to tariff reduction-induced output changes in the agricultural sector, the estimated deforestation in Colombia was allocated across a 1 km by 1 km grid with a spatially explicit land use change model. Land use maps for each Colombia served as the initial year (pre-Agreement) and the result was the land use in the year 2020 as a result of the Agreement. The CLUE (Conversion of Land Use and its Effects; Verburg et al., 2008, 1999; Verburg and Overmars, 2009a) modelling framework was used to spatially allocate changes to cropland areas. The CLUE model is the most widely used spatial LULCC models and has been applied on different scales in more than 150 locations across the globe, among others also in the same countries as in the Agreement (Colombia, Ecuador, Peru), and other countries in the region (Bolivia, Costa Rica, Brazil). Additionally, it has been applied on a continental scale for the wider Amazon region (the whole amazon biome).

The Dyna-CLUE model is sub-divided into two parts: a non-spatial demand module and a spatially explicit allocation procedure. The non-spatial part calculates the area of land use change at the aggregate level (the whole territory of Colombia) is in this study derived from the CGE model and the assumptions explained in the previous sections. The second part of the CLUE model translates the Agreement land use demands into land use changes at different locations within Colombia using a raster-based system (spatially explicit data developed using geographic information systems).

To allocate the cropland area resulting from the previous sections, we used empirically quantified relationships between land use and location factors, in combination with the dynamic modelling of competition between land use types. Location factors consist of socio-economic (distance to cities, distance to roads, market accessibility), soil (e.g., soil clay and sand, soil depth, soil organic content, soil pH) and climate and terrain characteristics (precipitation and temperature, elevation, and slope). In this way, CLUE allocates land use change (e.g., cropland expansion) in areas most suitable for cropland activities (based on combinations of accessibility, soil and climate).

Due to the marginal impacts of the Agreement on land use activities so far, the impacts on biodiversity (compared to a no-Agreement situation) could be marginal as well and difficult to observe on a national scale (as shown in Figure D-14). However, having spatially explicit results, the areas where the model allocated deforestation can be observed in detail. The model was also validated by comparing the results to actual observed deforestation in the same period (Hansen et al., 2013). As shown in Figure D-16, much more deforestation has been observed in the same period. Yet, one can observe that the locations in which the model predicted deforestation are in line with the location where deforestation has been observed. It is noted that the model's spatial resolution (1 km) and the observed data (30 km) cannot be directly compared. The observed data presents a much finer spatial distribution, to the extent that actual patterns of how deforestation looked like on the field.

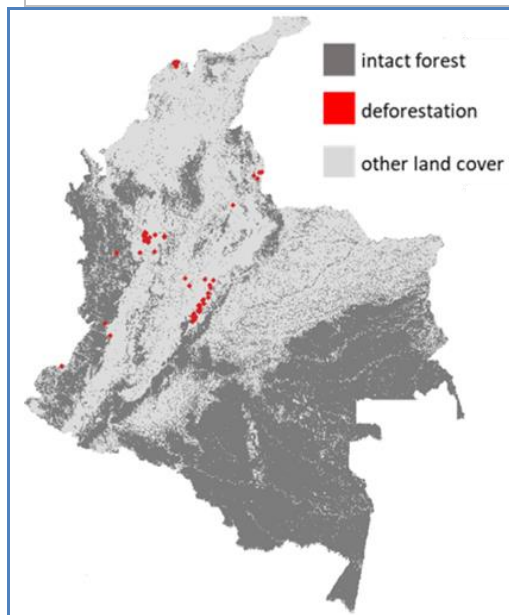


The model identified landscapes, where deforestation could have occurred, and should therefore be used to identify the context of where deforestation due to an Agreement could have occurred.

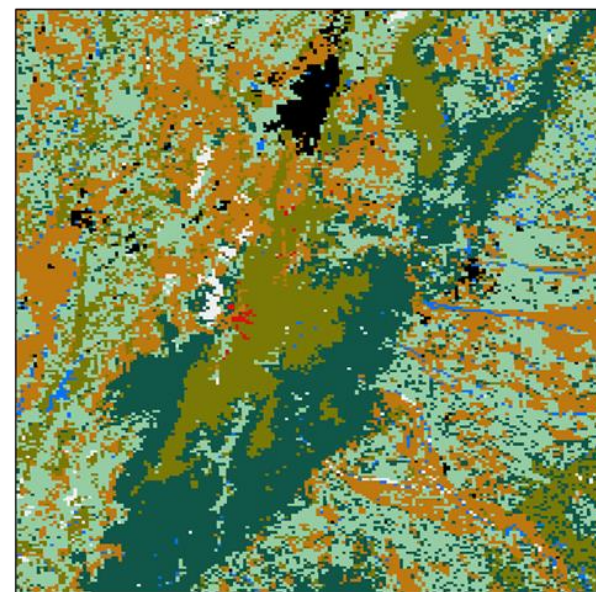
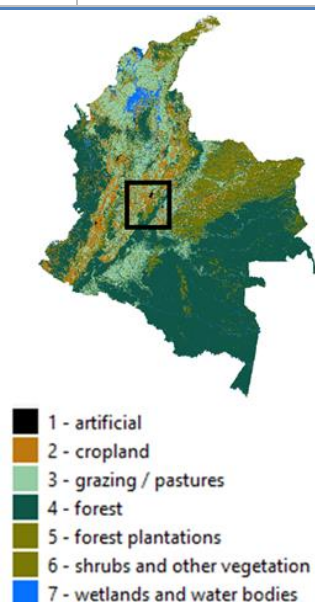
1.1.3.2.2 Biodiversity impact of land use change resulting from tariff reduction-induced output change

It is concluded that it is unlikely that the Agreement resulted in deforestation in the most (biodiverse) intact areas in Colombia. This conclusion is based on two observations (1) the overall estimated tariff reduction-induced land use change is marginal in terms of scale, and (2) the spatial modelling exercise shows that most of the projected deforestation was close to existing cropland, cities, and road infrastructure, and very likely in forests that had already been subject to human influence in the past decades. Additionally, none of it seems to have resulted in large scale deforestation, and local disappearance of forests. Nevertheless, locally, the Agreement could have resulted in forest fragmentation and an overall increase of human influence in areas with high biodiversity, for example in the Central Andean and Caribbean region.

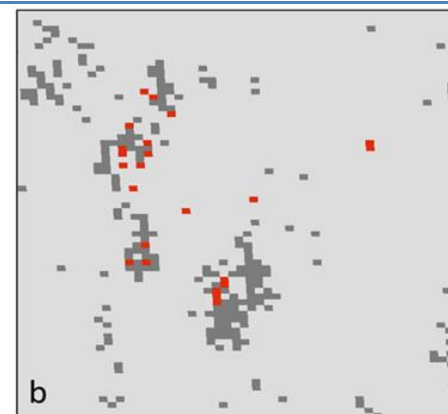
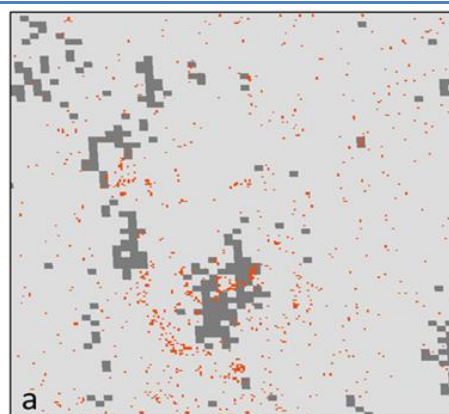
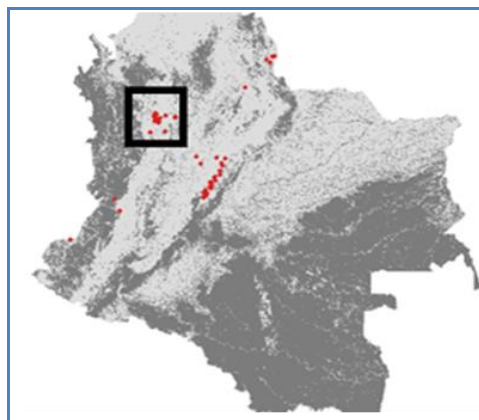
**Figure D-14: Allocated tariff reduction-induced deforestation in COL**



**Figure D-15: Allocated deforestation (red color) in central COL**



**Figure D-16: Comparing all observed (a) deforestation in the period 2012-2020, with the Agreement related allocated deforestation (b). Deforested areas are in red, intact forests in dark grey.**



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## **ANNEX E: ANALYSIS OF HUMAN RIGHTS IMPACTS**

### ***Annex E-1: Human Rights Profiles of the Andean countries***

In this annex, human rights profiles are presented for Colombia, Peru and Ecuador. The profiles contain (1) human rights legal obligations of the parties to the Agreement, (2) screening of general human rights-related indices and (3) baseline conditions for the enjoyment of the relevant human rights in the period from five years before the provisional application of the Agreement until 2019. Particular attention is given to the pre-existing conditions of stress and vulnerabilities with respect to human rights, highlighting the position of specific vulnerable groups.

The human rights profiles serve several purposes:

- Set the scene regarding the enjoyment of the relevant human rights in the partner countries;
- Identify social and political developments that may have impacted the human rights situation in the partner countries;
- Allow for a targeted assessment of the human rights impacts of the Agreement.

The profiles are based on the analysis of the international human rights obligations, national legislation and policy framework as well as implementation issues with respect to relevant human rights. Potential links with the Agreement are not included here. The analysis is based on the literature review, relevant indicators and preliminary stakeholder consultations.

### **1. Colombia**

#### ***1.1. Human rights framework***

The Constitution of Colombia recognises a comprehensive list of human rights as interpreted in the international human rights treaties ratified by the state.<sup>163</sup> Colombia ratified all core UN human rights conventions and five out of nine optional protocols. It did not ratify the Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture (CAT), the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a communication procedure and the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) (Table E-1). As part of its reporting obligations, Colombia regularly reports to the UN monitoring treaty bodies. The country has one report that has been overdue since 2014 – report to the Committee on Civil and Political Rights.<sup>164</sup> In the period 2008 to 2019, Colombia ratified the International Convention for the Protection of all Persons from Enforced Disappearance (in 2012) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (in 2011).

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<sup>163</sup> Articles 11-41 of the 1991 Constitution of Colombia.

<sup>164</sup> UN Treaty Body Database: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/\\_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/LateReporting.aspx](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/LateReporting.aspx)

**Table E-1: Ratification status of core international human rights treaties by Colombia**

Human Rights Treaty	Ratified or not
<b>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the ICCPR	✓
- Second Optional Protocol to the ICCPR	✓
<b>International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the ICESCR	✗
<b>Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CAT	✗
<b>International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CPED)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CEDAW	✓
<b>International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in the armed conflict	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on a communication procedure	✗
<b>International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMW)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRPD	✗

Source: OHCHR.

Colombia has ratified all eight fundamental ILO Conventions that cover freedom of association, forced labour, discrimination and child labour. It has not ratified only one out of four ILO governance conventions that refers to employment policy. It has ratified the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (No.169) (Table E-2). In the period 2008 to 2019, Colombia ratified the ILO Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189).

**Table E-2: Ratification status of key ILO Conventions by Colombia**

Convention	Ratified or not
C029 – Forced Labour Convention	✓
C087 – Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention	✓
C098 – Right to Organise and Collective bargaining Convention	✓
C100 – Equal Enumeration Convention	✓
C105 – Abolition of Forced Labour Convention	✓
C111 – Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention	✓
C138 – Minimum Age Convention	✓
C182 – Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention	✓
C081 – Labour Inspection Convention	✓
C122 – Employment Policy Convention	✗
C129 – Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention	✓
C144 – Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention	✓
C155 – Occupational Safety and Health Convention	✗
C169 – Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention	✓

Source: ILO.

Colombia is also a party to the main human rights instruments of the Inter-American System (e.g. American Convention on Human Rights, the Protocol of San Salvador, Belém do Pará Convention) and recognises the competence of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights (see full list of ratifications of regional human rights treaties in Table E-3 in Annex E-2).

### 1.2. Overall screening of human rights-related indices

To illustrate general changes in human rights and human rights related issues over the evaluation period, the following relevant indices are reported: the Human Development Index and the Gender Equality Index of the UNDP, the Political Rights Index and the Civil

Liberties Index of the Freedom House, the Corruption Perception Index of the Transparency International, the Social Progress Index (available from 2011), and the Voice and Accountability, Political Stability, Government Effectiveness, Rule of Law Indices of the World Governance Indicators.<sup>165</sup> Table E-3 presents an overview of all the scores for Colombia over the period from 2008 to 2019, depending on the availability of the data. The indices use different methodologies in covering various human rights-related issues. Some of the indices overlap or are intertwined, but that allows to look at the trends in human rights performance from various angles.

*The Human Development Index (HDI)* covers three dimensions of human development – a long and healthy life, education and a decent standard of living.<sup>166</sup> Over the period 2008 to 2019, Colombia has experienced a small but steady increase in this index. *The Gender Inequality Index (GII)* shows that there has been a modest improvement in the position of women in Colombia with respect to their reproductive health, political participation and labour inclusion.<sup>167</sup> *The Political Rights Index* illustrates a rather stable situation with respect to political rights in the country (electoral freedoms, political participation and functioning of the government), while *the Civil Liberties Index* (freedom of expression and belief, associational and organisational rights, rule of law, personal autonomy and individual rights)<sup>168</sup> shows a decline in civil freedoms from 2009 till 2017 caused by the rise in internal displacement and extrajudicial executions as well as the increase in violence against protesters and protest organisers.<sup>169</sup> In 2017 the score improved due to the decrease in violence that was a result of the peace process between the government and the left-wing guerrillas.<sup>170</sup> *The Corruption Perception Index* has changed its underlying methodology, so comparable data is available only since 2012. This data shows that corruption has remained constant between 2012 and 2019. *The Social Progress Index*, which covers such dimensions as basic human needs (water, basic medical care, nutrition, etc.), foundations of wellbeing (education, health, environmental quality, etc.) and opportunity (personal rights and freedoms, inclusiveness, etc.),<sup>171</sup> recorded a gradual improvement in several human rights captured within the score until 2018. For 2019, the score deteriorated marginally due to the decreased scores on personal safety related to increased levels of violence as well as the decreased scores on the access to quality health care, freedom of expression, access to justice and property rights for women.<sup>172</sup> *The Voice and Accountability Indicator* reflects upon a wide range of personal freedoms – freedom of press, democracy, freedom of association and assembly, electoral freedoms, etc.) and illustrates an improvement with respect to these rights overall in the period from 2008 until 2019. *The Political Stability Indicator* covers the degree of violence in the country and shows that in Colombia it has been volatile over the evaluation period. *The Government Effectiveness Indicator* reflects on the functioning of the government and the quality of public services. It fluctuated from 2008 to 2019 in Colombia and shows that scores of 2008 and 2019 have almost remained constant. Finally, *the Rule of Law indicator* illustrates the Colombian situation with respect to crime, property rights and trafficking of people, among others. Law and order scores have been volatile over the period between 2008 and 2019. Since 2015 they show a steady decrease in the rule of law in Colombia.<sup>173</sup>

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<sup>165</sup> Kaufmann, Daniel and Kraay, Aart and Mastruzzi, Massimo, *The Worldwide Governance Indicators: Methodology and Analytical Issues* (September 2010). World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 5430, available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1682130>

<sup>166</sup> See full methodological note on the Human Development Index at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi>

<sup>167</sup> See full methodological note on the Gender Inequality Index at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>

<sup>168</sup> See full methodological note on the Political Rights Index and the Civil Liberties Index at: <https://freedomhouse.org/reports/freedom-world/freedom-world-research-methodology>

<sup>169</sup> Based on the Freedom House Colombia country reports from 2008 until 2017: [www.freedomhouse.org](http://www.freedomhouse.org)

<sup>170</sup> See Freedom House Colombia Reports from 2017 to 2020: [www.freedomhouse.org](http://www.freedomhouse.org)

<sup>171</sup> See full methodological note at: [www.socialprogress.org/about-us](http://www.socialprogress.org/about-us)

<sup>172</sup> Based on the scorecards for Colombia from 2012 until 2019: [www.socialprogress.org](http://www.socialprogress.org)

<sup>173</sup> See full methodology at: <https://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/Home/Documents>

**Table E-3: Overview of the key human rights-related indices for Colombia (2008 – 2019)**

Key indicators	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Human Development Index	0.72	0.72	0.73	0.74	0.74	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.76	0.76	0.76	
Gender Inequality index			0.47	0.47	0.46	0.46	0.44	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43
Political Rights Index	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Civil Liberties Index	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3
Corruption Perception Index					36	36	37	37	37	37	36	37
Social Progress Index				70.9	72.4	72.6	73.3	73.7	74.7	75.0	75.4	74.5
Voice & Accountability Index	42.8	42.7	42.7	47.0	46.0	45.5	47.8	47.8	49.8	49.3	52.7	55.2
Political Stability Index	5.8	5.2	8.5	12.3	8.1	10.4	11.0	12.9	16.2	17.6	19.5	15.7
Government Effectiveness	54.4	48	51.7	56.4	57.4	57.8	49.5	52.4	53.4	51.4	50.0	55.8
Rule of Law	41.8	43.1	46.0	47.4	45.1	41.8	44.7	46.6	43.8	40.4	38.5	38.5

Source: own compilation based on UNDP Human Development Reports, Freedom House Reports, Social Progress scorecards and World Governance Indicators for Colombia over the period 2008-2019.

Following this high-level screening of relevant human rights related indices, in the next section, a concise baseline analysis of the relevant human rights is presented, covering *inter alia* the pre-existing conditions of stress and vulnerabilities with respect to human rights in Colombia before the provisional application of the Agreement as well as identifying relevant social and political developments that could have affected the human rights situation in the country.

### 1.3. Baseline analysis of relevant human rights/issues<sup>174</sup>

Colombia has been exposed to armed conflict for many years which heavily affected its human rights situation. The Colombian government signed a peace accord with the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) in 2016. However, conflict-related violence and abuses remained. According to the International Committee of the Red Cross, there are five armed conflicts in Colombia.<sup>175</sup> The UN Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women characterises the presence of the state as weak in some areas (particularly in former conflict zones), where civil population is reported to have been challenged by the threats, violence and displacement from the armed groups.<sup>176</sup> Human Rights Watch notes that guerrillas and the FARC dissident groups continue to commit murder, sexual violence, child recruitment kidnapping, and forced labour.<sup>177</sup> The 2020 report of the United Nation High Commissioner for Human Rights on the situation of human rights in Colombia mentions that the National Liberation Army (ELN), persistently breaches international humanitarian law, for example, with the 17 January 2019 car bomb attack in Bogotá.<sup>178</sup> The implementation of the Integrated System for Truth, Justice, Reparation and Non-recurrence established by the peace accord continues to progress positively.<sup>179</sup> Over 900 convictions of mid and low-level soldiers happened in relation to the past killings of civilians, senior army officers, however, have not been convicted yet.<sup>180</sup> The Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, as the main organ of the OAS, recognises the efforts of the Colombian government in developing important public policies on human rights to face the complex reality of the victims of the conflict, and the significant investment in human and financial resources in these areas. However, in its 2019 report,

<sup>174</sup> Human rights in the baseline analysis are drawn from the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, supplemented where relevant with references to the core UN human rights treaties and conventions, regional human rights treaties, and ILO Conventions.

<sup>175</sup> International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) (2019). Colombia: Five armed conflicts – What’s happening? <https://www.icrc.org/en/document/colombia-five-armed-conflicts-whats-happening>

<sup>176</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2019). Concluding observations on the ninth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc. CEDAW/C/COL/CO/9.

<sup>177</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). World Report 2020 - Colombia: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/colombia>

<sup>178</sup> Human Rights Council (2020). Situation of human rights in Colombia, Report of the United High Commissioner for Human Rights, UN doc. A/HRC/43/3/Add.3

<sup>179</sup> Ibid.

<sup>180</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). Freedom in the World 2020, Colombia: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/colombia/freedom-world/2020>

the Commission expressed its concern about the persistence of displacements and murders of human rights defenders and social and territorial leaders.<sup>181</sup>

### 1.3.1. Cross-cutting issues

#### **Non-discrimination**

While the Colombian constitution prohibits discrimination in general (Article 13) and discrimination of women (Article 43), as well as includes other provisions that seek to protect indigenous groups and Afro-Colombian communities, Colombia continues to be one of the most unequal countries in the region and in the world.<sup>182</sup> Enforcement of these laws remains weak. Despite some improvements, discrimination based on gender continues to be present as there is still a lack of political empowerment and economic opportunities for women are few.<sup>183</sup> Indigenous groups and Afro-Colombians face discrimination at work and in access to public services.<sup>184</sup> The Freedom House reports that 80% of Afro-Colombians live below the poverty line.<sup>185</sup> Venezuelan migrants who came to Colombia because of the Venezuelan crisis have faced discrimination and xenophobic sentiments.<sup>186</sup> LGBTI people also face discrimination in Colombia and though some of the positive developments have occurred with respect to their rights, discrimination remains<sup>187</sup> (see also section 1.3.3 on vulnerable groups below).

#### **Corruption**

From 2012 to 2019 the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) indicated that corruption remained largely constant in Colombia. The Freedom House reports from 2008 to 2019 state that corruption in Colombia is a major issue and is present at all levels of public administration.<sup>188</sup> The UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights points out that while some measures were introduced to combat corruption in Colombia, their effectiveness has been limited and there has been only a small number of convictions on corruption charges.<sup>189</sup> The UN Human Rights Council has repeatedly noted that corruption has a negative impact on the enjoyment of human rights and affects the duty of Colombia to allocate the largest possible amount of resources to guarantee these rights.<sup>190</sup>

#### **Environment, development, business and human rights**

The Colombian Constitution recognises “the right to a healthy environment” in Article 79. Under the terms of the Law No. 1076 (2015) and Law No. 3573 (2011), the state, through the National Authority for Environmental Licenses (ANLA), regulates the licensing of environmental projects, works or activities to comply with environmental regulations set

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<sup>181</sup> Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (2019). Annual Report 2019, Chapter V Follow-up to Recommendations Made by the IACHR in the Report Truth, Justice and Reparation: Fifth Report on the Human Rights Situation in Colombia: <https://www.oas.org/en/iachr/docs/annual/2019/docs/IA2019cap5CO-en.pdf>

<sup>182</sup> See BTI Colombia reports for 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014, 2016, 2018 and 2020.

<sup>183</sup> BTI (2020). World Economic Forum (2020), Global Gender Gap Report: [http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF\\_GGGR\\_2020.pdf](http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf)

<sup>184</sup> UN CERD (2020).

<sup>185</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>186</sup> BTI (2020), UN CERD (2020), UN CEDAW (2019), UN CMW (2019).

<sup>187</sup> Corporación Caribe Afirmativo, Akahatá – equipo de trabajo en sexualidades y géneros, Heartland Alliance for Human Needs and Human Rights (2017). Situation of LGBTI Human Rights in Colombia, Report submitted to the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 62<sup>nd</sup> Session: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CESCR/Shared%20Documents/COL/INT\\_CESCR\\_CSS\\_COL\\_28549\\_E.pdf](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CESCR/Shared%20Documents/COL/INT_CESCR_CSS_COL_28549_E.pdf)

<sup>188</sup> Based on the annual Freedom House reports *Freedom in the World, Colombia* from 2008 till 2019.

<sup>189</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>190</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2019). Report of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, Situation of human rights in Colombia, UN Doc. A/HRC/40/3/Add.3; UN Human Rights Council (2018). Annual Report of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights on the situation of human rights in Colombia, UN Doc. A/HRC/37/3/Add.3.

out in these laws. The ANLA is also responsible for the follow-up and environmental monitoring of projects as laid down in the Law No. 1076, to verify compliance with the environmental legislation. In 2018, Colombia joined the Minamata Convention on Mercury, which complements its Mercury Law, which bans the use of heavy metal in gold mining, and in other industrial sectors from 2023.<sup>191</sup> In 2019 Colombia signed but did not yet ratify the Escazú Agreement<sup>192</sup> which deepens the link between environmental protection and human rights in Latin America and provides for the right to informed participation in the environmental approval process for investment projects and access to justice for people affected, among other guarantees.

In the 2017 Concluding observations on Colombia, UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights notes that mining, hydroelectric dams, deforestation and agricultural activities with the use of toxic substances have had a negative impact on the environment and the communities involved.<sup>193</sup> The UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination notes that licences for investment, tourism, industrial fishing and mining projects are granted without prior consultations with the indigenous peoples and communities of Afro-Colombian descent.<sup>194</sup> The 2020 Colombia Report of the Bertelsmann Foundation states that public consultations with communities that may be affected by projects that exploit natural resources are being conducted, but their outcomes are not duly taken into account.<sup>195</sup>

### 1.3.2. Human rights

#### **Administration of justice, including impunity, and the rule of law**

Corruption and extortion have been affecting the judicial system for years, the 2017 corruption allegations involving Supreme Court justices have seriously impacted its credibility. In 2018, a Latinobarómetro opinion survey found that only 23% of respondents trusted the judicial sectors, whereas 39% did not.<sup>196</sup> The Freedom House reports that due process protection remains weak and trial processes move slowly.<sup>197</sup> In 2019, the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women expressed a particular concern about the limited institutional capacity of the judiciary in rural areas and in the way they address cases related to femicide, sexual violence and violence against human rights defenders.<sup>198</sup>

#### **Freedom of assembly and freedom of association, including the right to form and join trade unions**

Freedom of assembly and freedom of association are guaranteed by the Constitution (Arts. 37 and 38, respectively). However, in practice, this right is restricted by violence. Since 2016, the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) Global Rights Index consistently ranks Colombia as one of the ten worst countries for workers in the world.<sup>199</sup> Various UN

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<sup>191</sup> European Parliamentary Research Service (2018). Trade agreement between the European Union and Colombia and Peru – European Implementation Assessment.

<sup>192</sup> See website of the UN depositary: [https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg\\_no=XXVII-18&chapter=27&clang=\\_en](https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XXVII-18&chapter=27&clang=_en)

<sup>193</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc, E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>194</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2020). Concluding observations on the combined seventeenth to nineteenth periodic reports of Colombia, UN doc. CERD/C/COL/17-19.

<sup>195</sup> BTI Colombia reports for 2016, 2018 and 2020: <https://bti-project.org/en/meta/downloads.html?content=country&country=COL>

<sup>196</sup> BTI (2020). Colombia Country Report 2020, at: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-COL-2020.html>

<sup>197</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>198</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2019). Concluding observations on the ninth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc. CEDAW/C/COL/CO/9.

<sup>199</sup> ITUC Global Index Reports 2014-2020.



monitoring bodies note that violence against human rights defenders has persisted over the years.<sup>200</sup> Civil society organisations are reported to face the risk of physical danger from illegal armed groups, especially in rural areas.<sup>201</sup> The Freedom House states that the Duque administration has reiterated its support for civil society organisations and signed an agreement in August 2018 for developing more effective protection policies, which however did not lead to major improvements.<sup>202</sup> The Bertelsmann Foundation reports that only five percent of investigations on the cases of homicides of human rights advocates by the General Attorney's office have led to court cases.<sup>203</sup>

Workers may form and join trade unions, bargain collectively, and anti-union discrimination is prohibited, however joining a trade union is limited by legal requirements.<sup>204</sup> This is reflected in the low rates of union membership over the evaluation period, and in the large numbers of strikes that were declared illegal.<sup>205</sup> Table E-4 represents an overview of the number of active trade unions in Colombia in the period from 2008 till 2017 (see statistics related to the number of members per trade union in the social part of the analysis). The number of trade unions has increased but the ILO and stakeholders note that illegal worker representation practices have become common.<sup>206</sup>

**Table E-4: Overview of trade unions in Colombia from 2008 till 2017**

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2015	2016	2017
Number of active trade unions	2933	2885	2936	3459	3868	4384	5229	5449	5523

Source: Sistema de Información Sindical y Laboral (Sislab)

While violence against trade union activists has decreased due to the implementation of President Uribe's "Democratic security" program,<sup>207</sup> according to data of the Escuela Nacional Sindical, 19 unionists were murdered in 2020.<sup>208</sup> Prosecutions of those responsible for the violence and the killings remain low.<sup>209</sup> According to the Colombian Research Institute, the Escuela Nacional Sindical (ENS), such economic sectors as education,

<sup>200</sup> See United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6 and United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (2015). Concluding observations on the fourth and fifth periodic reports of Colombia, UN doc. CRC/C/COL/CO/4-5.

<sup>201</sup> See BTI Colombia reports for 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014, 2016, 2018 and 2020: and Oidhaco & Catapa (2020). Trade Agreement between the EU, Colombia, Peru and Ecuador, at: <http://www.oidhaco.org/uploaded/content/article/1326853725.pdf>

<sup>202</sup> Freedom House (2020). Freedom in the World 2020, Colombia: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/colombia/freedom-world/2020>

<sup>203</sup> BTI (2020); United Nations Human Rights Council (2019). Report of the Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights defenders, UN Doc. A/HRC/43/51/Add.1.

<sup>204</sup> The Constitution of Colombia, Articles 55 and 56.

<sup>205</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc, E/C.12/COL/CO.6

<sup>206</sup> International Trade Union Confederation (2019). Colombia: Peace at Risk, at: <https://www.ituc-csi.org/colombia-peace-at-risk>; Fernando Forero, L. (2016). Repercussions in Colombia of the Free Trade Agreement with the European Union after Three Years of Implementation, publication of the Transnational Institute (TNI) and the International Office on Human Rights – Action Colombia (OIDHACO), at: [https://www.tni.org/files/publication-downloads/ue-colombia\\_ftaen.pdf](https://www.tni.org/files/publication-downloads/ue-colombia_ftaen.pdf); Oidhaco & Catapa (2020). Trade Agreement between the EU, Colombia, Peru and Ecuador, at: <http://www.oidhaco.org/uploaded/content/article/1326853725.pdf>; ILO (2019). OIT fortalece los actores del mundo del trabajo en prevención y resolución de conflictos con diálogo social: [http://www.oit.org/lima/sala-de-prensa/WCMS\\_732703/lang-es/index.htm](http://www.oit.org/lima/sala-de-prensa/WCMS_732703/lang-es/index.htm)

<sup>207</sup> BTI (2016). Colombia Country Report: [https://www.bti-project.org/content/en/downloads/reports/country\\_report\\_2016\\_COL.pdf](https://www.bti-project.org/content/en/downloads/reports/country_report_2016_COL.pdf)

<sup>208</sup> Escuela Nacional Sindical (2021). Powerpoint presentation on file.

<sup>209</sup> Naciones Unidas (2020). Informe del Relator Especial sobre la situación de los defensores de derechos humanos acerca de su visita a Colombia, Comentarios formulados por el Estado, NU Doc. A/HRC/43/51/Add.4; United Nations Human Rights Council (2019). Report of the Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights defenders, UN Doc. A/HRC/43/51/Add.1.

agriculture and fishing, and mining are the three top sectors where violence against trade union activists is most common.<sup>210</sup>

**Table E-5: Violence against trade union representatives**

Type of violence	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019*
Threat	321	450	337	244	121	202	137	175	51
Harassment	41	50	63	78	30	30	26	8	7
Murder	24	25	37	21	21	20	22	34	9
Attack	10	9	18	24	17	18	17	10	1
Forced displacement	17	91	3	1	0	1	1	2	0
Arbitrary detention	12	19	24	17	8	5	9	0	0
Illegal search and seizure	1	3	2	2	2	8	1	1	0
Enforced disappearance	1	5	1	0	2	0	1	3	0
Torture	1	2	0	1	4	2	1	1	1
Kidnapping	3	0	4	0	3	0	0	0	1
<i>Total cases of violence</i>	<i>431</i>	<i>654</i>	<i>489</i>	<i>388</i>	<i>208</i>	<i>286</i>	<i>215</i>	<i>234</i>	<i>70</i>

\* Data until July 2019

Source: based on data of Sistema de Información de Derechos Humanos (Sinderh), Escuela Nacional Sindical.

Various measures have been taken to ensure protection of trade union representatives and address the high level of impunity for crimes against them: through the creation of the National Protection Unit, special arrangements within the Prosecutor General's Office to look into the patterns of the murders against trade union representatives, targeted trainings for judicial workers provided by the ILO, etc. However, progress has been considered as insufficient as impunity for crimes against trade union representatives remains, the rates of collective bargaining are still low and multiple complaints are submitted to the ILO related to the violations of the Conventions No. 87 and 98:<sup>211</sup> cancellation of trade union registration, the practice of negotiating collective pacts with non-unionised workers<sup>212</sup> and limitations with respect to the right to strike (e.g. the Avianca case, where the Supreme Court declared the strike of pilots unlawful because the right to strike is not a fundamental right and is prohibited in essential public services).<sup>213</sup>

*Freedom of press* is guaranteed by the Constitution (Art. 20). However, enforcement has been weak. Various Freedom House reports from 2008 until 2019 note that journalists have faced intimidations, kidnapping and violence in their work. In 2019, the local press watchdog Foundations for Press Freedom (FLIP in Spanish) registered 491 attacks on press freedom.<sup>214</sup> This demonstrates an increasing trend when compared to the numbers in previous years, 310 in 2017<sup>215</sup> and 216 in 2016.<sup>216</sup> Opinion plurality is respected as the government has allowed the existence of newspapers and radio stations that produce alternative political and economic views, and the government does not restrict access to the internet or censors' sites. The Freedom House states that self-censorship remains common over the period from 2008 till 2019, and slander and defamation continue to be criminal offences.<sup>217</sup>

<sup>210</sup> Escuela Nacional Sindical (2020). El País de los 3.240 sindicalistas asesinados, informe especial, 21 septiembre 2020, at: <https://ail.ens.org.co/informe-especial/el-pais-de-los-3-240-sindicalistas-asesinados/>

<sup>211</sup> ILO recorded 38 complaints procedures on freedom of association cases, 25 of them are active, see [https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11110:0::NO::P11110\\_COUNTRY\\_ID:102595](https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11110:0::NO::P11110_COUNTRY_ID:102595)

<sup>212</sup> International Trade Union Confederation (2019), Colombia: Peace at Risk, at: <https://www.ituc-csi.org/colombia-peace-at-risk>

<sup>213</sup> Corte Suprema de Justicia, República de Colombia, Sala de Casación Laboral, SL20094-2017, Radicación no. 79047, Acta 44, 77: <https://cortesuprema.gov.co/corte/wp-content/uploads/relatorias/la/bdic12017/SL20094-2017.pdf>

<sup>214</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>215</sup> BTI (2020).

<sup>216</sup> BTI (2018). Colombia Country Report, available at: [https://www.bti-project.org/content/en/downloads/reports/country\\_report\\_2018\\_COL.pdf](https://www.bti-project.org/content/en/downloads/reports/country_report_2018_COL.pdf)

<sup>217</sup> Based on the annual Freedom House reports *Freedom in the World, Colombia* from 2008 till 2019.

*Freedom of religion* is guaranteed under Article 19 of the Constitution and the government has generally respected this right in practice.<sup>218</sup>

### **Right to work and right to just and favourable conditions of work**

The Constitution of Colombia recognises the right to work in its Article 25. Additionally, there are several legislative, institutional and policy documents which are aimed to promote the right to work in the country. For example, the 2010 Act on formalising and generating employment (Act No. 1429), the 2013 Act establishing the unemployment protection mechanism (Act No. 1636), the 2019 National Development Plan 2018-2022, "Pact for Colombia, Pact for Equity" (Act No. 1955). When comparing unemployment data of 2008 with 2019, it can be seen that unemployment in Colombia remained at the same level (see detailed statistics in the social part of the analysis). High rates of unemployment have been affecting young people, women, persons with disabilities, indigenous and Afro-Colombian peoples and persons living in rural areas. Colombia has made efforts to reduce the number of people working in the informal sector from 57% in 2007 to 46.4% in 2019 (DANE statistics). The UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) in its reports of 2010 and 2017 has expressed concern that workers in the informal economy were not adequately protected by labour law and do not have access to social security protection system (see the right to social security).<sup>219</sup> Based on the number of accidents at work, working conditions have improved and several projects have been implemented in cooperation with the ILO that targeted improved safe and healthy working conditions in specific sectors (see social analysis). Stakeholders report that situation with respect to labour inspections has also improved over the period 2008–2019, although international standards that establish the number of labour inspections per number of workers have not been reached yet,<sup>220</sup> especially in rural and remote areas.<sup>221</sup> The 2017 UN CESCR report also notes that workers in the agricultural sector are paid less than the minimum wage.<sup>222</sup>

### **Prohibition of all forms of slavery (forced or compulsory labour)**

Colombia ratified the ILO Conventions on forced labour (Conventions No. 29 and No.105) and child labour (Conventions No. 138 and 182) as well as the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (Convention No. 169) which provides in its Article 112 that 'the exaction from members of the peoples concerned of compulsory personal services in any form, whether paid or unpaid, shall be prohibited and punishable by law, except in cases prescribed by law for all citizens'. Colombia also ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Article 6(1)), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Article 8), the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (Article 11), the International Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Article 27(2)), the International Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 32 and 34), the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Article 11), the American Convention on Human Rights (Article 6) and the Trafficking Protocol. It did not ratify the Smuggling Protocol. In 2005 the Interagency Committee for the Fight Against Trafficking in Persons was established which continues to operate together with the Ministry of

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<sup>218</sup> Freedom House (2020). Freedom in the World 2020, Colombia: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/colombia/freedom-world/2020>

<sup>219</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2010). Concluding observations on the fifth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.5 and United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6

<sup>220</sup> Oidhaco & Catapa (2020). Trade Agreement between the EU, Colombia, Peru and Ecuador, at: <http://www.oidhaco.org/uploaded/content/article/1326853725.pdf>

<sup>221</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>222</sup> Ibid.

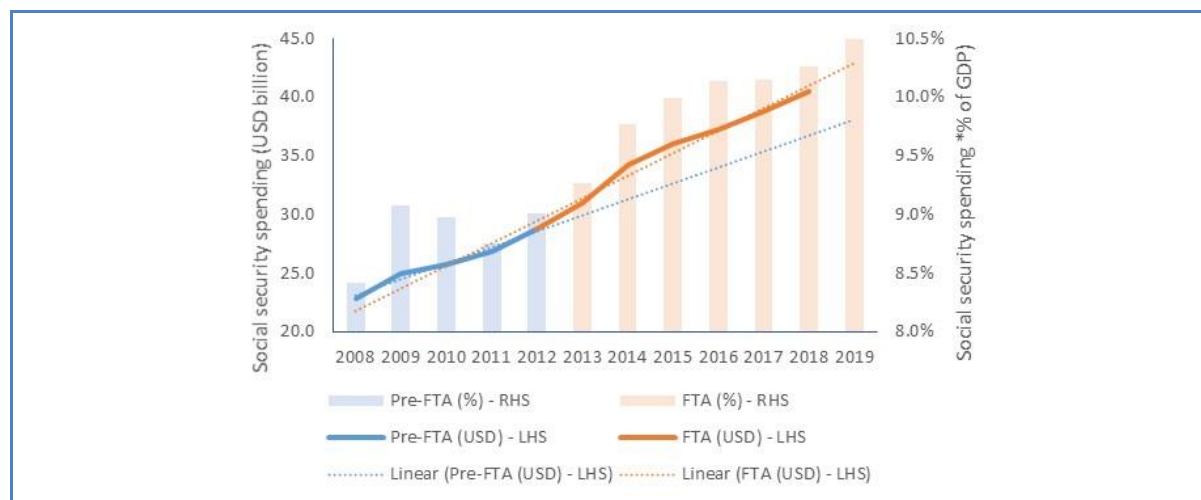
Interior. The Colombian Family Welfare Institute, together with the Ministry of Interior are responsible for victim protection.<sup>223</sup>

According to the Global Slavery Index 2018, approximately 131,000 persons are estimated to be living in modern slavery.<sup>224</sup> The UN Committee on Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) welcomed various legislative and policy measures taken by the Colombian government to address forced labour, trafficking and sexual exploitation. However, it also noted that women and girls from Venezuela are frequently victimised and exploited.<sup>225</sup> The 2020 Trafficking in Persons Report on Colombia prepared by the U.S. Department of State states that efforts to combat labour trafficking remained deficient and cases of forced labour were underreported. Inspectors did not receive special training and did not have a protocol for victim identification.<sup>226</sup>

## Right to social security

Colombia is a party to the ICESCR which guarantees the right to social protection under Article 9 and defines key features of this right in CESCR General Comment No. 19. Colombia is not party to the ILO Conventions No. 102, 202 or other ILO conventions on social protection. The Constitution of Colombia guarantees the right to social security for all its citizens (Article 48). However, multiple sources report that social security protection mechanisms in Colombia have been limited and weak for years.<sup>227</sup> One of the biggest issues of Colombia's social security is that informal sector workers are not covered by the social protection system. Discussion to reform the pensions system, including increasing the age of retirement, are currently underway.<sup>228</sup> According to OECD data, social benefits to households from 2008 to 2019 have increased<sup>229</sup> (Figure E-1).

**Figure E-1: Colombian social security expenditures (% of GDP and USD)**



Source: based on the OECD data.

<sup>223</sup> U.S. Department of State (2020). Trafficking in Persons Report: Colombia: <https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-trafficking-in-persons-report/colombia/>

<sup>224</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>225</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2019). Concluding observations on the ninth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. CEDAW/C/COL/CO/9.

<sup>226</sup> U.S. Department of State (2020). Trafficking in Persons Report: Colombia: <https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-trafficking-in-persons-report/colombia/>

<sup>227</sup> See BTI reports, various UN monitoring bodies reports, e.g. E/C.12/COL/CO/6, A/HRC/43/3/Add.3, CMW/C/COL/CO/3.

<sup>228</sup> BTI (2020).

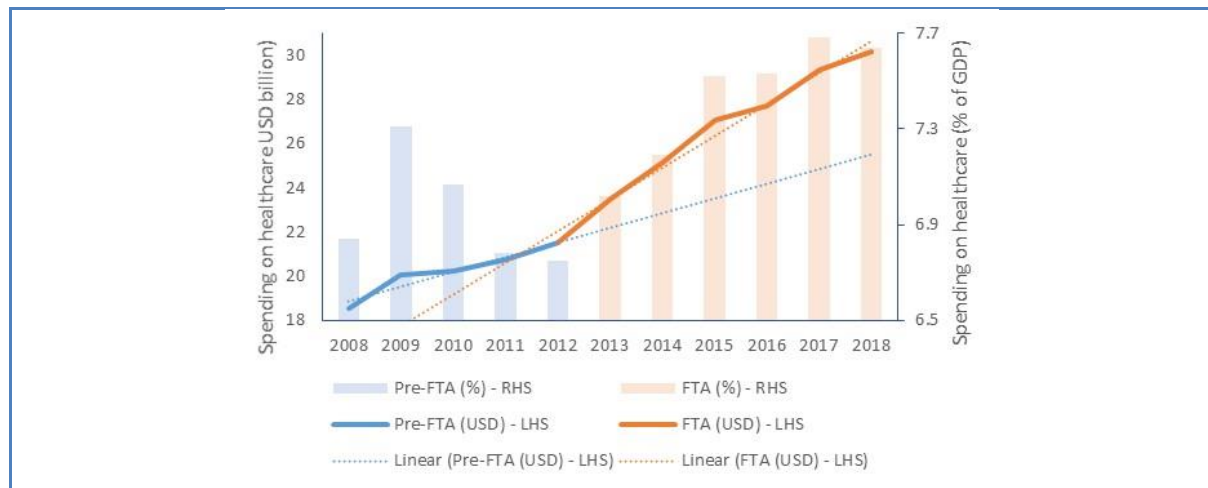
<sup>229</sup> OECD (2020): Data on social benefits to households: <https://data.oecd.org/socialexp/social-benefits-to-households.htm#indicator-chart>

However, in 2017, the UN CESCR noted with concern that a significant number of people were not covered by the social protection system, especially workers in the informal economy, in rural areas and the self-employed.<sup>230</sup> The data may focus on the social protection in formal employment while informal sector is difficult to reflect in numbers.

## Right to health

Article 49 of the Constitution guarantees all Colombians access to health care. Coverage levels have increased from 70% in 2006<sup>231</sup> to 94.9% in 2017.<sup>232</sup> According to the OECD data, health care expenditures from 2008 to 2019 have increased (Figure E-2).

**Figure E-2: Colombian health care expenditures (% of GDP and USD)**



Source: based on the OECD data.

However, there are prevailing disparities in the availability, accessibility, quality, and affordability of health care services. Various UN monitoring bodies report that this mainly affected people from low-income brackets, indigenous people and persons living in rural or remote areas.<sup>233</sup> There are reports that some hospitals had scarce supplies and a shortage of doctors and other health care professionals.<sup>234</sup> Also, the Administradora de los Recursos del Sistema General de Seguridad Social en Salud (ADRES) which funds the subsidised health care regime, is estimated to be in debt to an amount of nearly 850 million US dollars with the scheme for private health care entities (Entidades Promotoras de Salud, EPS).<sup>235</sup>

## Right to food

The Constitution guarantees the right to adequate food. Explicit references are made in Articles 43, 44 and 46 of the Constitution. A number of legal and policy documents also regulate the enjoyment of the right to food in the country: e.g. the Law No. 1990 on prevention of the loss and waste of food, the Law No. 1776 on the creation and promotion of the zones of interest for rural, economic and social development (ZIDRES), and the 2016

<sup>230</sup> UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth report of Colombia, UN Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO/6.

<sup>231</sup> BTI (2010). Colombia Country Report: [https://www.bti-project.org/content/en/downloads/reports/country\\_report\\_2010\\_COL.pdf](https://www.bti-project.org/content/en/downloads/reports/country_report_2010_COL.pdf)

<sup>232</sup> BTI (2020).

<sup>233</sup> See UN CESCR (2010); UN CESCR (2017) and UN CEDAW (2019).

<sup>234</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc, E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>235</sup> BTI (2020).



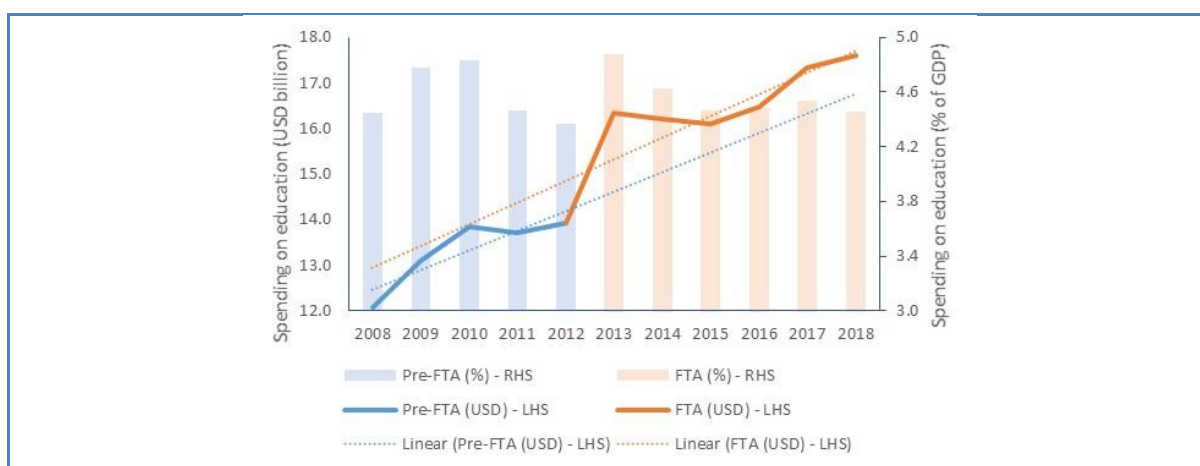
National information, education and communication strategy on food and nutrition security and others.<sup>236</sup>

The number of confirmed deaths from chronic malnutrition has decreased over the period from 2008 till 2019.<sup>237</sup> While this is encouraging, disparities with respect to the right to food have also prevailed, in particular between the critical rates of malnutrition and food insecurity in indigenous communities and the rising number of overweight persons in some areas.<sup>238</sup> In 2020 the UN Human Rights Council reported negative impact of the Hidroituango dam on the right to food of the communities in that region. A draft decree of the Ministry of Justice of Colombia aimed to resume aerial fumigation of illicit crops with glyphosate, could negatively affect the right to food and right to health of the affected communities.<sup>239</sup>

## Right to education

The right to education is guaranteed by the Constitution. Colombia has made investments in education. Spending on education has increased from 2,658 US dollars per student in 2013 to 2,987 US dollars per student in 2016.<sup>240</sup> Public expenditure on education has increased from 14.7% of total government expenditure in 2008 to 16.3% in 2018.<sup>241</sup> Data on education expenditures in USD and in percentage of the GDP is presented in Figure E-3.

**Figure E-3: Colombian education expenditures (% of GDP and USD)**



Source: based on the UNESCO data.

However, this did not correlate to an improvement of quality.<sup>242</sup> While enrolment has increased in both primary and secondary education institutions, still few people have access to tertiary education. People living in rural areas face difficulties in getting adequate access to education. Completion rates are also influenced by the background and the locations of the students; the rates are lower for the poorest segments of the population and those

<sup>236</sup> UN Food and Agriculture Organisation, The right to food around the Globe: Colombia: <http://www.fao.org/right-to-food-around-the-globe/countries/col/en/>

<sup>237</sup> Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (2019). Annual Report 2019, Chapter V Follow-up to Recommendations Made by the IACHR in the Report Truth, Justice and Reparation: Fifth Report on the Human Rights Situation in Colombia, at: <https://www.oas.org/en/iachr/docs/annual/2019/docs/IA2019cap5CO-en.pdf>

<sup>238</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>239</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2020). Situation of human rights in Colombia, Report of the United Nations High commissioner for Human Rights, UN Doc. A/HRC/43/3/Add.3.

<sup>240</sup> OECD, Data – Education Spending – Colombia: <https://data.oecd.org/eduresource/education-spending.htm>

<sup>241</sup> UNESCO data.

<sup>242</sup> Ibid.



who are from rural areas.<sup>243</sup> Rural and remote areas have suffered from poor quality education, owing to the shortage of qualified teachers and the absence of adequate infrastructure.<sup>244</sup> The 2020 UNESCO report notes significant efforts of the Colombian government to ensure access to education for Venezuelan children but also states that many children remain outside the educational system.<sup>245</sup>

### **Right to an adequate standard of living**

Poverty rates have decreased in Colombia, from 42% in 2008 to 27% in 2018. Extreme poverty has also decreased from 17.8% in 2008 to 7.4% in 2017 (DANE statistics). Nevertheless, poverty is still consistently higher in rural areas than in urban areas.<sup>246</sup> Additionally, 80% of Afro-Colombians still live below the poverty line.<sup>247</sup> There are five programmes that aim to reduce poverty in Colombia. The "Free Housing Programme" assists in housing to families-victims of forced displacement and vulnerable groups. From 2014 to 2019, 66,782 households who were displaced, 4,498 Afro-descendent households and 525 indigenous households benefited from this programme. The "Programa de Vivienda de Interés Prioritario para Ahorradores," "Mi Casas Ya," and "Semillero de Proprietarios" programmes facilitate access to subsidised housing for persons with low income levels. The programme "Casss Digna-Vida Digna" adopted by the Decree 867 (2019) is aimed at the possibility to apply for improved sanitary conditions of the home, public services and the quality of housing infrastructure for vulnerable population groups.<sup>248</sup> According to the UN Committee on the Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, efforts by Colombia to combat poverty have not been sufficiently effective to address the issues disproportionately affecting persons living in rural, and remote areas, including victims of the armed conflict.<sup>249 250</sup> Additionally, according to the National Statistics Directorate (DANE), the population in a situation of multidimensional poverty increased from 17.8% in 2016 to 19.6% in 2018.<sup>251</sup>

### **Right to water**

Colombia ratified the ICESCR which recognises the right to water under Article 11 of the Covenant, the scope and the content of the right is clarified in the CESCR General Comment No. 15. The right to water is not explicitly recognised under the Colombian Constitution. However, the Constitutional Court has upheld the right in various cases on the basis of Article 79 of the Constitution that refers to the "right to a healthy environment".<sup>252</sup> Next to that Colombia is a party to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural

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<sup>243</sup> El Espectador, Una hoja de ruta para mejorar la calidad y reducir la deserción en la educación en Colombia, 24 April 2019.

<sup>244</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>245</sup> UNESCO (2020). Derecho a la educación bajo: presión principales desafíos y acciones transformadoras en la respuesta educativa al flujo migratorio mixto de población venezolana en Colombia, prepared by Henry Renna: <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000373455>

<sup>246</sup> See social analysis.

<sup>247</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>248</sup> Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (2019). Annual Report 2019, Chapter V Follow-up to Recommendations Made by the IACHR in the Report Truth, Justice and Reparation: Fifth Report on the Human Rights Situation in Colombia, at: <https://www.oas.org/en/iachr/docs/annual/2019/docs/IA2019cap5CO-en.pdf>

<sup>249</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>250</sup> Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (2018). Annual Report 2018, Chapter V Follow-up to Recommendations Made by the IACHR in the Report Truth, Justice and Reparation: Fifth Report on the Human Rights Situation in Colombia, at: <https://www.oas.org/en/iachr/docs/annual/2018/docs/IA2018cap.5CO-en.pdf>

<sup>251</sup> Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). Pobreza multidimensional en Colombia, Año 2018, at: [https://www.dane.gov.co/files/investigaciones/condiciones\\_vida/pobreza/2018/bt\\_pobreza\\_multidimensional\\_18.pdf](https://www.dane.gov.co/files/investigaciones/condiciones_vida/pobreza/2018/bt_pobreza_multidimensional_18.pdf)

<sup>252</sup> See cases T-406-1992, T-539 (1993), T-091 (2010) of the Constitutional Court of Colombia.

Rights which recognises the right to water (Article 11, CESCR General Comment No. 15). The National Development Plan 2018-2022 was adopted by the government to improve access to safe drinking water, manage wastewater and improve the quality of water services in rural areas.<sup>253</sup> The programme “Programa Guajira Azul” was introduced to increase access to safe drinking water in the Department of La Guajira, one of the most impoverished departments of Colombia with limited water supply and frequent draughts. As a result, the Casa Azul module has been installed in the Manaure municipality, improving access to safe drinking water for 131 communities.<sup>254</sup> Cooperation with the World Bank has also contributed to improved access to water in the Department of La Guajira in the framework of the La Guajira Water and Sanitation Infrastructure Service Management Project.<sup>255</sup>

A large proportion of the population has no access to safe drinking water and sanitation services.<sup>256</sup> In rural areas the percentage of households without access to drinking water was 14% higher than in urban areas.<sup>257</sup> In 2017, the UN Committee on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights expressed concerns about the disproportionate and uncontrolled use of water and about the river pollution as a result of mining activities. Water pollution in the rivers resulted in serious violations of the right to water, affecting the health of several communities and damaging the environment.<sup>258</sup> Environmental analysis indicates that water pollution has also been common due to a considerably increased use of fertilisers in the agricultural sector.<sup>259</sup>

### *1.3.3. Vulnerable populations groups*

#### **Indigenous peoples and Afro-Colombian populations**

According to the national census in 2018, there were 115 different indigenous peoples in the country, whereas in 2005 only 93 indigenous populations were identified. The population of indigenous groups has grown by 36.8% and is around 1.9 million.<sup>260</sup> Colombian indigenous peoples make up 3% of the population and live on 34 hectares of land granted to them by the government, often in regions rich in natural resources (Figure E-4).

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<sup>253</sup> Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (2019). Annual Report 2019, Chapter V Follow-up to Recommendations Made by the IACHR in the Report Truth, Justice and Reparation: Fifth Report on the Human Rights Situation in Colombia, at: <https://www.oas.org/en/iachr/docs/annual/2019/docs/IA2019cap5CO-en.pdf>

<sup>254</sup> Ibid.

<sup>255</sup> World Bank (2019). Improving Water Supply and Sanitation Services in La Guajira, Colombia, 23 April 2019: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/results/2019/04/23/improving-water-supply-and-sanitation-services-in-la-guajira-colombia>

<sup>256</sup> According to the ourworldindata.org, the number of people without access to safe drinking water in Colombia in 2015 was 13.9 million people, based on data from WHO and WASH: <https://ourworldindata.org/water-access>

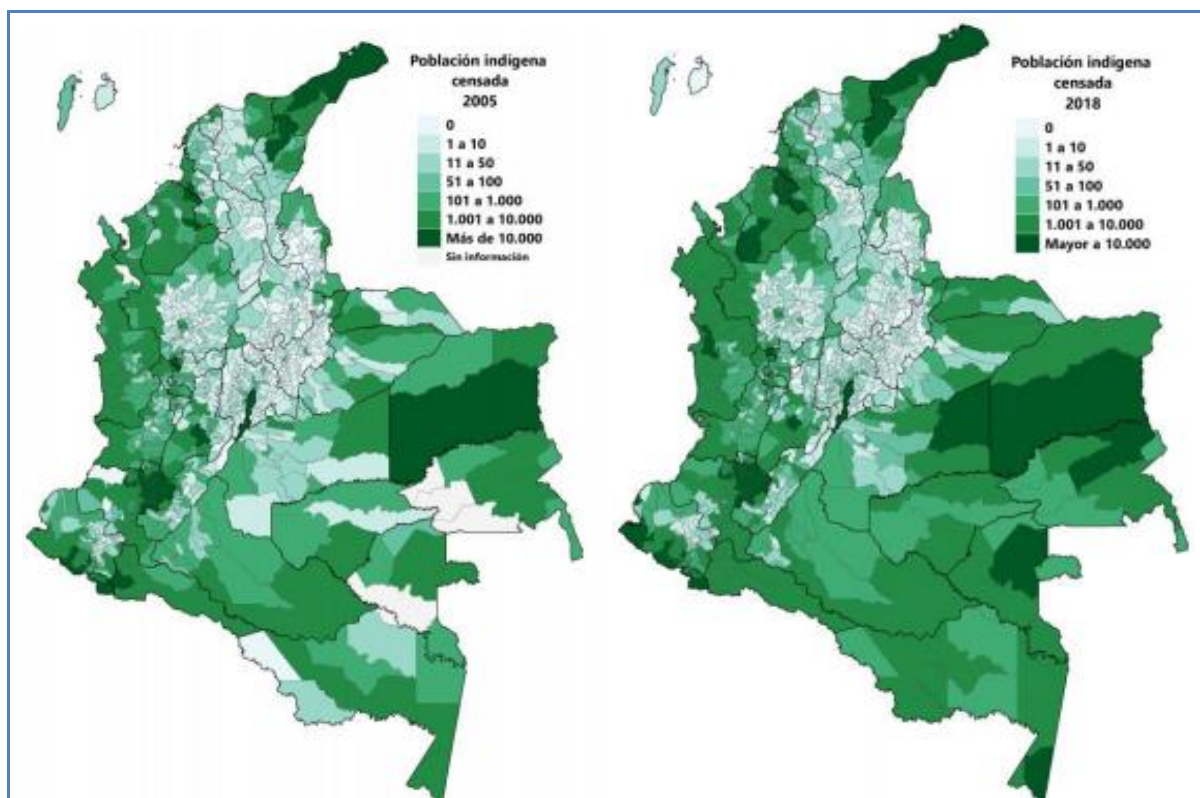
<sup>257</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2020). Situation of human rights in Colombia, Report of the United Nations High commissioner for Human Rights, UN Doc. A/HRC/43/3/Add.3. Analysis in the environmental section shows a higher gap – approximately 24% in 2019.

<sup>258</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>259</sup> See environmental section of the analysis.

<sup>260</sup> DANE (2019). Población Indígena de Colombia, Resultados del Censo Nacional de Población y Vivienda 2018, 16 septiembre, 2019, at: <https://www.dane.gov.co/files/investigaciones/boletines/grupos-etnicos/presentacion-grupos-etnicos-2019.pdf>

**Figure E-4: Indigenous population per municipality in 2005 and in 2018**



Source: DANE (2019).

The fundamental rights of indigenous peoples are recognised in the Constitution, and Colombia has ratified the ILO Convention No. 169 and supported the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.<sup>261</sup> However, the 2017 Concluding observations of the UN Human Rights Committee note that indigenous peoples and Afro-Colombians face discrimination, and permits for resource exploitation on the territories of Indigenous People have impacted their way of life.<sup>262</sup> Additionally, indigenous communities also face limitations in terms of their economic and social rights.<sup>263</sup> For example, national statistics indicates that only 5.5% of the persons belonging to indigenous groups complete university education, and only 52% of them complete primary education.<sup>264</sup> The 2020 Concluding observations of the UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination note structural discrimination of the members of indigenous communities and communities of African descent compared to the rest of the population. In particular, the Committee points out the following issues: obstacles to effective employment, limited availability and accessibility of health care services in areas populated by these population groups, cases of malnutrition among indigenous children, low levels of education compared to the rest of the population and the lack of adequate representation at all levels of public administration.<sup>265</sup> Freedom House reports that in 2019, indigenous communities in the departments of Choco, Cauca, Valle de Cauca and Narino suffered increased violence and

<sup>261</sup> International work Group for Indigenous Affairs (2020). The Indigenous World 2020: Colombia: <https://www.iwgia.org/en/colombia/3618-iw-2020-colombia.html>

<sup>262</sup> United Nations Human Rights Committee (2016). Concluding Observations on the seventh periodic report of Colombia, UN Doc. CCPR/C/COL/CO/7; Minority Rights Group International, World Directory of Minorities and Indigenous Peoples – Colombia: <https://minorityrights.org/country/colombia/>.

<sup>263</sup> Organización Nacional Indígena de Colombia (2015): *ONIC - Violencia contra mujeres indígenas: Realidades y retos, mandato y acciones de la ONIC*

<sup>264</sup> DANE (2019). Población indígena de Colombia. Resultados del censo nacional de población y vivienda 2018: <https://www.dane.gov.co/files/investigaciones/boletines/grupos-etnicos/presentacion-grupos-etnicos-2019.pdf>

<sup>265</sup> UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2020). Concluding observations on the combined seventeenth to nineteenth periodic reports of Colombia, UN Doc. CERD/C/COL/CO/17-19.

displacement.<sup>266</sup> Between January 2016 and mid-2019 over 704 community leaders have been murdered.<sup>267</sup> Human Rights Watch states that, also in 2019, at least 21 indigenous children died in the province of La Guajira of causes associated with malnutrition and limited access to safe drinking water.<sup>268</sup> Indigenous women face ethnic discrimination and are often victims of gender violence and socio-political violence.<sup>269</sup>

## Children

Colombia ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child and two protocols to the convention. The Constitution recognises rights of the children in Articles 44 and 45. Colombia ratified all the key international conventions concerning child labour (see Annex E-2). In 2017 Colombia made a significant effort in eliminating child labour by approving the National Policy to Prevent and Eliminate Child Labour and Protect the Young Worker and a roadmap to prevent and eliminate child labour in mining.<sup>270</sup> Colombian law (Resolution 1796) provides that children of 15-17 years old may work with an official authorisation which may be revoked if minimum guarantees protecting health, social security, education, and acceptable conditions of work are not met. DANE notes a declining trend in child labour over the evaluation period but reports that in 2019 5.9% of children between 5 and 17 were subjected to forced labour (see detailed statistics in the social analysis).<sup>271</sup> The National Strategy for the Prevention and Eradication of the Worst Forms of Child Labour is seen as not effectively addressing the exploitation of children and adolescents in illegal mining activities.<sup>272</sup> The UN Committee on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights finds that child labour, the recruitment of children by illegal armed groups, and related sexual abuse are still serious problems in Colombia.<sup>273</sup> The measures taken to reintegrate children and adolescents from illegal armed groups are crucial but have shortcomings in terms of access to education, health and psychosocial support.<sup>274</sup> More targeted actions have been taken by the government in 2020. For example, in cooperation with UNICEF and IOM, the government has launched a programme “Súmate por mí” which aims to prevent recruitment of minors by illegal military groups. Five departments have been identified as priority regions within the programme: Putumayo, Chocó, Antioquia, Nariño and Norte de Santander. In November 2020, one more department has been added – Guaviare. The government has pledged to invest 690 million US dollars in this department.<sup>275</sup> In 2015, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child expressed concerns about the insufficient progress made by the local institutions protecting children’s rights, the insufficient resources and measures, high levels of violence that children face, sexual exploration and abuse.<sup>276</sup>

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<sup>266</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>267</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner (2019). Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination raises concerns about violence and discrimination against indigenous peoples and Afro-Colombians as it reviews Colombia’s report: <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=25365&LangID=E>

<sup>268</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). World Report 2020: Colombia: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/colombia>

<sup>269</sup> Organización Nacional Indígena de Colombia (2015): <https://www.onic.org.co/m/noticias/784-violencia-contra-mujeres-indigenas-realidades-y-retos-mandato-y-acciones-de-la-onic>

<sup>270</sup> United States Department of Labour, 2017 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour- Colombia, at: <https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/5bd05ab70.pdf>

<sup>271</sup> Colombiareports.com (2019). Child labour in Colombia: declining but still endemic, 19 June 2019, at: <https://colombiareports.com/child-labor-in-colombia-declining-but-still-endemic/>

<sup>272</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6

<sup>273</sup> Ibid.

<sup>274</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6

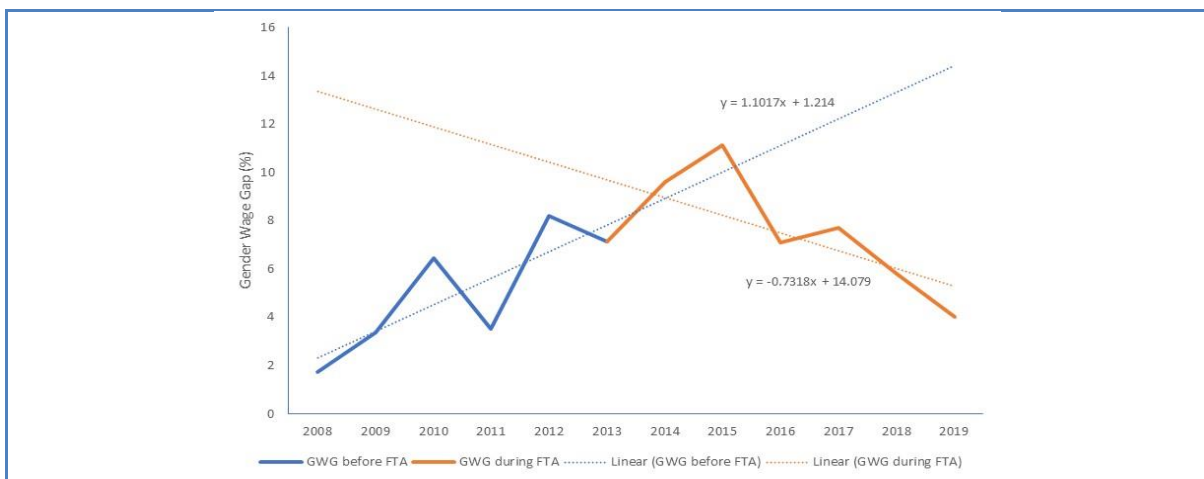
<sup>275</sup> Based on the press releases of the Consejería Presidencial para los derechos humanos y asuntos internacionales: <http://www.derechoshumanos.gov.co/Prensa/2020/Paginas/2020.aspx>

<sup>276</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (2015). Concluding observations on the combined fourth and fifth periodic reports of Colombia, UN. doc. CRC/C/COL/CO.4-5.

## Women

Colombia ratified the ICESCR, the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) as well as the Optional Protocol to the CEDAW. The Constitution of Colombia recognises women's rights in Articles 40 and 43. It specifically provides for their freedom from discrimination, right to participate in politics and public administration as well as include provisions on special protection of pregnant women and possibility of support in case of divorce. Colombia has made substantial progress in gender equality by adopting robust normative framework that aims to protect women's rights. The Law No. 1475 (2011) further establishes a 30% quota of women candidates in all elections and provides for higher representation of women in public institutions. The Law No. 1257 (2008) is aimed to prevent violence and discrimination against women. The Law No. 1719 (2014) includes provisions that allow access to justice for victims of sexual violence. Next to that, a number of policy instruments have been introduced to promote women's rights, e.g. the 2013 National Policy on Gender Equality, the National Development Plans of 2012-2014 and 2018-2022. In practice, however, Colombia still faces challenges with respect to gender equality.<sup>277</sup> While the female labour force participation is at 42.9%, according to the 2017 National Consultancy Centre (Centro Nacional de Consultoria) report, only 23% of women have a full-time job and 34% of women dedicate their time to household duties. In public office, only 21% of Congress and 17% of departmental assemblies are composed of women.<sup>278</sup> The female unemployment rate has increased from 14.1% in 2007 to 15.8% in 2010 and then fell to 11.6% in 2015 and increased again to 13.4% in 2019.<sup>279</sup> According to the OECD data, in 2019 the gender gap in Colombia is 4% (Figure E-5).<sup>280</sup>

**Figure E-5: Gender Wage Gap in Colombia from 2008 till 2019**



Source: based on the OECD data.

The UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women states that women in the informal sector in Colombia do not have social security protection. While measures have been taken to increase the economic empowerment of women, such as through trainings with technology, these programs do not always reach those in need, e.g. indigenous and rural women.<sup>281</sup> A comprehensive public policy has been adopted to address land restitution for rural women and girls. However, in practice it has been of limited effectiveness due to deep discrimination against indigenous and Afro-Colombian women.<sup>282</sup>

<sup>277</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>278</sup> BTI (2020).

<sup>279</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>280</sup> OECD data, at: <https://www.oecd.org/gender/data/employment/>

<sup>281</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2019). Concluding observations on the ninth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. CEDAW/C/COL/CO/9.

<sup>282</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2019). Concluding observations on the ninth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. CEDAW/C/COL/CO/9.



According to the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, gender-based violence is still a persisting issue. In some parts of the country, such as Bogota, the rate of violence against women increased by 17% in the first trimester of 2018 compared to the same period in 2017.<sup>283</sup> Many women who are victims of violence, including victims of domestic violence, do not have timely access either to health services and shelters or to effective remedies.<sup>284</sup> Moreover, indigenous women and women of Afro-Colombian descent receive multiple forms of discrimination and are disproportionately affected by high rates of sexual violence.<sup>285</sup>

## Migrants and refugees

Colombia ratified the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMW) and the Refugee Convention and its Protocol. Next to that, Colombia is a member of the International Organisation for Migration (IOC). Due to the political, economic, and social crisis in Venezuela, Colombia is host to more than 1.6 million Venezuelans.<sup>286</sup> The government has continued efforts to accommodate them, offering work permits, creating two new Special Stay Permits (PEP),<sup>287</sup> and giving Colombian citizenship to children of Venezuelans born in Colombia.<sup>288</sup> Programs have been enacted to provide access to education, employment, and health care.<sup>289</sup> However, migrants continue to face discrimination in society in accessing health services and work, as well as face obstacles in gaining access to documentation.<sup>290</sup> Between 2014 and 2018 Colombia adopted a national strategy to address trafficking in persons and to align national legislation with international standards. Nevertheless, migrant women and girls from Venezuela have been frequently victimized and exploited.<sup>291</sup> According to the Report of the Rosario university, 0.7% of Venezuelan migrant workers are employed in the formal sectors and 45.5% in informal sectors of the Colombian economy.<sup>292</sup> In 2017, the Ministry of Labour established a special administrative unit to provide Venezuelan nationals with employment management and placement services, guaranteeing them the same rights as Colombians when they apply for jobs.<sup>293</sup> In practice, however, Rueckert (2019) reports that the Venezuelan migrant workers' rights have been compromised, in particular in informal work settings.<sup>294</sup>

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<sup>283</sup> Ibid.

<sup>284</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN. Doc. E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>285</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2020). Concluding observation on the combined seventeenth to nineteenth periodic reports of Colombia, UN. Doc. CERD/C/COL/CO/17-19.

<sup>286</sup> UNHCR (2020). UNHCR welcomes Colombia's decision to regularize stay of Venezuelans in the country: <https://www.unhcr.org/news/briefing/2020/2/5e3930db4/unhcr-welcomes-colombias-decision-regularize-stay-venezuelans-country.html>

<sup>287</sup> Ibid.

<sup>288</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>289</sup> Migration Policy Institute (2020). An Uneven Welcome – Latin American and Caribbean Responses to Venezuelan and Nicaraguan Migration: <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/latam-caribbean-responses-venezuelan-nicaraguan-migration>

<sup>290</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2020). Concluding observation on the combined seventeenth to nineteenth periodic reports of Colombia, UN. Doc. CERD/C/COL/CO/17-19.

<sup>291</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2019). Concluding observations on the ninth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc. CEDAW/C/COL/CO/9.

<sup>292</sup> Universidad del Rosario & Konrad Adenauer Stiftung (2018). Retos y oportunidades de la movilidad humana venezolana en la Construcción de una política migratoria colombiana, at: <https://www.kas.de/documents/287914/287963/Retos+y+oportunidades+de+la+movilidad+humana+venezolana+en+la+construcci%C3%B3n+de+una+pol%C3%ADtica+migratoria+colombiana.pdf/bcee4a33-9677-4405-bc16-b10dc4565937>

<sup>293</sup> United Nations Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (2018). Consideration of the third periodic report submitted by Colombia under article 73 of the Convention, UN doc. CMW/C/COL/3.

<sup>294</sup> Rueckert, Ph. (2019). Venezuelan Migrant Workers Struggle for Labour Rights in Colombia, NACLA Report on the Americas, Vol. 51, issue 3: Todes Somos Trabajadores: Seeking Labour Justice in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, at: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/10714839.2019.1650511>



## Persons with disabilities

Colombia ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities but not the Optional Protocol to the Convention which establishes an individual complaint mechanism and gives the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities competence to examine complaints from individuals or groups of individuals or their representatives who claim their rights have been violated under the Convention. Also, Colombia ratified the Inter-American Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities. Several legal acts have been introduced to improve position of persons with disabilities in Colombia: The Disability Act of 2013, the Decree No.2107 (2016) and Resolution No. 1904 (2017). However, stakeholders report that their effectiveness has been limited.<sup>295</sup> Persons with disabilities are particularly affected by unemployment. Access to inclusive education for children and adolescents with disabilities has been limited.<sup>296</sup> The UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities has expressed concerns about derogatory terminology used in official capacities to refer to a person with disabilities, the lack of resources for organisations working with persons with disabilities, the lack of steps taken to address discrimination, the absence of a national plan for implementing accessibility standards, and the lack of adequate standards of living and social protection.<sup>297</sup>

## LGBTI persons

While on October 2019, Claudia López became the first woman and openly gay mayor of Bogotá, LGBTI people face societal discrimination and abuse. In addition, there is also a high level of impunity for crimes committed against them.<sup>298</sup> Colombia Diversa, an NGO on LGBTI rights, reported that between 2013 and 2018, 465 homicide cases against LGBTI people occurred, of which 148 allegedly were motivated by prejudice due to sexual orientation (BTI 2020). Positive changes have happened, trans people over the age of 18 can now legally change their gender, same-sex marriage was legalised, and progressive legislation has been adopted.<sup>299</sup> Stakeholders report that the main issues that LGBTI face refer to discrimination, difficulties in entering formal labour market and because of that lack of social security coverage and difficulties in accessing health services.<sup>300</sup>

## 2. Peru

### 2.1. Human rights framework

The Constitution of Peru recognises a comprehensive list of human rights as interpreted in the international human rights treaties ratified by the state.<sup>301</sup> Peru ratified all core UN human rights conventions and seven out of nine optional protocols. It did not ratify the Second Optional Protocol to the ICCPR on the abolition of death penalty and the Optional Protocol to the ICESCR (Table E-6). As part of its reporting obligations, Peru regularly

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<sup>295</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Summary of Stakeholders' submissions on Colombia, UN Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/30/COL/3.

<sup>296</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2017). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Colombia, UN doc, E/C.12/COL/CO.6.

<sup>297</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2016). Concluding observation on the initial report of Colombia, UN doc. CRPD/C/COL/CO/1.

<sup>298</sup> Freedom House (2020).

<sup>299</sup> Washington Office on Latin America (2020). LGBT+ Rights and Peace in Colombia: The Paradox Between Law and Practice: <https://www.wola.org/analysis/lgbt-rights-and-peace-in-colombia-the-paradox-between-law-and-practice/>

<sup>300</sup> Corporación Caribe Afirmativo, Akahatá – equipo de trabajo en sexualidades y géneros, Heartland Alliance for Human Needs and Human Rights (2017). Situation of LGBTI Human Rights in Colombia, Report submitted to the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 62<sup>nd</sup> Session: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CESCR/Shared%20Documents/COL/INT\\_CESCR\\_CSS\\_COL\\_28549\\_E.pdf](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CESCR/Shared%20Documents/COL/INT_CESCR_CSS_COL_28549_E.pdf)

<sup>301</sup> The Constitution of Peru of 1993 with Amendments through 2009: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru\\_2009.pdf?lang=en](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru_2009.pdf?lang=en)

reports to the UN monitoring treaty bodies. The country has two overdue reports (i) report to the Committee on Economic and Social Rights since 2017 and (ii) report to the Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families since 2020.<sup>302</sup> In the evaluation period from 2008 till 2019, Peru ratified the International Convention for the Protection of all Persons from Enforced Disappearance (in 2012) and the Optional Protocol to the CRC on a communications procedure (in 2016).

**Table E-6: Ratification status of core international human rights treaties by Peru**

Human Rights Treaty	Ratified or not
<b>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the ICCPR	✓
- Second Optional Protocol to the ICCPR	✗
<b>International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the ICESCR	✗
<b>Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CAT	✓
<b>International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CPED)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CEDAW	✓
<b>International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in the armed conflict	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on a communication procedure	✓
<b>International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMW)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRPD	✓

Source: OHCHR.

Peru has ratified all eight fundamental ILO Conventions that cover freedom of association, forced labour, discrimination and child labour. It has not ratified one out of four ILO governance conventions that refers to labour inspection in agriculture. It has ratified the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (No.169) (Table E-7). In the evaluation period from 2008 till 2019, Peru ratified the ILO Maternity Protection Convention (No.183) and the Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189).

**Table E-7: Ratification status of key ILO Conventions by Peru**

Convention	Ratified or not
C029 – Forced Labour Convention	✓
C087 – Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention	✓
C098 – Right to Organise and Collective bargaining Convention	✓
C100 – Equal Enumeration Convention	✓
C105 – Abolition of Forced Labour Convention	✓
C111 – Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention	✓
C138 – Minimum Age Convention	✓
C182 – Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention	✓
C081 – Labour Inspection Convention	✓
C122 – Employment Policy Convention	✓
C129 – Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention	✗
C144 – Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention	✓
C155 – Occupational Safety and Health Convention	✗
C169 – Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention	✓

Source: ILO.

<sup>302</sup> UN Treaty Body Database: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/\\_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/LateReporting.aspx](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/LateReporting.aspx)

Peru is also a party to the main human rights instruments of the inter-American system (e.g. American Convention on Human Rights, the Protocol of San Salvador, Belém do Pará Convention) and recognises the competence of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights (see full list of ratifications of regional human rights treaties in Table E-3 in Annex E-2).

## 2.2. Overall screening of human rights-related indices

To illustrate general changes in human rights and human rights related issues over the evaluation period, the following relevant indices are reported: the Human Development Index and the Gender Inequality Index of the UNDP, the Political Rights Index and the Civil Liberties Index of the Freedom House, the Corruption Perception Index of the Transparency International, the Social Progress Index (available from 2011), and the Voice and Accountability, Political Stability, Government Effectiveness, Rule of Law Indices of the World Governance Indicators.<sup>303</sup> Table E-8 presents an overview of all the scores for Peru over the period from 2008 until 2019, depending on the availability of the data. The indices use different methodologies in covering various human rights related issues. Some of the indices overlap or are intertwined, but that allows to look at the trends in human rights performance from various angles.

*The Human Development Index (HDI)* covers three dimensions of human development – long and healthy life, education and a decent standard of living.<sup>304</sup> Over the evaluation period, Peru has experienced a small but steady increase in this index. *The Gender Inequality Index (GII)* also shows that there has been a modest improvement in the position of women in Peru in reproductive health, political participation and labour inclusion.<sup>305</sup> *The Political Rights Index* of the Freedom House (which covers electoral freedoms, political participation and functioning of the government) and *the Civil Liberties Index* (which covers freedom of expression and belief, associational and organisational rights, rule of law, personal autonomy and individual rights) both illustrate a rather stable situation with respect to these rights in the country.<sup>306</sup> *The Corruption Perception Index* of Transparency International has changed its underlying methodology, so comparable data is available only since 2012. This data shows that corruption in Peru has deteriorated slightly (the higher the score, the lower the corruption). *The Social Progress Index*, which covers such dimensions as basic human needs (water, basic medical care, nutrition, etc.), foundations of wellbeing (education, health, environmental quality, etc.) and opportunity (personal rights and freedoms, inclusiveness, etc.),<sup>307</sup> recorded a gradual improvement in several human rights captured within the score. *The Voice and Accountability Indicator* reflects upon a wide range of personal freedoms (freedom of press, democracy, freedom of association and assembly, electoral freedoms, etc.) and illustrates an improvement of these rights overall in the period from 2008 until 2019. *The Political Stability Indicator* covers the degree of violence in the Peru and shows a gradual improvement until 2019. *The Government Effectiveness Indicator* reflects on the functioning of the government and quality of public services, in Peru it has fluctuated over the years. Finally, *the Rule of Law indicator* illustrates situation with respect to crime, property rights, trafficking of people, among others. In Peru, law and order scores have also been volatile over the period between 2008 and 2019.<sup>308</sup>

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<sup>303</sup> Kaufmann, Daniel and Kraay, Aart and Mastruzzi, Massimo, The Worldwide Governance Indicators: Methodology and Analytical Issues (September 2010). World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 5430: SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1682130>

<sup>304</sup> See full methodological note on the Human Development Index at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi>

<sup>305</sup> See full methodological note on the Gender Inequality Index at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>

<sup>306</sup> See full methodological note on the Political Rights Index and the Civil Liberties Index at: <https://freedomhouse.org/reports/freedom-world/freedom-world-research-methodology>

<sup>307</sup> See full methodological note at [www.socialprogress.org/about-us](http://www.socialprogress.org/about-us)

<sup>308</sup> See full methodology at: <https://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/Home/Documents>

**Table E-8: Overview of key human rights-related indices for Peru (2008 – 2019)**

Key indicators	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Human Development Index	0.72	0.72	0.72	0.73	0.73	0.74	0.75	0.75	0.76	0.76	0.76	0.76
Gender Inequality index			0.43	0.44	0.44	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.41	0.41	0.40	0.40
Political Rights Index	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Civil Liberties Index	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Corruption Perception Index					38	38	38	36	35	37	35	36
Social Progress Index				69.0	69.6	71.0	71.3	71.6	72.2	73.5	74.0	73.8
Voice & Accountability Index	52.4	51.2	52.6	53.5	54.5	52.1	54.7	54.7	55.2	55.2	55.2	57.1
Political Stability Index	17.3	13.7	16.6	21.8	19.4	20.3	27.1	32.4	38.1	36.2	37.6	42.4
Government Effectiveness	44.7	41.6	48.3	48.3	49.3	49.8	44.2	44.2	45.7	48.6	44.2	49.5
Rule of Law	26.0	32.7	34.1	31.9	34.7	34.7	34.1	37.5	34.1	33.2	32.2	33.2

Source: own compilation based on UNDP Human Development reports, Freedom House reports, Transparency International reports, Social Progress scorecards and World Governance Indicators for Peru over the period of 2008-2019.

Following this high-level screening of relevant human rights-related indices, in the next section a concise baseline analysis of relevant human rights is presented, covering *inter alia* pre-existing conditions of stress and vulnerabilities with respect to human rights in Peru before the provisional application of the Agreement as well as identifying relevant social and political developments that could have affected the human rights situation in the country.

### 2.3. Baseline analysis of relevant human rights/issues<sup>309</sup>

#### 2.3.1. Cross-cutting issues

##### **Non- discrimination**

The Constitution of Peru recognises freedom from discrimination: “No person shall be discriminated against on the basis of origin, race, sex, language, religion, opinion, economic situation or any other distinguishing feature”.<sup>310</sup> Various UN monitoring bodies report that discrimination against women, indigenous populations, Afro-Peruvians, persons with disabilities, migrants and refugees and LGBTI people is common. Civil society organisations and the Ombudsman Office continue to engage in campaigns to publicise this issue.<sup>311</sup> The government has taken various measures to address the issue of discrimination. The 2018-2021 National Plan of Human Rights has a special focus on vulnerable populations groups.<sup>312</sup> In 2019, the Gender Inequality Index of the UNDP ranked Peru 87<sup>th</sup> out of 162 countries. The 2019 Human Development report states that 27.2% of parliamentary seats are held by women, 57.4% of adult women have secondary education, 69.9% of Peruvian women participate in the labour market.<sup>313</sup> The UN Human Rights Council reports that women continue to face discrimination in terms of the access to the

<sup>309</sup> Human rights in the baseline analysis are drawn from the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, supplemented where relevant with references to the core UN human rights treaties and conventions, regional human rights treaties, and ILO Conventions.

<sup>310</sup> Article 2(2) of the Peru’s Constitution of 1993 with Amendments through 2009: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru\\_2009.pdf?lang=en](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru_2009.pdf?lang=en)

<sup>311</sup> Minority Rights Group International (2020). World Directory of Minorities and Indigenous Peoples – Peru: <https://minorityrights.org/country/peru/>

<sup>312</sup> European External Action Service (2019). EU Annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World. 2019 Country Updates: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007\\_eu\\_country\\_updates\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_2019.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007_eu_country_updates_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2019.pdf)

<sup>313</sup> UNDP (2019). Human Development Report 2019, Inequalities in Human Development in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, Briefing note for countries on the 2019 Human Development Report – Peru: [http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr\\_theme/country-notes/PER.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr_theme/country-notes/PER.pdf)

labour market, wage discrimination and discriminatory conditions of work.<sup>314</sup> Ultimately, the income gap between men and women is rather large (it was 28.7% in 2007 and 28.6% in 2018).<sup>315</sup> Innovative measures have been taken to improve the employment of persons with disabilities. However, discrimination in accessing employment remains.<sup>316</sup> Indigenous peoples and Afro-Peruvian populations face obstacles in having access to labour participation, only 43.5% of them worked in adequate employment in 2018 (INEI statistics). Migrant workers (mostly from Venezuela) face difficulties in finding formal employment and as a result have had to accept work in the informal sector with low levels of social protection, in possibly precarious working conditions with pay below the minimum wage.<sup>317</sup> The UN Human Rights Council notes that LGBTI persons suffer from discrimination at work, which often goes unreported <sup>318</sup> (see also section 2.3.3 on vulnerable groups).

## Corruption

The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) for Peru shows that corruption has increased in Peru – based on the deterioration in the score from 38 in 2012 to 36 in 2019 (the lower the score, the more corruption).<sup>319</sup> The Freedom House reports point to the pervasive character of corruption in the government over the period from 2008 till 2019.<sup>320</sup> In 2018, President Kuczynski resigned as lawmakers prepared impeachment proceedings over corruption allegations. President Vizcarra has proposed four anti-corruption measures, wherein three measures were approved by a referendum which received support from more than 85% of voters.<sup>321</sup> In November 2020, President Vizcarra was impeached over allegations of corruption related to construction projects, and his successor lasted five days before resigning under pressure of street protests.<sup>322</sup> Corrupt officials are being increasingly prosecuted, but the number of convictions remains low.<sup>323</sup> Corruption is also one of the major causes of low support for democracy among Peruvians. According to Latinobarómetro, in 2018 only 43% of respondents prefer democracy to any other form of government, whereas the number was 61% in 2010.<sup>324</sup>

## Environment, development, business and human rights

The Constitution of Peru does not recognise the right to a healthy and sustainable environment as a human right but includes provisions that define obligation of the state to promote conservation of biological diversity and protected natural areas (Article 68) and to promote sustainable use of its natural resources (Article 67). The state is defined as the one having the ultimate power over the use of natural resources (Article 66).<sup>325</sup> In 2012

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<sup>314</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>315</sup> Mujica M. & E. Fernandez (2020). Comercio Justo, Estudio de impactos del Tratado de Libre Comercio entre la UE y Perú en la agricultura: <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/iez/16310.pdf>. More detailed baseline data on gender equality is presented under the social analysis.

<sup>316</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>317</sup> El Comercio (2018). Inmigración: un impulso para el mercado laboral actual: <https://elcomercio.pe/economia/peru/inmigracion-ayuda-mercado-laboral-actual-noticia-578810-noticia/>; ECHO (2020). Peru: Supporting Venezuelan migrants and refugees in times of coronavirus. Available at: <https://reliefweb.int/report/peru/peru-supporting-venezuelan-migrants-and-refugees-times-coronavirus>

<sup>318</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>319</sup> Transparency International (2019). Corruption Perceptions Index for Peru: <https://www.transparency.org/en/cpi/2019/results/per>

<sup>320</sup> Freedom House report from 2008 till 2019: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/peru>

<sup>321</sup> Ibid.

<sup>322</sup> The Economist, Early Retirement, November 14<sup>th</sup> to 20<sup>th</sup> 2020, p.41; CNN, Peru got its third president in a week. What happens now, 18 November 2020, by Jack Guy: <https://edition.cnn.com/2020/11/18/americas/peru-protests-explainer-scli-intl/index.html>

<sup>323</sup> BTI (2020). Peru Country Report: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-PER-2020.html>

<sup>324</sup> Ibid.

<sup>325</sup> See the Constitution of Peru of 1993 with Amendments through 2009: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru\\_2009.pdf?lang=en](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru_2009.pdf?lang=en)



the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights noted that extractive industries' activities had an adverse impact on the health of the population in affected areas.<sup>326</sup> Since then, the government has implemented different policies, such as the creation of the National Service of Environmental Certification for Sustainable Investment (SENACE) in 2012, to provide a more impartial evaluation of environmental impact assessments. However, while the Ministry of Environment (MINAM) has been recently consolidated, stakeholders report that pressures for economic growth seem to favour the interest of extractive industries.<sup>327</sup> In 2018, the UN Human Rights Council expressed concern about the fact that environmental impact assessments on water, air and soil conditions are not always carried out, and that effective consultations on prior informed consent of indigenous peoples related to the exploitation of the natural resource in their territories are not common.<sup>328</sup> The strategic pillar *Clean Peru* and new environmental standards were adopted in 2017 but their effect has been limited so far. The UN and stakeholders report adverse effects of large-scale business operations on health and the environment – industrial pollution, pollution from the mining operations (e.g., through emissions and releases of mercury),<sup>329</sup> oil spills, water contamination,<sup>330</sup> deforestation in indigenous peoples' communities due to large scale agriculture.<sup>331</sup> In 2018 Peru signed but did not yet ratify the Escazú Agreement which deepens the link between environmental protection and human rights in Latin America and provides for the right to informed participation in the environmental approval process for investment projects and access to justice for people affected, among other guarantees.

### 2.3.2. Human Rights

#### **Administration of justice, including impunity and the rule of law**

The judiciary is perceived as highly impacted by corruption. Judicial reform has been on the political agenda since 2000, but only in 2018 the reform to replace the National Council of Judges, the body which selects and appoints judges, with a new National Board of Justice was approved.<sup>332</sup> The members of this new body are voted by the public and restricted to one five-year term. Constitutional guarantees of due process have been unevenly upheld. Equal access to justice has been difficult for indigenous peoples and persons of Afro-Peruvian descent as well as for people with low income. The UN and various stakeholders report that impunity for violence against environmental activists has been of concern over the years.<sup>333</sup>

#### **Freedom of association and assembly, including the right to form and join trade unions**

Peru ratified the ICESCR and the ILO Conventions pertaining to freedom of association, collective bargaining and the right to strike (Conventions No. 87 and No. 98). The freedom

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<sup>326</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2012). Concluding observations of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, UN. Doc, E/C.12/PER/CO/2-4.

<sup>327</sup> Plataforma Europa Perú Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>

<sup>328</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>329</sup> Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL)/Organización de Cooperación y Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE) (2017). Evaluaciones del desempeño ambiental: Perú, Santiago: [https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240\\_es.pdf](https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240_es.pdf)

<sup>330</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>331</sup> Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL)/ Organización de Cooperación y Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE), Evaluaciones del desempeño ambiental: Perú, Santiago, 2017: [https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240\\_es.pdf](https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240_es.pdf)

<sup>332</sup> BTI Peru Country Reports.

<sup>333</sup> Based on various Peru reports of the Freedom House, UN CERD (2017).



of assembly and association are provided for in Article 2, paragraphs 12 and 13 of the Peruvian Constitution.<sup>334</sup> The Law on Collective Labour Relations (2003) provides regulations on the trade union's rights in the private and public sector. The Civil Service Law No. 35007 (2016) establishes workers' rights in the public sector, replacing the Civil Service Law of 2013.

The UN reports that many social protests in Peru result in violent clashes with the police and the Armed Forces.<sup>335</sup> Violence against human rights defenders is common,<sup>336</sup> in particular in protests related to extractive industries, land rights, and resource allocation.<sup>337</sup> The state Ombudsman Office and the National Office of Dialogue and Sustainability (ONDS) have taken action that has facilitated a reduction in protest-related violence. The National Action Plan on Human Rights was adopted. It proposes the creation of a mechanism for the protection of human rights defenders by 2021.<sup>338</sup> However, environmental activists who discourage land development continue to face intimidation.<sup>339</sup>

Peruvian law recognizes the right of workers to organize and bargain collectively; strikes are also legal with advance notification to the Ministry of Labour (Articles 28 and 29 of the Constitution).<sup>340</sup> The Regulation on the Collective Work Relations Law defines conditions to issue a trade union license as well as the necessary criteria for declaring a strike. However, in practice, the Bertelsmann Foundation reports that the union activity is hampered by regulations that dilute certain labour rights, by large informal sector, and by high numbers of short-term contracts.<sup>341</sup> This is also reflected in the complaints submitted to the ILO.<sup>342</sup> The Plataforma Europa Perú filed a complaint to the European Commission noting multiple violations of freedom of association in Peru.<sup>343</sup> The platform TrabajoDigno.pe reported that the number of unionised workers in the non-traditional export regime decreased from 4.2% in 2008 to 3.3% in 2016, and the salaries of unionised workers were substantially higher than the salaries of non-unionised workers.<sup>344</sup> The UN Human Rights Council reports that only 6% of formal workers in the private sector and 13% of workers in the public sector

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<sup>334</sup> See the Constitution of Peru of 1993 with Amendments through 2009: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru\\_2009.pdf?lang=en](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru_2009.pdf?lang=en)

<sup>335</sup> United Nations General Assembly (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human rights and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its Mission to Peru. UN. Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>336</sup> Based on the 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019 EU Annual Reports on Human Rights and Democracy in the World of the European External Service Action: [https://eeas.europa.eu/headquarters/headquarters-homepage/8437/eu-annual-reports-human-rights-and-democracy\\_en](https://eeas.europa.eu/headquarters/headquarters-homepage/8437/eu-annual-reports-human-rights-and-democracy_en); Naciones Unidas (2020). Los defensores de los derechos humanos en Perú continúan en peligro, asegura relator, Noticias ONU, 3 Febrero 2020: <https://news.un.org/es/story/2020/02/1468992>

<sup>337</sup> European Parliamentary Research Service (2018), Trade agreement between the European Union and Colombia and Peru – European Implementation Assessment; Movimiento Ciudadano frente al Cambio Climático (2020). Perú figura en lista de países con defensores ambientales asesinados en 2019, Noticias Amazonía, 5 febrero 2020: <https://www.mocicc.org/amazonia/peru-figura-en-lista-de-paises-con-defensores-ambientales-asesinados-en-2019/>.

<sup>338</sup> United Nations General Assembly (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human rights and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its Mission to Peru. UN. Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>339</sup> Based on the information in various report on Peru by the Freedom House and the Bertelsmann Foundation; FDCL (2018). Cinco Años del Tratado de Libre Comercio de la Unión Europea con Colombia y Perú. Available at: <https://www.fdcl.org/publication/2018-10-01-cinco-anos-del-tratado-de-libre-comercio-de-la-union-europea-con-colombia-y-peru/>.

<sup>340</sup> See the Constitution of Peru of 1993 with Amendments through 2009: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru\\_2009.pdf?lang=en](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru_2009.pdf?lang=en)

<sup>341</sup> BTI (2020).

<sup>342</sup> See ILO profile for Peru: [https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11110:0::NO:11110:P11110\\_COUNTRY\\_ID:102805](https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11110:0::NO:11110:P11110_COUNTRY_ID:102805)

<sup>343</sup> Plataforma Europa Perú Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>

<sup>344</sup> TrabajoDigno.pe portal (12 June 2017) ` Claves para entender el debate sobre el régimen laboral de las Exportaciones No Tradicionales cuando el objetivo es impedir la sindicalización: <http://trabajodigno.pe/claves-para-entender-el-debate-sobre-el-regimen-laboral-de-las-exportaciones-no-tradicionales-cuando-el-objetivo-es-impedir-la-sindicalizacion/>

were unionised in 2018.<sup>345</sup> The highest number of trade union members are registered in such sectors as construction, mining, fisheries, and the manufacturing industry.<sup>346</sup>

### **Freedom of expression**

The freedom of expression is guaranteed under Article 2(4) of the Constitution. However, harassment, intimidation and violence against journalists as well a rigid application of libel laws and self-censorship occur. Offences against journalists are reported to be more frequent at the local level.<sup>347</sup>

### **Freedom of religion**

The Peruvian constitution guarantees the freedom of religion and belief (Art. 2(3)), and these rights are generally respected.<sup>348</sup>

### **Right to work and right to just and favourable conditions of work**

The right to work is provided for in Article 2(15) of the Constitution: “every person has the right to work freely; in accordance with the law”. The right to just and favourable conditions is guaranteed under Articles 24, 25, 26 and 27 of the Constitution that cover adequate and fair compensation for the work done; provisions on the regulation of minimum wages in consultation with representative organisations of workers; non-discrimination at work; maximum working hours per week (48 hours); right to weekly and annual paid vacations; and protection against unfair dismissal. While national labour law in Peru is rather comprehensive,<sup>349</sup> it is characterised as highly fragmented with almost 40 different labour regulations applying to different types of work.<sup>350</sup> The labour market participation rate in Peru has decreased slightly from 73.8% in 2007 to 72.4% in 2019. The unemployment rate has fluctuated over the evaluation period - it was recorded at 6.3% in 2007 and at 4.4% in 2018. For 2020, due to COVID-19, unemployment has increased to 9.6%. Informal employment is high and has been recorded at 68.4% in 2019, affecting in particular workers in small companies<sup>351</sup> and workers in rural areas and agricultural sectors (Maldonado Mujica 2020). The government established the Social Protection Commission in 2017 in efforts to decrease informality, but its work has not yet brought tangible results. In agriculture, even formal employment has been impacted by the national legislation that allows short-term and seasonal labour contracts in the sector which may be renewed unlimited number of times.<sup>352</sup> Public policy institutions in Peru are characterised as weak in the implementation of public policy.<sup>353</sup> In addition, the Ministry of Labour and its National Superintendency of Labour Inspection (SUNAFIL) continue to have inadequate resources

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<sup>345</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>346</sup> See social analysis for more statistical data.

<sup>347</sup> Based on the Freedom House annual reports on Peru and the BTI biennial reports on Peru.

<sup>348</sup> Ibid.

<sup>349</sup> OECD (2020). Responsible Business Conduct Policy Reviews: Peru: <https://mneguidelines.oecd.org/OECD-Responsible-Business-Conduct-Policy-Review-Peru.pdf>

<sup>350</sup> Orbie, J. & L. Van den Putte (2016). Labour Rights in Peru and the EU Trade Agreement: Compliance with the Commitments under the Sustainable Development Chapter, OFSE Working Paper, No. 58, Austrian Foundation for Development Research (OFSE), Vienna: <https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/145974/1/866273727.pdf>

<sup>351</sup> International Labour Organization (2019). ILOSTAT – Country profiles – Peru: <https://ilostat.ilo.org/data/country-profiles/>

<sup>352</sup> Plataforma Europa Perú Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>

<sup>353</sup> OECD (2016). Public Governance Reform, Peru, Highlights: <https://www.oecd.org/gov/public-governance-review-peru-highlights-en.pdf> and Public Policies and weak institutions: the case of compulsory sterilisation in Peru, Achic Lema, Rostra publication: [Rostra Economica – Public Policies and Weak Institutions: The Case of Compulsory Sterilization in Peru](https://rostraeconomica.org/public-policies-and-weak-institutions-the-case-of-compulsory-sterilization-in-peru)

to enforce workers' rights.<sup>354</sup> The SUNAFIL is also criticised for its lack of independence from the government and from the companies as well as its limited sanctioning power which led to weakening of labour inspections in the country (Orbie and Van den Putte 2016). The U.S. Department of State notes that wage laws, occupations safety and health standards are not effectively enforced.<sup>355</sup> The Plataforma Europa Perú filed a complaint to the European Commission noting multiple violations of labour rights in Peru, the lack of enforcement of the right to just and favourable conditions of work.<sup>356</sup>

### **Prohibition of all forms of slavery (forced or compulsory labour, including child labour)**

Peru ratified the ILO Conventions on forced labour (Conventions No. 29 and No.105) and child labour (Conventions No. 138 and 182) as well as the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (Convention No. 169) which provides in its Article 112 that 'the exaction from members of the peoples concerned of compulsory personal services in any form, whether paid or unpaid, shall be prohibited and punishable by law, except in cases prescribed by law for all citizens'. Peru also ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Article 6(1)), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Article 8), the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (Article 11), the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Article 27(2)), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 32 and 34), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Article 11), the American Convention on Human Rights (Article 6), the Trafficking (Palermo) Protocol and the Smuggling Protocol. Since 2017, the Penal Code of Peru criminalises forced labour (Article 168-B) and establishes fines and imprisonment for violations of prohibitions on forced labour and trafficking. At the policy level, Peru adopted the 2013-2017 National Plan to Combat Forced Labour which aimed to eradicate forced labour and to ensure comprehensive support system for rescued victims and to approve the intersectoral protocol against forced labour.<sup>357</sup> However, due to insufficient funding the National Plan was not fully implemented. In 2012 the National Labour Inspection Superintendence (SUNAFIL) under the Ministry of Labour and Employment Promotion was set up, but its effectiveness has been limited due to underfunding, lack of independence from the government, lack of independence from companies, limited sanctioning power and lack of authority (Orbie and Van den Putte 2016). In 2019, the 2019-2022 National Plan of Action for the Eradication of Forced Labour and the 2019-2022 National Plan to Combat Trafficking in Persons were adopted. The Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations approved a guide for the reintegration of victims of human trafficking.<sup>358</sup> On **child labour**, the Child and Adolescent Code of Peru prohibits forced labour, economically exploitative labour, prostitution, and trafficking in children, adolescents, and establishes fines and imprisonments for violations. At the policy level, the 2012-2021 National Strategy to Prevent and Eradicate Child Labour was adopted in 2012 which sets out various measures aimed at eradication of child labour. Under the Semilla Project, the Ministry of Labour created the Child Labour Free Seal which recognises products and services of companies whose operations are free from child labour.<sup>359</sup> Peru joined the Alliance 8.7 to

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<sup>354</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>355</sup> United States Department of State, Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor (2020). Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 2019 – Peru: <https://www.state.gov/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/PERU-2019-HUMAN-RIGHTS-REPORT.pdf>

<sup>356</sup> Plataforma Europa Perú Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>

<sup>357</sup> European Parliamentary Research Service (2018). Trade Agreement between the European Union and Colombia and Peru, European Implementation Assessment.

<sup>358</sup> U.S. Department of State (2020). Trafficking in Persons Report: Peru: <https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-trafficking-in-persons-report/peru/>

<sup>359</sup> U.S. Department of Labour (2019). Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour: Peru: <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/ilab/resources/reports/child-labor/peru>

work towards the SDG 8.7 to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour.<sup>360</sup>

According to the Global Slavery Index 2018, approximately 80,000 persons are estimated to be living in modern slavery.<sup>361</sup> Peruvian women and girls, particularly from the indigenous communities, continue to fall victim to sex trafficking. Men, women, and children are still subject to forced labour in mining and logging and in the informal economy.<sup>362</sup> Legislation and policies have been adopted to combat child labour and hazardous and abusive work.<sup>363</sup> However, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child is concerned about the extensive prevalence of child labour in the country.<sup>364</sup> The UN Human Rights Council reports that in 2018 26.1% of Peruvian children aged between 5 and 17 were engaged in economic activity, with 16.8% (1.25 million) of them being involved in hazardous work.<sup>365</sup> The Alliance 8.7 reports that child labour is more prevalent in rural areas than in urban areas (25.6% vs. 4.7% respectively).<sup>366</sup> Labour law enforcement agencies (SUNAFIL), lack sufficient inspectors to effectively combat child labour.

### **Right to social security**

The right to social security is recognised in Article 10 of the Constitution. Article 11 of the Constitution provides specific guarantees with respect to health benefits and pensions through public, private or joint agencies. Peru has a comprehensive hybrid welfare regime, but it does not reach all parts of the population, as deficiencies are pronounced especially in rural areas. The social safety net is also marked by a distinction between formal and informal sectors. The Humala administration has created an important infrastructure for social policy, and subsequent administrations appears to continue to support it. The creation of the Ministry of Development and Social Inclusion (MIDIS) is one of the major advances to address issues of inequality and poverty resulting from structural conditions of the country. Expansion of coverage of existing social security services has been progressing as well.<sup>367</sup> From 2005 to 2017 there has been an upward trend in social protections, from 28% to 79%, mainly resulting from greater access to health insurance (43.7% of workers) and a pension system (35% of workers). Rural areas have an increase in health insurance but not in pension coverage (Maldonado Mujica 2020). The Bertelsmann Foundation report on Peru states that around half of Peruvian economically active population is not affiliated with any pension system (BTI 2020).

### **Right to health**

Article 7 of the Constitution provides for the right to protection of one's health. Article 9 includes provisions on the regulation of the health system by the state with the aim to ensure equal access of everyone to health services. The Garcia administration reformed the health insurance system in 2009 by introducing the Universal Health Insurance (AUS) and the Essential Plan of Health Insurance (PEAS), making insurance obligatory and access to healthcare free. Insurance coverage has increased from 37% in 2004 to 83% in 2017, due to the expansion of the non-contributory comprehensive health insurance system (SIS). The government aims to reach universal coverage by 2021, but it is questionable if,

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<sup>360</sup> See website of the Alliance 8.7: [https://www.alliance87.org/pathfinder\\_countries/peru-2/](https://www.alliance87.org/pathfinder_countries/peru-2/)

<sup>361</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>362</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>363</sup> Ibid.

<sup>364</sup> UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (2015). Concluding observations on the combined fourth and fifth periodic reports of Peru, UN Doc. CRC/C/PER/CO/4-5.

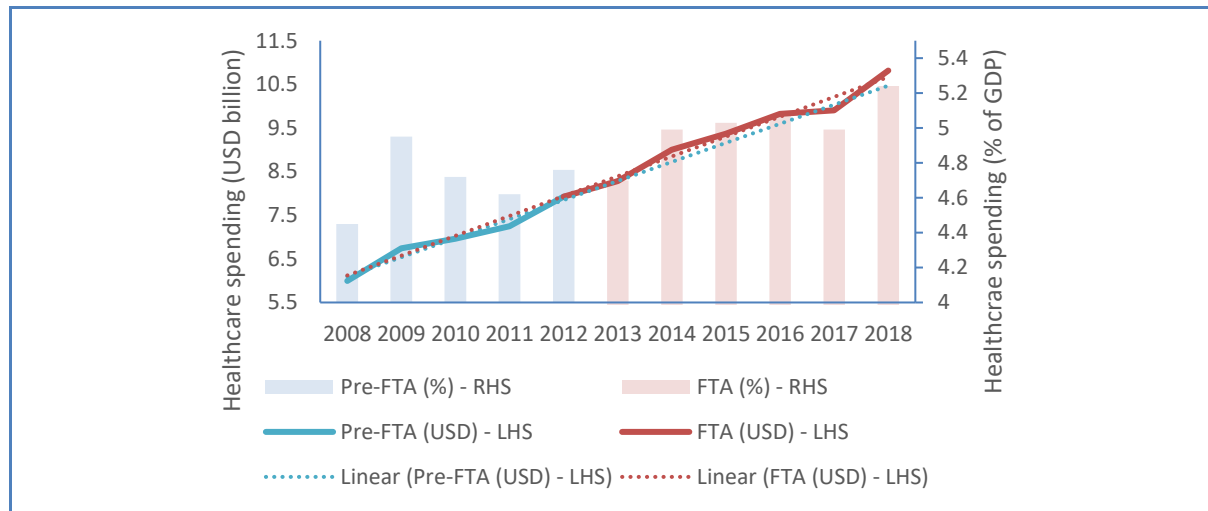
<sup>365</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>366</sup> See website of the Alliance 8.7: [https://www.alliance87.org/pathfinder\\_countries/peru-2/](https://www.alliance87.org/pathfinder_countries/peru-2/)

<sup>367</sup> BTI (2018). Peru Country Report: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-PER-2018.html>

with the low public expenditure, this goal can be achieved.<sup>368</sup> According to the World Bank data, Peru spent \$159/capita in 2007 and \$369/per capita in 2018.<sup>369</sup> Overall healthcare spending of Peru in the period from 2008 till 2018 increased (Figure E-6) but remains among the lowest in Latin America.<sup>370</sup>

**Figure E-6: Peruvian health care expenditures (% of GDP and USD)**



Source: based on the OECD data.

Various UN monitoring bodies report that there are prevailing disparities in the accessibility and quality of health care services which affects mainly people from low-income brackets, indigenous people, women, migrants and persons living in rural or remote areas.<sup>371</sup> Additionally, the UN Human Rights Council reports adverse effects of large-scale business operations on health and the environment – health emergencies related to industrial pollution, impact of mining operations on the health of adjacent communities (e.g., among others, through emissions and releases of mercury),<sup>372</sup> health impacts related to the oil and gas sector operations, including oil spills and water contamination.<sup>373</sup>

## Right to food

Peru is a party to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) which contains protection of this right under Article 11. The Constitution of Peru does not explicitly recognise the right to adequate food. However, implicit guarantees can be derived through broader human rights, e.g. the right to life. Article 2 of the Constitution states that everyone has the right “to life, identity, moral, mental and physical integrity and development and well-being”. Article 3 specifies the possibility of rights that are not explicitly included in the Constitution: “The enumeration of rights in this chapter does not exclude others that the Constitution guarantees, or others of similar nature or others based on the dignity of man”. Article 55 of the Constitution states: “The treaties established by the State form part of national law” which then suggests that because Peru has ratified

<sup>368</sup> Ibid.

<sup>369</sup> World Bank Data – Current health expenditure per capita -Peru: <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.XPD.CHEX.PC.CD?locations=PE>

<sup>370</sup> Minority Rights Group International (2020). World Directory of Minorities and Indigenous Peoples – Peru: <https://minorityrights.org/country/peru>

<sup>371</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (2018). Concluding observations on the combined twenty-second and twenty-third periodic reports of Peru, UN. Doc. CERD/C/PER/CO/22-23.

<sup>372</sup> Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL)/Organización de Cooperación y Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE) (2017). Evaluaciones del desempeño ambiental: Perú, Santiago: <https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240-es.pdf>

<sup>373</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.



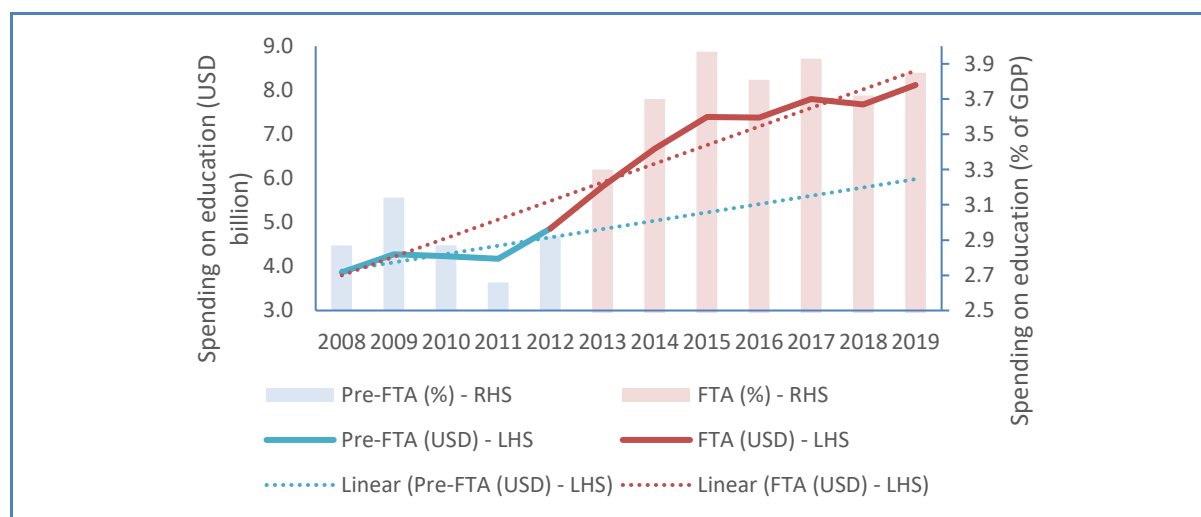
ICESCR, human rights not explicitly recognised by the Constitution still form part of the national law. Under national law, the General Health Law (Law No. 1163 (2011) on the right to adequate food and promoting food security) specifically addresses the right to healthy and sufficient food (Article 10).

The UN World Food Programme reports that hunger and poverty have decreased significantly in Peru in recent years. Chronic child malnutrition in 2019 was 13.1% (in 2008 it was at 28%). However, data varies over the regions and peaks at 33.4% in the rural areas of the Sierra and Amazon regions, particularly affecting indigenous communities.<sup>374</sup> The COVID-19 pandemic has aggravated the situation for the most affected groups.<sup>375</sup>

## Right to education

Articles 13-19 of the Constitution refer to the right to education. Constitution guarantees free education in public schools. Article 17 includes provisions on bilingual and intercultural education, in accordance with the particular characteristics of each area and sets out the duty of the state to preserve “diverse cultural and linguistic manifestations through the country”.<sup>376</sup> Education remains one of the most important issues in the public debate. Peru has raised spending on education from 2.7% of GDP in 2008 to about 3.8% of GDP in 2019 (Figure E-7).

**Figure E-7: Peruvian education expenditures (% of GDP and USD)**



Source: based on the OECD data.

Peru has broadened the reach of its secondary education which improved the school access and retention rates, especially for indigenous, rural and poor youth. However, the low quality of education in some areas remains an issue.<sup>377</sup> Dropouts levels are higher for rural and indigenous students. Peru's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) evaluation scores have improved by the largest margin of any Latin American country.<sup>378</sup>

<sup>374</sup> UN World Food Programme (2020). Peru: <https://www.wfp.org/countries/peru>

<sup>375</sup> UN World Food Programme (2020). Peru Country Brief, October 2020: <https://docs.wfp.org/api/documents/WFP-0000121243/download/?ga=2.96501981.356443666.1608669171-1299161679.1608669171>

<sup>376</sup> Article 17 of the Constitution of Peru of 1993 with Amendments through 2009: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru\\_2009.pdf?lang=en](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Peru_2009.pdf?lang=en)

<sup>377</sup> OECD Development Centre (2017). Youth well-being policy review of Peru. Assessment and recommendations: [https://www.oecd.org/countries/peru/PERU%20Assessment%20and%20recommendations\\_web.pdf](https://www.oecd.org/countries/peru/PERU%20Assessment%20and%20recommendations_web.pdf)

<sup>378</sup> Ibid.



In cooperation with the World Bank, the Basic Education Project was carried out in Peru to support and reform basic education in the country.<sup>379</sup>

### **Right to an adequate standard of living**

While poverty rates have significantly reduced from 37.3% in 2008 to 20.2% in 2019, poverty is still more pronounced in rural regions at 44%.<sup>380</sup> The most disadvantaged people are the rural poor, notably, women and children, but also indigenous peoples, Afro-Peruvian communities, members of households with over four persons as well as persons with low levels of education attainment.<sup>381</sup> The UN World Food Programme reports that while chronic child malnutrition is currently at 13.1%, rates still vary widely across the regions, reaching peaks of 33.4% in remote rural areas.<sup>382</sup> The government continues several social programs that are aimed at vulnerable segments of Peruvian society, such as the National Fund for Compensation and Social Development (FONCODES), which aims to reduce poverty by investing in economic and social infrastructure, and the conditional cash transfer program (Juntos).<sup>383</sup> Most persons with low income had health insurance in 2018 (83%, compared to 36.2% in 2007). The impact of the COVID-19 may affect poverty levels in Peru, with more people facing a risk of falling into poverty.

### **Right to water**

Peru ratified the ICESCR which recognises the right to water under Article 11 of the Covenant, the scope and content of the right is clarified in the CESCR General Comment No. 15. The Constitution of Peru does not contain explicit provisions on the right to water. The 2009 Law on water resources and the National Water Resource Management System regulate water issues in the country. Next to that, the 2015-2035 National Water Resources Plan has been adopted to regulate the growing demand for water in Peru, it calls to increase the crop area under mechanized irrigation from 2% (in 2017) to 24% in 2035. The environmental quality standards introduced in 2010 have helped to improve water quality, which is reflected in a decrease of diarrhea illnesses in children under five years. Some shortfalls exist in the water infrastructure related to water quality.<sup>384</sup> The main issues named by the OECD study with respect to water quality and the impact of water pollution on the health of the population refer to improperly treated domestic wastewater, untreated dumping from informal mining activities, the use of untreated water for irrigation, the use of agrochemicals in intensive agriculture and high level of incompliance with the environmental standards that pollute adjacent rivers. Additionally, the report notes that there has been no assessment of water quality monitoring.<sup>385</sup> A large proportion of the population has no access to safe drinking water and sanitation services.<sup>386</sup> Urban wastewater in nine out of 24 regions is not being treated. In many regions of Peru water security is under threat from the growing demand for water.<sup>387</sup>

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<sup>379</sup> The World Bank (2019). Improving Basic Education in Peru: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/results/2019/05/13/improving-basic-education-in-peru>

<sup>380</sup> World Bank data, at: <https://data.worldbank.org/country/PE>

<sup>381</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>382</sup> UN World Food Programme, at: <https://www.wfp.org/countries/peru>

<sup>383</sup> Ibid.

<sup>384</sup> Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL)/Organización de Cooperación y Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE) (2017). Evaluaciones del desempeño ambiental: Perú, Santiago: [https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240\\_es.pdf](https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240_es.pdf)

<sup>385</sup> Ibid.

<sup>386</sup> According to the ourworldindata.org, the number of people without access to safe drinking water in Peru in 2015 was 15.6 million people, based on data from WHO and WASH: <https://ourworldindata.org/water-access>

<sup>387</sup> Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL)/Organización de Cooperación y Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE) (2017). Evaluaciones del desempeño ambiental: Perú, Santiago: [https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240\\_es.pdf](https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240_es.pdf)

### 2.3.3. Vulnerable population groups

#### Indigenous peoples and Afro-Peruvian populations

According to the 2007 Census, there were more than four million Indigenous persons in Peru. The largest group, comprising of 83.1% of the indigenous populations resides in the highland Quechua, 10,9% identify themselves as Aymara, 1.7% - as Ashaninka and 4.3% belong to other Amazonian indigenous peoples. But this list of indigenous peoples is not complete as the Database of Indigenous or Original Peoples states that there are 55 indigenous peoples in the country.<sup>388</sup> In 2017, the number of people who identified themselves as Quechuan grew to around five million people, comprising 22.3% of the Peruvian population.<sup>389</sup> Indigenous peoples often live in areas rich with natural resources such as oil and gas, or in rich mining areas.

Peru has ratified the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (Convention No. 169) and supported the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People. The main issue for many indigenous communities remains the inadequate level of consultation in extractive projects.<sup>390</sup> While the 2011 Law of Prior Consultation attempted to improve participation and consultation efforts, the results have not been sufficient. Various UN monitoring bodies report that the right of indigenous peoples to prior consultation with a view of obtaining their free, prior and informed consent is not applied in line with the legislative requirements. There is no effective mechanism for the protection of indigenous people's rights to their land, territories, and resources.<sup>391</sup> There continues to be a lack of access to necessary water and sanitation facilities for indigenous peoples affected by resource extraction projects. The National Ombudsman's Office and the Ministry of Culture have launched several initiatives to tackle issues faced by the indigenous peoples and the Afro-Peruvian population, but structural racial discrimination remains common, which is reflected especially in the difficulties they encounter to access employment, education, and quality health services.<sup>392</sup> Only 43.5% of indigenous peoples and Afro-Peruvian populations worked in adequate employment in 2018 (INEI, 2019).

#### Children

Peru ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child and all the Optional Protocols to the Convention. The Constitution of Peru contains provisions on special social protection of children and adolescents (Article 4). The Civil Code, the Children and Young Persons Code, the General Law on Labour Inspection, and a Decree on the impacts of hazardous work and night work on health of teenagers also regulate working activities of children. The minimum age for admission to work has been established at 14 years and for certain sectors, it is at 15-18 years of age.

A number of children in Peru engage in the worst forms of child labour, including in mining and commercial sexual exploitations. In its 2012 Concluding observations of Peru, the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, stated that it is concerned that child

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<sup>388</sup> International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs (2020), The Indigenous World 2020: [http://iwgia.org/images/yearbook/2020/IWGIA\\_The\\_Indigenous\\_World\\_2020.pdf](http://iwgia.org/images/yearbook/2020/IWGIA_The_Indigenous_World_2020.pdf)

<sup>389</sup> Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Informática (2018), Perú: Perfil Sociodemográfico: [https://www.inei.gob.pe/media/MenuRecursivo/publicaciones\\_digitales/Est/Lib1539/libro.pdf](https://www.inei.gob.pe/media/MenuRecursivo/publicaciones_digitales/Est/Lib1539/libro.pdf)

<sup>390</sup> UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2014). Concluding observations on the combined seventh and eighth reports of Peru, UN Doc. CEDAW/C/PER/CO/7-8; UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2018). Concluding observations on the combined twenty-second and twenty-third periodic reports of Peru, UN Doc. CERD/C/PER/CO/22-23; UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>391</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (2018). Concluding observations on the combined twenty-second and twenty-third periodic reports of Peru, UN Doc. CERD/C/PER/CO/22-23.

<sup>392</sup> World Directory of Minorities and Indigenous People (2020).

labour remains extensive and that they are exposed to dangerous and/or degrading work.<sup>393</sup> The 2018 Report of the Human Rights Council states that 26% of Peruvian children aged between 15 and 17 worked and 16.8% of children were involved in hazardous work, in particular in agriculture, fishing and mining.<sup>394</sup> While statistical analysis shows that a big share of working children are involved in economic activities of their family or community, most indigenous children work for others, on plantations, in mining or in domestic service.<sup>395</sup> Child sex tourism also remains an issue, even in light of measures taken to address it, such as the introduction of the criminal offence of child sex tourism.<sup>396</sup> Peru has made advancements to eliminate the worst forms of child labour, such as modifying the Penal Code to strengthen penalties for the sexual exploitation of women and minors,<sup>397</sup> adopting the 2017-2021 National Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons, the 2013-2017 and the 2019-2020 National Plans to Combat Forced Labour<sup>398</sup> and the 2012-2012 National Plan of Action for Children and Adolescents to tackle child trafficking and sexual exploitation, but there exists concern that there are limited resources allocated for their implementation. In addition, labour law enforcement agencies in Peru still lack sufficient inspectors and training to adequately address this issue.<sup>399</sup> The 2019 report of the ILO Committee of Experts recorded 460 inspection notices regarding minimum age and 34 infringement cases related to child labour.<sup>400</sup>

## Women

Peru ratified the ICESCR, the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) as well as the Optional Protocol to the CEDAW. Next to that, Peru ratified the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women (Belem do Para Convention). Article 2 of the Peruvian Constitution contains provisions that guarantee non-discrimination based on gender. Article 191 of the Constitution mentions an obligation to facilitate female representation in regional and municipal councils.

Gender-based violence is widespread in Peru, with more than half of the Peruvian women reporting an instance of physical, sexual, or emotional abuse (Freedom House 2020). Femicide cases have also increased, in 2018 there were 123 cases of femicide reported, which is a 21% increase over the previous year (BTI 2020). Steps were taken to address violence against women and promote equality between women and men. In 2015, Act No. 30364 on the prevention, punishment and eradication of violence against women and members of the family was adopted. In 2016, the National Plan against gender-based violence was introduced. In 2018, Act No. 30819 was adopted that amended the Criminal Code and the Code on Children and Adolescents in order to strengthen the protection afforded under criminal law in relation to violence against women. In the same year, the

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<sup>393</sup> United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2012). Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under articles 16 and 17 of the Covenant, Concluding observations of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. UN. Doc. E/C.12/PER/CO/2-4.

<sup>394</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human rights and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.

<sup>395</sup> See social analysis for statistical data.

<sup>396</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (2016). Concluding observations on the report submitted by Peru under article 12(1) of the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, UN. Doc, CRC/C/OPSC/PER/CO/1.

<sup>397</sup> U.S. Department of Labor, Bureaus of International Labor Affairs (2019).

<sup>398</sup> United States Department of State, Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor (2020).

<sup>399</sup> U.S. Department of Labor, Bureaus of International Labor Affairs (2019). Child Labor and Forced Labor Reports: <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/ilab/resources/reports/child-labor/peru>

<sup>400</sup> CEACR (2019). Comments adopted by the CEACR: Peru: [https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:13202:0::NO::P13202\\_COUNTRY\\_ID:102805](https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:13202:0::NO::P13202_COUNTRY_ID:102805)

Joint Action Plan to Prevent Violence against Women was adopted too. Nonetheless, violence against women and girls has persisted over the period from 2008 to 2019.<sup>401</sup>

Based on a series of the annual Global Gender Gap reports of the World Economic Forum, it can be seen that while progress has been made, women still remain underrepresented in decision making position in the public sector.<sup>402</sup> In August 2019, a new law was signed which required 40% of congressional candidates to be female by 2021, 45% by 2026, and 50% by 2031.<sup>403</sup> Women continue to have limited access regarding sexual reproduction health, such as limited access to abortions and emergency contraception pills. The score on health and survival of women within the Global Gender Gap Index has improved since 2008 but remains low in 2019.<sup>404</sup> The 2020 Global Gender Gap Report for Peru states that with respect to labour participation, the country is only halfway in its journey to achieving gender parity.<sup>405</sup> Indigenous women in Peru are affected by multiple forms of discrimination which contributes to structural disadvantages in employment, health, and education.<sup>406</sup>

## Refugees and migrants

Peru ratified the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMW) and the Refugee Convention and its Protocol. Next to that, Peru is a member of the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) and has formally accepted the Constitution of the IOM by Law No. 17559 (1969). There are several legal instruments adopted in Peru that matter for the protection of the rights of the migrants, e.g. Law No. 30103 (2013) on establishing the residency procedure for foreign nationals in an irregular situation; Law No. 30001 (2013) on the economic and social reintegration of returned migrants, Law No. 28950 (2007) on trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants, Law No. 1350 on migration. Additionally, migrants' rights are covered in several policy instruments like the 2018-2021 National Human Rights Plan, the General migration policy guidelines and others. The majority of irregular migrants arriving in Peru are nationals of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.<sup>407</sup> The Peruvian government passed a resolution in 2019, requiring all Venezuelans migrants to apply for a humanitarian visa before entry.<sup>408</sup> More than 1 million Venezuelans live in Peru of which 500,000 are seeking asylum.<sup>409</sup> In addition, around 486,000 hold a year-long temporary residence permit which allows them to work, enrol their children in school, and ensures access health care.<sup>410</sup> Nonetheless, many Venezuelans still have difficulty in gaining access to basic services, especially health services and education.<sup>411</sup> Complex regulations for recognition of professional qualifications allow only 7.6% of migrants to work in their original jobs. A large proportion of migrants face difficulties in finding formal employment and, as a result,

<sup>401</sup> See UN Committee on Civil and Political Rights (2013). Concluding observations on the fifth periodic report of Peru, UN Doc. CCPR/C/PER/CO/5 and UN Committee against Torture (2018). Concluding observations on the seventh periodic report of Peru, UN Doc. CAT/C/PER/CO/7.

<sup>402</sup> Global Gender Gap Reports 2008-2020.

<sup>403</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020).

<sup>404</sup> World Economic Forum (2020). Global Gender Gap Report 2020: [http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF\\_GGGR\\_2020.pdf](http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf)

<sup>405</sup> Ibid.

<sup>406</sup> ILO (2016). The Labour Situation of Indigenous Women in Peru: A Study, at: [https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms\\_546285.pdf](https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms_546285.pdf) ; UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2018). Concluding observations on the combined twenty-second and twenty-third periodic reports of Peru, UN Doc. CERD/C/PER/CO/22-23.

<sup>407</sup> UN Committee against Torture (2018). Concluding observations on the seventh periodic report of Peru, UN Doc. CAT/C/PER/CO/7.

<sup>408</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020).

<sup>409</sup> Based on data of the Response for Venezuelans Coordination Platform: <https://r4v.info/en/situations/platform/location/7416>

<sup>410</sup> UNHCR (2019). UNHCR scales up response as record number of Venezuelans arrive in Peru: <https://www.unhcr.org/news/press/2019/6/5d05310d4/unhcr-scales-response-record-number-venezuelans-arrive-peru.html?query=peru>

<sup>411</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (2018). Concluding observations on the combined twenty-second and twenty-third periodic reports of Peru, UN. Doc. CERD/C/PER/CO/22-23.

have to accept work in the informal sector with low levels of social protection and possible precarious working conditions with pay below the minimum wage.<sup>412</sup>

### Persons with disabilities

Peru ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the Inter-American Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities. The Constitution of Peru contains provisions on the special protection for persons with disabilities, their access to education and work (Articles 7, 16 and 23). The rights of people with disabilities are recognised under the General Law on Persons with Disabilities of 2012, and Peru has published a 10-year plan for the equalization of opportunities for people with disabilities (2009-2018).<sup>413</sup> In 2018, the legal capacity of people with disabilities was recognised after reforms were made to Peruvian law.<sup>414</sup> The Government in cooperation with the International Labour Organisation is promoting disability inclusive policies in the workplace through the Joint Program on Employment and Disability. However, discrimination remains, as many persons with disabilities are not yet able to exercise their political rights, and there is a lack of health care for persons with disabilities.<sup>415</sup> In the 2012 Consideration reports by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, it was mentioned that persons with disabilities faced discrimination in accessing employment and that only 1.4% of persons with disabilities were covered by social security programmes.<sup>416</sup> The ILO states that the unemployment rate for people with disabilities is three times higher than the average in the country.<sup>417</sup> The 2018 Report of the UN Human Rights Council notes that only 15% of the persons with disabilities in the country have an employment.<sup>418</sup>

### LGBTI persons

Article 2 of the Constitution of Peru implicitly recognises the rights of the LGBTI persons: "every person has the right to equality before the law. No person shall be discriminated against on the basis of origin, race, sex, language, religion, opinion, economic situation, or *any other distinguishing feature*" (italics added). Law No. 28.237 (2004) prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation, recognises sexual minorities as a protected group and allows individuals to submit complaints in cases of discrimination. While there is a growing acceptance of the LGBTI people in Peru, discrimination against LGBTI persons has remained widespread (BTI 2019). Same-sex civil union or marriages are illegal but in 2019 a judge ordered the civil registry to recognize marriage of a same-sex Peruvian couple who had wed in the United States. Lawmakers have introduced bills aimed at excluding the use of the concept of gender from domestic legislation (Human Rights Watch 2020).

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<sup>412</sup> See statistics in the social part of the analysis.

<sup>413</sup> Global Disability Rights Now!, Peru: <https://www.globaldisabilityrightsnow.org/peru>

<sup>414</sup> United Nations Human Rights, Office of the High Commissioner (2018). Peru: Milestone disability reforms lead the way for other States, says UN expert, at: <https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=23501&LangID=E>

<sup>415</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of stakeholders' submissions on Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/28/PER/3.

<sup>416</sup> UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2012). Concluding observations of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, UN Doc. E/C.12/PER/CO/2-4.

<sup>417</sup> International Labour Organization (2019). Hiring people with disabilities is good business – but it is also a matter of rights: <http://www.businessanddisability.org/news/hiring-people-with-disabilities-is-good-business-but-it-is-also-a-matter-of-rights/>

<sup>418</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human rights and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2.



### 3. Ecuador

#### 3.1. Human rights framework

The Constitution of Ecuador recognises a comprehensive list of human rights as interpreted in the international human rights treaties ratified by the state.<sup>419</sup> Ecuador ratified all core UN human rights conventions and all nine optional protocols (Table E-9). In the evaluation period from 2012 till 2019, Ecuador ratified the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a communications procedure (in 2018). As part of its reporting obligations, Ecuador regularly reports to the UN monitoring treaty bodies. Ecuador is one of the few states that does not have any overdue reports under the UN conventions it ratified.<sup>420</sup> The Constitution of Ecuador establishes in Article 11(3) that “the rights and guarantees set forth in the Constitution and in international instruments shall be directly and immediately enforced by and before any civil, administrative or judicial servant, either by virtue of their office or at the request of a party.” Additionally, Article 426 establishes that “judges, administrative authorities, and public servants shall directly apply constitutional standards and those provided for in international human rights instruments as long as the latter are more favourable than those set forth in the Constitution, although the parties do not invoke them expressly”.<sup>421</sup>

**Table E-9: Ratification status of core international human rights treaties by Ecuador**

Human Rights Treaty	Ratified or not
<b>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the ICCPR	✓
- Second Optional Protocol to the ICCPR	✓
<b>International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the ICESCR	✓
<b>Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CAT	✓
<b>International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CPED)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CEDAW	✓
<b>International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in the armed conflict	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRC on a communication procedure	✓
<b>International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMW)</b>	✓
<b>Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)</b>	✓
- Optional Protocol to the CRPD	✓

Source: OHCHR.

Ecuador has ratified all eight fundamental ILO Conventions that cover freedom of association, forced labour, discrimination and child labour. It has not ratified one out of four ILO governance conventions that refers to labour inspection in agriculture. It has ratified the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (No.169) (Table E-10). In the evaluation period from 2012 till 2019, Ecuador ratified the ILO Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189) and the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156).

<sup>419</sup> Title II of the 2008 Constitution of Ecuador.

<sup>420</sup> UN Treaty Body Database: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/\\_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/LateReporting.aspx](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/LateReporting.aspx)

<sup>421</sup> The Constitution of Ecuador of 2008: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Ecuador\\_2008.pdf](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Ecuador_2008.pdf)



**Table E-10: Ratification status of key ILO Conventions by Ecuador**

Convention	Ratified or not
C029 – Forced Labour Convention	✓
C087 – Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention	✓
C098 – Right to Organise and Collective bargaining Convention	✓
C100 – Equal Enumeration Convention	✓
C105 – Abolition of Forced Labour Convention	✓
C111 – Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention	✓
C138 – Minimum Age Convention	✓
C182 – Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention	✓
C081 – Labour Inspection Convention	✓
C122 – Employment Policy Convention	✓
C129 – Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention)	✗
C144 – Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention)	✓
C155 – Occupational Safety and Health Convention	✗
C169 – Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention	✓

Source: ILO.

Ecuador is also a party to the main human rights instruments of the inter-American system and recognises the competence of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights (see full list of ratifications of regional human rights treaties in Table E-3 in Annex E-2).

### 3.2. Overall screening of human rights-related indices

To illustrate general changes in human rights and human rights related issues over the evaluation period, the following relevant indices are reported: the Human Development Index of the UNDP, the Political Rights Index and the Civil Liberties Index of the Freedom House, the Corruption Perception Index of the Transparency International, the Gender Inequality index of the UNDP, the Social Progress Index (from 2011), and the Voice and Accountability, Political Stability, Government Effectiveness, Rule of Law Indices of the World Governance Indicators (Kaufmann, Kraay, and Mastruzzi 2010). Table E-11 presents an overview of all the scores for Ecuador over the period from 2012 until 2019, depending on the availability of the data. The indices use different methodologies in covering various human rights related issues. Some of the indices overlap or are intertwined, but that allows to look at the trends in human rights performance from different angles.

The *Human Development Index (HDI)* covers three dimensions of human development – long and healthy life, education and a decent standard of living.<sup>422</sup> Over the period from 2012 till 2019, Ecuador has experienced a small but steady increase in this index. The *Gender Inequality Index (GII)* also shows a modest improvement in the position of women in Ecuador in reproductive health, political participation and labour inclusion.<sup>423</sup> The *Political Rights Index* of the Freedom House shows a rather stable situation regarding political rights in the country (electoral freedoms, political participation and functioning of the government), while the *Civil Liberties Index* (freedom of expression and belief, associational and organisational rights, rule of law, personal autonomy and individual rights)<sup>424</sup> shows a decline in civil freedoms in 2016 and 2017, which is in particular attributed to the government's decision to order the closure of a major teachers' union as well as regulatory actions and legislation that threatened the sustainability of two graduate universities. In 2018, the rating improved due to reduced pressure on the media and civil society, as well as progress with anticorruption efforts under the new state administration.<sup>425</sup> The *Corruption Perception Index* of Transparency International shows

<sup>422</sup> See full methodological note on the Human Development Index at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi>

<sup>423</sup> See full methodological note on the Gender Inequality Index at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>

<sup>424</sup> See full methodological note on the Political Rights Index and the Civil Liberties Index at: <https://freedomhouse.org/reports/freedom-world/freedom-world-research-methodology>

<sup>425</sup> See Freedom House Ecuador Reports from 2017 to 2020: [www.freedomhouse.org](http://www.freedomhouse.org)

that corruption has been volatile between 2012 and 2019 but has improved slightly from the level of 2012. *The Social Progress Index* which covers such dimensions as basic human needs (water, basic medical care, nutrition, etc.), foundations of wellbeing (education, health, environmental quality, etc.) and opportunity (personal rights and freedoms, inclusiveness, etc.),<sup>426</sup> recorded a gradual improvement in several human rights captured within the score until 2018. *The Voice and Accountability Indicator* reflects upon a wide range of personal freedoms – freedom of press, democracy, freedom of association and assembly, electoral freedoms, etc.) and illustrates an improvement of these rights overall in the period from 2012 until 2019. *The Political Stability Indicator* covers the degree of violence in Ecuador, the score fluctuated from 27 to 45 over the period of 2012 and 2019. *The Government Effectiveness Indicator* reflects on the functioning of the government and quality of public services, in Ecuador it has fluctuated between 2012 and 2019. Finally, *the Rule of Law indicator* illustrates the situation with respect to crime, property rights, trafficking of people, among others. In Ecuador, law and order scores have been volatile over the period between 2012 and 2019 and indicate a steady improvement in the rule of law since 2016.<sup>427</sup>

**Table E-11: Key human rights indicators for Ecuador (2012 – 2019)**

Key indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Human Development Index	0.74	0.75	0.75	0.76	0.76	0.76	0.76	
Gender Inequality index	0.42	0.41	0.40	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.39	
Political Rights Index	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Civil Liberties Index	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3
Corruption Perception Index	32	35	33	32	31	32	34	38
Social Progress Index	70.6	71.5	71.7	72.5	73.2	73.6	74.4	75.6
Voice & Accountability Index	38.5	40.4	39.9	39.4	38.4	40.9	47.3	48.8
Political Stability Index	27.5	39.3	45.2	41.0	44.3	41.4	43.3	41.0
Government Effectiveness	37.9	36.0	35.6	38.5	37.5	39.9	42.8	37.0
Rule of Law	12.7	17.4	12.0	13.9	25.0	25.5	28.4	29.8

Source: own compilation based on UNDP Human Development reports, Freedom House reports, Transparency International reports, Social Progress scorecards and World Governance Indicators for Ecuador over the period of 2012-2019.

Following this high-level screening of relevant human rights-related indices, in the next section a concise baseline analysis of relevant human rights is presented, covering *inter alia* the pre-existing conditions of stress and vulnerabilities with respect to human rights in Ecuador before the provisional application of the Agreement as well as identifying relevant social and political developments that could have affected the human rights situation in the country.

### 3.3. Baseline analysis of relevant human rights/issues<sup>428</sup>

#### 3.3.1. Cross-cutting issues

##### **Non-discrimination**

Ecuador is party to various international human rights treaties that provide for the freedom from discrimination (the ICCPR, the ICESCR, the CEDAW, the CRC, the CRPD, the ICMW, etc.). Ecuador's Constitution promotes non-discrimination in general (Article 11(3), as well as with respect to specific population groups (e.g. Articles 19, 46, 48, 57), and aims to guarantee equality through representing minority groups. The UN Committee on Economic,

<sup>426</sup> See full methodological note at: [www.socialprogress.org/about-us](http://www.socialprogress.org/about-us)

<sup>427</sup> See full methodology at: <https://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/Home/Documents>.

<sup>428</sup> Human rights in the baseline analysis are drawn from the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, supplemented where relevant with references to the core UN human rights treaties and conventions, regional human rights treaties, and ILO Conventions.

Social and Cultural Rights, however, also expressed concern that there is no general law establishing a comprehensive list of prohibited grounds of discrimination.<sup>429</sup> Various UN Committees report that discrimination is common against such population groups as women, indigenous peoples, people of African descent, Montubio people, rural populations, migrants and LGBTI persons, and persons with disabilities.<sup>430</sup> Indigenous groups often are not included in decision making regarding their lands and resources.<sup>431</sup> Additionally, women's interests are not reflected in political decisions.<sup>432</sup>

## Corruption

Fluctuations in the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) indicate a minor improvement from 2012 to 2019. There have been measures taken to combat corruption and to encourage transparency, such as the National Public Integrity and Anti-Corruption Plan 2019-2023.<sup>433</sup> However, the CPI demonstrates the pervasiveness of corruption in Ecuador over the years which can also be mirrored in political decision making. The Freedom House states that while political choices are generally democratically accountable, business interests can undermine democratic accountability by encouraging corruption by elected officials.<sup>434</sup> In 2019 the UN Committee on Social, Economic and Social Rights expressed concern about the practice of extortion and sexual abuse as forms of corruption.<sup>435</sup>

## Environment, development, business and human rights

The right to a healthy environment is recognised under the Constitution of Ecuador: "the right of the population to live in a healthy and ecologically balanced environment that guarantees sustainability and the good way of living (sumac kawsay) is recognized" (Article 14). Climate change mitigation and adaptation measures have been adopted. Nevertheless, the increase in extractive activities announced under the prosperity plan could run counter to the State Party's commitment under the Paris Agreement.<sup>436</sup> Drilling for oil in protected areas and large-scale mining activities continue to take place in areas with high biodiversity over the period from 2012 till 2019. The 2019 Concluding Observations of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights expressed serious concern at the environmental impact of large-scale mining and other extractive activities that particularly affect rural Afro-descendent and indigenous communities (e.g. Montubio people, Tagaeri and Taromenane indigenous peoples) as well as the relaxation of the rules on extractive activities.<sup>437</sup> For example, the 2019 legislation regarding, the reform of the Executive Decree No. 2187 (2007) on the Zona Intangible Tagaeri Taromenane (ZITT), raises concerns of the stakeholders who state that the exemption of from the prohibition under Article 3 of the new legislation (exemption of the hydrocarbon drilling and production

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<sup>429</sup> UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>430</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4; UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2019). Concluding observations on the second and third periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CRPD/C/ECU/CO/2-3; UN Human Rights Council (2017). Report of the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights. Compilation on Ecuador, U Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/2.

<sup>431</sup> Freedom House (2019). Freedom in the World 2019. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2020>

<sup>432</sup> Ibid.

<sup>433</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>434</sup> Freedom House (2018). Freedom in the World 2018. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2018>

<sup>435</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4

<sup>436</sup> Ibid.

<sup>437</sup> Ibid.; El Universo (2020). Cuáles son los 5 desafíos de Ecuador para el medioambiente en 2020: <https://www.eluniverso.com/noticias/2020/01/17/nota/7694943/cuales-son-desafios-ecuador-medioambiente-2020>

platforms to carry out infrastructure works in the buffer zones provides)<sup>438</sup> is in violation of the Constitution of Ecuador.<sup>439</sup> Analysis of key environmental indicators in the environmental section show that Ecuador lost 4.3% of its tree coverage between 2001 and 2019 and 99.4% of that land was transformed into agricultural areas (for example for the production of palm oil).<sup>440</sup> Stakeholders report that in the agricultural sector, there has been an increase in the use of water resources and an increase in the use of chemical fertilisers that are polluting soil and water in the region (Daza et al. 2020). Sewage water treatment remains a major issue.<sup>441</sup>

### 3.3.2. Human rights

#### **Administration of justice, including impunity and the rule of law**

Corruption and political interference have played a big role in the functioning of Ecuador's judiciary.<sup>442</sup> The independence of the judiciary has improved. The Council of Citizen Participation was established which identified and subsequently removed Judiciary Council members who were involved in creating a system that favoured government interests. New Judiciary Council members have been appointed. Nonetheless, the legal framework exposes judges to political pressure, and undermines judicial independence. Human Rights Watch reports that from January to August 2019, 19 judges were removed for "inexcusable errors",<sup>443</sup> this practice was already noted by the UN Human Rights Council in 2016.<sup>444</sup> The Freedom House states that the judicial processes remain slow, and many people are held in pre-trial detention for longer than it is permitted by law.<sup>445</sup> While the number of public defenders has increased over the years, it remains inadequate.<sup>446</sup> Stakeholders report challenges with the access to justice for Afro-Ecuadorians and indigenous peoples.<sup>447</sup>

#### **Freedom of association and assembly, including the right to form and join trade unions**

The freedom of assembly and association are guaranteed by the Constitution (Article 66(12)). Ecuador also ratified the ICESCR and the ILO Conventions pertaining to freedom of association, collective bargaining and the right to strike (Conventions No. 87 and No. 98). However, in practice, government restrictions have been common both under the Correa government (until 2017) and until recently under the Moreno government. In 2017 pardons were granted to a number of activists who had been charged for their participation in peaceful demonstrations from the previous administration.<sup>448</sup> The 2020 Bertelsmann Foundation country report on Ecuador notes a substantial transformation with respect to

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<sup>438</sup> Registro Oficial No. 506 – Suplemento, 11 June 2019: <https://www.derechoecuador.com/registro-oficial/2019/06/registro-oficial-no506--martes-11-de-junio-de-2019-suplemento>

<sup>439</sup> Based on the stakeholder consultations within this project.

<sup>440</sup> See also environmental section of the analysis.

<sup>441</sup> El Universo (2020). Cuáles son los 5 desafíos de Ecuador para el medioambiente en 2020: <https://www.eluniverso.com/noticias/2020/01/17/nota/7694943/cuales-son-desafios-ecuador-medioambiente-2020>

<sup>442</sup> United Nations Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador. Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, UN Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>443</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#>

<sup>444</sup> United Nations Human Rights Committee (2016). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Ecuador, UN Doc. CCPR/C/ECU/CO/6.

<sup>445</sup> Freedom House (2019). Freedom in the World 2019. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2020>

<sup>446</sup> Freedom House (2018). Freedom in the World 2018. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2018>

<sup>447</sup> United Nations Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador. Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, UN Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>448</sup> Ibid.

these rights that 'fostered a climate of open debate'.<sup>449</sup> The Freedom House reports that strict requirements for starting NGOs have been rescinded but the government retains excessive regulatory power over the actions of the NGOs.<sup>450</sup> <sup>451</sup> The International Trade Union Confederation reports the use of violence by riot police in response to protestors.<sup>452</sup>

Ecuadorian law recognizes the right of workers to organize and bargain collectively and the right to strike is also guaranteed (Article 326 of the Constitution of Ecuador). However, the Bertelsmann Foundation reports that there is concern about the lack of ease in joining trade unions, and the allegations of intimidation and persecution of people exercising their trade union rights.<sup>453</sup> Since 2016, the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) Global Rights Index for Ecuador has dropped from 3 (regular violations of rights) to 5 (no guarantee of rights).<sup>454</sup> The Freedom House states that private sector labour unions have the right to strike, though the Labour Code limits public sector strikes.<sup>455</sup> The large amount of people working in the informal sector mean that only a small portion of the workforce is unionized.<sup>456</sup> The UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights noted that there was a lack of data on the enjoyment of trade union freedoms and allegations of intimidation and persecution of persons exercising trade union rights.<sup>457</sup> Instituto Latinoamericano de Investigaciones Sociales (ILDIS) notes that the Labour Code of Ecuador recognises unions by individual company only, not branch unions and require a minimum of 30 workers from a single employer to form a trade union (Article 443).<sup>458</sup> According to the data from the Ministry of Labour, only 2,969 out of 5,853 trade unions were active in 2017.<sup>459</sup> In the period from 2012 to 2019, there were 6 complaints submitted to the ILO regarding the freedom of association.<sup>460</sup>

## Freedom of expression

Ecuador ratified the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights which includes provisions that ensure the right to hold opinions without interference (Article 19) as well as other international human rights treaties that contain provisions pertaining to this right (e.g. the ICESCR, the CEDAW). At the regional level, Ecuador is party to the American Convention on Human Rights which enshrines the freedom of expression in Article 13. The freedom of expression is guaranteed under the Constitution (Articles 66(6), 39 and 45). Enjoyment of this right has noticeably improved following the introduction of the new government, led by Moreno in 2017.<sup>461</sup> While the press has been regulated and faced government restrictions under Moreno's predecessor, important steps have been made towards creating a more open reporting environment. Attacks on the press decreased by

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<sup>449</sup> Human Rights Watch (2019). Ecuador Country Report, at: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#6a43ba>

<sup>450</sup> Freedom House (2018). Freedom in the World 2018. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2018>

<sup>451</sup> Tegantai (2019). Pánico Económico, otra forma de criminalizar la protesta: <https://agenciaecologista.info/2019/04/25/comunicado-panico-economico-otra-forma-criminalizar-la-protesta/>

<sup>452</sup> International Trade Union Confederation (2019). Violent repression in Ecuador as workers resist IMF package: <https://www.ituc-csi.org/Ecuador-resists-Moreno-IMF-cutbacks>

<sup>453</sup> BTI (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-ECU.html>

<sup>454</sup> ITUC Global Index Reports 2014-2020.

<sup>455</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>456</sup> Freedom House (2019). Freedom in the World 2019. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2020>

<sup>457</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>458</sup> Código del Trabajo del Ecuador: <http://www.trabajo.gob.ec/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2012/11/C%C3%B3digo-de-Trabajo-PDF.pdf>

<sup>459</sup> El Comercio (2017). 2,969 sindicatos con baja representación: <https://www.elcomercio.com/actualidad/sindicatos-baja-representacion-ecuador-trabajadores.html>

<sup>460</sup> ILO country profile – Ecuador: [http://ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11110:0::NO::P11110\\_COUNTRY\\_ID:102616](http://ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11110:0::NO::P11110_COUNTRY_ID:102616)

<sup>461</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2019). Report of the Special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of the right to freedom of opinion and expression, UN Doc. A/HRC/41/35/Add.1.



52% in 2018<sup>462</sup> but journalists continue to report assaults by local authorities.<sup>463</sup> Individual freedom of expression is generally accepted, although crackdowns due to online posts have taken place.<sup>464</sup>

### **Freedom of religion**

The Constitution of Ecuador recognises the freedom of religion in Article 66(8). It has been generally respected in the period between 2012 and 2019.<sup>465</sup>

### **Right to work and right to just and favorable conditions of work**

The Constitution of Ecuador guarantees the right to work and the right to just and favourable conditions of work (Articles 325 and 326). Ecuador has made efforts to implement laws that promote employment, but some stakeholders report that the efforts to tackle youth unemployment are lacking.<sup>466</sup> In 2019 the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) expressed concern about the unemployment rate in the country and adverse effect of unemployment on the most disadvantaged population groups.<sup>467</sup> The labour participation rate has increased (from 61.7% in 2012 to 65.3% in 2019). The unemployment rate in Ecuador decreased slightly from 5% in 2007 to 3.8% in 2019 (INEC, 2018f), but youth unemployment remains high, reaching according to some sources 40% of total unemployment.<sup>468</sup> The share of the informal economy in Ecuador was 67% in 2018.<sup>469</sup> The UN CESCR points out that the informal economy is growing both in urban and rural areas and there is a large proportion of older persons working in the informal sector. Based on the number of accidents at work (which increased over the evaluation period), working conditions have not improved. The number of labour inspectors has decreased.<sup>470</sup> The ILO Committee of Experts noted that a large proportion of labour inspectors did not have a permanent contract. The UN and the Trade Union Association of Agricultural, Banana and Rural Workers (ASTAC) report that working conditions of the banana workers are extremely vulnerable as they are not working in safe and healthy conditions due to the excessive use of agrochemicals and toxins.<sup>471</sup> Next to that, ASTAC reports that according to the survey carried out among the workers, 68% of them lacked formal contracts and 82% of workers who had a contract did not receive a copy of it and did not know their rights. A majority of the workers did not receive a payslip and did not know how their salary was calculated. Working extra hours without paid holidays was reported as a common practice.<sup>472</sup>

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<sup>462</sup> EU annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World, 2018 Country Updates, Ecuador: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/complete\\_eu\\_country\\_updates\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_in\\_the\\_world\\_2018-29.05.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/complete_eu_country_updates_on_human_rights_and_democracy_in_the_world_2018-29.05.pdf)

<sup>463</sup> Ibid.

<sup>464</sup> Ibid.

<sup>465</sup> Freedom House reports on Ecuador 2020, 2019, 2018, 2017.

<sup>466</sup> Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>467</sup> UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>468</sup> Olmedo, P.M. (2018). El Empleo en el Ecuador – Una mirada a la situación y perspectivas para el mercado laboral actual, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung Ecuador publication: <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/quito/14525.pdf>

<sup>469</sup> K. Arias (2019). Empleo informal y Plataformas Digitales en el Ecuador: [https://www.cepal.org/sites/default/files/events/files/2.arias\\_k\\_presentacion.pdf](https://www.cepal.org/sites/default/files/events/files/2.arias_k_presentacion.pdf)

<sup>470</sup> See social analysis for statistical data.

<sup>471</sup> United Nations Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>472</sup> ASTAC (2019). Queja de las trabajadoras y los trabajadores bananeros por violación de derechos: <https://ecuador.fes.de/news-list/e/queja-de-las-trabajadoras-y-los-trabajadores-bananeros-por-violacion-de-derechos/>



## **Prohibition of all forms of slavery (forced or compulsory labour, including child labour)**

Ecuador ratified the ILO Conventions on forced labour (Conventions No. 29 and No. 105) and child labour (Conventions No. 138 and 182), as well as the ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (Convention No. 169) which provides in its Article 112 that “the exaction from members of the peoples concerned of compulsory personal services in any form, whether paid or unpaid, shall be prohibited and punishable by law, except in cases prescribed by law for all citizens”. Ecuador also ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Article 6(1)), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Article 8), the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (Article 11), the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Article 27(2)), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 32 and 34), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Article 11), the American Convention on Human Rights (Article 6), the Trafficking (Palermo) Protocol and the Smuggling Protocol. The Constitution prohibits forced labour, human trafficking and all forms of exploitation, including the use of children for illicit activities (Articles 46 & 66). The Criminal Code of Ecuador criminalises the exaction of forced labour or other forms of exploitation (Article 105) as well as sex and labour trafficking (Articles 91 & 92), prescribing penalties ranging from 10 to 13 years of imprisonment for forced labour and from 13 to 16 years for sex and labour trafficking.<sup>473</sup> The Inter-Institutional Action Protocol for the Comprehensive Care and Protection of Victim of Trafficking in Persons was put into effect. On child labour, the Childhood and Adolescence Code sets the minimum age for work at 15 years of age and the minimum age for hazardous work at 18. Resolution No. 16 (2008) prohibits children under the age of 18 from working in certain economic activities. The Labour Code authorises labour inspectors to conduct inspections. Policy framework includes various measures to combat forced labour, human trafficking and child labour: e.g. the Organic Act on human mobility the National Plan to Combat Trafficking in Persons, the 2012-2021 National Action Plan for Childhood and Adolescence, the 2017-2021 National Agenda for Intergenerational Equality, the 2017-2021 National Development Plan. The Unified System of Registration of Child Labour was upgraded.<sup>474</sup>

According to the Global Slavery Index 2018, approximately 39,000 persons in Ecuador are estimated to be living in modern slavery.<sup>475</sup> Human Rights Watch reports that state institutions omit to report and follow up on these issues.<sup>476</sup> Men, women, and children are sometimes subjected to forced labour and sex work in Ecuador; disproportionately affecting migrants, Afro-Ecuadorians and indigenous peoples.<sup>477</sup> The UN has expressed concern about forced labour in the Furukawa company case (Japanese company operating in the agriculture and livestock), in particular with respect to indigenous peoples and minors.<sup>478</sup> While the government has taken actions to address this problem, services to identify and support victims are inadequate and trafficking operations continue.<sup>479</sup> The National Institute of Statistics and Census reported over 1,200 cases of economic exploitation

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<sup>473</sup> Código Orgánico Integral Penal del Ecuador: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%20Documents/ECU/INT\\_CEDAW\\_ARL\\_ECU\\_18950\\_S.pdf](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%20Documents/ECU/INT_CEDAW_ARL_ECU_18950_S.pdf)

<sup>474</sup> U.S. Department of Labour, Bureau of International Labor Affairs, Child Labor and Forced Labor Reports – Ecuador: <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/ilab/resources/reports/child-labor/ecuador>

<sup>475</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>476</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#>

<sup>477</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2017). Concluding observations on the combined twenty-third and twenty-fourth periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CERD/C/ECU/CO/23-24.

<sup>478</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>479</sup> Freedom House (2018). Freedom in the World 2018. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2018>

against migrants from Venezuela.<sup>480</sup> It is difficult to estimate the real scale of child labour in Ecuador due to the lack of updated statistics, which also hampered the effectiveness of measures to combat child labour.<sup>481</sup> The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child recommend Ecuador in 2017 to intensify its efforts in combatting child labour in all sectors of economy and to establish programmes at the local and cantonal levels to implement the national strategy against child labour.<sup>482</sup>

### **Right to social security**

The right to social security is recognised in the Constitution of Ecuador (Article 34). The 2015 “Organic Act on Labour Justice and the Recognition of Work in the Home” recognised unpaid work in the home, establishing the right to social security for women. There are several social security schemes in the country and protection is largely guaranteed for the workers in formal employment. The UN report that many banana workers still have no access to social security and most female workers on banana plantations reportedly have neither social security nor insurance.<sup>483</sup> In 2019, the Trade Union Association of Agricultural, Banana and Rural Workers (ASTAC) filed a complaint that stated that only 49% of the workers were registered for social security.<sup>484</sup> Next to that, there have been a series of regressive measures that have reduced the contributions to the retirement fund of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute which makes the social security of older persons vulnerable.<sup>485</sup> The UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities reports that disability pension for persons with disabilities is not sufficient to cover basic expenses.<sup>486</sup>

### **Right to health**

The right to health is guaranteed under the Ecuadorian Constitution (Article 32). The 2012 UN Human Rights Council report noted high rates of malnutrition among rural indigenous communities and high incidence of maternal mortality as the main concerns with respect to health in Ecuador.<sup>487</sup> The 2017 UN Human Rights Council report states that malnutrition rate remains high among indigenous and Afro-Ecuadorian populations. Ecuador has made significant investments into the health care system, which has strengthened the right to health in Ecuador. Public spending on health and education has increased from 5-6% of the GDP in 2008 to 16% in 2018 (Figure E-8). Despite this encouraging picture, some challenges remain. For example, regarding inequalities in access to the healthcare system for different socio-economic groups. There is also unequal distribution of health resources across the country.<sup>488</sup>

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<sup>480</sup> Freedom House (2019). Freedom in the World 2019. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2020>

<sup>481</sup> BTI (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-ECU.html>

<sup>482</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (2017). Concluding observations on the combined fifth and sixth periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CRC/C/ECU/CO/4-5.

<sup>483</sup> United Nations Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders’ submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>484</sup> ASTAC (2019), Queja de las trabajadoras y los trabajadores bananeros por violación de derechos: <https://ecuador.fes.de/news-list/e/queja-de-las-trabajadoras-y-los-trabajadores-bananeros-por-violacion-de-derechos/>

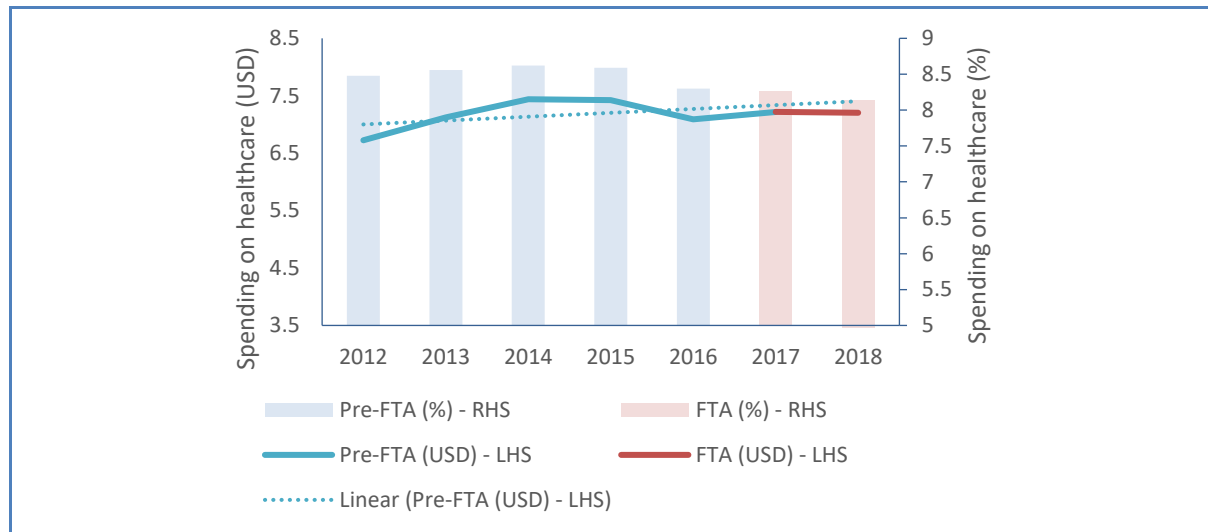
<sup>485</sup> United Nations Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders’ submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>486</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2019). Concluding observations on the combined second and third periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CRPD/C/ECU/CO/2-3.

<sup>487</sup> Human Rights Council (2012). Compilation prepared by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights in accordance with paragraph 5 of the annex to Human Rights Council resolution 16/21, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/13/ECU/2.

<sup>488</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

**Figure E-8: Ecuadorian healthcare expenditures (% of GDP and USD)**



Source: based on the OECD data

## Right to education

The right to education is guaranteed under the Constitution (Articles 26-28). There has been an increase in the access to and quality of education because of the progressive increase in investment and multi-year education policies, e.g. the 10-Year Education Plan 2016-2025 approved by the Ministry of Education which, among others, provides for easier access to the education system for women.<sup>489</sup> But persistent disparities between rural and urban areas also remain, and there are high dropout rates among low-income groups, indigenous peoples, Montubio people, Afro-Ecuadorian peoples and migrants.<sup>490</sup> The UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights notes that migrants continue to struggle to access the education system, and there are obstacles to accessing bilingual education.<sup>491</sup>

## Right to an adequate standard of living

Poverty has decreased between 2012 and 2019 (see also social analysis). Nevertheless, it remains a structural problem<sup>492</sup> and continues to be concentrated in rural areas, affecting women and indigenous peoples, as well as Afro-descendants and Montubios.<sup>493</sup> The impact of the COVID-19 may affect poverty levels in Ecuador, with more people facing the risk to fall into poverty. The implementation of public policies favouring large transnational corporations or powerful interest groups have resulted in forced evictions, largely for indigenous and rural people. This has curbed their access to land and right to food.<sup>494</sup> The UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women expressed concerns about the obstacles faced by rural women in obtaining formal recognition of their land rights.<sup>495</sup>

<sup>489</sup> United Nations Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>490</sup> United Nations Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (2017). Concluding Observations on the third periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. CMW/C/ECU/CO/3.

<sup>491</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>492</sup> BTI (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-ECU.html>

<sup>493</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>494</sup> Ibid.

<sup>495</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2015). Concluding observations on the combined eighth and ninth periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CEDAW/C/ECU/CO/8-9.

## Right to water

Ecuador ratified the ICESCR which recognises the right to water under Article 11 of the Covenant, the scope and the content of the right is clarified in the CESCR General Comment No. 15. The Constitution of Ecuador explicitly recognises the right to water as a human right (Article 3(1)): “The State’s prime duties are (1) Guaranteeing without any discrimination whatsoever the true possession of the rights set forth in the Constitution and in international instruments, especially the rights to education, health, food, social security and *water* for its inhabitants...” (emphasis added). Clean water is named as one of the components of the right to a decent life specified under Article 66(2). Article 318 of the Constitution prohibits any form of water privatisation and declares water management as the prerogative of the legal entities of the states or communities. Next to that, Ecuador is a party to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights which recognises the right to water (Article 11, CESCR General Comment No. 15).

A large proportion of the population has no access to safe drinking water and sanitation services.<sup>496</sup> Even though the statistics on the access to drinking water in Ecuador shows a trend of the increasing access to improved water sources, disparity in the access to water between rural and urban areas remains high. This indicates that the share of households without access to safe drinking water in the rural areas is almost 70% higher than in urban areas.<sup>497</sup> In its 2017 The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights notes that environmental impacts of mining and agribusiness activities affected the right to water of rural populations.<sup>498</sup> The environmental baseline analysis shows that the right to water of people from the communities adjacent to banana and palm oil plantations is under pressure due to pollution from pesticides and fertilisers used in these sectors.<sup>499</sup> Stakeholders report pollution in the rivers due to various economic activities and the pressure on water availability as well as issues with the purification systems, especially in small villages, that are not able to filter out the toxic substances from the water.<sup>500</sup>

### 3.3.3. Vulnerable populations groups

#### Indigenous peoples and Afro-descendant peoples

In 2011 there were 14 indigenous nationalities and Afro-descendant peoples in Ecuador – nearly 2 million people. In 2019 the indigenous population of Ecuador was close to 1.1 million.<sup>501</sup> Vast majority of the indigenous population are Kichwa (Quichua), and seven other groups are very small: Epera, Manta, A'I Cofan, Shiwar, Siekopai, Siona and Sapara.<sup>502</sup> Two peoples live in voluntary isolation within the borders of the Yasuní National Park in the Central North Amazon: the Tagaeti and Taromenane.<sup>503</sup> The 2008 Constitution of Ecuador defines the country as intercultural and multinational (Article 1). Ecuador ratified ILO Convention No. 169 in 1998 and voted in favour of the UN Declaration on the

<sup>496</sup> According to the ourworldindata.org, the number of people without access to safe drinking water in Ecuador in 2015 was 4.1 million people, based on data from WHO and WASH: <https://ourworldindata.org/water-access>

<sup>497</sup> See environmental analysis in the main report, Table 7-2.

<sup>498</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2017). Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Compilation on Ecuador, UN Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/2; United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>499</sup> See environmental section of the analysis.

<sup>500</sup> Acción Ecológica (2020). Cuando el mar entra al la Tierra. Producción camaronera en tierras atlas: <https://www.naturalezaconderechos.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/CUANDO-EL-MAR-ENTRA-A-LA-TIERRA2.pdf>

<sup>501</sup> International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs (2019). The Indigenous World 2019: <https://www.iwgia.org/en/ecuador/3397-iw2019-ecuador.html>

<sup>502</sup> Cultural Survival (2016). Observations on the State of Indigenous Human Rights in Ecuador, prepared for the UN Human Rights Council Periodic Review 2016: <https://www.culturalsurvival.org/sites/default/files/Ecuador%20UPR2016%20final.pdf>

<sup>503</sup> International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs (2011). The Indigenous World 2011: [https://www.iwgia.org/images/publications/0454\\_THE\\_INDIGENOUS\\_ORLD-2011\\_eb.pdf](https://www.iwgia.org/images/publications/0454_THE_INDIGENOUS_ORLD-2011_eb.pdf)

Rights of Indigenous Peoples in 2007. Indigenous peoples in Ecuador are in a vulnerable situation which is owing to the exploitation of natural resources in the territories they inhabit.<sup>504</sup> The Constitution of Ecuador prohibits the use of indigenous lands for private development without free, prior, informed consent (Articles 57 & 171). The Executive Decree No. 1247 (2012) requires the government to carry out consultations with indigenous peoples but does not require explicit consent.<sup>505</sup> In its 2019 Concluding Observations, the UN CESCR expressed concern about the widespread failure to respect the right of indigenous peoples and communities of African descent to prior consultation on decisions that may affect them and their ancestral lands.<sup>506</sup> In April 2019 the Pastaza court invalidated the Ecuadorian government's consultation with the Waorani people in 2012, and in September 2019, an appeals court in Pastaza Province ruled in favour on the Kichwa indigenous people's complaint that authorities disregarded their rights.<sup>507</sup> There is also concern for the safety of those human rights defenders protecting indigenous people's rights.<sup>508</sup>

Next to that, a significant proportion of indigenous people of African descent and Montubio people are reported as living below the poverty line.<sup>509</sup> Afro-Ecuadorians living in rural areas are very vulnerable and do not have access to good quality basic services or decent housing.<sup>510</sup> Minority Rights Group International reports that indigenous people still face challenges in accessing health care. There is a lack of available health centres in or near indigenous communities. Furthermore, there is an inadequate access to medication.<sup>511</sup>

## Children

Ecuador ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child and all the Optional Protocols to the Convention. The Constitution of Ecuador contains provisions on special protection of children and adolescents (Section 5 of the Constitution). Ecuador has been developing campaigns against ill-treatment of children. However, corporal punishment and domestic violence have remained common.<sup>512</sup> While efforts have been made to address gender-based violence, there is still a lot of concern about this, in particular sexual violence, harassment, and abuse against girls in all areas, as well as about the high level of impunity in these cases.<sup>513</sup> The 2017 Concluding Observations of the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child expressed concerns about the persisting barriers for children in accessing sexual and reproductive health care and services, the high rate of teenage pregnancy, often connected to sexual violence, practice of unsafe abortions and barriers to access abortion services, the high number of suicides among children from indigenous

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<sup>504</sup> United Nations Human Rights Committee (2016). Concluding observations on the sixth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. CCPR/C/ECU/CO/6.

<sup>505</sup> Decreto núm. 1247 que dicta el reglamento para la ejecución de la consulta previa libre e informada en los procesos de licitación y asignación de áreas y bloques hidrocarbúricos: <https://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/docs/ELECTRONIC/98181/116733/F1965072964/ECU98181.pdf>

<sup>506</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>507</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#>

<sup>508</sup> Amnesty International (2019). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.amnesty.org/en/countries/americas/ecuador/report-ecuador/> and United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>509</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/ECU/CO/4.

<sup>510</sup> Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>511</sup> Minority rights group international, World Directory of Minorities and Indigenous Peoples – Ecuador: <https://minorityrights.org/country/ecuador/>

<sup>512</sup> Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>513</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (2017). Concluding observations on the combined fifth and sixth periodic reports of Ecuador, UN. Doc. CRC/C/ECU/CO/5-6.



communities.<sup>514</sup> Next to that, stakeholders report that chronic malnutrition in children under 5 years is common, especially in rural areas where it has reached to 31% of the national level, and that high levels of chronic malnutrition exist mostly in regions with a high presence of the agricultural economic activities (Daza et al. 2020).

## Women

Ecuador ratified the ICESCR, the UN Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) as well as the Optional Protocol to the CEDAW. Next to that, Ecuador ratified the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women (Belém do Pará Convention). The Constitution recognises rights of women (Articles 35 and 71), as well as guarantees special protection to pregnant women (Article 43) and includes provisions on the obligation to promote equality in political participation (Article 65).<sup>515</sup> Ecuador adopted various legislative acts aimed at the protection of women's rights, e.g. Organisation Act on National Councils for Equality (2014), the Organisation Act on an Economy of Solidarity with the People (2011) which contains measures to reduce gender inequality at the workplace, the Comprehensive Organic Criminal Code (2014) which criminalises femicide, the Code of Democracy (2009) which requires gender parity in elections. Next to that, various policy instruments have been adopted, e.g. the National Agenda on Women and Gender Equality, the National Agenda on Equality for Human Mobility.<sup>516</sup> The government has taken steps to protect the rights of women, both through legal measures and through awareness campaigns.<sup>517</sup> Various organisations have noted that, although progress has been made, certain practices and laws continue to discriminate on basis of sex. The UNDPs Gender Inequality Index shows that the situation of Ecuadorian women is quite uneven when compared with bordering countries. Challenges remain with respect to the public participation of women at all levels in decision making, gender pay gap, violence against women, trafficking and exploitation (see section on forced labour).<sup>518</sup> Female households earn \$167 less on average than male headed households. Income inequalities are exacerbated in rural areas, where the income of heads of households is on average \$213 lower than those in urban areas.<sup>519</sup> Sexual harassment is now punishable by law with prison sentences, and femicide has become a crime. However, violence against women continues to be a serious problem in Ecuador.<sup>520</sup> Further improvements in terms of monitoring and inspection necessary to prevent discrimination against pregnant women.<sup>521</sup> Between 2014 and 2019, the government recorded 343 femicides, with women being killed for "being a woman".<sup>522</sup> A Friedrich Stiftung study on the employment in Ecuador also reports that labour standards for women in the rural areas are far more inferior to the labour standards for women in the urban areas.<sup>523</sup>

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<sup>514</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (2017). Concluding observations on the combined fifth and sixth periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CRC/C/ECU/CO/5-6.

<sup>515</sup> The Constitution of Ecuador of 2008: [https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Ecuador\\_2008.pdf](https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Ecuador_2008.pdf)

<sup>516</sup> United Nations, ECLAC and Cooperación Española (2017). Gender equality plans in Latin America and the Caribbean. Road maps for development: [https://www.cepal.org/sites/default/files/events/files/gender\\_equality\\_plans\\_in\\_latin\\_america\\_and\\_the\\_caribbean\\_road\\_maps\\_for\\_development.pdf](https://www.cepal.org/sites/default/files/events/files/gender_equality_plans_in_latin_america_and_the_caribbean_road_maps_for_development.pdf)

<sup>517</sup> Freedom House (2018). Freedom in the World 2018. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2018>

<sup>518</sup> United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2015). Concluding observations on the combined eighth and ninth periodic reports of Ecuador, UN Doc. CEDAW/C/ECU/CO/8-9.

<sup>519</sup> BTI (2020). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report-ECU.html>

<sup>520</sup> Freedom House (2018). Freedom in the World 2018. Ecuador: <https://freedomhouse.org/country/ecuador/freedom-world/2018>

<sup>521</sup> Human Rights Council (2017). Summary of other stakeholders' submissions on Ecuador, UN. Doc. A/HRC/WG.6/27/ECU/3.

<sup>522</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). World Report - Ecuador: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#>

<sup>523</sup> Olmedo, P.M. (2018). El Empleo en el Ecuador – Una mirada a la situación y perspectivas para el mercado laboral actual, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung Ecuador publication: <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/quito/14525.pdf>



## Refugees and migrants

Ecuador ratified the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICMW). Next to that, Ecuador is a member of the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) and in 2016 the government of Ecuador signed a cooperation agreement with the Technical Secretariat for International Cooperation (SETECI) which calls for cooperation to deliver commitments laid down in the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda with respect to the rights of refugees, displaced peoples and migrants, regardless of their migratory status.<sup>524</sup> Ecuador is the largest recipient of refugees in Latin America. Since 2016, 2.2 million (out of 5 million) Venezuelans have entered Ecuador. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees estimates that 400.000 of them are staying in Ecuador.<sup>525</sup> The 2017 Organic Act on Human Mobility secures the rights of refugees and asylum seekers and should help refugees claim resident status. After murder of a young pregnant woman by a Venezuelan man, the requirements for Venezuelan refugees seeking international protection in Ecuador have become stricter (e.g. obligatory certified background checks for criminal records).<sup>526</sup> There have also been registered xenophobic attacks against Venezuelans.<sup>527</sup>

## Persons with disabilities

Ecuador ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the Inter-American Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities. The Constitution of Ecuador recognises the rights of persons with disabilities as “rights of priority persons or groups” (Article 36). Section 6 of the Constitution specifies a list of rights persons with disabilities are entitled to. The disability-related public policies have been incorporated under the National Agenda for the Equality of Persons with Disabilities 2017-2021.

The UN Committee on Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) notes that legislation of Ecuador has not been harmonised with the provisions set out in the Convention. In particular, the CRPD finds that the law does not incorporate the prohibition of discrimination on the basis of disability in all areas of life and that there is no identification mechanism and punishment of the acts of discrimination against persons with disabilities. Next to that, the CRPD expressed concern about the persistence of stereotypes and harmful attitudes towards persons with disabilities, especially persons facing multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination. Finally, the Committee noted issues with access to health, education, work and employment for persons with disabilities.<sup>528</sup>

## LGBTI persons

The Constitution of Ecuador recognises the rights of LGBTI persons. Article 11(2) says that “no one shall be discriminated against for reasons of ... sexual orientation... All forms of discrimination are punishable by law”. Article 66(9) says “The right to freely take informed, voluntary, and responsible decisions on one's sexuality and one's sexual life and orientation. The State shall promote access to the necessary means so that these decisions take place in safe conditions.” The Constitution defines marriage as between a man and a

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<sup>524</sup> IOM (2016). IOM, Ecuador sign Agreement to protect rights of migrants under New Urban Agenda: <https://www.iom.int/news/iom-ecuador-sign-agreement-protect-rights-migrants-under-new-urban-agenda>

<sup>525</sup> UNHCR (2020). Ecuador fact sheet: <https://reporting.unhcr.org/node/2543?y=2014#year>

<sup>526</sup> Human Rights Watch (2020). Ecuador Country Report, <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#4694c7>

<sup>527</sup> Amnesty International (2019). Country Report Ecuador: <https://www.amnesty.org/en/countries/americas/ecuador/report-ecuador/>; The World Bank (2020). Challenges and Opportunities of Venezuelan and Migration in Ecuador. Available at: <https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents-reports/documentdetail/662681592905703335/challenges-and-opportunities-of-venezuelan-migration-in-ecuador>

<sup>528</sup> United Nations Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2019). Concluding observations on the combined second and third periodic reports of Ecuador, UN. Doc. CRPD/C/ECU/CO/2-3.

woman (Article 67), but the Constitutional Court ruled in favour of same sex marriages in 2019.<sup>529</sup> While discrimination based on sexual discrimination is prohibited by law, discrimination against LGBTI persons takes place.<sup>530</sup> Stakeholders point out to multiple violations of the rights of the LGBTI persons in Ecuador.<sup>531</sup>

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<sup>529</sup> Human Rights Watch (2019). Ecuador country Report: <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/ecuador#49dda6>

<sup>530</sup> Reuters News (2020). Ecuador's LGBT+ community seen suffering deadliest year in a decade, 21 January 2020: <https://in.reuters.com/article/us-ecuador-lgbt-murder-idUSKBN1ZK218>

<sup>531</sup> Organización Ecuatoriana de mujeres lesbianas, Matrimonio civil igualitario, Red Internacional de Derechos Humanos (RIDH) (2016). Violations in Ecuador in relation to non-discrimination and equality laws (Article 2, paragraph 1 and Articles 3, 25 and 26, submitted for consideration in the 117<sup>th</sup> session of the Human Rights Committee: [https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CCPR/Shared%20Documents/EQU/INT\\_CCPR\\_CSS\\_ECU\\_24067\\_E.pdf](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CCPR/Shared%20Documents/EQU/INT_CCPR_CSS_ECU_24067_E.pdf)

## Annex E-2: Parties to the Agreement and International Human Rights Treaties

International human rights law lays down obligations which states are bound to respect. By means of ratification of international human rights treaties, states accept obligations to respect, protect and fulfil human rights. Detailed overview of ratification of international and regional human rights treaties by all the Parties are presented in Tables E-1 to E-3.<sup>532</sup>

**Table E-12: Ratification status of core international human rights treaties by EU Member States, Peru, Colombia and Ecuador\***

Treaty <sup>533</sup>	Colombia	Ecuador	Peru	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Croatia	Czech Rep.	Denmark	Estonia	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania	Luxembourg	Malta	Netherlands	Poland	Portugal	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Spain	Sweden
CAT	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OP-CAT	✗	✓	✓	✓	S	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	S	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	S	✓	✓	✓
ICCPR	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ICCPR-OP1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ICCPR-OP2	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
CPED	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	S	S	S	✓	S	✗	S	✓	✓	✓	✗	S	✓	✗	✓	S	✓	✓	S	✓	S	✓	S	✓	S
CEDAW	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OP-CEDAW	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ICERD	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ICESCR	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ICESCR-OP	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	S	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	S	✗	✓	✗	✓	S	✓	✗
ICMW	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
CRC	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OP-CRC-AC	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OP-CRC-SC	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	S	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OP-CRC-IC	✗	✓	✓	S	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	S	✓	S	✗	S	✓	S	✓	✓	✓	✗

<sup>532</sup> Reservations expressed by Colombia, Peru and Ecuador are provided in Tables E-4 to E-6.

<sup>533</sup> CAT: Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment; OP-CAT: Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment; ICCPR: International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; ICCPR-OP1: Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; ICCPR-OP2: 2nd Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights; CPED: International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance; CEDAW: International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; OP-CEDAW: Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; ICERD: International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; ICESCR: International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; ICESCR-OP: Optional Protocol to the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; ICMW: International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families; CRC: Convention on the Rights of the Child; OP-CRC-AC: Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict; OP-CRC-SC: Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography; OP-CRC-IC: Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a communications procedure; CRPD: Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities; OP-CRPD: Optional Protocol of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Treaty <sup>533</sup>	Colombia	Ecuador	Peru	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Croatia	Czech Rep.	Denmark	Estonia	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania	Luxembourg	Malta	Netherlands	Poland	Portugal	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Spain	Sweden
CRPD	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OP-CRPD	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	S	✓	✓	S	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	S	✓	✓	✓	✓

\* (✓) state party, (S) signatory party, (✗) no action.

Source: Study team compilation based on the OHCHR Dashboard of ratifications and UN Treaties database (<https://indicators.ohchr.org>)

**Table E-13: Status of Ratifications of key ILO Conventions for the European Union Member States, Peru, Colombia and Ecuador\***

Treaty <sup>534</sup>	Colombia	Ecuador	Peru	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Croatia	Czech Rep.	Denmark	Estonia	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania	Luxembourg	Malta	Netherlands	Poland	Portugal	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Spain	Sweden
C029	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C087	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C098	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C100	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C105	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C111	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C138	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C182	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C081	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C122	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C129	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C144	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C155	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓
C169	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗

\* (✓) ratified; (✗) no action.

Source: Study team compilation based on ILO NORMLEX – Information System on International Labour Standards ([www.ilo.org](http://www.ilo.org))

<sup>534</sup> Fundamental ILO Conventions: C029: Forced Labour Convention, 1930; C087: Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948; C098: Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949; C100: Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951; C105: Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957; C111: Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958; C138: Minimum Age Convention, 1973; C182: Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999; Governance (Priority) ILO Conventions: C081: Labour Inspection Convention, 1947; C122: Employment Policy Convention, 1964; C129: Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969; C144: Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976; Technical ILO Conventions: C155: Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981; C169: Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989.

**Table E-14: Status of Ratifications of Inter-American Human Rights Treaties for Colombia, Peru and Ecuador\***

Treaty	Colombia	Ecuador	Peru
American Convention on Human Rights 'Pact of San Jose, Costa Rica' (B-32)	✓	✓	✓
Additional Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights in the Area of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 'Protocol of San Salvador' (A-52)	A	✓	✓
Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights to Abolish the Death Penalty (A-53)	✗	✓	✗
Inter-American Convention on the Forced Disappearance of Persons (A-60)	✓	✓	✓
Inter-American Convention to Prevent and Punish Torture (A-51)	✓	✓	✓
Inter-American Convention against Racism, Racial Discrimination and Related Forms of Intolerance (A-68)	S	✓	S
Inter-American Convention against All Forms of Discrimination and Intolerance (A-69)	S	S	S
Inter-American Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities (A-65)	✓	✓	✓
Inter-American Convention on the Granting of Civil Rights to Women (A-45)	✓	✓	S
Inter-American Convention on the Granting of Political Rights to Women (A-44)	✓	✓	✓
Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women 'Convention of Belem do Para' (A-61)	A	✓	✓
Inter-American Convention on Protection the Human Rights of Older Persons (A-70)	✗	A	✗
Inter-American Convention on International Traffic in Minors (B-57)	A	✓	A
Charter of the Organisation of American States (A-41)	✓	✓	✓
Convention on the Status of Aliens (A-22)	✗	✓	✓

\* (✓) ratified; (✗) no action; (A) - acceded; (S) – signatory party.

Source: Study team compilation based on the information provided on the website of the Organization of American States, [www.oas.org](http://www.oas.org)

**Table E-15: List of reservations and declarations of Colombia to international human rights treaties**

Human Rights Instrument	Declarations/Reservations
<i>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</i>	<p>5 June 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Colombia a notification dated 5 June 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the end of the state of emergency on 4 June 2020, at the end of Decree No. 637 of 2020 (see C.N.200.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 15 June 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>7 May 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Colombia a notification dated 7 May 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the state of emergency throughout the territory of Colombia for a period of 30 days in effect from 6 May to 4 June 2020, by Decree No. 637 of 2020 (see C.N.163.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 15 May 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>The Secretary-General received from the Government of Colombia a notification dated 17 April 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the expiration of the state of emergency throughout the territory of Colombia for a period of 30 days starting on 17 March 2020, by Decree No. 417 of 2020 (see C.N.141.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 20 April 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>25 March 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Colombia a notification dated 25 March 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the declaration of a state of emergency throughout the territory of Colombia for a period of 30 days starting on 17 March 2020, by Decree No. 417 of 2020 (see C.N.131.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 20 April 2020 for the text of the notification).</p>
<i>Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (OP-CEDAW)</i>	<p>Declarations: 1. The Government of Colombia, exercising the discretion provided for in article 10 of the Optional Protocol, and subject to the conditions set out therein, declares that it does not recognize the competence of the Committee provided for in articles 8 and 9 of the Protocol. 2. The Government of Colombia understands article 5 of the Protocol to mean that interim measures not only preclude "a determination on admissibility or on the merits of the communication", as established in article 5, paragraph 2, but that any measures involving the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights shall be applied in keeping with the progressive nature of these rights. 3. The Government of Colombia declares that no provision of the Optional Protocol</p>

Human Rights Instrument	Declarations/Reservations
<i>Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)</i>	<p>and no recommendation of the Committee may be interpreted as requiring Colombia to decriminalize offences against life or personal integrity.</p> <p>Upon signature: <i>Reservation</i>: The Colombian Government considers that, while the minimum age of 15 years for taking part in armed conflicts, set forth in article 38 of the Convention, is the outcome of serious negotiations which reflect various legal, political and cultural systems in the world, it would have been preferable to fix that age at 18 years in accordance with the principles and norms prevailing in various regions and countries, Colombia among them, for which reason the Colombian Government, for the purpose of article 38 of the Convention, shall construe the age in question to be 18 years. Upon ratification: <i>Reservation</i>: The Government of Colombia, pursuant to article 2, paragraph 1 (d) of the Convention, declares that for the purposes of article 38, paragraphs 2 and 3, of the Convention, the age referred to in said paragraphs shall be understood to be 18 years, given the fact that, under Colombian law, the minimum age for recruitment into the armed forces of personnel called for military service is 18 years.</p>
<i>Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict (OP-CRC-AC)</i>	<p>Declaration: The military forces of Colombia, in application of the norms of international humanitarian law for the protection of the best interests of the child and in application of domestic legislation, do not recruit minors in age into their ranks, even if they have the consent of their parents. Act 418 of 1997, extended through Act 548 of 1999 and amended by Act 642 of 2001, stipulates that persons under 18 years of age shall not be recruited to perform military service. Students in the eleventh grade who are minors, in accordance with Act 48 of 1993, and who are selected to perform such service, shall defer their enlistment until they have reached age 18. If, on reaching majority, the youth who has deferred military service shall have been matriculated or admitted to an undergraduate programme in an institution of higher education, he shall have the option of serving his duty immediately or deferring it until completion of his studies. If he should choose to serve immediately, the educational institution shall reserve a space for him under the same conditions; if he should choose to defer, the corresponding degree may be granted only when his military service has been completed as ordered by law. Interruption of higher-level studies shall entail the obligation of enlistment into military service. Civilian or military authorities who disregard this provision shall be subject to dismissal on grounds of misconduct. The youth recruited who has deferred his military service until completion of his professional studies shall fulfil his constitutional duty as a graduate professional or technician in the service of the armed forces in activities of social service to the community, public works and tasks of a scientific or technical nature as required in the respective unit to which he has been assigned. In such case, military service shall be of six months' duration and shall be credited as the rural service year, practicum, industrial semester, year of court internship, obligatory social service or similar academic requirements that the programme of study establishes as a degree requirement. For those entering a law career, such military service may replace the thesis or monograph for the degree and in any case, shall replace the obligatory social service referred to in article 149 of Act 446 of 1998.</p>
<i>Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (OP-CRC-SC)</i>	<p>Declaration: Concerning article 7 of the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, Colombia declares that, in accordance with its domestic legal system, it construes the penalty of "confiscation" (confiscación) only as seizure or forfeiture during the penalty phase.</p>
<i>International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW)</i>	<p>Reservation: Articles 15, 46 and 47 of the [said Convention], which was adopted by means of Act No. 146 of 1994, shall be executed with the understanding that the State of Colombia retains the right to promulgate taxation, exchange and monetary regulations establishing equality of treatment of migrant workers and their families with that of nationals in respect of the import and export of personal and household effects and the transfer of earnings and savings abroad, and in respect of expropriation for reasons of equity and the nullification of ownership of property in the cases envisaged in article 34 of the Political Constitution.</p>

Source: OHCHR dashboard, <https://indicators.ohchr.org/>



**Table E-16: List of reservations and declarations of Peru to international human rights treaties**

Human Rights Instrument	Declarations/Reservations
<i>International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)</i>	27 November 1984 [The Government of the Republic of Peru declares] that, in accordance with its policy of full respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, without distinctions as to race, sex, language or religion, and with the aim of strengthening the international instruments on the subject, Peru recognizes the competence of the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination to receive and consider communications from individuals or groups of individuals within its jurisdiction, who claim to be victims of violations of any of the rights set forth in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, in conformity with the provisions of article 14 of the Convention.
<i>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</i>	<p>2 September 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 2 September 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency and targeted quarantine in various provinces and departments by Supreme Decree No. 146-2020-PCM of 28 August 2020 (see C.N.392.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 14 September 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>5 August 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 4 August 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency from 1 to 31 August 2020 by Supreme Decree No. 135-2020-PCM of 31 July 2020 (See C.N.351.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 24 August 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>30 June 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 29 June 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency from 1 to 31 July 2020 by Supreme Decree No. 116-2020-PCM of 26 June 2019 (see C.N.276.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 1 July 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>25 May 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 24 May 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency from 25 May 2020 to 30 June 2020, the state of national emergency, by Supreme Decree No. 094-2020-PCM of 23 May 2020 (see C.N.181.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 2 June 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>27 April 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 25 April 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency for a period of fourteen (14) calendar days, from 27 April 2020 to 10 May 2020, the state of national emergency, by Supreme Decree No. 075-2020-PCM of 25 April 2020 (see C.N.152.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 1 May 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>11 April 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 10 April 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency for a period of fourteen (14) calendar days, from 13 April 2020 to 26 April 2020, by Supreme Decree No. 064-2020-PCM of 9 April 2020 (see C.N.133.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 21 April 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>30 March 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 27 March 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the extension of the state of national emergency for a period of thirteen (13) calendar days by Supreme Decree No. 051-2020-PCM of 27 March 2020 (see C.N.126.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 7 April 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>20 March 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Peru a notification dated 19 March 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the declaration of a state of national emergency for a period of fifteen (15) calendar days by Supreme Decrees No. 044-2020-PCM of 15 March 2020, No. 045-2020-PCM of 17 March 2020 and No. 046-2020-PCM of 18 March 2020 (see C.N.123.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 3 April 2020 for the text of the notification).</p> <p>9 April 1984 Peru recognizes the competence of the Human Rights Committee to receive and consider communications to the effect that a State Party claims that another State Party is not fulfilling its obligations under the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, in accordance with article 41 of the said Covenant.</p>
<i>Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment</i>	The Republic of Peru recognizes, in accordance with Article 21 of the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, the competence of the Committee against Torture to receive and consider communications to the effect that a State Party claims that

Human Rights Instrument	Declarations/Reservations
(CAT)	another State Party is not fulfilling its obligations under the said Convention. Likewise, the Republic of Peru recognizes, in accordance with the provisions of Article 22 of the above-mentioned Convention, the competence of the Committee against Torture to receive and consider communications from or on behalf of individuals subject to its jurisdiction who claim to be victims of a violation by a State Party of the provisions of the Convention.
<i>Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict (OP-CRC-AC)</i>	Declaration: In depositing the instrument of ratification of the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict, the Government of Peru declares that, in compliance with its article 3, paragraph 2, the minimum age for voluntary recruitment into the national armed forces, under national legislation, is 18 years.
<i>International Convention for the Protection of all Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CPED)</i>	22 July 2016 Declaration under article 31: In accordance with article 31 of the International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearances, the Republic of Peru declares that it recognizes the competence of the Committee on Enforced Disappearances to receive and consider communications from or on behalf of individuals subject to its jurisdiction, claiming to be victims of a violation of the provisions of the Convention by the Republic of Peru.

Source: OHCHR dashboard, <https://indicators.ohchr.org/>

**Table E-17: List of reservations and declarations of Ecuador to international human rights treaties**

Human Rights Instrument	Declarations/Reservations
<i>International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)</i>	18 March 1977 The State of Ecuador, by virtue of Article 14 of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, recognizes the competence of the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination to receive and consider communications from individuals or groups of individuals within its jurisdiction claiming to be victims of a violation of the rights set forth in the above-mentioned Convention.
<i>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)</i>	19 August 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Ecuador a notification dated 13 August 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the state of emergency declared for a period of 60 days by Executive Decree No. 1125 of 11 August 2020. (See C.N.379.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 4 September 2020 for the text of the notification.) 17 June 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Ecuador a notification dated 16 June 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the declaration of a state of emergency throughout the national territory for a period of 60 days by Executive Decree No. 1074 of 15 June 2020. (See C.N.256.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 23 June 2020 for the text of the notification.) 24 March 2020 The Secretary-General received from the Government of Ecuador a notification dated 18 March 2020, made under article 4 (3) of the above Covenant, regarding the declaration of a state of emergency throughout the national territory for a period of 60 days by Executive Decree No. 1017 of 16 March 2020. (See C.N.119.2020.TREATIES-IV.4 of 31 March 2020 for the text of the notification.) 6 August 1984 The Government of Ecuador recognizes the competence of the Human Rights Committee to receive and consider communications to the effect that a State Party claims that another State Party is not fulfilling its obligations under the aforementioned Covenant, as provided for in paragraph 1 (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f), (g) and (h) of that article. This recognition of competence is effective for an indefinite period and is subject to the provisions of article 41, paragraph 2, of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.
<i>Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)</i>	Reservation: Ecuador declares that, in accordance with the provisions of article 42 of its Political Constitution, it will not permit extradition of its nationals. 6 September 1988 The Ecuadorian State, pursuant to article 21 of the International Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, recognizes the competence of the Committee against Torture to receive and consider communications to the effect that a State Party claims that another State Party is not fulfilling its obligations under the Convention; it also recognizes in regard to itself the competence of the Committee, in accordance with article 21. It further declares, in accordance with the provisions of article 22 of the Convention, that it recognizes the competence of the Committee to receive and consider communications from or on behalf of individuals subject to its

	jurisdiction who claim to be victims of a violation by a State Party of the provisions of the Convention.
<i>Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC)</i>	Upon signature: <i>Declaration</i> : "In signing the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Ecuador reaffirms . . . [that it is] especially pleased with the ninth preambular paragraph of the draft Convention, which pointed to the need to protect the unborn child, and believed that that paragraph should be borne in mind in interpreting all the articles of the Convention, particularly article 24. While the minimum age set in article 38 was, in its view, too low, [the Government of Ecuador] did not wish to endanger the chances for the Convention's adoption by consensus and therefore would not propose any amendment to the text."
<i>Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict (OP-CRC-AC)</i>	<i>Declaration</i> : The Government of the Republic of Ecuador hereby declares that, in accordance with the provisions of its Constitution, military service is compulsory. Citizens who invoke conscientious objection on moral, religious or philosophical grounds are assigned to community service, in the manner prescribed by the law. Article 5 of the Act on Compulsory Military Service states that "military obligations begin, for Ecuadorian citizens, at 18 years of age, and end at 55 years of age. The period between the ages of 18 and 55 shall be called 'military age' ". 12 January 2018 Declaration under articles 76 and 77: The Government of the Republic of Ecuador recognizes the competence of the Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families: a) to receive and consider communications to the effect that a State Party claims that another State Party is not fulfilling its obligations under the Convention, in accordance with article 76 of the Convention; and b) to receive and consider communications from or on behalf of individuals subject to its jurisdiction who claim that their individual rights as established by the Convention have been violated by that State Party, in accordance with the article 77 of the Convention.
<i>International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW)</i>	Article 31 In accordance with the provisions of article 31 (1) of the International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, the Republic of Ecuador recognizes the competence of the Committee to receive and consider communications from or on behalf of individuals subject to its jurisdiction claiming to be victims of violations of provisions of this Convention by this State Party. Article 32 In accordance with the provisions of article 32 of the Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, the Republic of Ecuador recognizes the competence of the Committee to receive and consider communications in which a State Party claims that another State Party is not fulfilling its obligations under the Convention.
<i>International Convention for the Protection of all Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CPED)</i>	

Source: OHCHR dashboard, <https://indicators.ohchr.org/>

### ***Annex E-3: Screening and scoping of human rights impacts***

The main purpose of the screening and scoping exercise is to identify specific human rights for a detailed assessment of the effect of the Agreement. Using a multi-pronged approach,<sup>535</sup> based on the analysis of the Agreement text, results of the economic modelling, desk research, expert opinions, relevant indicators and stakeholder inputs, Table E-18,

Table E-19 and Table E-20 present human rights affected by the Agreement in Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador, respectively. The human rights presented in the tables are drawn from the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, supplemented with references to the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, the core UN human rights treaties and conventions,<sup>536</sup> the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, relevant regional human rights treaties,<sup>537</sup> and ILO Conventions.

In line with the EC Guidelines for Human Rights Impact Assessments, the tables provide the following information:

- Specific human rights/issues and their normative framework;
- Intended impact of the Agreement as mentioned in the Agreement text;
- A short description of the impact with a reference to the source of information, specifying the kind of the impact (direct or indirect);
- Whether the affected right is an absolute human right;<sup>538</sup>
- The degree of the impact (major or minor); and
- Population groups affected by the impact.

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<sup>535</sup> See Inception Report for a detailed explanation on the methodology.

<sup>536</sup> Core UN human rights treaties include: International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD), International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICMW), International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (ICPED), International Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (ICRPD), and their Optional Protocols.

<sup>537</sup> The European Convention on Human Rights, the American Convention on Human Rights, the "Protocol of San Salvador," the Belém do Pará Convention.

<sup>538</sup> In line with the Better Regulation Toolbox (European Commission 2017) and more specifically, Fundamental Rights Check List of Tool #28: [https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file\\_import/better-regulation-toolbox-28\\_en\\_0.pdf](https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file_import/better-regulation-toolbox-28_en_0.pdf)

**Table E-18: Screening and scoping of human rights affected by the Agreement in Colombia<sup>539</sup>**

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Freedom from discrimination</b>  - UDHR, Art. 2 - ICCPR, Art. 26 - ILO Conventions 100 & 111 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 3	<p>The Parties' commitments under Title IX of the Agreement on trade and sustainable development -<i>TSD Title</i>- (in particular, Article 269) to (1) recognise productive employment and decent work for all; (2) promote and effectively implement internationally recognized core labour standards (namely: a) freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; b) the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; c) the effective abolition of child labour; d) the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation) could improve labour situation in general.</p> <p>Provisions of Article 276 on the rights of migrant workers, where Parties recognize the importance of promoting equality of treatment in respect of working conditions for migrant workers legally employed in their territories, could improve position of this specific vulnerable population group.</p> <p>Further commitments of the Parties under the TSD Title (in particular, Articles 277, 279, 280-282, 286) related to upholding the level of protection in labour laws, monitoring the implementation of the Agreement on labour, promoting transparency and civil</p>	<p>The Agreement provisions refer to the freedom from discrimination at the workplace. The current situation analysis has shown that population groups most affected by discrimination in Colombia are women, indigenous peoples and persons of Afro-Colombian descent, migrants and refugees, persons with disabilities and LGBTI persons. The UN reports state weak implementation of the existing legal framework on the freedom from discrimination and issues with labour inspection capacities (see Annex E-1). This is an area for attention in the context of the Agreement because the economic analysis shows that several agricultural sectors have increased their production and employment (e.g. vegetables, fruits and nuts show a 0.9% increase in production, and a 1.2% increase in employment; and crops have experienced a 0.5% increase in production and a 0.7% increase in employment). Since these sectors are characterised by high level of informality (about 52% of all agricultural jobs in 2015 were in the informal sector)<sup>540</sup> and employ a high number of women, migrant workers and indigenous peoples, in the context of the Agreement it could mean that the growth of production and employment in the affected sectors along with increased competition has had positive economic effects for those economically active in them. However, given the pre-existing vulnerabilities and insufficient protection, the positive economic effects may not have been distributed equally.<sup>541</sup> While more jobs are the result, there may also be increased pressure on vulnerable groups not sufficiently protected by the existing laws, especially in the informal sector. Stakeholders report inequality for women at work (incl. indigenous and Afro-Colombian women) with respect to wages, working hours and social protection in the agricultural sectors of the economy (Delgado and Hawkins 2020). Based on the EC reports on the implementation of the Agreement, the EC notes to have discussed labour inspection issues with Colombian authorities on the annual basis and identified related areas of cooperation - exchange of good practices in labour inspections and mobilisation of informal to formal work. The annual reports of the EU on human rights and democracy in the world state increased cooperation and increased number of projects that aim to support gender protection and address women inequality since 2017.<sup>542</sup> In 2019, the EC reports to have invested in the</p>	Direct	Minor	<p>Women working in agricultural sectors (esp. indigenous and Afro-Colombian women, women in rural areas);</p> <p>Migrant workers and indigenous peoples, in particular working in informal sectors</p>

<sup>539</sup> The table does not include rights where neither desk research nor stakeholder outreach indicated that they could have been affected by the Agreement.

<sup>540</sup> OECD (2015). OECD Review of Agricultural Policies: Colombia 2015, OECD Publishing: [https://www.minagricultura.gov.co/Reportes/Colombia\\_%20Agc\\_Review.pdf](https://www.minagricultura.gov.co/Reportes/Colombia_%20Agc_Review.pdf)

<sup>541</sup> See also social analysis on non-discrimination and women.

<sup>542</sup> Based on the EU Annual Reports on Human Rights and Democracy in the World Country Updates from 2009 to 2019.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
	society participation in the process of assessment of the implementation of the Agreement and cooperation activities under this Title could strengthen effective implementation of labour protection in line with international standards.	project led by the ILO to strengthen labour inspection in agricultural areas in Colombia. <sup>543</sup>			
<b>Freedom from slavery and forced labour</b> absolute right  - UDHR, Art.4 - ICCPR, Art. 8 - ILO Conventions 29 & 105 - CFR, Art. 5 - CESCR General Comment No. 18 - ACHR, Art. 6	TSD Title - see above	According to the 2018 Global Slavery Index, around 131,000 persons are estimated to live in the modern slavery conditions in Colombia (0.27% of the total population). The UN has noted substantial progress made by Colombia with respect to legal, policy and judicial measures taken to address forced labour and trafficking (see Annex E-1). One of the key focus areas of the EU in its cooperation with Colombia (outside the Agreement) is ensuring better protection of persons belonging to minorities and vulnerable groups, including indigenous peoples, migrants, women and children. <sup>544</sup> The EU has been active in supporting Colombia in projects aimed at combatting sexual exploitation of women. <sup>545</sup> Under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Colombian authorities and encouraged Colombia to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the ILO Forced Labour Convention (European Commission 2019). Focusing on the impact of the Agreement, based on the literature review and stakeholder consultations carried out, there was no further evidence found to link the Agreement to freedom from slavery and forced labour via causal chain analysis.	Direct	Minor	Vulnerable population groups in Colombia
<b>Children's rights (child labour)</b>  - ICESCR, Art. 10 - CRC, Art. 19, 32 - ILO Conventions 138 & 182	TSD Title – see above	Child labour in Colombia declined systematically since 2011 (from 13% in 2011 to 5.9 % in 2019). <sup>546</sup> Agriculture has been the main sector of child labour incidence which, contrary to the overall trend, increased from 31.3% in 2009 to 41.6% in 2019. In 2017 the UN CESCR expressed concern about economic exploitation of Colombian children and adolescents in illegal mining (see Annex E-1). According to the results of the economic modelling, some agricultural subsectors have grown due to the Agreement, but mining has not been impacted by the Agreement in terms of production. Also Colombian exports to the EU did not increase	Direct	Minor	Children in Colombia

<sup>543</sup> See Annual Reports on the Implementation of the EU-Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Trade Agreement from 2014 to 2020.

<sup>544</sup> EU Annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World in 2019, Country updates: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007\\_eu\\_country\\_updates\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_2019.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007_eu_country_updates_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2019.pdf).

<sup>545</sup> EU Annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World in 2017, Country updates: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/compiled\\_country\\_updates\\_annual\\_report\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_2017\\_clean\\_0.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/compiled_country_updates_annual_report_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2017_clean_0.pdf)

<sup>546</sup> Colombiareports.com (2019). Child labour in Colombia: declining but still endemic, 19 June 2019: <https://colombiareports.com/child-labor-in-colombia-declining-but-still-endemic/>



Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		significantly, while imports from the EU went up by 8.2%. As stated in the social analysis, child labour in the agricultural sectors is attributed mostly to children working in the family business, with underlying reasons of poverty and informality. Annual implementation reports of the European Commission state regular engagement of the parties on this topic and advancements of Colombia on child labour, e.g. through the revisions of the list of hazardous occupations. <sup>547</sup> Ensuring better protection of children was one of the key focus areas in cooperation between the EU and Colombia regarding human rights. <sup>548</sup> Under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Colombian authorities and encouraged Colombia to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the ILO Forced Labour Convention (European Commission 2019). Based on the information available, we do not find evidence of a causal chain effect from an economic impact on child labour. It is not likely that the declining trend in child labour is linked to the Agreement but rather to various domestic policies.			
<b>Right of peaceful assembly, right to freedom of association, incl. the right to form and join trade unions</b>  - UDHR, Art. 20 - ICCPR, Art. 21, 22 - CFR, Art. 12 - ILO Conventions 87 & 98 - ACHR, Art. 15, 16 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 8	TSD Title - see above	Colombia witnessed a high level of violence against human rights defenders and trade union activists. There has been a general decrease in murder and attack rates against trade unionists, <sup>549</sup> but the number of violence cases remains high. Multiple violations have been recorded by the ILO with respect to the freedom of association, in particular with respect to collective pacts with non-unionised workers (see Annex E-1). Some stakeholders report violations with respect to the right to freedom of association in the flower sector and in the sugar sector. Economic results show that the flower sector is not under pressure from the Agreement (this sector benefits), and sugar sector – only marginally (-0.2%, -2 USD million). However, outputs of other sectors are estimated to have declined (compared to an absence of the Agreement): basic pharmaceuticals (-1.2%; -40 USD million), metal products (-0.5%; -24 USD million), machinery (-0.6%; -30 USD million), motor vehicles (-0.2%; -13 USD million), manufactures (-0.2%; -20 USD million). For these sectors, competitive pressures to cut costs have been biggest, which could possibly put pressure against forming trade unions. Overall, however, increase in collective pacts has been observed in all the sectors of the economy (see statistics in the social analysis), not only in the sectors affected by the Agreement which suggests an influence of other factors.	Direct	Minor	Workers in general, esp. in informal sectors

<sup>547</sup> See Annual Reports on the Implementation of the EU-Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Trade Agreement for 2014 and 2018.

<sup>548</sup> EU Annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World in 2019, Country updates: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007\\_eu\\_country\\_updates\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_2019.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007_eu_country_updates_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2019.pdf)

<sup>549</sup> Based on data from Escuela Nacional Sindical: <https://www.ens.org.co/>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Right to social security</b>  - UDHR, Art. 22, 25 - ICESCR, Art. 9, 10 - CESCR General Comment No. 19 - ILO Convention 102 - CFR, Art. 34 - CEDAW, Art. 11 - ICMW, Art. 27 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 9	TSD Title - see above	Colombia does not have strong social security protection mechanisms (see Annex E-1). Social protection is one of the key components of the decent work agenda, <sup>550</sup> recognised by the Parties (Article 269(1)). Stakeholders note no significant progress on social protection coverage as a consequence of the Agreement (Delgado and Hawkins 2020). The decrease in the tariff revenues (see economic analysis) has not caused a discernible impact on the right to social security. The social security budget has increased each year by 5.3% from 2008 – 2013 and by 5.6% since the Agreement started to be applied (from 2013 – 2018). While the Agreement is aimed at creating more trade, financial resources for public programmes and initiatives (e.g. the social security system) are mainly a domestic issue.	In-direct	Minor	Workers in general
<b>Right to work, to free choice of employment, right to just and favourable conditions of work</b>  - UDHR, Art.23, 24 - ICESCR, Art. 6 & 7 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 6 & 7 - CFR, Art. 15 & 31 - CEDAW, Art. 11 - CRPD, Art. 27	TSD Title - see above  Commitments under Title III <i>Trade in goods</i> Chapter 1 ( <i>Market access</i> ) Section 2 on the elimination of custom duties (Article 22) and Section 4 on agricultural goods (Article 33 on administration and implementation of TRQs could lead to improvements/deterioration of the rights of workers from the affected sectors due to possible gain/loss of employment.	Trade liberalisation essentially leads to more employment overall. The unemployment rate in Colombia stayed approximately on the same level overall (10.7% in 2007 and 10.8% in 2019, with 9% recorded in 2016) but this is the observed total effect, not the Agreement effect. The CGE analysis only considers job re-allocations across sectors under the assumption that total employment remained constant. As such, metals (+1.7%), transport equipment (+1.3%), vegetables, fruits and nuts (+1.2%) as well as chemicals (+0.8%), crops (+0.7%), and textiles (+0.6%) increased employment above average. These sectors demonstrate that the Agreement has had positive employment effects and thus a positive impact on the right to work, not only in agriculture, but also in industrial and service sectors. <sup>551</sup> Employment in other sectors has, however, declined relative to the average: pharmaceuticals (-1.3%), wool (-1.1%), machinery (-0.7%), metal products (-0.5%) and meat products (-0.3% for unskilled and -0.4% for skilled workers). In these sectors the right to work has come under pressure, in relative terms, from increased foreign competition.  Even though trade liberalisation covered a broad range of agricultural products and benefits from trade have accrued to the workers in these sectors, according to Delgado and Hawkins (2020), working conditions,	Direct	Minor	Workers in general, workers from affected sectors

<sup>550</sup> ILO definition of the decent work agenda: "Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men", <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm>

<sup>551</sup> See also social impact analysis (chapter 7 of the main evaluation report).

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		wages and social protection of agricultural workers remained at the same level and in some sectors even deteriorated, especially for women. Our analysis shows that this could be the case for the workers in some agricultural subsectors (e.g. wool or dairy) but not for such dominant sectors as VFN and crops. The number of labour inspectors increased since the start of application of the Agreement. However, it remains low compared to most OECD countries, <sup>552</sup> and the ILO standards with respect to labour inspections have not been met yet. <sup>553</sup> Given pre-existing issues related to working conditions, the Agreement did not significantly improve the situation, recording minor developments as a result of cooperation activities and dialogue under the TSD Title (see also social analysis). <sup>554</sup>			
<b>Right to privacy and protection of personal data</b>  - UDHR, Art. 12 - ICCPR, Art. 17 - ACHR, Art. 11 - CFR, Art. 7 & 8 - CRC, Art. 16 - CRPD, Art. 22 & 23 - ICMW, Art. 14 - Regulation (EU) 2016/679 - ACHR, Art. 11	The Parties' commitments under Chapter 5 on Regulatory Framework, Sections 4, 5 & 6 on telecommunications services, financial services and electronic commerce (Title IV, Trade in services, establishment and electronic commerce) include provisions related to confidentiality of the information transmitted or stored, data processing and data protection. These regulations could improve domestic legislation in data protection safeguards and the commitments of the governments in this matter, which is an important issue in the Latin American context.	The right to privacy is guaranteed under the Constitution of Colombia (Art.15). There is a legal framework on privacy and data protection in Colombia (e.g., the Law 1266 of 2008 on financial data protection and the Law 1581 of 2012 on management of personal data adopted ahead of the Agreement). The intended effect of the Agreement to strengthen protection of personal data and privacy has materialised in the adoption of the legislation prior to the application of the Agreement. Further interpretation of the Law by the Constitutional Court of Colombia has triggered questions on the application and reach of the Law shaping the data protection in Colombia. <sup>555</sup> Within the context of the Agreement, no further evidence was found on the impact of the Agreement on this right.	Direct	Minor	Population of Colombia
<b>Right to adequate food</b>  - UDHR, Art. 25 - ICESCR, Art. 11 - CESCR General Comment No. 12	The Parties' commitments under Title III – Trade in goods, Chapter 5 on SPS measures (in particular, Article 94 on measures linked to animal and plant health) could improve food safety.  The Parties commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1, Section 4 on	The main instrument of the Agreement regarding SPS measures is dialogue. Because SPS measures are determined domestically (with each party having the right to regulate) the Agreement has not had a discernible impact on food safety. This view was confirmed by stakeholder consultations and discussions with experts.  According to the economic analysis, food sectors in Colombia experienced a mixed impact from the trade liberalisation under the Agreement in terms	Direct/ in-direct	Minor	Population of Colombia

<sup>552</sup> OECD (2016). OECD Reviews of Labour Market and Social Policies: Colombia 2016: <https://www.oecd.org/els/emp/OECD-Reviews-of-Labour-Market-and-Social-Policies-Colombia-AR.pdf>

<sup>553</sup> FDCI (2018). The Precarious state of labour rights in Colombia: Resolution 2628 of the European Parliament.

<sup>554</sup> See Annual Reports on the Implementation of the EU-Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Trade Agreement for 2014 and 2018.

<sup>555</sup> Privacyinternational.org, note on Colombia, at: <https://privacyinternational.org/state-privacy/58/state-privacy-colombia#dataprotection>.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <i>Protocol of San Salvador, Art.12 &amp; 17</i></li> <li>- <i>CEDAW, Art. 12 &amp; 14</i></li> <li>- <i>CRPD, Art. 24 &amp; 26</i></li> <li>- <i>CRC, Art. 24 &amp; 27</i></li> </ul>	agricultural goods could promote food availability and accessibility.	of production. Sub-sectors like VFN (+0.9%), crops (+0.5%), other food products (+0.4%) have increased production. Other sectors, like animal products (-0.3%), bovine cattle sheep and goats (-0.3%), meat products (-0.3%), oil seeds (-0.2%), have experienced marginal decreases in production. When these production effects are compared to the export effects of the Agreement for these same sectors, it is possible to isolate the impact of the Agreement on domestic food availability. The largest effect in absolute terms is in the VFN sector. Total Colombian production increased by 46 USD million (out of a total production of 5.3 USD billion) while exports increased by 62 USD million. This means that 16 USD million out of 5.3 USD billion domestic production is exported more than before (0.3%). Given these marginal changes, we conclude that domestic food availability was not significantly impacted by the Agreement.			
<b>Right to an adequate standard of living</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <i>UDHR, Art. 25</i></li> <li>- <i>ICESCR, Art. 11</i></li> <li>- <i>Protocol of San Salvador, Art.12 &amp; 17</i></li> <li>- <i>CEDAW, Art. 14</i></li> <li>- <i>CRPD, Art. 28</i></li> <li>- <i>CRC, Art. 27</i></li> <li>- <i>CERD, Art. 5 &amp; 7</i></li> </ul>	<p>The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) as well as commitments under Title IV Trade in services and Establishment Chapter could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP, more employment opportunities, and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on social protection programmes for various (esp. vulnerable) population groups.</p> <p>Commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1, Section 4 on agricultural goods (in particular, Article 33 on administration and implementation of TRQs could lead to improvements/deterioration of the rights of workers from the affected sectors due to possible gain/loss of employment.</p>	<p>Poverty levels have decreased in Colombia, but poverty remains consistently higher in rural areas compared to urban areas and a very high share of indigenous peoples and Afro-Colombian population live in poverty (see Annex E-1). The economic analysis shows that the Agreement has contributed to an increase in Colombia's exports and domestic production overall. However, sectoral divergencies in employment suggest that the impact of the Agreement on the right to an adequate standard of living has also been mixed - positive impact of the Agreement for the workers from growing sectors and negative impact for the workers from declining sectors (see right to work).</p> <p>TRQs are included in the Agreement to limit the increase in imports for certain sensitive products. With some of the TRQs granted by Colombia fully used by EU exporters (e.g. in sweet corn, milk and cream powder), they have protected Colombian farmers by imposing an EU export maximum. For example, for dairy, the economic analysis shows a negligible decrease in domestic dairy production in Colombia, combined with a small increase in exports to the EU: The pressure on small-scale domestic farmers in Colombia from EU imports does increase, but this effect is capped by the TRQs (Delgado and Hawkins 2020). Hence the TRQ is for some products an important safeguard mechanism for smallholder Colombian farmers.</p>	Direct	Minor	Workers from affected sectors, small scale producers
<b>Right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of</b>	<p>Commitments under Title VII on Intellectual Property, Chapter 3, Section 5 (in particular, Article 230 (4) on patents), to make available a</p>	<p>Colombia provides patent protection for pharmaceutical products in line with the TRIPS WTO Agreement. Patent term restoration (PTR) due to administrative government delays through such measures as supplementary protection certificates (SPCs) is not possible for</p>	Direct/ in- direct	Minor	Population of Colombia, affected

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>physical and mental health</b>  - UDHR, Art. 25 - ICESCR, Art. 12 - CESCR General Comment No. 14 - CFR, Art. 35 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 10 - CEDAW, Art. 11,12 - CRPD, Art. 25 - CRC, Art. 24 - ICMW, Art. 28 - CERD, Art. 5 - Belém do Pará Convention, Art. 4	<p>mechanism to compensate the patent owner for unreasonable curtailment of the effective patent term, could improve access to new drugs and promote research and development in pharmaceutical products but also could affect prices.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on programmes for various vulnerable population and thereby could improve quality of health care and access to health care for the most vulnerable population groups.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under Title III – Trade in goods, Chapter 5 on SPS measures could affect human health and safety.</p>	<p>pharmaceutical products in Colombia. There has been ample debate in Colombia whether stronger IP rights in the Agreement would lead to higher prices or reduced access. IFARMA (2014) predicted that patent term extension and regulatory data provisions would lead to increased expenditures because of higher prices.<sup>556</sup> Prada et al. (2018) found that while the Agreement was in place, Colombian government price interventions for medicines have been successful in reducing the prices for medicines and access to medicines improved. The Comisión Nacional de Precios de Medicamentos y Dispositivos Médicos (CNPMDM) oversees how drug prices are regulated and the Ministry of Health (MOH) is responsible for implementing price regulations. From 2010-2012 price caps were used. In 2013, CNPMDM introduced International Reference Pricing (IRP) to regulate drugs that were considered of public interest, that had a high financial impact, and had no therapeutic substitutes or a high market concentration. The scheme eventually included more than 3,000 products, covering 80% of public drug expenditure. As a result, prices decreased by 43% until 2014. Prada et al. (2018) also concluded that pharmaceutical expenditures still increased because of larger sales volumes, which could be a consequence of increased access to medicines. These developments happened while the Agreement was in place and suggest that prices for medicines are related to domestic policy initiatives rather than to the Agreement. The Agreement has increased access to medicines via reducing tariffs and regulatory barriers to trade in pharmaceutical products. Imports of basic pharmaceutical products into Colombia from the EU increased by 29.1% (185 USD million) because of the Agreement, providing Colombian patients more access to newer drugs.</p> <p>Public health spending in Colombia has increased from USD 1,002/capita in 2013 to USD 1,213/capita in 2019.<sup>557</sup> The growth rate of healthcare expenditures has increased from an annual average of 3.3% in 2008–2012 to an annual average of 5.6% in 2013–2018 (see Annex E-1). This is in part due to an increase of healthcare expenditures as a share of GDP (towards average OECD levels). This also shows that the decrease in tariff revenues due to tariff liberalisation in the Agreement (see section 6.12 of the main report) has had no significant impact on the healthcare budget.</p>			communities

<sup>556</sup> IFARMA (2009a). Impact of the EU-Andean Trade Agreement on Access to Medicines in Colombia, [http://www.haiweb.org/04102010/29\\_Mar\\_2010\\_Report\\_IFARMA\\_Impact\\_Study\\_Colombia\\_EN.pdf](http://www.haiweb.org/04102010/29_Mar_2010_Report_IFARMA_Impact_Study_Colombia_EN.pdf).

<sup>557</sup> OECD, Data – Health Spending – Colombia: <https://data.oecd.org/healthres/health-spending.htm>.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		<p>The main instrument of the Agreement regarding the SPS measures is dialogue. Because SPS measures are determined domestically (with each party having the right to regulate) the Agreement has not had a discernible impact on health and safety. This view was confirmed by stakeholder consultations and discussions with experts.</p> <p>Another impact on the right to health stems from pollution related to economic activity as a result of the Agreement. While mining and fishing are not impacted by the Agreement (see economic analysis), production of vegetables, fruits and nuts (e.g. bananas) has increased by 0.9% as a result of the Agreement has possibly contributed to a marginal increase in pollution from this sector (e.g. use of fertilisers, soil and water pollution).<sup>558</sup></p>			
<p><b>Rights of indigenous peoples (right to self-determination; right to food, right to health, right to water, freedom from discrimination, right to maintain, control, protect and develop their traditional knowledge, land rights)</b></p> <p>- UNDRIP - ILO Convention No. 169 - ICCPR, Art. 27 - HRC General Comment No. 23</p>	<p>Title VII on Intellectual Property, Chapter 2 on protection of biodiversity and traditional knowledge (in particular, Article 201) contains provisions that refer to common efforts of the Parties to respect, preserve and maintain knowledge, innovations and practices of indigenous and local communities embodying traditional life styles relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity (Art. 201(3)). Subject to domestic legislation, it also includes an “obligation to take measures with the aim of sharing in a fair and equitable way the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources” (Art. 201(4)). While the objective of the FTA is not to use these IP provisions to support the rights of the indigenous peoples, these provisions could encourage the promotion and enactment of appropriate domestic legislation that addresses protection of this vulnerable population group.</p>	<p>According to DESTA, the Agreement is the most ambitious of all EU FTAs in protecting traditional knowledge.<sup>559</sup> While not as outspoken as the Peruvian government, also the Colombian government wants to combat biopiracy.</p> <p>Indigenous peoples in Colombia face various kind of discrimination (see Annex E-1). The economic analysis does not show a direct impact of the Agreement for indigenous peoples. Also, because we know from the social analysis that indigenous peoples are relatively more engaged in the informal employment (77.9%), it is difficult to estimate the impact. Employment information by sector is not available (see social analysis).</p> <p>Colombia also has weak implementation of a prior consultation process due to the lack of a statutory law on prior consultation; weak state intervention; the lack of systematic mapping of ethnic communities; mistrust between parties; the emergence of ‘new’ communities; the lack of criteria to define compensatory measures; and armed conflict (EPRS and ICEI 2018). Land grabbing for economic activities has been common and affected rights of the indigenous communities in the country. Some European companies have been reported as involved in violations<sup>560</sup> (see Annex E-1). Based on the results of the economic analysis, it is not likely that land grabbing for mining projects has been affected by the Agreement as raw materials exports to the EU did not increase, neither the production in the mining sector. Although exports of vegetable oils and fats are estimated to have</p>	Direct & in-direct	Minor	Indigenous communities in Colombia

<sup>558</sup> See also environmental analysis.

<sup>559</sup> See graph in the screening and scoping analysis of Peru.

<sup>560</sup> Oidhaco & Catapa (2020). Trade Agreement between the EU, Colombia, Peru and Ecuador: <http://www.oidhaco.org/uploaded/content/article/1326853725.pdf>



Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
	The Parties' commitments under the Establishment Chapter could increase investment in sectors like mining and other extracting sectors of the economy and affect land rights of indigenous peoples.	increased by 27.2%, output of the sectors is estimated to have decreased because of the Agreement (-0.2%). Production of vegetables, fruits and nuts (e.g. bananas) has increased by 0.9%.  No impact is found from the provisions under the Establishment Chapter that refer to investment in mining and other extractive sectors, because no impact of the Agreement on investment is found (see section 6.4 of the main report).			
<b>Right to participate in public affairs</b>  - UDHR, Art. 21 - ICCPR, Art. 25 - HRC General Comment No. 25 - CFR, Art. 39 - CEDAW, Art. 7 - CRPD, Art. 29	Article 267(e) sets out an objective to promote public participation in the matters covered under the TSD Title. Parties' commitments under the TSD Title (in particular, Articles 281-283) provide for an active dialogue with civil society and could enhance transparency and strengthen stakeholder involvement in public decision making.	The provisions of the Agreement are envisaged to stimulate civil society involvement related to the implementation of the TSD Title. Regular meetings have taken place to discuss the implementation of the TSD Title. The 2019 EC Report on the implementation of EU FTAs marks good progress in the involvement of civil society (European Commission 2019). The 2020 EESC report, however, notes delays in establishing the Domestic Advisory Groups (DAGs) due to the requirement for DAGs to be "in accordance with domestic law" (Art. 281) which also resulted in partial representation of the relevant associations. Next to that, the format of the forums for the dialogue with civil society (Art. 282) was noted to be not appropriate to facilitate dialogue on the issues (small rooms, limited allocated time, lack of travel allowance for participants). <sup>561</sup> Some stakeholders note slight improvement but claim that not all the associations were allowed to participate in the forums. <sup>562</sup> While organising the forum for civil society to participate in the implementation of the Agreement, issues with the mechanism of participation have not strengthened that positive impact.	Direct	Minor	Population of Colombia
<b>Right to education</b>  - UDHR, Art. 26 - ICESCR, Art. 13 - CESCR General Comments No. 11 & No.13 - CRC, Art. 28 - CEDAW, Art. 10	The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on social	Trade liberalisation has contributed to poverty reduction in Colombia. <sup>563</sup> In parallel, public expenditure on education has increased from 14.7% of total government expenditure in 2008 to 16.3% in 2018. <sup>564</sup> From 2008–2018 the annual increase in the education budget was 3%. There has been no discernible increase in the growth rate of the budget after the Agreement came into effect. This also shows that the decrease in tariff revenues due to tariff liberalisation in the Agreement (section 6.12 of the main report) has not had an impact on the right to education.	In-direct	Minor	Population of Colombia

<sup>561</sup> European Economic and Social Committee (2020). Evaluation of the role of civil society in the participation structures under the European Union/Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Agreement, REX/530.

<sup>562</sup> Based on the interviews carried out in the course of stakeholder consultations; also see Forero (2016).

<sup>563</sup> See economic analysis and social analysis.

<sup>564</sup> Based on UNESCO data.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- CRPD, Art. 24</li> <li>- ICMW, Art. 30</li> <li>- CERD, Art. 5</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 13</li> </ul>	programmes, including initiatives related to education.				
<b>Right to access information</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art.16</li> <li>- ICCPR, Art. 10</li> <li>- CFR, Art. 9</li> <li>- CRC, Art. 14</li> <li>- ICMW, Art. 12</li> <li>- CERD, Art. 5</li> </ul>	The Parties' commitments in the TSD Title on promotion of transparency and public participation (in particular, Articles 281-283) could improve transparency and strengthen civil society involvement in public decision making.	The Agreement has intended to contribute to the inclusion of civil society in public decision making by envisaging civil society involvement in the implementation of the labour and environmental provisions under the TSD Title. The EU Delegation in Colombia has taken an active role in engaging with civil society on the Agreement too (Ashraf and van Seters 2020). However, the national mechanism for civil society involvement, the DAG, has been criticised by interviewees for its limited inclusiveness, lack of transparency, insufficient allocated resources (Forero 2016). So the intended positive impact of the Agreement provisions has not been strengthened due to issues with the mechanism of participation.	Direct	Minor	Population of Colombia
<b>Right to water</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ICESCR, Art. 11</li> <li>- CESCR General Comment No. 15</li> </ul>	--	Stakeholders report a deterioration with respect to water quality and water availability due to the increase in production in the energy and mining sectors as well as the increase in production of palm oil, providing specific examples linked to European producers (Forero 2016; EPRS and ICEI 2018). The economic effects for the mining industry as well as the vegetable oils and fats (palm oil) have been limited. The largest effect was a 0.05% increase in production of coal. But in the agricultural sector, there is economic evidence that the production of vegetables, fruits and nuts has increased by 0.9%. Some of the products from this sector are rather water-intensive, e.g. bananas, and could have affected water availability. The other source affecting the right to water, also linked to agricultural production, is the use of fertilisers, in detail studied under the environmental analysis.	Direct	Minor, possibly major in specific areas	Affected communities in Colombia

Table E-19: Screening and scoping of human rights affected by the Agreement in Peru<sup>565</sup>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Freedom from discrimination</b>	The Parties' commitments under Title IX of the Agreement on trade and	The Agreement provisions refer to the freedom from discrimination at the workplace. The human rights profile shows that population groups most	Direct	Minor	Women working in

<sup>565</sup> The table does not include rights where neither desk research nor stakeholder outreach indicated that they could have been affected by the Agreement.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art. 2</li> <li>- ICCPR, Art. 26</li> <li>- ILO Conventions 100 &amp; 111</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 3</li> </ul>	<p>sustainable development -TSD Title- (in particular, Article 269) to (1) recognise productive employment and decent work for all; (2) promote and effectively implement internationally recognized core labour standards (namely: a) freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; b) the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; c) the effective abolition of child labour; d) the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation) could improve labour situation in general.</p> <p>Provisions of Article 276 on the rights of migrant workers, where Parties recognize the importance of promoting equality of treatment in respect of working conditions for migrant workers legally employed in their territories, could improve position of this specific vulnerable population group.</p> <p>Further commitments of the Parties under the TSD Title (in particular, Articles 277, 279, 280-282, 286) related to upholding the level of protection in labour laws, monitoring the implementation of the Agreement on labour, promoting transparency and civil society participation in the process of assessment of the implementation of the Agreement and cooperation activities under this Title</p>	<p>affected by discrimination in Peru are women, indigenous peoples and persons of Afro-Peruvian descent, migrants and refugees, persons with disabilities and LGBTI persons (see Annex E-1). The UN reports state weak implementation of the existing legal framework on the freedom from discrimination and issues with labour inspection, especially in the agricultural and textile sectors. This is an area for attention in the context of the Agreement because the economic modelling results show that output of several agricultural sectors has increased because of it (e.g. vegetables, fruits and nuts (VFN) by 1.1% and a 1.3% increase in employment; and vegetable oils and fats shows 0.9 % increase in production, and a 0.8% increase in employment); for textiles, production has also increased slightly, by 0.3%, and employment accordingly. Since these sectors are characterised by high levels of informality and employ a high number of women, migrant workers and indigenous peoples, in the context of the Agreement it could mean that the growth of production and employment in them has had positive economic effects for those economically active in them. However, given the pre-existing vulnerabilities and insufficient protection due to weak implementation, the positive economic effects may not have been distributed equally.<sup>566</sup> While more jobs are the result, there may also be increased pressure on the right to freedom from discrimination for vulnerable groups of population not sufficiently protected by the existing laws. Stakeholders report inequality for women at work (incl. indigenous and Afro-Peruvian women) with respect to wages, working hours and social protection in the agricultural sectors of the economy (Maldonado Mujica 2020). Based on the reports on the implementation of the Agreement, the EC notes to have discussed labour inspection issues with the Peruvian authorities on the annual basis and identified related areas of cooperation - exchange of good practices in labour inspections and mobilisation of informal to formal work. Rights of vulnerable populations, especially women, LGBTI persons and indigenous peoples are on the priority list of the EU cooperation with Peru (outside the Agreement), more intense cooperation has started in 2014, with regular financial support. Issues with respect to freedom of discrimination have been on the agenda of the Human Rights Dialogue with Peru since 2015.<sup>567</sup></p>			<p>agricultural sectors (esp. indigenous and Afro-Peruvian women, women in rural areas);</p> <p>Migrant workers and indigenous peoples, in particular working in informal sectors</p>

<sup>566</sup> See also social analysis on non-discrimination and women.

<sup>567</sup> Based on the EU Annual Reports on Human Rights and Democracy in the World Country Updates from 2009 to 2019.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
	could strengthen effective implementation of labour protection in line with international standards.				
<b>Freedom from slavery and forced labour</b> absolute right  - UDHR, Art. 4 - ICCPR, Art. 8 - ILO Conventions 29 & 105 - CFR, Art. 5 - CDESCR General Comment No. 18 - ACHR, Art. 6	TSD Title - see above	According to the 2018 Global Slavery Index, approximately 80,000 persons lived in the modern slavery conditions in Peru. The UN has noted substantial progress made by Peru with respect to legal, policy and judicial measures taken to address forced labour and trafficking (see Annex E-1). Human trafficking is on the priority list of the EU cooperation with Peru. <sup>568</sup> The EU has been active in supporting Peru in projects aimed at combatting human trafficking. <sup>569</sup> Under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Peruvian authorities and encouraged Peru to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the ILO Forced Labour Convention (outside the Agreement) (European Commission 2019). Based on the literature review and stakeholder consultations carried out, there was no further evidence found to link the Agreement to the freedom from slavery and forced labour via causal chain analysis.	Direct	Minor	Vulnerable population groups in Peru
<b>Children's rights (child labour)</b>  - ICESCR, Art. 10 - CRC, Art. 19, 32 - ILO Conventions 138 & 182	TSD Title – see above	Based on 2015 data, approximately 2 million children from 5 to 17 years were engaged in economic activity (see social analysis). More than half of these children are from rural areas. Often children are involved in hazardous work. The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child is concerned about the extensive prevalence of child labour in the country (see Annex E-1). According to the results of the economic modelling, subsectors within the agricultural sector have grown due to the Agreement, leading to positive effects for production, jobs and exports, while mining (petroleum, coal) has not been impacted much by the Agreement in terms of production and exports, and production of minerals has marginally decreased (-0.1%) despite information about increases in investments. Because most child labour occurs in the small-scale domestic focused agriculture not much linked to exports, the Agreement is not likely to have had a major effect on reducing child labour. Moreover, special regimes of employment in the agricultural sectors could affect child labour through insecure adult employment, taking into account that main reasons for child labour are poverty and informality (see also social analysis). For the broader EU-Peru cooperation (not under the Agreement), cooperation in the area of child labour has been a focal point for the EU. For example, Peru participated in the global Clear Cotton Project that was aimed at improving national	Indirect	Minor	Children in Peru, in particular in rural areas

<sup>568</sup> Ibid.

<sup>569</sup> EU Annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World in 2019, Country updates: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007\\_eu\\_country\\_updates\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_2019.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007_eu_country_updates_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2019.pdf)

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		legislation and policies to address the needs of children engaged in or at risk of child labour. <sup>570</sup> Under the TSD Title, there was regular engagement of the parties on this topic, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Peruvian authorities <sup>571</sup> and encouraged Peru to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the ILO Forced Labour Convention. <sup>572</sup>			
<b>Right of peaceful assembly, right to freedom of association, incl. the right to form and join trade unions</b>  - UDHR, Art. 20 - ICCPR, Art. 21, 22 - CFR, Art. 12 - ILO Conventions 87 & 98 - ACHR, Art. 15, 16 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 8	TSD Title - see above	Peru witnessed a high level of violence against human rights defenders (see Annex E-1). Multiple violations have been recorded by the ILO with respect to the freedom of association. <sup>573</sup> Some stakeholders report that increased competition linked to the Agreement has recorded a number of violations, in particular, the practice of temporary contracts which made it more difficult for the workers to organise. The economic analysis results show that agricultural sectors have grown due to the Agreement. That means that more employment and economic opportunities have been created. However, overall, the number of people working on temporary contracts in agricultural sector has increased, which implies that job creation has mainly occurred in short-term and not long-term contracts (Maldonado Mujica 2020). It is difficult to establish the link between this practice and the Agreement, especially taking into account a long history of anti-trade union climate in Peru (Orbie, Putte, and Martens 2017), but by creating favourable conditions to trade and encouraging economic activity in these sectors, the Agreement may have contributed indirectly to preserving the special regimes. <sup>574</sup>	Direct/ indirect	Minor, possibly major in agriculture	Workers in agriculture, esp. in informal sectors
<b>Right to social security</b>  - UDHR, Art. 22, 25 - ICESCR, Art. 9, 10 - CESC General	TSD Title - see above	Social security protection mechanisms in Peru have been weak (see Annex E-1). Social protection is one of the key components of the decent work agenda, <sup>575</sup> recognised by the Parties under the Agreement (Article 269(1)). Stakeholders note no significant progress on social protection coverage as	Indirect	Minor	Workers in general

<sup>570</sup> Based on the EU Annual Reports on Human Rights and Democracy in the World Country Updates from 2009 till 2019.

<sup>571</sup> Coordinadora Nacional de Derechos Humanos (2018). UE exige al Perú cumplir sus obligaciones en materia laboral y ambiental del Acuerdo Comercial, Notas de prensa, 8 agosto 2018: <http://derechoshumanos.pe/2018/08/ue-exige-al-peru-cumplir-sus-obligaciones-en-materia-laboral-y-ambiental-del-acuerdo-comercial/>

<sup>572</sup> See Annual Reports on the Implementation of the EU-Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Trade Agreement for 2014 and 2018.

<sup>573</sup> ILO recorded multiple complaint procedures on freedom of association cases, 13 of them are active, see [https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:20060:0:FIND:NO:20060:P20060\\_COUNTRY\\_ID,P20060\\_COMPLAINT\\_STATU\\_ID:102805,1495810](https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:20060:0:FIND:NO:20060:P20060_COUNTRY_ID,P20060_COMPLAINT_STATU_ID:102805,1495810)

<sup>574</sup> See also social analysis.

<sup>575</sup> ILO definition of the decent work agenda: "Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men", <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<p><i>Comment No. 19</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ILO Convention 102</li> <li>- CFR, Art. 34</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 11</li> <li>- ICMW, Art. 27</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 9</li> </ul>		<p>a consequence of the Agreement.<sup>576</sup> Additional analysis shows that while tariff revenues for Peru decreased by USD 38.4 million (section section 6.12 of the main report), this is too small to have had a discernible impact on the right to social security. Based on CEIC (2020) data, social security spending increased by 6.3% from 2008 to 2013 on average and by 4.1% from 2013 to 2017. While this is a relative drop in the growth rate of expenditures on social security, in absolute terms, the social security budget increase was PEN 788 million from 2008 to 2012 and PEN 828 million from 2013 to 2017. The regulations on social protection are defined by a national policy decision. Based on the economic analysis and stakeholder consultations, no significant impact from the Agreement has been recorded on the social security spending.</p>			
<p><b>Right to work, to free choice of employment, right to just and favourable conditions of work</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art.23, 24</li> <li>- ICESCR, Art. 6 &amp; 7</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 6 &amp; 7</li> <li>- CFR, Art. 15 &amp; 31</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 11</li> <li>- CRPD, Art. 27</li> </ul>	<p>TSD Title - see above</p> <p>Commitments under Title III <i>Trade in goods</i>, Chapter 1 (<i>Market access</i>) Section 2 on the elimination of custom duties (Article 22) and Section 4 on agricultural goods (Article 33 on administration and implementation of TRQs could lead to improvements/deterioration of the rights of workers from the affected sectors due to possible gain/loss of employment.</p>	<p>The unemployment rate in Peru decreased slightly from 6.3% in 2007 to 4.4% in 2018, though this is the observed total effect, not the pure Agreement effect. The CGE analysis only considers job re-allocations across sectors under the assumption that total employment remained constant: Employment has improved, in relation to the average, in the other food products sector (1.8%), chemical products (1.5%), vegetables, fruits and nuts (1.3%), vegetable oils and fats (0.8%), plant-based fibres (0.6%), oil seeds (0.5%), wool (0.4%), sugar cane (0.4%) and paddy rice (0.4%). These sectors demonstrate that the Agreement has had positive employment effects and thus a positive impact on the right to work, not only in agriculture, but also in some industrial and service sectors. However, due to special labour regimes allowed in agriculture under Law No. 27360, the number of workers covered by the special regime in agriculture has increased (almost doubled, according to some data), so gains from the Agreement did not reach all the population groups (Maldonado Mujica 2020). Sectors with relative employment decreases are pharmaceuticals (-1.0%), paper and publishing (-0.4%), metals (-0.8%), computer, electronic and optic equipment (-0.4% for unskilled workers and -0.5% for skilled workers), electrical equipment (-0.4% and -0.5%), machinery and equipment (-0.4%), manufactured products (-0.3%), motor vehicles (-0.2% and -0.3%) and transport equipment (-0.2% and -0.3%). In these sectors the right to work has come under pressure, also from increased foreign competition. Even though trade liberalisation covered a broad range of agricultural products and benefits from trade have accrued to the workers in these</p>	Direct	Minor	Workers in general, workers in affected sectors

<sup>576</sup> Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union, October 2017: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>




Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		sectors, according to the complaint of civil society submitted to the EC in 2017, working conditions, wages and social protection of workers remained at the same level and in some sectors even deteriorated, especially in the textile and clothing sector, mining sector and agricultural sector (Maldonado Mujica 2020). See also social analysis.  The number and quality of labour inspections in Peru were not impacted by the Agreement, even though stakeholders had hoped for a positive impact of the Agreement in this area. Orbie et al. (2017) note that labour inspection has weakened due to the inadequate functioning of the national inspection agency, SUNAFIL, created in 2012. Under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Peruvian authorities. <sup>577</sup> Overall, developments in working conditions and labour inspection remains a domestic matter and are attributed primarily to domestic legislation, policies and actions.			
<b>Right to privacy and protection of personal data</b>  - UDHR, Art. 12 - ICCPR, Art. 17 - ACHR, Art. 11 - CFR, Art. 7 & 8 - CRC, Art. 16 - CRPD, Art. 22 & 23 - ICMW, Art. 14 - Regulation (EU) 2016/679 - ACHR, Art. 11	The Parties' commitments under Chapter 5 on Regulatory Framework, Sections 4, 5 & 6 on telecommunications services, financial services and electronic commerce (Title IV, Trade in services, establishment and electronic commerce) include provisions related to confidentiality of the information transmitted or stored, data processing and data protection. These regulations could improve domestic legislation in data protection safeguards and the commitments of the governments in this matter, which is an important issue in the Latin American context.	The right to privacy is guaranteed under the Constitution of Peru (Art.2). There is a legal framework on privacy and data protection in Peru (e.g., the Law No. 29733 of 2011 on personal data protection, adopted ahead of the Agreement, and the Supreme Decree No. 003-2013-JUS-Regulation of Personal Data Protection Law, amended in 2017). The intended effect of the Agreement to strengthen protection of personal data and privacy has materialised in the adoption of the legislation prior to the application of the Agreement. <sup>578</sup> No further evidence was found on the impact of Agreement on this right.	Direct	Minor	Population of Peru
<b>Right to adequate food</b>  - UDHR, Art. 25 - ICESCR, Art. 11	The Parties' commitments under Title III – Trade in goods, Chapter 5 on SPS measures (in particular, Article 94 on measures linked to animal and plant health) could improve food safety.	The main instrument of the Agreement regarding the SPS measures is dialogue. Because SPS measures are determined domestically (with each party having the right to regulate) the Agreement has not had a discernible impact on food safety. This view was confirmed by stakeholder consultations and discussions with experts.	Direct/ indirect	Minor	Population of Peru

<sup>577</sup> Coordinadora Nacional de Derechos Humanos (2018). UE exige al Perú cumplir sus obligaciones en materia laboral y ambiental del Acuerdo Comercial, Notas de prensa, 8 agosto 2018: <http://derechoshumanos.pe/2018/08/ue-exige-al-peru-cumplir-sus-obligaciones-en-materia-laboral-y-ambiental-del-acuerdo-comercial/>

<sup>578</sup> <https://www.lexology.com/library/detail.aspx?g=da762a1b-232e-46c4-b99a-7cc6bb2007a5>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- CESCR General Comment No. 12</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art.12 &amp; 17</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 12 &amp; 14</li> <li>- CRPD, Art. 24 &amp; 26</li> <li>- CRC, Art. 24 &amp; 27</li> </ul>	The Parties commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1, Section 4 on agricultural goods could promote food availability and accessibility.	According to the economic analysis, food sectors in Peru experienced a mixed impact from trade liberalisation under the Agreement in terms of production, but the overall effect is positive. Sub-sectors like vegetables, fruits and nuts (+0.9%), other food products (+1.9%), vegetable oils and fats (+0.9%), plant-based fibers (+0.4%) have increased production. Other sectors, like wheat (-0.2%), crops (-0.3%), have experienced marginal decreases in production. When these production effects are compared to the export effects of the Agreement for the same sectors, it is possible to isolate the impact of the Agreement on domestic food availability. The largest effect in absolute terms is in the other food products sector. Total Peruvian production increased by 226 USD million (out of a total production of 12.2 USD billion) while exports increased by 202 USD million. This means that more is domestically produced than exported in total, increasing food security for other foods. The effect is small, however (+0.2%). The largest (positive) effect on domestic food availability was in plant-based fibres (+0.4%). Given these marginal changes in Peruvian production and trade, one can conclude that domestic food availability was not significantly impacted by the Agreement.			
<b>Right to an adequate standard of living</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art. 25</li> <li>- ICESCR, Art. 11</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art.12 &amp; 17</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 14</li> <li>- CRPD, Art. 28</li> <li>- CRC, Art. 27</li> <li>- CERD, Art. 5 &amp; 7</li> </ul>	The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) as well as commitments under Title IV Trade in services and Establishment Chapter could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP, more employment opportunities, and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on social protection programmes for various (esp. vulnerable) population groups.	Poverty levels have decreased in Peru, but poverty remains consistently high in some rural areas, particularly affecting indigenous peoples (see Annex E-1). The economic analysis shows that the Agreement has contributed to the increase in Peru's exports and domestic production overall. However, sectoral divergencies in employment suggest that the impact of the Agreement on the right to an adequate standard of living has also been mixed - positive impact of the Agreement for the workers from growing sectors and negative impact for the workers from declining sectors (see right to work).	Direct	Minor	Workers from affected sectors
<b>Right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art. 25</li> <li>- ICESCR, Art. 12</li> </ul>	Commitments under Title VII on Intellectual Property, Chapter 3, Section 5 (in particular, Article 230 (4) on patents), to make available a mechanism to compensate the patent owner for unreasonable curtailment of the effective patent term, could improve access to new drugs and promote research and development in	Peru provides patent protection for pharmaceutical products in line with the TRIPS WTO Agreement, with the exception of the granting of patents for uses and second uses. Patent term restoration (PTR) due to administrative government delays through such measures as supplementary protection certificates (SPCs) is not possible for pharmaceutical products in Peru. Peru provides for a (varying) degree of Regulatory Data Protection. The Observatorio de Precios de Medicamentos was set up, as a win for consumers, focusing on price transparency of medicines. This has helped combat trade in substandard and counterfeit	Direct/ indirect	Minor	Population of Peru

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- CESCR General Comment No. 14</li> <li>- CFR, Art. 35</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 10</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 11,12</li> <li>- CRPD, Art. 25</li> <li>- CRC, Art. 24</li> <li>- ICMW, Art. 28</li> <li>- CERD, Art. 5</li> <li>- Belém do Pará Convention, Art. 4</li> </ul>	<p>pharmaceutical products but also could affect prices.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on programmes for various vulnerable population and thereby could improve quality of health care and access to health care for the most vulnerable population groups.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under Title III – Trade in goods, Chapter 5 on SPS measures could affect human health and safety.</p>	<p>medicines. In 2019, prices for pharmaceutical products were significantly lower in Peru when compared to the regional average (see figure below). This indicates that the Agreement has not pushed up prices for medicines in Peru, due to various domestic initiatives.</p> <p>Peruvian prices for medicines compared to the regional average</p>  <p>Source: IPSOS, April 2019</p> <p>The Agreement has helped Peru get better access to medicines via an increase in EU exports to Peru (of 57 USD million, 32.9%, through reductions in tariffs. This is important because Peru has a lot of counterfeit medicines (Rojas-Cortés 2020). Therefore, there was no evidence found that the Agreement affected pricing of medicines, despite the IP protection under the Agreement and the Agreement has helped Peru get better access to higher-quality medicines via an increase in imports. With increased imports of generic and patented EU medicines, domestic lower-quality drugs have been replaced.</p> <p>Public health spending in Peru has increased but remains low (see Annex E-1). Health care coverage (insurance) has increased from 37% in 2004 to 83% in 2017, due to the expansion of the non-contributory comprehensive health insurance system (SIS). The impact of the Agreement on the healthcare budget in Peru is unlikely as it continued to increase, and the decrease in tariff revenues due to tariff liberalisation under the Agreement did not impact it (see section 6.12 of the main report).</p>			

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		<p>The main instrument of the Agreement regarding SPS measures is dialogue. Because SPS measures are determined domestically (with each party having the right to regulate) the Agreement has not had a discernible impact on health and safety. This view was confirmed by stakeholders and experts.</p> <p>The 2017 civil society complaint to the EC indicates that the Peruvian Government has passed legislative acts that have relaxed environmental protection in the country.<sup>579</sup> The UN and OECD report adverse effects of large-scale business operations on health and the environment – industrial pollution, pollution from the mining operations (e.g., through emissions and releases of mercury),<sup>580</sup> oil spills, deforestation, water contamination<sup>581</sup> (see Annex E-1). While these trends are very concerning, we focus on the impact of the Agreement. Results of the economic analysis show that mining did not increase in Peru because of the Agreement – in fact, minerals mining decreased by a marginal 0.1%. Increases in agriculture activities such as palm oil and avocado production, however, have contributed to environmental challenges (e.g. water use, land use) and these sectoral effects are linked to the Agreement.<sup>582</sup> Economic effects of the Agreement indicate that production of vegetables, fruits and nuts (including avocados) and vegetable oils and fats (that includes palm oil) increase by 1.1% and 0.9% respectively. Also, Peruvian exports to the EU for these two sectors increase by 32.3% and 41.2% respectively. This possibly contributes to marginally more pollution from this sector (e.g. use of fertilisers, soil and water pollution).<sup>583</sup></p>			
<b>Rights of indigenous peoples (right to self-determination; right to food, right to health, right to</b>	Title VII on Intellectual Property, Chapter 2 on protection of biodiversity and traditional knowledge (in particular, Article 201) contains provisions that refer to common efforts of the Parties to respect,	Regarding respecting, preserving and maintaining knowledge, innovations and practices of indigenous and local communities, the Agreement contains clear Intellectual Property provisions (see figure below), which is where the Agreement stands out compared to other EU FTAs. According to DESTA, the Agreement is the most ambitious of all EU FTAs in protecting traditional knowledge. Unrelated to the FTA, the Peruvian government also plays an	Direct & indirect	Minor	Indigenous communities in Peru

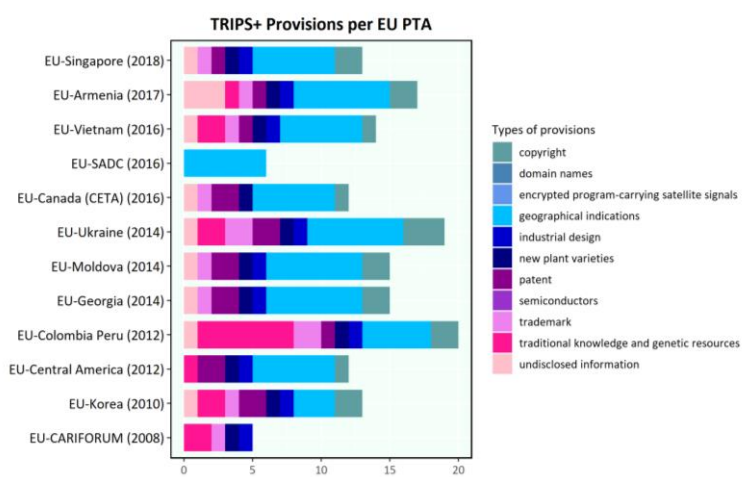
<sup>579</sup> Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union, October 2017: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>

<sup>580</sup> Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL)/Organización de Cooperación y Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE) (2017). Evaluaciones del desempeño ambiental: Perú, Santiago: [https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240\\_es.pdf](https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/42527/1/S1600240_es.pdf)

<sup>581</sup> OECD (2020). OECD Responsible Business Conduct Policy Reviews: Peru, OECD, Paris: <https://mneguidelines.oecd.org/OECD-Responsible-Business-Conduct-Policy-Review-Peru.pdf>

<sup>582</sup> Ibid.

<sup>583</sup> See also environmental analysis.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<p><b>water, freedom from discrimination, right to maintain, control, protect and develop their traditional knowledge, land rights)</b></p> <p>- UNDRIP - ILO Convention No. 169 - ICCPR, Art. 27 - HRC General Comment No. 23</p>	<p>preserve and maintain knowledge, innovations and practices of indigenous and local communities embodying traditional life styles relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity (Art.201(3)). Subject to domestic legislation, it also includes an "obligation to take measures with the aim of sharing in a fair and equitable way the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources" (Art.201(4). While the objective of the FTA is not to use these IP provisions to support the rights of the indigenous peoples, these provisions could encourage the promotion and enactment of appropriate domestic legislation that addresses protection of this vulnerable population group.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under the Establishment Chapter could increase investment in sectors like mining and other extracting sectors of the economy and affect land rights of indigenous peoples.</p>	<p>important role against biopiracy<sup>584</sup> and the Peruvian Anti-Biopiracy Commission has resolved various cases of claims related to native plants, invalidating several patents.</p> <p>Types of TRIPS+ provisions in EU FTAs</p>  <p>Source: DESTA database (2020)</p> <p>The Andean-Amazonian Initiative for the Prevention of Biopiracy, an NGO, in 2016 was concerned that indigenous knowledge is threatened.<sup>585</sup> Since then, according to information provided by the Government, the authorities has treated 16 identified cases of biopiracy, of which three have been resolved favorably, the rest have been eight observations, two recently detected, and three are in the process of preparation of technical observation reports. The EPO provides facilities for the presentation of observations via web, and monitor the case through the EPO Register.</p> <p>Indigenous peoples' discrimination remains common (see Annex E-1). The economic analysis does not show a direct impact of the Agreement for</p>			

<sup>584</sup> "Peru Is Leader Against Biopiracy", Moeller IP Advisors/mondaq.com, 12 December 2016, <https://www.mondaq.com/peru/patent/552022/peru-is-leader-against-biopiracy>

<sup>585</sup> "Corporate 'Biopiracy' in Peru Threatens Indigenous Knowledge", Mariale Bellota/Iniciativa Andino Amazónica para la Prevención de la Biopiratería, 07 October 2016, <https://biopirateria.org/corporate-biopiracy-in-peru-threatens-indigenous-knowledge/?lang=en>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		<p>indigenous peoples. Social analysis shows that indigenous peoples are relatively more present in agricultural sectors. The fact that the Agreement has had a positive effect for various important agricultural sectors (e.g. vegetables, fruits &amp; nuts) in terms of employment, exports and production could mean positive economic effects for those economically active in them, including indigenous peoples. However, statistical data indicates that 64% of indigenous peoples work in the mountain region and are not involved in international trade. Due to lack of further statistical data, it is difficult to estimate the impact.</p> <p>Peru has a weak implementation of a prior consultation process. Land grabbing for economic activities has been common and affected rights of the indigenous communities in the country. The UN Human Rights Council notes that environmental impact assessments and effective consultations with the indigenous peoples are not always carried out<sup>586</sup> (see Annex E-1). Based on the results of the economic analysis, it is not likely that land grabbing for mining projects has been affected by the Agreement as raw materials exports to the EU did not increase, neither output in the mining sector. As to palm oil, production has increased due to the Agreement (by 0.9%), which has a small impact on land use, and (with the same weaknesses in implementation) may allow for land grabbing to occur. In the environmental analysis, we find that palm oil production increase is too small to fuel concerns about a specific part of land use, deforestation; production increases can also have originated from existing palm oil areas.</p>			
<b>Right to participate in public affairs</b>  - UDHR, Art. 21 - ICCPR, Art. 25 - HRC General Comment No. 25 - CFR, Art. 39 - CEDAW, Art. 7 - CRPD, Art. 29	Article 267(e) sets out an objective to promote public participation in the matters covered under the TSD Title. Parties' commitments under the TSD Title (in particular, Articles 281-283) provide for an active dialogue with civil society and could enhance transparency and strengthen stakeholder involvement in public decision making.	The provisions of the Agreement are envisaged to stimulate civil society involvement related to the implementation of the TSD Title. The 2019 EC Report on the implementation of EU FTAs marks good progress in the involvement of civil society (European Commission 2019). The 2020 EESC report, however, notes weaknesses in the implementation of these provisions. For example, the EESC notes delays in establishing the DAGs due to the requirement for DAGs to be "in accordance with domestic law" (Art. 281) which also resulted in partial representation of the relevant associations. Peruvian Domestic Advisory Group (National Council) has been criticised by academics, civil society and interviewees for its ineffectiveness and dysfunctionality. <sup>587</sup> While organising the forum for civil	Direct	Minor	Population of Peru

<sup>586</sup> UN Human Rights Council (2018). Report of the Working Group on the issue of human and transnational corporations and other business enterprises on its mission to Peru, UN Doc. A/HRC/38/48/Add.2; and European Parliamentary Research Service (EPRS and ICEI 2018).

<sup>587</sup> Orbie et al. (2017); Thu and Schweissheim (2020); Complaint against the Peruvian Government for failing to fulfil its labour and environmental commitments under the Trade Agreement between Peru and the European Union: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=12295>



Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Right to education</b> - UDHR, Art. 26 - ICESCR, Art. 13 - CESCR General Comments No. 11 & No.13 - CRC, Art. 28 - CEDAW, Art. 10 - CRPD, Art. 24 - ICMW, Art. 30 - CERD, Art. 5 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 13	The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on social programmes, including initiatives related to education.	society to participate in the implementation of the Agreement, issues with the mechanism of participation have not strengthened that positive impact. Trade liberalisation has contributed to poverty reduction in Peru. <sup>588</sup> In parallel, public expenditure on education has increased from 14.5% of total government expenditure in 2008 to 17.5% in 2019. <sup>589</sup> From 2008 to 2012 the annual increase in education budget was 4.3% and from 2013 to 2018 the annual increase in the education budget was 6.5%. This points to a significant annual rate of increase of the education budget after the Agreement came into effect. This also shows that the decrease in tariff revenues due to tariff liberalisation in the Agreement (see section 6.12 of the main report) has not had an impact on the right to education from a budgetary perspective.	Indirect	Minor	Population of Peru
<b>Right to access information</b> - UDHR, Art.16 - ICCPR, Art. 10 - CFR, Art. 9 - CRC, Art. 14 - ICMW, Art. 12 - CERD, Art. 5	The Parties' commitments in the TSD Title on promotion of transparency and public participation (in particular, Articles 281-283) could improve transparency and strengthen civil society involvement in public decision making.	The Agreement has contributed to the inclusion of civil society in public decision making through envisaging civil society involvement in the implementation of the labour and environmental provisions under the TSD Title. However, the national mechanism for civil society involvement has been criticised by academics and interviewees for its ineffectiveness and dysfunctionality (Orbie, Putte, and Martens 2017; Mai Ha Thu and Schweissshelm 2020). So the intended positive impact of the Agreement provisions has not been strengthened due to the issues with the national mechanism of participation.	Direct	Minor	Population of Peru
<b>Right to water</b> - ICESCR, Art. 11 - CESCR General Comment No. 15	--	Stakeholders report deterioration with respect to water quality and water availability due to mining and agricultural activities (Fritz 2018; EPRS and ICEI 2018). There is evidence that environmental impact assessments are not carried out in a due manner (see Annex E-1). The economic effects for the mining industry have been limited. Agricultural activities have increased as a result of the Agreement, as shown in the economic analysis: 1.1% increase in the VFN sector (production of fruits and vegetables, some of them are water-intensive, e.g. avocados) and 0.9% increase in the vegetable oils and fats sector (palm oil production) (see environmental analysis). These changes under the Agreement could have affected right to water (through increased use of water, use of fertilisers and pesticides), in particular in the communities adjacent to the production areas.	Direct	Minor, possibly major in specific areas	Affected communities in Peru

<sup>588</sup> See economic analysis and social analysis, table on poverty and extreme poverty levels.

<sup>589</sup> Based on UNESCO data.

**Table E-20: Screening and scoping of human rights affected by the Agreement in Ecuador<sup>590</sup>**

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Freedom from discrimination</b> - UDHR, Art. 2 - ICCPR, Art. 26 - ILO Conventions 100 & 111 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 3	<p>The Parties' commitments under Title IX of the Agreement – the TSD Title – (in particular, Article 269) to (1) recognise productive employment and decent work for all; (2) promote and effectively implement internationally recognized core labour standards (namely: a) freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; b) the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; c) the effective abolition of child labour; d) the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation) could improve labour situation in general.</p> <p>Provisions of Article 276 on the rights of migrant workers, where Parties recognize the importance of promoting equality of treatment in respect of working conditions for migrant workers legally employed in their territories, could improve position of this specific vulnerable population group.</p> <p>Further commitments of the Parties under the TSD Title (in particular, Articles 277, 279, 280-282, 286) related to upholding the level of protection in labour laws, monitoring the implementation of the Agreement on labour, promoting transparency and civil society participation in the process of assessment</p>	<p>The Agreement provisions refer to the freedom from discrimination at the workplace. The analysis of the current situation shows that population groups most affected by discrimination in Ecuador are women, indigenous peoples and persons of African descent, Montubio people, rural populations, migrants, persons with disabilities and LGBTI persons (see Annex E-1). The UN reports state weak implementation of the existing legal framework on the freedom from discrimination and issues with labour inspection (decreased number of inspectors). The results of the economic analysis show that several agricultural sectors have increased their production and employment (e.g. other food products 4.1% increase in production and a 3.8% increase in employment for skilled and 3.9% for unskilled workers; the vegetables, fruits and nuts (VFN) +0.8% in production, and a 1.2% increase in employment; and the cereal grains sector +2.1% in production and a 2.7% increase in employment). Since these sectors are characterised by high level of informality and employ a high number of women, migrant workers and indigenous peoples, in the context of the Agreement it could mean that the growth of production and employment in the affected sectors along with increased competition has had positive economic effects for those economically active in them. However, given the pre-existing vulnerabilities and insufficient protection due to weak implementation, the positive economic effects may not have been distributed equally (especially differing between the export-oriented parts of these sectors versus the domestically-oriented parts of these sectors).<sup>591</sup> While more jobs are the result, there may also be increased pressure on the right to freedom from discrimination for vulnerable groups of population not sufficiently protected by the existing laws. Stakeholders report inequality for women at work with respect to wages, working conditions and social protection, especially in the agriculture (Daza et al. 2020; Olmedo M. 2018). Based on the EC reports on the implementation of the Agreement, labour inspection issues were a regular point of discussion with the Ecuadorian authorities. Rights of vulnerable populations, especially women, indigenous peoples, children and migrants are on the priority list of the EU cooperation with Ecuador, more intense</p>	Direct	Minor	<p>Women working in agricultural sectors (esp. indigenous women, women in rural areas);</p> <p>Migrant workers and indigenous peoples, in particular working in informal sectors</p>

<sup>590</sup> The table does not include rights where neither desk research nor stakeholder outreach indicated that they could have been affected by the Agreement.

<sup>591</sup> See also social analysis on non-discrimination and women.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
	of the implementation of the Agreement and cooperation activities under this Title could strengthen effective implementation of labour protection in line with international standards.	cooperation has started in 2014, with regular financial support and active engagement of the EU Delegation in Ecuador. <sup>592</sup>			
<b>Freedom from slavery and forced labour</b> absolute right  - UDHR, Art. 4 - ICCPR, Art. 8 - ILO Conventions 29 & 105 - CFR, Art. 5 - CESCR General Comment No. 18 - ACHR, Art. 6	TSD Title - see above	According to the 2018 Global Slavery Index, approximately 39,000 persons (0.24% of the total population) lived in modern slavery conditions in Ecuador. Ecuador has made some efforts in the elimination of the forced labour but this has been hampered by the lack of updated statistical data on the victims (see Annex E-1). One of the key focus areas of the EU in its cooperation with Ecuador (outside the Agreement) is ensuring better protection of persons belonging to minorities and vulnerable groups, including indigenous peoples, migrants, women and children. <sup>593</sup> Under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Ecuadorian authorities and encouraged Ecuador to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the ILO Forced Labour Convention. <sup>594</sup> Focusing on the impact of the Agreement, based on the literature review and stakeholder consultations carried out, there was no further evidence found to link the Agreement to the freedom from slavery and forced labour via causal chain analysis.	Direct	Minor	Vulnerable population groups in Ecuador: Women, Children, Indigenous peoples, Migrants and refugees
<b>Children's rights (child labour)</b> - ICESCR, Art. 10 - CRC, Art. 19, 32 - ILO Conventions 138 & 182	TSD Title – see above	Child labour in Ecuador decreased from 17% (in 2006) to 4.9% (in 2013). Based on the 2017 data, approximately 8.4% (375,342) children from 5 to 17 years old were engaged in economic activity (see social analysis). Most children are involved in work in agriculture (82%), in the production of bananas, palm oil, flowers and fishing; 13% of children worked in services (domestic work and street work) and 3.2% in industry (gold mining and small-scale mining). <sup>595</sup> According to the results of the economic modelling, some subsectors within the agricultural sector have grown due to the Agreement, leading to positive effects for production, jobs and exports, while other sectors have not been impacted much by the Agreement in terms of production and exports. Exports to the EU of vegetables, fruits and nuts (including bananas), crops (including flowers), and vegetable oils & fats (palm oil) are all increasing – by 25.7% (USD 126 million), 27.5% (USD 19 million) and 15.8% (USD 10 million) respectively. The export impact of the Agreement for fisheries is negligible. For VFN the significant additional	Direct	Minor	Children in Ecuador, in particular, children from rural areas, indigenous children and migrant and refugee children

<sup>592</sup> Based on the EU Annual Reports on Human Rights and Democracy in the World Country Updates from 2017 to 2019.

<sup>593</sup> EU Annual Report on Human Rights and Democracy in the World in 2019, Country updates: [https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007\\_eu\\_country\\_updates\\_on\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_democracy\\_2019.pdf](https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/eeas/files/201007_eu_country_updates_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2019.pdf)

<sup>594</sup> See Annual Reports on the Implementation of the EU-Colombia/Ecuador/Peru Trade Agreement from 2017 to 2019.

<sup>595</sup> US Department of Labour (2019). Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Ecuador: <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/ilab/resources/reports/child-labor/ecuador>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		<p>exports come to a small extent from additional production, but mostly from redirected exports from other destinations. There is a shift to more export-oriented production in larger agricultural firms, that could be positive for the fight against child labour as child labour occurs mostly in the small-scale informal agricultural production (i.e. family-based subsistence farming). Crops (flowers) and vegetable oils &amp; fats (palm oil) sectors also increase in exports from the Agreement, but domestic production declines (-1.3% and -1.6%, respectively); accordingly, the employment performance in the crops sector is below average (-1.2%, assuming that total employment in Ecuador is not affected) which could put pressure on those employed, especially in the informal sector. At the same time Ecuadorian exports to third countries are redirected to the EU which does not suggest more child labour in Ecuador. Nonetheless, because the EU has become a much more important export destination, the EU can leverage this position to engage more effectively with Ecuador to combat child labour. The same applies to the vegetable oils &amp; fats sector, but to a much smaller extent.</p> <p>Under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Ecuadorian authorities and encouraged Ecuador to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the ILO Forced Labour Convention (European Commission 2019). Ensuring better protection of children was one of the key focus areas in cooperation between the EU and Ecuador regarding human rights (outside the Agreement).</p>			
<p><b>Right of peaceful assembly, right to freedom of association, incl. the right to form and join trade unions</b></p> <p>- UDHR, Art. 20 - ICCPR, Art. 21, 22 - CFR, Art. 12 - ILO Conventions 87 &amp; 98</p>	TSD Title - see above	<p>Ecuador has made progress with respect to the protection of the right to peaceful assembly. Regarding the freedom of association, ILO has noted that the right has been compromised. Trade union activity in Ecuador is low, due to national regulations on the formation of trade unions (minimum 30 workers per enterprise) and due to high level of informality (see Annex E-1). Some stakeholders report that increased competition linked to the Agreement has led to a number of violations in the banana sector and agriculture.<sup>596</sup> According to the economic analysis, the VFN sector (bananas) has grown as a result of the Agreement and agricultural sectors in general have a mixed impact from the Agreement, some sectors growing and others declining. For the growing sectors, more employment and economic opportunities have been created. For the declining sectors, pressure could have been on the employers to cut costs (see economic and social analysis for the details at the sector level) and this could also put pressure on the right to freedom of association because of increased economic pressures.</p>	Direct	Minor	Workers from affected sectors

<sup>596</sup> ASTAC (2019). Queja de las trabajadoras y los trabajadores bananeros por violación de derechos: <https://ecuador.fes.de/news-list/e/queja-de-las-trabajadoras-y-los-trabajadores-bananeros-por-violacion-de-derechos/>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
- ACHR, Art. 15, 16 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 8		Issues with trade unions were present in Ecuador before the start of application of the Agreement, but some stakeholders indicated that they perceive that the situation has deteriorated since the Agreement (Daza et al. 2020). It is difficult to establish the link between the practice of special regimes and the level of informality and the Agreement, taking into account pre-existing anti-trade union climate in Ecuador and the lack of appropriate data, but we will seek more evidence in a separate case study on this. Within the cooperation under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Ecuadorian authorities on the need to address issues regarding the freedom of association. <sup>597</sup>			
<b>Right to social security</b>  - UDHR, Art. 22, 25 - ICESCR, Art. 9, 10 - CESCR General Comment No. 19 - ILO Convention 102 - CFR, Art. 34 - CEDAW, Art. 11 - ICMW, Art. 27 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 9	TSD Title - see above	Social security protection mechanisms in Ecuador were weak before the start of application of the Agreement (see Annex E-1). Social protection is one of the key components of the decent work agenda, <sup>598</sup> recognised by the Parties (Article 269(1)). The regulations on social protection are defined by national policy decisions. Stakeholders note no significant progress on social protection coverage as a consequence of the Agreement. <sup>599</sup> Calculations based on the economic analysis show government revenues in Ecuador have not changes as a result of the Agreement (section 6.12 of the main report), and thus the Agreement has had no impact on the right to social security from a budgetary perspective.	In- direct	Minor	Workers in general
<b>Right to work, to free choice of employment, right to just and favourable</b>	TSD Title - see above  Commitments under Title III <i>Trade in goods</i> , Chapter 1 ( <i>Market access</i> ) Section 2 on the elimination of custom duties (Article 22) and Section 4 on agricultural	The unemployment rate in Ecuador decreased from 5% in 2007 to 3.8% in 2019. The CGE model only provides limited information for assessing the contribution of the Agreement to this decline, as based on the model assumptions total employment is held constant; therefore, the model only allows identifying the relative "winners" and "losers" across sectors. Among the former are the other food products sector (+3.8%), fishing (+2.0%),	Direct	Minor	Workers in affected sectors

<sup>597</sup> See Annual Reports on the Implementation of the EU-Colombia/Peru/Ecuador Trade Agreement for 2017 - 2019.

<sup>598</sup> ILO definition of the decent work agenda: "Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men", <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm>

<sup>599</sup> Based on interviews and ASTAC (2019). Queja de las trabajadoras y los trabajadores bananeros por violación de derechos: <https://ecuador.fes.de/news-list/e/queja-de-las-trabajadoras-y-los-trabajadores-bananeros-por-violacion-de-derechos/>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>conditions of work</b>  - UDHR, Art.23, 24 - ICESCR, Art. 6 & 7 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 6 & 7 - CFR, Art. 15 & 31 - CEDAW, Art. 11 - CRPD, Art. 27	goods (Article 33 on administration and implementation of TRQs could lead to improvements/deterioration of the rights of workers from the affected sectors due to possible gain/loss of employment.	<p>cereal grains (+2.7%), paddy rice (+0.6%), and VFN (+1.2%). These sectors demonstrate that the Agreement has had positive employment effects and thus a positive impact on the right to work, not only in agriculture, but also in industrial and service sectors. However, due to high level of informality, special regimes for temporary contracts and pre-existing vulnerability with respect to the working conditions, stakeholders note that positive effects have not been distributed equally (Daza et al. 2020). For example, the Trade Union Association of Agricultural, Banana and Rural Workers (ASTAC) reports that 68% of workers in this sector do not have formal contracts, and the right to just and favourable conditions of work of the workers in this sector are often violated.<sup>600</sup> Stakeholders report that due to the use of toxic chemicals in the banana and floral sectors, the health of the workers are affected which breach health and safety regulations (Daza et al. 2020).</p> <p>Relative employment declines were registered in wheat (-1.3%), oil seeds (-1.3%), plant-based fibres (-1.0%), crops (-1.2%), vegetable oils and fats (-1.8%), motor vehicles (-4.3%), metals (-2.4%), textiles (-1.9%), leather (1.7%), chemical products (-1.6%), rubber and plastics (-1.6%), electrical equipment (-1.3%), computer, electronic and optic equipment (-1.0%), paper (-1.1%), and wool (-5.1% - but small in absolute size). In these sectors the right to work has come under pressure, also from increased foreign competition. Within the cooperation under the TSD Title, the EU has kept a dialogue with the Ecuadorian authorities on the need to intensify efforts to strengthen labour inspections (European Commission 2019).</p>			
<b>Right to privacy and protection of personal data</b>  - UDHR, Art. 12 - ICCPR, Art. 17 - ACHR, Art. 11 - CFR, Art. 7 & 8 - CRC, Art. 16 - CRPD, Art. 22 & 23 - ICMW, Art. 14	The Parties' commitments under Chapter 5 on the Regulatory Framework, Sections 4, 5 & 6 on telecommunications services, financial services and electronic commerce (Title IV, Trade in services, establishment and electronic commerce) include provisions related to confidentiality of the information transmitted or stored, data processing and data protection. These regulations could improve domestic legislation in data protection safeguards and the	The right to privacy and personal data protection is guaranteed under the Constitution of Ecuador (Art.19). There are data provisions contained in the following legislation: the Organic Law on Transparency and Access to Public Information, the Organic Law on Telecommunications, the Labour Code, the Health Law. The draft law on the Protection of Personal Data aims to strengthen the protection of personal data and is being fast tracked due to the data breach scandal. It is set to include fines for the misuse of data, compensation for victims of data fraud and punishment for companies and individuals that sell data obtained illegally. <sup>601</sup> No evidence was found on the significant impact of the Agreement on this right.	Direct	Minor	Population of Ecuador

<sup>600</sup> ASTAC (2019). Queja de las trabajadoras y los trabajadores bananeros por violación de derechos: <http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/quito/15297.pdf>

<sup>601</sup> Financial Times (2019). Ecuador fast-tracks data privacy law after massive breach: <https://www.ft.com/content/35f9aea0-dbb0-11e9-8f9b-77216ebe1f17>



Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Regulation (EU) 2016/679</li> <li>- ACHR, Art. 11</li> </ul>	commitments of the governments in this matter, which is an important issue in the Latin American context.				
<b>Right to adequate food</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art. 25</li> <li>- ICESCR, Art. 11</li> <li>- CESCR General Comment No. 12</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art.12 &amp; 17</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 12 &amp; 14</li> <li>- CRPD, Art. 24 &amp; 26</li> <li>- CRC, Art. 24 &amp; 27</li> </ul>	<p>The Parties' commitments under Title III – Trade in goods, Chapter 5 on SPS measures (in particular, Article 94 on measures linked to animal and plant health) could improve food safety.</p> <p>The Parties commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1, Section 4 on agricultural goods could promote food availability and accessibility.</p>	<p>The main instrument of the Agreement regarding the SPS measures is a dialogue. Because SPS measures are determined domestically (with each party having the right to regulate), the Agreement has not had a discernible impact on food safety. This view was confirmed by stakeholder consultations and discussions with experts.</p> <p>According to the economic analysis, food sectors in Ecuador experienced a mixed impact from the trade liberalisation under the Agreement in terms of production. Sub-sectors like VFN (+0.8%), other food products (+4.1%), cereal grains (+2.1%), fishing (+0.3%) have increased production. Other sectors, like wheat (-1.4%), oil seeds (-1.4%), sugar cane (-0.5%), crops (-1.3%), vegetable oils and fats (-1.6%), plant-based fibres (-1.2%) have experienced marginal decreases in production. When these production effects are compared to the export effects of the Agreement for these same sectors, it is possible to isolate the impact of the Agreement on domestic food availability. The largest effect in absolute terms is in the other food products sector. Total Ecuadorian production increased by 179 USD million (out of a total production of 4.4 USD billion) while total exports increased by 220 USD million, i.e. the increase in exports was higher than the increase in output. Domestic food availability decreased therefore by 0.9%. The largest (positive) effect on domestic food availability was in cereal grains (+2.2%). Given these marginal increases and decreases in Ecuadorian production and trade, economic results demonstrate that domestic food availability was not significantly impacted by the Agreement.</p>	Direct	Minor	Population of Ecuador
<b>Right to an adequate standard of living</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- UDHR, Art. 25</li> <li>- ICESCR, Art. 11</li> <li>- Protocol of San Salvador, Art.12 &amp; 17</li> <li>- CEDAW, Art. 14</li> <li>- CRPD, Art. 28</li> <li>- CRC, Art. 27</li> <li>- CERD, Art. 5 &amp; 7</li> </ul>	<p>The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) as well as commitments under Title IV Trade in services and Establishment Chapter could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP, more employment opportunities, and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on social protection programmes for various (esp. vulnerable) population groups.</p>	<p>Poverty levels have decreased in Ecuador, but poverty remains consistently high in some rural areas, particularly affecting indigenous peoples and women (see Annex E-1). The economic analysis shows that the Agreement has contributed to the increase in Ecuador's GDP, exports and domestic production overall. However, sectoral divergencies in employment suggest that the impact of the Agreement on the right to an adequate standard of living has also been mixed. Positive impact of the Agreement for the workers from growing sectors and negative impact for the workers from declining sectors (see right to work).</p> <p>The economic analysis suggest that the Agreement has asymmetric effects within sectors regarding the standard of living. Among producers for the domestic markets, still high levels of poverty and inequality remain (Daza et al. 2020).</p>	Direct	Minor	Workers from affected sectors, small scale producers

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health</b>  - UDHR, Art. 25 - ICESCR, Art. 12 - CESCR General Comment No. 14 - CFR, Art. 35 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 10 - CEDAW, Art. 11,12 - CRPD, Art. 25 - CRC, Art. 24 - ICMW, Art. 28 - CERD, Art. 5 - Belém do Pará Convention, Art. 4	<p>Commitments under Title VII on Intellectual Property, Chapter 3, Section 5 (in particular, Article 230 (4) on patents), to make available a mechanism to compensate the patent owner for unreasonable curtailment of the effective patent term, could improve access to new drugs and promote research and development in pharmaceutical products but also could affect prices.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on programmes for various vulnerable population and thereby could improve quality of health care and access to health care for the most vulnerable population groups.</p> <p>The Parties' commitments under Title III – Trade in goods, Chapter 5 on SPS measures could affect human health and safety.</p>	<p>As a WTO member, Ecuador is signatory party to the TRIPS Agreement, the Paris Convention and the Industrial Property Regime of the Andean Community. These memberships translate into the Organic Code on Social Economy of Knowledge and Innovation in Ecuador and define IP rights in the country. Regarding the pricing of drugs, Ecuador works with the National Council for Fixing and Reviewing the Prices of Drugs for Human Use and Consumption. The "Regulate Pricing Regulation" establishes ceiling prices for each market and segment of strategic and new drugs.<sup>602</sup> The government introduced price regulations in 2015, curbing prices by 30% (after an increase of 12.5% in prices for patented drugs in the five years before 2014).<sup>603</sup> A drug cannot be marketed at a retail price above the ceiling price set by the Council. According to PhRMA (2017) this system, however, does not adequately take into account differences in quality, efficacy or safety, affecting the quality of medicines on the market in Ecuador, affecting patient safety. The National Agency for Regulation, Control and Surveillance of Health (ARCSA) is in charge of the efficacy, safety and quality of drugs marketed in Ecuador.<sup>604</sup> According to The Economist, the Ecuadorian market is full of pirated drugs.<sup>605</sup> According to CEIC (2020), Ecuadorian imports increased by USD 75 million between 2018 and 2019. Combined with the tariff effect from the economic analysis, this indicates a 7.1% increase in imports from the EU (amounting to USD 10 million), while there is no increase in exports and domestic production declines by 0.7% (USD 8 million). This implies that the effect of the Agreement can explain around 13% of the growth in imports. The reason for these imports lies likely in low quality of domestic medicines: lower-quality domestic production is replaced by higher-quality imported (generic and patented) medicines from the EU. Therefore, there was no evidence found that the Agreement affected pricing of medicines, despite the IP protection under the Agreement. The Agreement has helped Ecuador get better access to higher-quality medicines via an increase in imports from the EU (10 USD million through reductions in tariffs), while domestic price control mechanisms have prevented price rises for drugs. With increased imports of generic and patented EU medicines, domestic lower-quality drugs have been replaced.</p>	Direct	Minor	Population of Ecuador

<sup>602</sup> "How are the prices of drugs fixed and controlled in Ecuador?", Fernandez, M./CorralRosales Blog, 30 July 2019; <https://corralrosales.com/en/how-are-the-prices-of-drugs-fixed-and-controlled-in-ecuador/>

<sup>603</sup> ESPOL (2015) "Home Grown", <https://www.thebusinessyear.com/ecuador-2015/home-grown/focus>

<sup>604</sup> Duran, C. R. Lucia, J. Rovira (2017). "Pharmaceutical policy in Ecuador", Pharmaceutical Policy in Countries with Developing Healthcare Systems, pp. 221 – 236, March 2017.

<sup>605</sup> ESPOL (2015). "Home Grown", <https://www.thebusinessyear.com/ecuador-2015/home-grown/focus>

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		<p>As the Agreement has had no impact on government revenues, it has also not impacted on the health budget in Ecuador. Interviewees did not indicate a significant impact of the Agreement on the right to health from the budgetary perspective either.</p> <p>The main instrument of the Agreement regarding SPS measures is dialogue. Because SPS measures are determined domestically (with each party having the right to regulate) the Agreement has not had a discernible impact on health and safety. This view was confirmed by stakeholders and experts.</p> <p>The UN (2019) expressed concern at the environmental impact of large-scale mining and other extractive activities that particularly affect rural Afro-descendant and indigenous communities<sup>606</sup> (see Annex E-1). While these trends are very concerning, we focus on the impact of the Agreement. Results of the economic analysis show that mining did not increase in Ecuador because of the Agreement, while the production of palm oil decreased by 1.6%. This could alleviate pollution from this sector. Production of vegetables, fruits and nuts (e.g. bananas) has increased by 0.8%. This possibly contributes to marginally more pressure on the use of water resources and more pollution from these sectors (e.g. use of fertilisers, soil and water pollution).<sup>607</sup></p>			
<b>Rights of indigenous peoples (right to self-determination; right to food, right to health, right to water, freedom from discrimination, right to maintain, control, protect and develop</b>	Title VII on Intellectual Property, Chapter 2 on protection of biodiversity and traditional knowledge (in particular, Article 201) contains provisions that refer to common efforts of the Parties to respect, preserve and maintain knowledge, innovations and practices of indigenous and local communities embodying traditional life styles relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity (Art.201(3)). Subject to domestic legislation, it also includes an "obligation to take measures with the aim of sharing in a fair and	<p>According to DESTA, the Agreement is the most ambitious of all EU FTAs in protecting traditional knowledge.<sup>608</sup> While not as outspoken as the Peruvian government, also the Ecuadorian government wants to combat biopiracy. Ecuador is party to the Convention on Biological Diversity and the Nagoya Protocol. All the EU member states are parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity but not all of them are parties to the Nagoya Protocol.</p> <p>Indigenous peoples' discrimination in Ecuador remains common (see Annex E-1). The economic analysis does not show a direct impact of the Agreement for indigenous peoples. In the context of the Agreement, sectors that benefit from the Agreement can experience growth in production and employment which has positive economic effects for those economically active in them, including indigenous peoples. For the sectors that lose from the Agreement, the situation is the opposite. Due to lack of further statistical data on the</p>	Direct & in-direct	Minor	Indigenous communities in Ecuador

<sup>606</sup> United Nations Committee for Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2019). Concluding observations on the fourth periodic report of Ecuador, UN. Doc. E/C.12/EQU/CO/4.

<sup>607</sup> See also environmental analysis.

<sup>608</sup> See graph in the screening and scoping analysis of Peru.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b><i>their traditional knowledge, land rights</i></b>  - UNDRIP - ILO Convention No. 169 - ICCPR, Art. 27 - HRC General Comment No. 23	<p>equitable way the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources” (Art.201(4). While the objective of the FTA is not to use these IP provisions to support the rights of the indigenous peoples, these provisions could encourage the promotion and enactment of appropriate domestic legislation that addresses protection of this vulnerable population group.</p> <p>The Parties commitments under the Establishment Chapter could increase investment in sectors like mining and other extracting sectors of the economy and affect land rights of indigenous peoples.</p>	<p>employment of indigenous peoples in economic sectors, it is difficult to estimate the impact.</p> <p>National legislation requires the government to carry out consultations with indigenous peoples but does not require their explicit consent (Decree No.1247). Land grabbing for economic activities is reported to have been common and this has affected rights of the indigenous communities in the country (see Annex E-1). Based on the results of the economic analysis, it is not likely that land grabbing for mining projects has been affected by the Agreement as raw materials exports to the EU did not increase, neither did production in the mining sector as a result of the Agreement. As to palm oil, the economic analysis shows that exports of vegetable oils and fats increased by 15.6%. Ecuadorian oils and fats production, however decreased by 1.6%. This means that the increase in EU exports did not come from increased domestic production, but from trade diversion from other countries to the EU. The fact that domestic production decreases also means that pressures on the land use for oils and fats has decreased marginally. This is in line with the environmental analysis where we find that there is no evidence of deforestation overall, which is part of the land use challenge in Ecuador, while for VNF only a marginal effect – within the error margins of our analysis – could have occurred (see environmental analysis).</p>			
<b><i>Right to participate in public affairs</i></b>  - UDHR, Art. 21 - ICCPR, Art. 25 - HRC General Comment No. 25 - CFR, Art. 39 - CEDAW, Art. 7 - CRPD, Art. 29	<p>Article 267(e) sets out an objective to promote public participation in the matters covered under the TSD Title. Parties’ commitments under the TSD Title (in particular, Articles 281-283) provide for an active dialogue with civil society and could enhance transparency and strengthen stakeholder involvement in public decision making.</p>	<p>The provisions of the Agreement are envisaged to stimulate civil society involvement related to the implementation of the TSD Title. The 2019 EC Report on the implementation of EU FTAs marks good progress in the involvement of civil society (European Commission 2019). The 2020 EESC report, however, notes delays in establishing the Domestic Advisory Groups (DAGs) due to the requirement for DAGs to be “in accordance with domestic law” (Art. 281) which also resulted in partial representation of the relevant associations. While organising the forum for civil society to participate in the implementation of the Agreement, issues with the mechanism of participation have not strengthened that positive impact. Stakeholders report that consultation with civil society organisation have made progress in the monitoring of issues, e.g. regarding the agricultural workers. Nonetheless the lack of resources and transparency by officials affects the efficiency of these consultations (Daza et al. 2020). While organising the forum for civil society to participate in the implementation of the Agreement, issues with the mechanism of participation have not strengthened that positive impact.</p>	Direct	Minor	Population of Ecuador

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
<b>Right to education</b>  - UDHR, Art. 26 - ICESCR, Art. 13 - CESCR General Comments No. 11 & No.13 - CRC, Art. 28 - CEDAW, Art. 10 - CRPD, Art. 24 - ICMW, Art. 30 - CERD, Art. 5 - Protocol of San Salvador, Art. 13	The Parties' commitments under Title III Trade in goods, Chapter 1 on market access for goods, Section 2 on the elimination of customs duties (in particular, Article 22) could lead to cheaper prices for goods, higher GDP and, in the long run, more tax revenue for the government, increasing public funds that can be spent on social programmes, including initiatives related to education.	Trade liberalisation has contributed to poverty reduction and increased GDP in Ecuador. <sup>609</sup> No data are available on the public expenditure on education after 2015, which means that it is not possible to analyse the education expenditures before and after the Agreement. However, as the Agreement has not impacted on government revenues (section 6.12 of the main report) it has also not had an impact on the right to education from a budgetary perspective. Interviewees did not report any significant impact of the Agreement on the right to education.	In-direct	Minor	Population of Ecuador
<b>Right to access information</b>  - UDHR, Art.16 - ICCPR, Art. 10 - CFR, Art. 9 - CRC, Art. 14 - ICMW, Art. 12 - CERD, Art. 5	The Parties' commitments in the TSD Title on promotion of transparency and public participation (in particular, Articles 281-283) could improve transparency and strengthen civil society involvement in public decision making.	The inclusion of civil society in public decision making is provided for by the Agreement through envisaging civil society involvement in the implementation of the labour and environmental provisions under the TSD Title. Minor improvements regarding the inclusion of civil society have been noted by the EC officials, representative of the Ecuadorian government and some members of civil society from Ecuador. However, issues were noted with the follow-up of the consultations. In 2020 the Ecuadorian trade unions withdrew their participation from the DAG under the TSD Title because they find that the dialogue under the TSD Title a window dressing exercise rather than a meaningful engagement with civil society. While organising the forum for civil society to participate in the implementation of the Agreement, issues with the mechanism of participation have not strengthened that positive impact.	Direct	Minor	Population of Ecuador
<b>Right to water</b>  - ICESCR, Art. 11 - CESCR General Comment No. 15	--	Due to the specific climate of Ecuador and natural shortage of water resources (especially in selected areas), as well as the environmental impacts of mining and agribusiness activities on water, there is an increased pressure on the right to water in Ecuador (see Annex E-1). In the context of the Agreement, the impact on the right to water can come from the water pollution activities in the selected economic sectors. Stakeholders report high level of pollution from the energy and mining sectors as well as fishing sector (production of shrimps) and agricultural sectors (involved in the production of e.g. palm oil or bananas). The economic effects of the Agreement for the mining industry have been limited. The largest effect was a 0.3% increase	Direct	Minor, possibly major in specific areas	Affected communities in Ecuador

<sup>609</sup> See economic analysis and social analysis, table on poverty and extreme poverty levels.

Human Right/ Normative framework	Intended effects (references in the Agreement)	Observed effects	Kind of effect	Scale of effect	Potentially affected population groups
		in production for metals. Agricultural sectors have a mixed impact, the largest effect recorded in the cereal grains sector (+2.1%). Fishing sector (shrimps) accounted for the minor increase of production by 0.3%. Production of vegetable oils and fats has decreased (-1.6%) and productions in the vegetables, fruit and nut sector has increased by 0.8%. Some of the products from this sector are rather water-intensive, e.g. bananas, and could have affected water availability. The other source affecting the right to water, also linked to agricultural production, is the use of fertilisers, in detail studied under the environmental analysis. Stakeholders report that regions with concentrated production (e.g. shrimps) cause river pollution and set limitations to the enjoyment of the right to water by the adjacent communities (Acción Ecológica 2020).			



## **ANNEX F: ANALYSIS OF INSTITUTIONAL AND IMPLEMENTATION ASPECTS**

### ***Annex F-1: Operation of the Sub-committees established under the Agreement***

#### *Sub-committee on Market Access*

The Sub-committee on Market Access is responsible for promoting trade in goods between the Parties, e.g. through consultations on accelerating and broadening the scope of tariff elimination under the Agreement; addressing any non-tariff measure which may restrict trade in goods between the Parties and, if appropriate, referring such matters to the Trade Committee for its consideration; providing advice and recommendations to the Trade Committee on cooperation needs regarding market access matters; consulting on and seeking to resolve any difference that may arise between the Parties on matters related to amendments to the Harmonized System, including the classification of goods, to ensure that the obligations of each Party are not altered (Article 35).

The Sub-committee held meetings annually. Discussions included review of bilateral trade flows and format of data collection and reporting, and clarification of aspects of interest or concern which could potentially affect trade relations between the Parties. These included e.g. Colombian policy on biofuels, trucks (the need to withdraw from transport services old trucks of over 20 years to be able to put new ones into operation, with a replacement rate of 1:1 or 15% tax), higher consumption tax on imported cars exceeding a certain value, local regulations discriminating imported beer, charges on alcoholic beverages, anti-dumping investigation on frozen fries imported from EU Member States and animal feed. In relations with Ecuador, treatment of imported alcoholic beverages (resolved in 2019) and tax on vehicles (of value up to USD 30,000) were discussed. In relations with Peru, a duty drawback mechanism was raised that resembled a subsidy. Colombia raised Spanish reservation regarding provision of legal services, EU labelling referring to palm oil-free products and tax imposed on imported coffee. The EU provided information about planned carbon border adjustment mechanism and a revision of the Regulation 2018/1977 setting up tariff rate quotas for certain fisheries products. Moreover, the Parties discussed topics related to a possible further trade liberalisation, e.g., in trade in bananas and negotiations of mutual recognition agreement of professional qualifications for engineers. They also discussed ways to encourage a better use of tariff preferences, by promoting support service available to exporters and raising awareness of the Agreement (in 2018, Colombia used the preferences in 98% and Peru and Ecuador in 99%).

Overall, while one of discussed measures was removed (treatment of imported alcoholic beverages by Ecuador), others were raised several times with only some progress being achieved (e.g., on alcoholic beverages in Colombia). The reports do not mention whether discussions were conducted also between the annual meetings, as part of market access barriers dialogue and whether there was engagement with other stakeholder, and at the technical level to suggest preferable solutions. The reports from meetings do not mention either whether there was a follow-up to discussions about further liberalisation, such as in trade in services (mutual recognition of qualifications).

#### *Sub-committee on Agriculture*

The Sub-committee on Agriculture is responsible for monitoring and promoting cooperation on the implementation of the Section on agricultural goods, in order to facilitate trade in agricultural goods between the Parties; resolving any unjustified obstacle in that trade; consulting on matters related to agricultural goods in coordination with other relevant sub-committees or bodies under the Agreement; evaluating the development of agricultural trade between the Parties and the impact of the Agreement on the agricultural sector of

each Party, and the operation of the instruments of the Agreement, and recommending any appropriate action to the Trade Committee (Article 36).

The Sub-committee held meetings annually and its discussions included trade flows in agricultural products, administration of tariff rate quotas (TRQs) and indicators to analyse trends in bilateral trade, such as new exported products (diversification), new exporting companies, the usage of TRQs, and others. The Parties took the opportunity to raise their concerns, e.g., about taxes imposed by Peru on alcoholic beverages applying a different treatment to Pisco compared to other products, heavy metal legislation in Peru with regard to alcoholic beverages, taxes and restrictions in trade in alcoholic beverages in Colombia, and monopoly practices, certification requirements in trade in alcoholic beverages (related to good manufacturing practices) and the price setting mechanism for alcoholic beverages in Colombia. In relations with Ecuador, the EU raised concerns about the TRQ management mechanism, including allocation of licences. Partner countries expressed concerns about EU requirements related to residue levels of pesticides which may affect their agricultural exports. There was also discussion about cooperation activities, e.g., good practice sharing to support development of agriculture in post-conflict areas in Colombia or the EU support to dairy sector in Colombia, being vulnerable to import competition, e.g., EU powder milk. The Parties discussed furthermore interests in extending trade, to cover organic products. Moreover, there was a recurring review of the operation of the system for trade in bananas with the EU monitoring of trade flows, and situation on the EU market. The EU presented its new policy initiatives, such as “from farm to fork” strategy and discussed possible future measures related to sustainability reporting.

#### *Sub-committee on Customs, Trade Facilitation and Rules of Origin*

The Sub-committee on Customs, Trade Facilitation and Rules of Origin is responsible for monitoring the implementation and administration of the chapter on customs and trade facilitation and the related Annex II. Its functions include: providing a forum to consult and discuss on all issues relating to customs, rules of origin (e.g. requests for cumulation of origin) and administrative cooperation; enhancing cooperation on the development, application and enforcement of customs procedures, mutual administrative assistance in customs matters, rules of origin and administrative cooperation; submit to the Trade Committee proposals for modifications to Annex II for their adoption; endeavour to reach mutually satisfactory solutions when differences arise between the Parties, e.g. regarding the tariff classification of goods (Article 68).

The Sub-committee held meetings annually. The Parties exchanged information about their customs-related legislation and updates (e.g., the Union Customs Code in force since May 2016, EU Import Control System<sup>2</sup>, Update of Customs Law in Peru, consolidation of the customs legislation in Colombia and fiscal labels consolidation for imported alcoholic beverages, except beer, in Ecuador), risk management and operational systems, incl. Single Window and Authorised Economic Operator programme, as well as issuance of preferential origin certificates. They also used the opportunity to consider possibilities of technical assistance, e.g., for Colombia to set up Approved Exporter System and exchange information about good laboratory practices. The Parties discussed also preferential origin verification, elimination of free circulation certificates, interpretation of direct transport clause (notably splitting of consignments), adaptation of Appendixes to Annex II to the Harmonised System 2012 and 2017, ratification of the WTO Trade Facilitation Agreement, mutual administrative cooperation between Central America and the Andean countries, and Brexit impacts on cumulation of origin. Moreover, at each meeting, the Parties were addressing technical issues and providing clarifications.

Overall, the Sub-committee seems to provide a forum for a useful exchange of information, and updates related to policy and legislation, as well as advice and clarifications related to technical aspects, such as the use and the way of filling in certain forms (documents), customs procedures and questions related to the rules of origin. It also enables Parties to

the Agreement to signal problems and expect that these will be addressed, e.g. application of certain procedures by EU Member States. Finally, information provided in minutes from meetings suggests the usefulness of technical assistance offered to other Parties.

#### *Sub-committee on Technical Obstacles to Trade*

The Sub-committee on Technical Obstacles to Trade is responsible for the follow up and evaluation of the implementation of / compliance with the TBT chapter. Its functions include: consulting on and addressing any issue arising under the chapter and the TBT Agreement (and if necessary, establishing working groups to deal with specific matters); identification of priorities for cooperation and technical assistance programmes in the area of TBT and assessment of progress or results obtained; exchanging information on the work carried out in nongovernmental, regional and multilateral fora involved in activities relating to TBT; facilitating dialogue and cooperation between the regulators; revising the chapter in the light of any developments under the TBT Agreement and of the decisions or recommendations of the WTO Committee on Technical Barriers to Trade, and making suggestions on possible amendments to the chapter (Article 83).

The meetings of the Sub-committee were held annually. They provided an opportunity for exchange of information, e.g., on the quality infrastructure in Parties to the Agreement, norms for personal protective equipment and changes in policy and legislation in technical aspects which may have an impact on bilateral trade. The Parties also discussed issues of concerns, such as technical regulations and conformity assessment procedures in the automotive industry (vehicle parts) in Colombia, labelling (registration number) for textile products and footwear in Colombia (the obstacle was in the process of being removed further to amendments of technical regulations), technical regulations and labelling for alcoholic beverages in Colombia, biofuels policy (requirements related to fuel mix in the automotive sector) in Colombia, pricing system for pharmaceuticals and medical devices in Colombia, food ingredients and labelling of food products in Colombia, Peru and the EU, delays in registration of pharmaceuticals in Peru, the possibility to recognise in Peru the EU and its Member States as implementing strict health monitoring, labelling of alcoholic beverages in Ecuador, negative labelling related to palm oil in the EU ("free from palm oil"), measurement of the level of pesticides in fruits by the EU, revision of a Directive on renewable energy in the EU, and imports of hydrobiological products (e.g. fish). Moreover, meetings provided an opportunity to discuss cooperation and technical assistance, e.g. on regulatory impact assessment as part of good regulatory practices.

#### *Sub-committee on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures*

The Sub-committee on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures is responsible for development and monitoring of the SPS chapter; providing a forum for discussing problems arising from the application of SPS measures and the application of the SPS chapter, and identifying possible solutions; discussing the need to establish joint study programmes; identifying cooperation needs; and conducting consultations concerning the settlement of disputes regarding SPS measures or special and differential treatment (Article 103).

The Sub-committee meetings were held annually. The Parties adopted rules of procedure and discussed implementation of certain provisions in the Trade Agreement, e.g., import requirements, procedures, checks, certificates and verifications, equivalence, approval of establishments, and recognition of sanitary systems. Discussion focused also on issues of concern, operational problems emerging in application of the Agreement and areas of potential technical assistance.

#### *Sub-committee on Government Procurement*

The Sub-committee on Government Procurement is responsible for evaluating the implementation of the government procurement Title (e.g., the use of the opportunities

offered by increased access to government procurement) and recommending to the Parties the appropriate activities; evaluating and following up the cooperation activities that the Parties submit; and considering further negotiations aimed at broadening the coverage of the Title (Article 194).

The Sub-committee held meetings annually providing an opportunity for the Parties to exchange information about legislative and policy developments, e.g., revision of EU public procurement Directives, reform of public procurement legislation in Peru, consolidation of public procurement legislative acts in Colombia, update of a manual to cover provisions of concluded trade agreements and setting up of new bidding systems for pharmaceuticals and medical devices in Ecuador. The Parties discussed as well as other changes (e.g., in administrative structures) which may require amendments in the Agreement (in market access lists). Moreover, the Parties considered measures which would increase the usage of the Agreement, e.g., promotion of opportunities related to public procurement to SMEs, and capability building supporting participation of Colombian, Peruvian and Ecuadorean companies in public procurement tenders in the EU, as well as support to sub-state entities in Ecuador to implement provisions of the Agreement. The meetings also allowed for clarifications regarding issues raised by any Party, such as coverage by the Agreement of public entities at the local level (below a department) and additional agencies in Colombia<sup>610</sup>, update of the Colombian manual setting out public procurement commitments covered by concluded trade agreements, the use by Colombia of financial indexes, the reference to standards in technical public procurement specifications in Peru and emergency schemes in Ecuador.

#### *Sub-committee on Intellectual Property*

The Sub-committee on Intellectual Property is responsible for the follow-up on the implementation of the provisions of the IP chapter. Specifically, if a Party wishes to add new Geographical Indications (GIs), the sub-committee is responsible for assessing the information and proposing to the Trade Committee the modification of the lists of GIs in Annex XIII of the Agreement (Article 257).

#### *Sub-committee on Trade and Sustainable Development (TSD)*

The Sub-committee on Trade and Sustainable Development (TSD) is analysed in detail in chapter 9 of the main report.

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<sup>610</sup> This matter has been addressed in the Trade Committee Decision 1/2017, of 24 November 2017 amending Appendix 1 of Annex XII ('Government Procurement') to the Trade Agreement between the European Union and its Member States, of the one part, and Colombia and Peru, of the other part [2018/1]: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22018D0001&from=EN>

## ***Annex F-2: Institutional Analysis – Details of Interviews (TSD Chapter)***

*Views expressed in interviews by EU DAG members can be summarised as follows:*

- The most frequent feedback related to the lack of a tangible follow-up to civil society concerns and recommendations by the Commission and the Governments of the partner countries, notably in cases raised in complaints. DAG members felt they had very limited influence and expressed frustration about what they see as insufficient pressure by the Commission on the partner countries' Governments. Given the lack of sanctions in the dispute settlement mechanism, they would expect a stronger Commission position and concrete actions or requests to compensate it. EU DAG members feel that they are not being taken seriously and described this situation as quite demotivating for the civil society.
- On the other hand, they appreciated the opportunity of dialogue with the Commission about the TSD Title and expressed their wish to have also a more frequent engagement with the European Parliament.<sup>611</sup> Advice from the EU Delegations in the partner countries, e.g., on labour-related aspects, would also be very much appreciated.
- Several members also highlighted that the work of the EU DAG is too much focused on the partner countries and their challenges (even though they admitted unanimously that those challenges are serious), while relatively too little attention is paid to impacts of the Agreement on the EU, the EU's compliance with the TSD provisions and positive agenda, i.e., cooperation activities, exchange of best practice, or themes of common interest, e.g., CSR/RBC practices, trade in green goods, etc.
- Some members observed that meetings and discussions of the EU DAG would benefit from technical support, i.e., receiving as a starting point for discussion a research paper, a report, a short note, etc., either already existing or prepared for the meeting (e.g., commissioned from an external expert through the EU DAG secretariat or the supporting project) providing data and other evidence on the subject matter.
- Based on this, as well as on engagement with civil society from partner countries, other sources and own expertise, the EU DAG should be able and encouraged to elaborate and submit to the Commission written reports and recommendations on the implementation of the TSD Title. Overall, the DAG should focus more on content than process (much attention has been paid to the latter due to problems with the establishment of partner country DAGs and ways of working with them). It should also cover the whole scope of the TSD Title (some parts of the content are rarely or not at all touched upon during discussions) and remember that TSD Title is embedded in trade relations between the Parties, and that therefore, economic considerations should also be kept in mind.<sup>612</sup>
- Others added that DAGs should have more influence on setting cooperation programmes for the TSD Title and priorities. Moreover, more local organisations should be given an opportunity to deliver projects, as there was a feeling of a too frequent recourse to international organisations (while in some cases, this was justified).
- While the DAG's work is generally well-organised and the secretariat consults with the Chair and Vice-Chairs plans for the meetings, more time should be allowed for the members to prepare, e.g., to consult within sub-groups and elaborate joint positions

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<sup>611</sup> An enhanced engagement and dialogue with the European Parliament has also been recommended in the EESC Opinion: Alberto Mazzola (January 2019), REX 510, The role of Domestic Advisory Groups in monitoring the implementation of Free Trade Agreements: <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/en/our-work/opinions-information-reports/opinions/role-domestic-advisory-groups-monitoring-implementation-free-trade-agreements>

<sup>612</sup> The EESC Opinion REX 510 (see above) recommends that the DAG's mandate is extended to the whole Agreement and all its aspects incl. economic ones. Thanks to this, economic operators could have an additional channel to raise interests and concerns vital e.g., for SMEs, such as market access barriers and other factors which influence utilisation of tariff preferences under EU trade agreements, and then in turn e.g., job creation.

rather than follow topics suggested by individual members and expecting them do the whole work.

- Some members also stressed that given differences in opinions which happen between the sub-groups, it is of utmost importance to ensure that all members of the Presidency, all DAG members and interests are treated equally, in a balanced way. Some referred in this context to the need to be constructive and flexible to attain common objectives, rather than seeing a DAG as a space of confrontation (trade unions against business).
- There was a feeling that the current two meetings a year do not provide enough time for a proper monitoring of the implementation of the Title, thorough follow-up after the joint meeting and preparation for the next one. Additional meetings or workshops could be organised to provide space for a more in-depth discussion of selected topics.
- There was a general appreciation of funding and support in logistics provided in relation to joint meetings, while some members observed that further improvement is always possible. For example, the EESC Information Report asked for the whole EU DAG to receive support to be able to attend annual meetings (EESC REX 530, Iuliano, 2020).

*Views expressed in interviews by the Colombian DAG members:*

- The work of the Colombian DAG and its execution of the mandate envisaged by the TSD Title would benefit from holding more than one meeting a year as this would allow for a more in-depth monitoring and discussion and preparation for annual meetings.
- DAG members have high-level jobs and are not able to dedicate much time to work of the DAG. Therefore, it would be very useful if the DAG could have a technical secretariat that would prepare agendas for meetings, take care of their overall organisation, carry out research to support discussions, etc.<sup>613</sup>
- Equally, additional funding may be needed to support operation of the secretariat and its research function. Research reports could also be prepared by some DAG members or independent experts and provide basis for a discussion with the Government about the implementation of the TSD Title.
- Frustration was expressed regarding the lack of political will of the Government to address issues raised by civil society under the TSD Title, e.g., violations of trade unions rights and acts of violence against trade union activists in Colombia, with an insufficient pressure from the European Commission to bring about changes.
- There was also a feeling that the Colombian DAG does not have many opportunities to play its role as envisaged by the TSD Title, given that the Government does not consult it either before or after joint annual meetings, does not share information presented to the Parties in the TSD Sub-committee and the format of the open sessions at the annual meetings or meetings within national consultative mechanisms does not offer a genuine opportunity for a dialogue.<sup>614</sup>

*Views expressed in interviews and written positions by the Ecuadorean DCC members:*

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<sup>613</sup> The interviewed EU DAG Secretariat has also expressed the view that it would be beneficial for work under the TSD Title if the partner countries' DAGs/DCC/consultative mechanisms had technical secretariats supporting them.

<sup>614</sup> According to information provided by the Colombian Government at the TSD Sub-committee meeting in 2018, there had been two meetings between the Government and the Colombian DAG that year, and the Government had shared with the DAG a report about implementation of Colombian trade agreements envisaged for a presentation in the Congress, as well as a report on labour-related aspects. See: [https://trade.ec.europa.eu/doclib/docs/2019/february/tradoc\\_157701.pdf](https://trade.ec.europa.eu/doclib/docs/2019/february/tradoc_157701.pdf). In 2019, at the TSD Sub-committee meeting, the Colombian Government informed about one meeting held with the DAG, and the agreement that the DAG would provide proposals for cooperation activities under the TSD Title which could then be presented to the European Commission for consideration. See: [https://trade.ec.europa.eu/doclib/docs/2019/november/tradoc\\_158481.pdf](https://trade.ec.europa.eu/doclib/docs/2019/november/tradoc_158481.pdf)



- The DCC does not receive any financial or technical support from the Government. Having such a support would enable it to have e.g., a secretariat which – according to the rules of procedure – would support the DCC President, promote the work of the DCC in relations with partners, e.g., relevant Ecuadorean institutions, EU Delegation, civil society from other Parties to the Agreement and the Group of Experts, prepare minutes of the DCC meetings, and contribute to the preparation of joint meetings with civil society representatives (DAGs) of the other Parties.
- While financial support provided by the Commission is appreciated, DCC members feel its limits given that it only facilitates participation in annual meetings, but not further elements of civil society's work on monitoring the implementation of the TSD Title.
- The DCC faces challenges in access to information and statistics regarding trade with the EU. This could also be facilitated. Moreover, regarding topics relevant for trade with the EU and TSD Title, experts from agricultural sector, including Ministry of Agriculture should be invited for TSD meetings.

Moreover, trade union members of the Ecuadorean DCC have shared a written position with the European Commission and civil society from the other Parties to the Agreement, in which they consider actions taken by the Commission in the follow-up to the complaint filed by the civil society with the Ecuadorian authorities as insufficient, against the lack of the Ecuadorian Government's reaction to the ILO recommendation regarding ASTAC's registration, as well as measures adopted by the Government lowering levels of working conditions in the banana sector. Expressing protest against the lack of action from the Commission and the Government of Ecuador and the perceived ineffectiveness of TSD structures, the trade union sub-group (having Presidency in the Ecuadorean DCC in 2020) withdrew from DCC activities in November 2020. The letter was followed by an exchange between Ecuador and the EU at the TSD Sub-committee meeting in 2020. More details regarding the complaint are provided in sections 7.4 and 7.7, as well as Annex C-1.

*Views expressed in interviews by the Peruvian civil society (informal DAG):*

- The Agreement with the EU is the only one out of those signed by Peru which provides space for dialogue between Government and civil society. This mechanism should be strengthened and supported by all Parties to the Agreement including dedicated funding for participation in meetings and fulfilling the mandate.
- Commitments regarding engagement with civil society should be binding for the Parties, including the need to react to civil society's positions and recommendations.

*Outcomes from public consultations regarding domestic consultative mechanism in Peru:*

- Several stakeholders observed that domestic consultative mechanisms in Peru do not meet the expectations and the way how they operate does not allow civil society representatives to play properly the role envisaged in the TSD Title. In their view, the consultative bodies do not cover the whole scope of the TSD Title, do not offer the possibility to structure the agenda to reflect interests and concerns of civil society, provide space to share information but do not allow a genuine dialogue and do not ensure follow-up to discussions.

*Outcomes from public consultations regarding DAGs / domestic consultative mechanisms:*

- In public consultations for this study, some stakeholders acknowledged that the European Commission and Parliament have made an effort to engage with civil society in a dialogue and have been sharing information regarding implementation of the Trade Agreement and its impacts. The same stakeholders are of the view that this has not been the case in the Andean countries and that their governments do not facilitate operation of DAGs or their domestic consultative mechanisms.

- Along the same line, other stakeholders observed that the cause of the problem is in the imprecise provisions of the TSD Title which do not require independence of the domestic consultative mechanisms and do not provide that these should be composed of civil society only. A change of the provisions would be recommendable.
- Similar views have been expressed by another group of stakeholders who suggest a set of guidelines describing the way of establishment, composition, and operation of DAGs and its inclusion in the Agreement to ensure independence, representativeness, and adequate operation of DAGs. In addition, each of the DAGs from the Andean countries should benefit from having a technical secretariat and this form of assistance should be funded by the Commission. DAG members should also receive training regarding their roles in TSD Title.

*Views expressed in interviews about joint annual civil society meetings under TSD Title:*

- The interviewed DAG/DCC members and the EESC EU DAG Secretariat acknowledged that DAG-to-DAG meetings are informal as they are not envisaged in the text of the Agreement. However, they should be recognised by the Parties, similar as requested DAG meetings with members of the TSD Sub-committee (see below), given the DAGs' role in the institutional mechanism and the mandate to monitor the implementation of the TSD Title and to provide advice to the Parties.<sup>615</sup>
- However, many of them expressed dissatisfaction about the conduct and outcome of the meetings, notably the inability of the sub-groups (business representatives on one hand and trade unions and NGOs on the other) to find a compromise in referring to challenges in the Andean countries, which would enable all participants to accept the text and present it as a joint position to the Parties of the Agreement at the open session (e.g., in 2018, the employer representatives from Colombia and Ecuador did not endorse the Joint Declaration, and the document of 2019 also simply summarises the debate). Some also indicated that it would be helpful if the meetings and proposals for joint texts were prepared more in advance, so that there is enough time to express views and seek an agreement. A compromise (although not an ideal solution) was applied in 2020, when the text of the joint conclusions was adopted by as many members of the DAGs/DCC/domestic mechanisms as possible, with a list of those supporting them being attached, and the text being presented to the Parties on behalf of its signatories.

*Outcomes from public consultations regarding joint meetings*

- In public consultations for this study, some stakeholders referred to difficulties to agree joint conclusions during DAG-to-DAG meetings and observed that all DAG members from all Parties should act constructively, in the spirit of sustainable development which brings together three dimensions (economic, social, and environmental one) and therefore should make an effort to find a compromise accommodating all interests. These stakeholders also suggested that civil society representatives who become DAG members should commit to act in this way (there could be a charter or a code of conduct for DAG members).

*Views expressed in interviews about open sessions with civil society and Governments:*

- While there was an appreciation that the quality of dialogue at the open sessions has improved, there was a view that its format did not allow for a more in-depth discussion, notably between DAG/DCC/consultative mechanism members and representatives of

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<sup>615</sup> The same request has been included into the EESC Information Report (REX 530) and have been present in joint documents adopted by DAG members at the occasion of annual joint meetings since the meeting in Bogota in 2015 (repeated in 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2020), see e.g. summary outcome of discussion of 2015: [https://www.eesc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/resources/docs/en\\_joint-dags-document\\_17-june-2015.pdf](https://www.eesc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/resources/docs/en_joint-dags-document_17-june-2015.pdf)

the Parties to the Agreement. Moreover, given that the session is open to diverse civil society representatives and the public at large (upon registration), it provides the same footing to all participants and does not offer any particular role or recognition to DAG members that would be related to the mandate they have under the TSD Title.

- Therefore, several DAG members stressed that at the occasion of annual meetings they should have an opportunity of a joint meeting with members of the TSD Sub-committee<sup>616</sup>, in addition to the open session, to discuss in an in-depth way the implementation of the Title, raise concerns and submit proposals for cooperation. Such a structured discussion should ideally happen before the TSD Sub-committee meeting and provide inputs for it. Such a meeting was organised once in Quito, in 2018; however, as it is not provided for in the Agreement, its organisation depends on the willingness of all Parties to take part.
- As an alternative, the EESC Opinion (REX 510, Mazzola, 2019) suggests a solution adopted under the EU-Korea FTA in 2014, i.e., that Chairs of all DAGs/DCC participate in the beginning of the TSD Sub-committee meeting and present to the Parties interests and concerns of the civil society, as an input for a discussion of the Parties.
- Moreover, interviewed DAG members expressed frustration about the lack of follow-up by the Parties of concerns raised by the civil society at the annual meetings and their recommendations to the Parties. In their view, there should be a mechanism by which the Parties would be committed to discuss follow-up to civil society concerns at the TSD Sub-committee meeting, and report at the annual open sessions about actions taken in that context. (However, a Party may also give effect to a follow-up by meeting with its own DAG and undertaking actions which are in its remit.)

*Views expressed in interviews about dispute settlement under TSD Title:*

- There was an overall dissatisfaction with the lack of follow-up by the Parties to civil society's concerns expressed in joint outcomes of discussions and recommendations presented at the annual meetings. According to civil society representatives, these recommendations should be treated as an early warning of non-compliance with provisions of the TSD Title by the respective Party or information about a worrisome situation brought to the attention of all Parties by the civil society, with a request to act before the situation aggravates or to address a serious problem. Action taken by the Parties early enough in the follow-up to civil society concerns should help to remedy the situation before it worsens to the extent that the dispute settlement mechanisms may need to be triggered.<sup>617</sup>
- There was an acknowledgment of a slight improvement of the situation in Peru given that further to the meeting in Quito and engagement with the EU, the Government of Peru started meetings and dialogue with civil society about trade agreements and the TSD Title. However, there was also a clear statement from civil society representatives that the Government of Peru had not recognised the independent DAG, thus prolonging the conflict between the Government and civil society actors about the appropriate mechanism for civil society representation in the country. (In this context it is to note that the Agreement leaves it up to discretion of the Parties if they will use the existing mechanisms of domestic consultation with civil society or establish new ones.)

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<sup>616</sup> A complaint about the lack of a dialogue between DAGs and members of the TSD Sub-committee was also raised in public consultations for this study.

<sup>617</sup> Dissatisfaction with the lack of follow-up to civil society recommendations was also expressed in the joint document from civil society (DAG members) to the Parties presented at the joint meeting in 2017 in Lima, see: Resumen de la discusión y los mensajes clave de los representantes y participantes de la sociedad civil de la UE, de Colombia, Perú y de Ecuador (Título IX de Comercio y Desarrollo Sostenible del Acuerdo Comercial UE-Colombia, Perú y Ecuador), Lima, Perú – 22 de noviembre de 2017: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regexpert/index.cfm?do=groupDetail.groupMeetingDoc&docid=8784>. Moreover, a request for a follow-up has been included in joint conclusions of DAG / DCC / consultative mechanisms' members adopted at the joint meeting in 2020: <https://cdes.org.ec/web/?p=6231>

Moreover, there was no change in laws related to freedom of association and working conditions in sectors highlighted in the complaint. Hence, there was a feeling that the Commission should act more decisively and put more pressure on the partner countries to act and to achieve concrete results in implementation of TSD provisions in general and in particular in the follow-up to complaints submitted by civil society representatives.

- Along the same line, the approach used by the European Parliament (a request in the 2012 resolution for Peru and Colombia to adopt a road map on improving respect for human rights and labour and environmental standards), the US and Canada (a practice of adopting Action Plans with partner countries to address shortcomings in respect for labour standards) was provided as an example for the Commission to follow and to ask partner countries to take actions and to deliver concrete results within a given timeline.
- Actions taken by the Commission in the case of Ecuador were considered insufficient by the civil society (trade union members of the Ecuadorean DAG/DCC), given also the lack of reaction of the Ecuadorian Government to the ILO recommendation regarding registration of ASTAC, as well as measures adopted by the Government lowering levels of working conditions in the banana sector, which were then extended on other sectors. Expressing protest against the lack of action from the Commission and the Government of Ecuador and the ineffectiveness of TSD structures, as noted above the trade union sub-group withdrew from TSD activities in November 2020.
- Some DAG members emphasised that the Commission should use more pro-actively the existing dispute settlement mechanism, building on the lessons learned from the case of Korea, pursuing dialogue and cooperation with the country in question, offering assistance (if needed), helping to strengthen inspection services and engaging with all relevant actors to help achieve compliance with TSD provisions, which is the objective. Sanctions which are often requested in a discussion on a dispute settlement mechanism should be considered as a last resort, given that partner countries may not agree for having them in a TSD chapter or may request in exchange concessions in another part of the agreement or watering down TSD provisions and limiting the scope of the chapter to a detriment of good practices encouraged currently, e.g., on CSR.
- Other DAG members either supported introduction of a sanction-based mechanism to increase the leverage over non-compliant partner countries and encourage their actions to remedy the situation or emphasised that triggering the dispute settlement should depend more on provided evidence, proving violation of TSD provisions and “threshold achieved”, rather than on the will or discretion of the Commission to launch at a certain point, Government consultations as the first step in a dispute.

## ANNEX G: SUMMARY OF THE STAKEHOLDER CONSULTATIONS

This report describes the consultation activities undertaken as part of the ex-post evaluation of the implementation of the Trade Agreement between the EU and its Member States, and Colombia, Peru and Ecuador (section 1), as well as summarises the responses received (section 2).

### 1 SUMMARY OF CONSULTATION STRATEGY AND ACTIVITIES

#### 1.1 Consultation objectives, stakeholders and tools

The main **objectives** of the consultations undertaken to support the evaluation were:

- To inform stakeholders about the conduct of the evaluation and its findings and recommendations, allowing stakeholders to provide their inputs to the evaluation and views about the Agreement;
- To contribute to the identification of possible economic, social, environmental and human rights impacts of the Agreement;
- To contribute to the identification of sectors and groups which have benefited or have been negatively affected as a result of the implementation of the Agreement;
- To analyse the reasons for such effects; and
- To contribute to the identification and the conduct of the case studies.

The key **stakeholders** identified were the following:

- Business representatives – both business associations, such as chambers of commerce or sectoral organisations, and individual companies, including small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) – in the European Union (EU) and the partner countries;
- Social partners (employer associations and workers' organisations/trade unions) both in the EU and the Andean partner countries;
- Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and civil society representatives – including consumer organisations – in the EU and the partner countries, covering the economic, social, environmental, and human rights issues;
- (Academic) experts from the EU and partner countries, as well as those working on trade and development issues in general;
- International organisations that could provide important inputs and angles, such as *inter alia* the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and United Nations (UN) organisations, including relevant monitoring bodies, and others;
- Representatives of public administration (government, legislatures, and authorities/agencies) involved in the implementation of the Agreement;
- Representatives of EU institutions and Member State public administrations involved in the implementation of the Agreement;
- Vulnerable groups (e.g. women, youth, indigenous people, migrant workers and marginalised groups) that might have been affected directly locally by the Agreement and run the risk of being excluded from the consultations.

A database of more than 1,100 stakeholders (500 in the EU and more than 200 in each of the three partner countries) was maintained during the evaluation; these stakeholders were kept informed, via email newsletters, about the progress of the evaluation, and invited to contribute their views at various stages (during the surveys, as well as to provide comments and feedback to the draft versions of the inception, interim and final reports).

The consultation **activities** were grouped into five consultation “pillars”, characterised by different target groups and channels used:

- Pillar 1: Three (virtual) meetings with EU civil society under DG TRADE's civil society dialogue (CSD) were held to present and discuss the draft inception, interim, and final reports;
- Pillar 2: An online public consultation (OPC) was open in the period 13 January 2021 to 06 May 2021;
- Pillar 3: A range of targeted consultation tools was applied, including: workshops in the three partner countries, held in March 2021 (for each country, two half-days); an online survey for businesses, including SMEs, that was held in parallel to the OPC; and interviews and meetings with stakeholders in the EU and the partner countries. Due to the covid-19 pandemic, the workshops and interviews were held virtually;
- Pillar 4: Meetings with EU institutions and European Commission Services; and
- Pillar 5: Digital engagement with stakeholders and interested persons in general, through a website (<http://andean.fta-evaluation.eu>) and electronic communication channels (email newsletters and twitter).

## **1.2 Participation of stakeholders and documentation of consultation activities**

### *1.2.1 Civil Society Dialogue Meetings*

In each CSD meeting organised for the evaluation, a wide range of EU civil society organisations (representing NGOs, business organisations, trade unions and employer organisations, the European Economic and Social Committee, EESC, and others) participated.

Meeting reports for the CSD meetings are published on DG TRADE's CSD webpages.<sup>1</sup>

### *1.2.2 Online Public Consultation*

70 responses were received in the OPC.<sup>2</sup> Of these, 27 (38%) were from EU stakeholders, 18 (26%) from Ecuador, 17 (24%) from Peru, 6 (9%) from Colombia, and 2 (3%) from other locations. Among the EU respondents, almost half are based in Belgium, which includes a number of EU-wide organisations.

By type of respondent, 30 responses (43%) represented business interests (comprised of companies and business associations), 13 (18%) civil society (NGOs, environmental and consumer organisations, and academia), seven (10%) respondents provided their views as individuals (EU and non-EU citizens), another seven (10%) were from public sector entities, and 13 (19%) were from other stakeholders (including trade unions).

A detailed report on the responses to the OPC was prepared and provided in Annex H to the Interim Report.<sup>3</sup>

### *1.2.3 Targeted consultation activities – workshops and interviews*

Participation by stakeholders in the partner country workshops was as follows: in the workshop for Colombia, 297 persons from 85 organisations participated; in the workshop for Ecuador, 97 persons from 64 organisations; and in the workshop for Peru, 103 persons from 52 organisations. In each case, organisations covered government and public sector entities; the respective EU Delegation, business associations as well as individual businesses, representatives of the EU business community in the country, trade unions, academia, civil society organisations working on a diverse range of issues including human rights, labour and social issues, and environmental protection, and individual citizens. Each

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<sup>1</sup> <https://trade.ec.europa.eu/dialogue/index.cfm>.

<sup>2</sup> No campaigns were identified, but some NGOs and trade unions in partner countries provided joint responses; thus, the number of organisations providing responses to the OPC is higher than the 70 responses.

<sup>3</sup> Available at <http://andean.fta-evaluation.eu/images/reports/H OPC report.pdf>.



workshop also featured a broad set of panellists representing the different sectors of public sector and civil society.

In addition, individual interviews were held with more than 140 organisations from the EU and partner countries, again covering all the different types of stakeholders as defined above, and in particular members of the various Domestic Advisory Groups (DAGs)/domestic consultative mechanisms established under the Trade and Sustainable Development (TSD) Title of the Agreement.

Reports for each of the workshops in the partner countries were also prepared (in Spanish) and are available from the evaluation website.<sup>4</sup>

### **1.3 Consideration of stakeholder views in the evaluation**

Contributions received from stakeholders – regardless of the channel through which these were provided – have been incorporated, where appropriate, into the evaluation findings in the main evaluation report.

## **2 SUMMARY OF STAKEHOLDER CONTRIBUTIONS**

Across the various consultation channels and pillars, the contributions received from the different groups of stakeholders were fairly coherent. Overall, respondents in the Andean partner countries were more positive about the effects of the Agreement than EU respondents, and public sector and business representatives were more positive than NGOs and trade unions. Whereas the former tended to focus on the economic effects, as well as the Agreement's role (and remaining issues) for facilitating trade, the latter focused on the non-economic aspects related to the Agreement, in particular issues covered by the TSD Title, and the role (and associated issues) of civil society participation in the implementation and monitoring of the Agreement.

### **2.1 Views on the Agreement's effectiveness and efficiency**

#### *2.1.1 Achievement of the Agreement's operational objectives*

In the OPC, stakeholders assessed the achievement of the Agreement's operational trade objectives – liberalisation of tariffs, NTBs, trade in services, public procurement markets, investment barriers, and strengthening of IPR and GIs, and technical assistance – clearly positively. Dispute settlement under the Agreement was also viewed slightly positively, on average. There is little difference in perceptions between EU and partner country stakeholders with respect to the trade and economic objectives (in the OPC, EU respondents were slightly more positive about these, on average, than partner country respondents), with one exception: EU stakeholders are more critical than their peers in the Andean countries regarding the protection of IPRs/GIs. EU business representatives also mentioned occasional problems in relation to tax treatment in the Andean partner countries, registration requirements and high burden of administrative paperwork, both in relation to trade in food products, and public procurement. Andean business stakeholders, in contrast, were mostly concerned about strict (and even becoming stricter) SPS requirements in the EU.

The average view regarding the achievement of the Agreement's objectives related to ensuring inclusive and equitable trade between the parties (incl. uptake of CSR/RBC and promotion of fair trade), fostering environmentally sustainable trade, promoting labour standards and decent work, avoidance of negative impacts on the enjoyment of human rights, and contributing to the achievement of the SDGs were assessed negatively. Views on these topics differ substantially across stakeholder groups, with EU stakeholders

<sup>4</sup> Available from <http://andean.fta-evaluation.eu/es/consultations-es/talleres>.

markedly more critical than Andean stakeholders. Similarly, business and public sector respondents see a neutral or limited positive role of the Agreement with respect to the non-economic objectives, whereas civil society and individual respondents are clearly more dissatisfied with the Agreement.

To measure the **overall level of stakeholder satisfaction with the achievement of operational objectives**, in the OPC an index was constructed, ranging from +2 (most positive assessment) to -2 (most negative assessment).<sup>5</sup> This indicates that, on average, all of the main stakeholder groups assess the Agreement positively: index scores are all positive (zero would indicate a neutral view), with an average score of 0.43 (Figure 1). Business and public sector respondents are more positive (0.55) than civil society and individuals (0.28), and respondents from Andean countries are more positive (0.56) than EU respondents (0.33).

### 2.1.2 *Involvement on non-state actors in the implementation and monitoring of the Agreement*

On average, the Agreement's role in establishing a framework for civil society participation in the implementation and monitoring is, on average, seen rather critically. At the same time, the differences in views between civil society and trade union representatives on the one hand, and public sector and business representatives on the other, are even stronger than the differences in their views regarding the substantive performance of the Agreement.

While all stakeholders appreciate the existence of the TSD Title and the institutions which it has established, and compare these favourably with other trade agreements, in particular the consulted civil society and trade union representatives (including those represented in the DAGs/domestic consultative bodies) consider that the extent to which views and contributions by non-state actors are taken up by the Parties is insufficient.

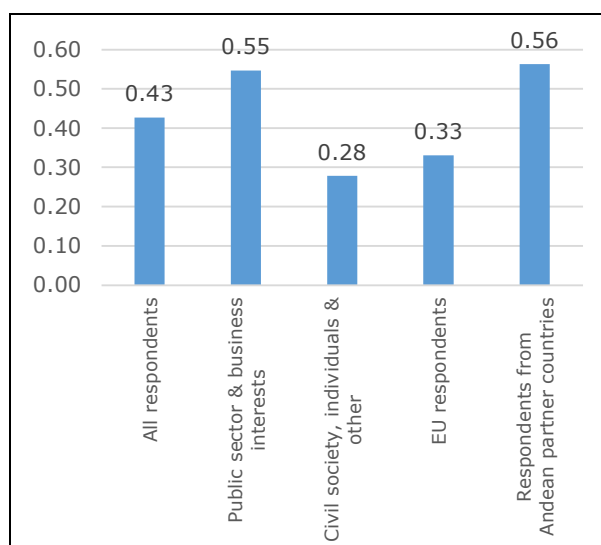
In their explanations, most stakeholders mentioned weaknesses in the current composition of the DAGs as well as the reluctance of Governments/the Parties to take on board or consider views of civil society actors. Most of the critical comments referred to the situation in the partner countries rather than the EU.

## 2.2 **Views on the Agreement's impact**

### 2.2.1 *Economic impact*

Among all stakeholders consulted, a clear majority considered the economic impact of the Agreement to be positive for all four Parties. In the OPC, the overall positive assessment was held across all respondent groups (by type and by region), but still views differed considerably across sub-groups of respondents. Thus, EU respondents tended to see the larger economic benefits in the Andean partner countries and vice versa. Business and public sector respondents saw the strongest positive impacts in the Andean partner countries, but still considerable positive effects on the EU economy. On the other hand,

**Figure 1: Achievement of operational objectives as seen by stakeholders (overall score)**



Source: Authors' calculations based on responses to the OPC.

<sup>5</sup> For details, see the summary report for the OPC, <http://andean.fta-evaluation.eu/images/reports/H OPC report.pdf>

civil society, trade union and individual respondents found the larger benefits for the EU economy and only smaller benefits for the Andean partner countries – but positive impacts nevertheless.

Stakeholders generally considered the main positive impact to stem from increased trade between the Parties as the basis for wider economic benefits. However, a number of stakeholders also noted that exports from the Andean countries have not diversified (as much as expected), that certain sectors have not benefitted, and that benefits have not been distributed equitably.

With respect to the economic effects of the Agreement **in the EU**, the overall view across stakeholders is positive. Increased exports of goods to the Andean partners were mentioned as the most positive effect. Also, exports of new products, and exports by new exporters were mentioned as positive effects. In the OPC, EU services export increases were also mentioned as a benefit by many respondents, although this positive view was not confirmed in the interviews held, where EU business stakeholders unanimously stated that the Agreement had had no effect on services trade (or EU investment in the partner countries). In the OPC, the only negative effect noted by respondents overall was that SMEs have benefitted less from the Agreement than larger firms; this perception was also present in the business survey.

In the OPC, although broad agreement across different groups of respondents (by region and stakeholder type) was evident on most effects, regarding some effects views differed substantially. In particular:

- EU respondents were sceptical regarding the Agreement's effects on EU firms' production costs and EU public revenues, and to a lesser extent also the Agreement's effect on enabling access to new technologies and the facilitation of bilateral value chains. Andean respondents saw much more positive effects in these areas;
- Business and public sector respondents were relatively more positive than other stakeholders about the access to technology which the Agreement has generated for EU firms, as well as Andean investment in the EU facilitated by the Agreement. Conversely, civil society and other respondents considered cheap access to inputs and associated reduction in production costs as the main effect of the Agreement in the EU.

Stakeholders also positively view the Agreement's economic effects **in the Andean partner countries**, although slightly less so than effects in the EU. Among the strongest perceived positive effects are increases in Andean partner countries' goods exports to the EU and a higher involvement of partner country firms in bilateral value chains. Increased EU investment in the partner countries was also noted as one of the most important benefits in the OPC, although, as mentioned above, in interviews EU business representatives denied that there was such an effect. In fact, all of the interviewed EU investors stated that the Agreement had played no role in their investment decisions. Other, but slightly less important positive effects mentioned by stakeholders include an overall strengthening of the partner country economies, increased partner country services exports to the EU, and a reduction in partner country firms' production costs.

As in the case of the EU, respondents to the OPC (and the business survey) considered that Andean country SMEs had benefitted less from the Agreement than larger firms. However, in interviews, Andean country stakeholders, including MSMEs, considered that the Agreement, primarily because of the tariff liberalisation and technical assistance made available, MSMEs had benefitted much from the Agreement. Other negative economic effects mentioned by some stakeholders were increased import competition in certain sectors and for certain groups (the dairy sector and smallholder farmers were mentioned), slower export growth and a worsening of the trade balances since the start of application of the Agreement, as well as a return to more exports of primary products by the Andean countries. In the EU, negative impacts on the sugar and banana sectors of outermost

regions were mentioned, resulting from increased exports from the Andean partner countries to the EU.

Compared with the views on effects in the EU, different groups of stakeholders hold more diverse views on the Agreement's economic and business effects in the partner countries. In particular:

- EU respondents were more positive than partner country stakeholders about the Agreement's effects on partner country firms' access to better technology, partner country investments in the EU, and the effect on the Andean economies overall. Conversely, Andean respondents were more positive about the Agreement's impact on production costs for Andean firms and a stronger involvement of partner country firms in bilateral value chains;
- As already mentioned above, business and public sector respondents were more positive than other stakeholders regarding most economic effects of the Agreement. The biggest differences in views between them and other stakeholders (civil society, trade unions and individual respondents) were those regarding government revenues, partner country services exports, and the impact on the economy overall.

In terms of sectoral effects, the sector mentioned most often by stakeholders is agriculture and agroindustry in the Andean countries. A large majority of stakeholders finds positive economic impacts for this sector (but mixed social and environmental impacts; see below), driven by the increase in exports. In turn, a majority of OPC respondents that listed this sector as being affected in the EU noted a negative effect, mostly due to "unfair competition generated by imports from Andean countries." Especially the effects for banana and sugar producers in the EU outermost regions were mentioned, also by stakeholders in interviews. Two agricultural subsectors, dairy and processed potatoes, were also seen as negatively affected in the Andean countries (but not mentioned for the EU). In both cases this was explained by subsidies provided by the EU, creating unfair competition with small scale producers in the Andean partner countries (dairy), respectively EU support to potato producers and processors.

Other benefiting sectors mentioned several times for the Andean countries are fishery/shrimps and aquaculture, tourism, and the automotive sector. This latter sector is also the only one, where net positive effects were mentioned in the OPC both for the EU and the Andean partner countries.

In terms of the relative magnitude of the impact across the Parties, stakeholders agreed that these were stronger in the Andean partner countries than in the EU. For example, in the OPC, respondents mentioned 17 sectors as affected (positively or negatively) by the Agreement, but only five in the EU.

### *2.2.2 Social impact*

In the OPC, a majority of respondents also considered that the Agreement had exerted a positive influence on social development in each of the Parties. However, the majority is less clear than for the economic impact, with a relatively high share of respondents finding no effect, especially in the EU.

As in the case of economic effects, EU and especially civil society respondents are more critical regarding the effects in the Andean partner countries, whereas public sector and business respondents consider the Agreement's influence in the EU to be small. All stakeholder groups consider that the influence on social development issues in Ecuador was most positive. In the OPC, few respondents – mostly civil society representatives – provided responses to more detailed questions on social development effects of the Agreement, and most of those who did considered that the Agreement had had no impact on most of the social indicators.

In interviews, business representatives provided little information on the Agreement's overall social impacts. Frequent references were however made to the support triggered by the Agreement for enhancing and expanding CSR practices and more sustainable production. The main channels mentioned through which the Agreement contributed to these were: first, EU consumer expectations and the according strict requirements and monitoring regarding production conditions in the Andean countries (notably for the major exporting agricultural sectors benefitting from the Agreement); second, the work undertaken under the Agreement's TSD Title; and third, technical and financial support and projects funded or implemented by the EU and EU Member States in relation to working conditions and labour rights.

Conversely, trade union representatives and civil society organisations were more critical in the interviews, highlighting continued precarious employment conditions, especially in agricultural sectors under special labour regimes, violations of labour rights, and negative effects of EU import competition on small-holder farmers and small businesses in the Andean partner countries. On the positive side, they acknowledged the good intentions of the TSD Title, as well as appreciated the opportunity provided for public-private dialogue on matters related to the Agreement both domestically (as part of the domestic consultation mechanisms) and at the level of the Parties (at the annual meetings). However, most were also disappointed about what they perceived was a lack of follow-up to recommendations and complaints made by non-state actors.

### *2.2.3 Environmental impact*

A majority of respondents to the OPC considered that the Agreement had exerted a positive influence on environmental issues in each of the Parties. However, for the Andean countries the majority was small, and respondents were clearly divided in their assessment, with relatively large numbers of responses finding "strong" positive respectively negative effects. For the EU, many stakeholders found no environmental impact.

As for the other impact areas, EU and civil society respondents were more critical regarding the Agreement's environmental effects, especially in the Andean partner countries, where they on average find that the Agreement had had negative environmental effects. Conversely, Andean respondents were clearly positive about the effects in the Andean countries.

Some stakeholders were concerned about the negative environmental implications of increases in output (especially in agriculture and mining<sup>6</sup>) and transport caused by the Agreement. Specific concerns were raised regarding the impact of increased shrimp production on mangroves, as well as the impact of increased agricultural production on deforestation. Attempts by the Andean governments to lower environmental standards in order to expand production and exports were also mentioned.

On the positive side, the effects of the Agreement's TSD Title on strengthening environmental norms and commitments were pointed out by a number of stakeholders. Possibilities for the Andean partner countries to benefit from EU know-how in green technologies and renewable energy, and the facilitation of imports of environmental goods from the EU were also mentioned as environmental benefits of the Agreement.

### *2.2.4 Human rights impact*

In the OPC, as in the case of environmental effects, respondents were divided over the influence which the Agreement had on human rights, especially in Colombia and Peru, where almost the same number of respondents find a negative respectively positive

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<sup>6</sup> It should be noted that the Agreement provides no tariff or other preferences for mining exports from the Andean partner countries.

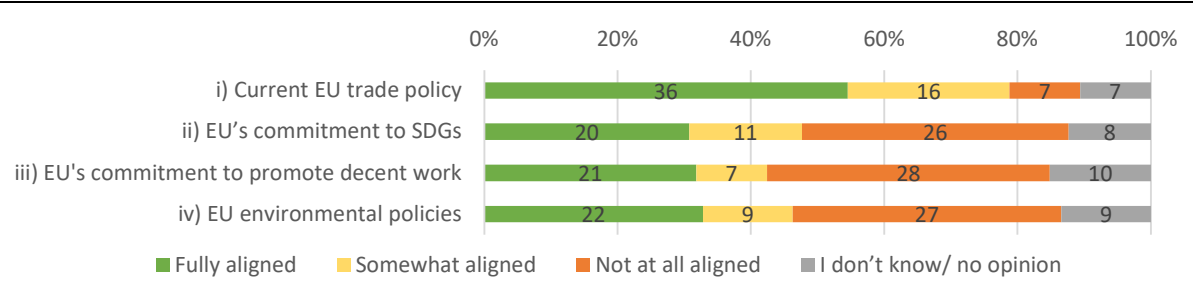
influence; for Ecuador and the EU, majorities saw positive effects. In interviews, stakeholders mostly considered that the human rights impacts in the EU were negligible.

Labour-related rights were seen as most impacted. Broader social rights, such as the right to an adequate standard of living and the rights of indigenous peoples and rural communities were also mentioned by some stakeholders, as were the limited powers which the Agreement provides to address human rights matters under the TSD Title.

2.3 Views on the Agreement’s coherence with other EU policies

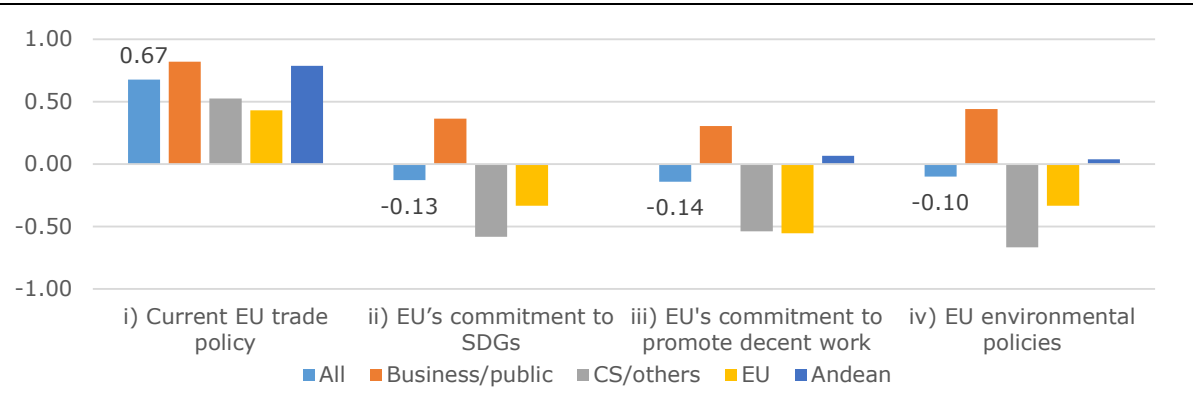
OPC respondents’ views on the Agreement’s coherence with wider EU policy objectives were divided. A large majority considers that the Agreement is fully or at least somewhat aligned with the EU’s trade policy, but simple majorities of respondents considered that it is “not at all aligned” with the EU’s commitment to the SDGs and to the promotion of decent work, as well as EU environmental policy objectives (Figure 2). EU respondents as well as civil society/trade unions/individuals were particularly critical of the Agreement’s alignment with wider EU policy objectives (Figure 3).

Figure 2: Distribution of views on the Agreement’s alignment with EU policy objectives (nr and % of responses)



Source: Authors’ calculations based on responses to the OPC.

Figure 3: Views on Agreement’s alignment with EU policy objectives, by respondent type and region (index scores)



Note: Index values range from -1 (all respondents noting no alignment at all) to +1 (all respondents noting full alignment). 56 to 59 respondents expressed their views on the different policy areas.  
Source: Authors’ calculations based on responses to the OPC.

Stakeholders (especially NGOs) noted, also in interviews, the divide between the intentions in the Agreement to contribute to sustainable development and the implementation practice of the Agreement. Many called for a strengthening of the institutions and procedures established under the TSD Title and/or the setting of clearer sustainable development targets in the context of the Agreement.



## 2.4 Overall views on the Agreement and its need for improvement

Reflecting the more critical comments made by EU stakeholders, these also find relatively fewer positive aspects of the Agreement. The liberalisation of trade and deepened commercial relations, enhanced transparency of the business environment, as well as the TSD Title are mentioned as positive aspects of the Agreement. Andean respondents are more positive about the Agreement, mentioning in particular increased export opportunities to the EU.

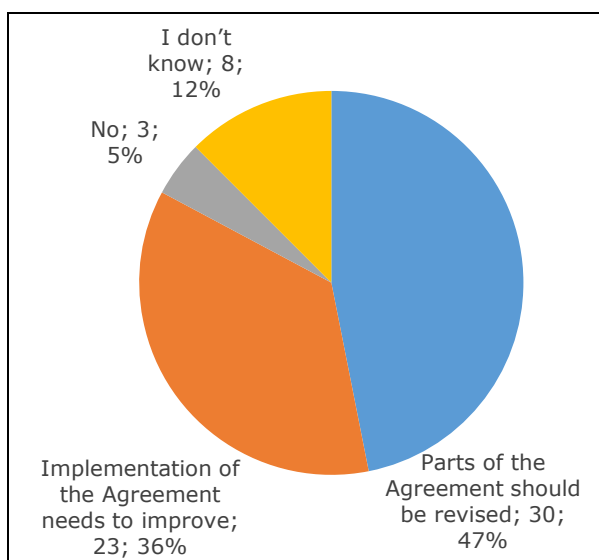
Weaknesses of the Agreement as identified by stakeholders, including OPC respondents, refer to a range of issues. A number refer to a deepening of inequalities caused by the Agreement between the EU and the Andean countries and between (large) companies and smallholder farmers/workers, as well as a lack of diversification and sustainable development effects in the Andean partner countries. The lack of effective implementation of the TSD Title and a general negligence of socially inclusive and environmentally sustainable development issues are also mentioned. Some stakeholders also mentioned remaining trade barriers between the parties and negative effects in certain sectors (bananas) as negative aspects of the Agreement.

Of the 64 OPC participants that responded to a question on the need for improvement of the Agreement, almost half considered that parts of the Agreement should be revised, and another third stated that the implementation would need to improve (Figure 4). Only 5% saw no need for changes in the implementation or the text of the Agreement.

Andean respondents as well as civil society respondents in particular saw the need for a revision of the Agreement – in each case, more than half of these respondents, but also among EU and business/public sector respondents about a third considered such a revision as needed.

With respect to the type of changes suggested for an improved Agreement or improved implementation, most EU stakeholders referred to a strengthening of TSD issues. Others called for further efforts to remove remaining (esp. technical) barriers to trade between the Parties (mostly business representatives), and a strengthening of institutional provisions including the involvement of civil society. These issues were also mentioned by Andean stakeholders, but a higher share of them referred to improvements in the economic and operational aspects for traders, such as removal of TBTs, efforts to enhance SME participation in trade, or investment.

**Figure 4: Perceived need for changes in implementation and text of the Agreement (%; n=64)**



Source: Authors' calculations based on responses to the OPC.



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