This publication was prepared within the framework of the Project on Responsible Business Conduct in Latin America and the Caribbean. Launched in 2019, this project promotes smart, sustainable and inclusive growth in the EU and Latin America and Caribbean by supporting responsible business conduct practices in line with the UN, ILO and OECD instruments. It is jointly implemented by the OECD, ILO, UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights and the European Union.

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Table of contents

1. Country Overview ............................................................................................................................. 4
2. Investment .......................................................................................................................................... 6
3. Trade................................................................................................................................................... 8
4. Responsible Business Conduct ....................................................................................................... 12
5. Target Sectors .................................................................................................................................. 14
   5.1. Agriculture .................................................................................................................................. 14
   5.2. Extractives/Minerals ................................................................................................................... 15
References ............................................................................................................................................ 17

Tables

Table 1. GDP trends (2000-2017) ........................................................................................................... 5
Table 2. Major foreign direct investors (2018)......................................................................................... 7
Table 3. Top 10 Export Partners (2016) ............................................................................................... 11
Table 4. Top 10 Import Partners (2016) ............................................................................................... 11
Table 5. Adherence / Ratification of International Instruments ............................................................ 13
Table 6. Ranking in Global Indices ....................................................................................................... 13

Figures

Figure 1. Value added by activity (2019).................................................................................................. 4
Figure 2. FDI Flows, 2005-2017 ............................................................................................................. 6
Figure 3. Composition of Exports and Imports (2017) ......................................................................... 8
Figure 4: Backward and forward participation in GVCs, 2015............................................................... 9
Figure 5: Industry shares of domestic and foreign value-added content of gross exports.................. 10

Boxes

Box 1. EU-Chile Trade Relationship ................................................................................................... 10
Box 2. Chile’s National Contact Point at a glance .............................................................................. 12
Box 3. National policy and/or legal frameworks enabling RBC......................................................... 13
1. Country Overview

The OECD, in partnership with the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), and the European Union (EU), has launched a four-year programme (2019-2022) to promote and enable Responsible Business Conduct in Latin America and the Caribbean (RBC LAC) in nine partner countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru). Under this programme, the OECD will contribute its expertise on Responsible Business Conduct to strengthen government policies for RBC, help business to conduct due diligence in priority sectors, and strengthen access to remedy by reinforcing National Contact Points for RBC (NCPs). This note provides background information and data on Chile’s trade and investment situation, with a focus on the agriculture and mining/extractives sectors.

Chile is a resource-rich country, which is now looking at ways to transform its economy, better integrate in global value chains, and achieve inclusive growth. Chile is an OECD member country since 2010 (OECD, 2010) and is considered as one of the most prosperous countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (World Bank, 2019[11]).

The Chilean economy has a limited degree of diversification, both in terms of activities and markets. In 2018, the economy was dominated by services (57.89%), hinging on IT and tourism, industry with 29.96% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), predominantly from mining related activities (OECD, 2018[2]), and agriculture representing 3.6% of GDP (World Bank, 2018[3]).

Chile is the largest copper producer and exporter in the world. From 2011 to 2014, a decrease in the price of copper led to a growth slowdown, and although Chile fared relatively well in comparison to its peers, the country’s vulnerability to the commodity cycles remain (OECD, 2018[2]).

![Figure 1. Value added by activity (2019)](image)


From 1990 to mid-2000, growth was steady, improving the overall social and economic conditions of its population: the average GDP per capita is 40% higher than the Latin American average (OECD, 2018[2]).
Table 1. GDP trends (2000-2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP (current bn USD)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP (PPP) (current bn USD)</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP Growth (%)</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita (current USD)</td>
<td>5,101</td>
<td>7,615</td>
<td>12,808</td>
<td>13,736</td>
<td>15,346</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


With this performance, Chile enjoyed higher and more stable growth than most countries in the LAC region. Although Chile’s income inequality is higher than the OECD average (OECD, 2018[2]), Chile’s Gini coefficient is somewhat lower than high- and upper-middle economies in the LAC region (World Bank, 2017[4]). The incidence of poverty is especially high among indigenous people, women, and youth (World Bank, 2017[5]). For example, indigenous poverty rates have fallen by 20 points since 2006, there is still a seven-point gap compared with the non-indigenous population. Interregional differences also vary significantly; among OECD members, along with Mexico, Chile has the highest gap in GDP per capita between its poorest and richest regions (OECD/ CAF, 2019[6]).

Low productivity is another important challenge. Total Factor Productivity (TFP) has remained stagnant since the 1990s, particularly due to the mining industry. The deterioration in copper ore grades has determined a need to shift production underground, and to increase mining intensity, thus using more energy (OECD/UN, 2018[7]). The high share of low-skilled workers, gaps in infrastructure and low investment in innovation are the main factors hindering productivity growth (OECD, 2018[2]).

While informality levels in Chile are low when compared to the rest of the LAC region, the country still records a relatively high level of informality in relation to its level of economic development. In the period October-December 2019, informal workers accounted for 28.4% of the total working population (unchanged in the last 12 months). Most of those workers are employed by productive units of fewer than 5 persons (71.7%). Considering the universe of informal work, it is mainly present in the commerce (21.7%), agricultural (11.8%), and construction (10.7%) sectors (Government of Chile, 2020[8]).

The business environment in Chile is relatively attractive, as business entry costs and export procedures have been progressively eased. However, promising firms still lack opportunities to grow, export and innovate (OECD, 2018[2]). Chile was ranked 59th in 2020 in the World Bank’s Ease of Doing Business Ranking, ‘Getting credit’ is the country’s weakest feature (94th), followed by ‘paying taxes’ (86th) (World Bank, 2020[9]). On the other hand, Chile has improved its position in other indicators, including for “starting a business” (57th) by establishing online and electronic services (World Bank, 2020[10]).
2. Investment

Chile opened its economy in the 1990s, creating a favourable environment for international investments, mainly in specific sectors such as mining, finance and insurance, transportation, energy, and manufacture. Statutory barriers to FDI, as measured by the OECD FDI Regulatory Restrictiveness Index,¹ are very low and less stringent than Mexico, Brazil, and the OECD average, but slightly more stringent than in some other LAC economies such as Colombia.

Although both outward and inward FDI stocks, equivalent to 90% of GDP in 2018, have been growing relative to GDP since 2009, FDI remains inward orientated (OECD, 2018[2]). FDI flows into Chile were around USD 7 Billion prior to the global financial crisis, peaked in 2008 and slowed down afterwards before reaching an all-time high in 2012 at USD 30 Billion. They then dropped again severely in the years after, and settled again at pre-crisis levels in 2017.

Figure 2. FDI Flows, 2005-2017

![Figure 2. FDI Flows, 2005-2017](http://www.oecd.org/investment/statistics.htm)

At the end of 2018, OECD countries were the biggest foreign direct investors in Chile with the USA and Canada representing over 25% of Chile’s inward FDI stock. In terms of outward FDI, Chile’s investments are mostly concentrated in its neighbouring Latin American countries such as Brazil, Peru and Argentina, accounting for half of total outward FDI stock, and the USA. Recent inflows of FDI into Chile were concentrated in the financial services (USD 15 Billion) and in the electricity, gas and water sector (USD 2 billion) (Central Bank of Chile, 2019[11]).


¹ The FDI Regulatory Restrictiveness Index (FDI Index) measures statutory restrictions on foreign direct investment in 22 economic sectors across 69 countries, including all OECD and G20 countries.
### Table 2. Major foreign direct investors (2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>USD million</th>
<th>As a share of total inward FDI stock %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total inward FDI stock</td>
<td>270,771</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>36,131</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>35,985</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>30,888</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>19,869</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>11,951</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>11,576</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cayman Islands</td>
<td>11,267</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bermuda</td>
<td>8,388</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Virgin Islands</td>
<td>7,920</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>4,725</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Central Bank of Chile, Foreign Direct Investment*

[http://si3.bcentral.cl/estadisticas/Principal1/Excel/SE/BDP/xls/IED_pais_sector_region_EN.xlsx](http://si3.bcentral.cl/estadisticas/Principal1/Excel/SE/BDP/xls/IED_pais_sector_region_EN.xlsx)
3. Trade

Chile’s economic growth is based on an export-led strategy, with trade amounting to 58.7% of the country’s GDP in 2018 (SUBREI, 2018[12]), and a low level of diversification in terms of products, mostly commodities, making the economy vulnerable to external shocks. In 2017, fuels and mining products such as copper ore and refined copper accounted for more than half of exports (Central Bank of Chile, 2017[13]). Excluding mining, agro-food products account for 46% of Chile’s exports (OECD, 2018[2]). In terms of imports, three quarters were manufacturing goods like machines, passenger vehicles and computers, 15.9% were fuels and mining products such as refined petroleum, and 10.7% were agricultural products like bovine meat (World Trade Organization, 2019[14])

Figure 3. Composition of Exports and Imports (2017)


Chile has established 29 Free Trade Agreements that cover 65 economies, including China (2006), the United States (2004) and the EU in 2003 (SUBREI, 2019[15]). China, the United States and Japan are recipients of more than half of Chile’s total exports (OECD/UN, 2018[7]). Chilean trade is increasingly turning towards Asia as the Republic of Korea added itself to the top Asian trading partners, as fourth largest partner in 2016 with 6% of total exports. Chile’s largest import partners are geographically diverse with China taking the lead (24%) and followed by the United States (18%), Brazil (8%) and Argentina (4.5%). Chile’s integration in Global Value Chains (GVCs) is mainly through ‘forward linkages’

Economies can contribute to global value chains by importing foreign inputs for producing the goods and services they export (backward GVC participation) and also by exporting domestically produced inputs to partners in charge of downstream production stages (forward GVC participation). These degrees of participation are measured empirically through ratios. Forward GVC participation corresponds to the ratio of ‘domestic value added sent to third economies’ to the economy’s total gross exports. It captures the domestic value added contained in inputs sent to third economies for
as shown by latest Trade in Value Added statistics. This is among the highest in the OECD and is related to the specialisation in upstream industries (mining and agriculture) that are destined for other downstream activities, particularly in Asia. The domestic value added in mining accounts for more than 35% of the value of overall gross exports.

![Figure 4: Backward and forward participation in GVCs, 2015](image)

**Note:** Data for Panama and Ecuador are not available.

**Source:** OECD TiVA 2018.

further processing and export through value chains. Backward GVC participation refers to the ratio of the ‘Foreign value added content of exports’ to the economy’s total gross exports.

3 The 2018 update of OECD’s Trade in Value Added (TiVA) database provides a new suite of indicators to better understand complex trade relations and global supply chains that create value throughout the production and distribution process.
Figure 5: Industry shares of domestic and foreign value-added content of gross exports

As a percent of total gross exports, 2015

Source: OECD TiVA 2018

Box 1. EU-Chile Trade Relationship

Trade between the EU and Chile operates under the framework of the 2002 Association Agreement, which includes a comprehensive Free Trade Agreement. Since its entry into force in 2003, bilateral trade has doubled and in 2017, the EU was the third largest trading partner, both for imports and exports after China and the US (EU, 2017). Imports from Chile to the EU amounted to EUR 8.3 billion and the EU exported to Chile EUR 8.8 billion with a EUR 0.5 billion surplus for the EU. Exports from the EU to Chile mainly consist of industrial products such as machinery and transport equipment (52%), manufactured goods (22%) and chemicals (15%). The EU imports food and live animals (33%), crude materials (32%), mainly copper, and other manufactured goods (23%) (European Commission-SIA, 2018(16))
## Table 3. Top 10 Export Partners (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Exports (USD) 2017</th>
<th>USD billion</th>
<th>% total exports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>9.99</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>9.31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>R. of Korea</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


## Table 4. Top 10 Import Partners (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Imports (USD) 2017</th>
<th>USD billion</th>
<th>% total imports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>15.50</td>
<td>23.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td>18.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>R. of Korea</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Responsible Business Conduct

In 1997, Chile adhered to the OECD Declaration on International Investment and Multinational Enterprises (Investment Declaration) and to the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises (which are part of the Investment Declaration). Following that commitment, Chile established an NCP in 1997 (See Box 2). In 2010, Chile became the first South American country to join the OECD and it was also the first Latin American NCP to volunteer to undertake a peer review in 2017. Chile has also adhered to the Council Recommendation on the OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas (2012); the OECD-FAO Guidance for Responsible Agricultural Supply Chains (2016); the OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains in the Garment and Footwear Sector (2017); and the OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Business Conduct (2018).

Box 2. Chile’s National Contact Point at a glance

National Contact Points for Responsible Business Conduct (NCPs for RBC) are agencies established by governments. Their mandate is twofold: (i) to promote the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises and the related due diligence guidance; and (ii) to handle cases (referred to as “specific instances”) as a non-judicial grievance mechanism.

The Chilean NCP was established in 1997 and is assigned to the General Directorate of International Economic Relations ("DIRECON") in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. As of February 2020, the NCP is represented by one senior official and supported by two additional staff members (three full-time staff in total).

The NCP has received so far 21 specific instances. The Chile’s NCP website is available here.

The Council of Social Responsibility for Sustainable Development created in 2013 and composed of representatives of the public and private sectors, developed the National Plan on Social Responsibility 2015-2018 (Ministry of Economy, 2015[17]). The Plan, based on international standards such as the UN Guiding Principles (UNGPs) and the OECD Guidelines, paved the way for the development of a National Action Plan on Business and Human Rights (NAP). Chile launched its NAP on 21 August 2017, which takes into account the role of the NCP on RBC. Specifically, the NAP calls for coherent dissemination of both the UNGPs and the OECD Guidelines, as well as strengthening the NCP mechanism through closer collaboration with the National Institute of Human Rights (Ministry of Justice and Human Rights, 2019[18]) (see also Box 3). The Chilean NCP has made substantive efforts to engage stakeholders, in particular through its multi-stakeholder Committee (‘Comité Espejo’). The Committee has defined its objectives in terms of reference, and developed an Annual Promotional Plan for 2019 whose implementation will be evaluated and inform the drafting of a new Plan for 2020.
### Table 5. Adherence / Ratification of International Instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Ratification or Adherence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Core UN Conventions on Human Rights</td>
<td>9/9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN Convention against Corruption</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundamental ILO Conventions</td>
<td>8/8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6. Ranking in Global Indices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Country Ranking</th>
<th>Number of Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WEF Global Competitiveness Index (2019)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Bank Doing Business (2020)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITUC-CSI Global Rights Index Rating (2019)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yale Environmental Performance (2018)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom House Freedom of the Press Index (2017)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSF World Press Freedom (2019)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Slavery Index (2018)</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEF Global Gender Gap Index (2020)</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency International Corruption Perception Index (2019)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Justice Rule of Law Index (2019)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Box 3. National policy and/or legal frameworks enabling RBC

Chile adopted a National Action Plan on Business and Human Rights (NAP) on 21 August 2017 (Government of Chile). Coordination for developing the NAP was mandated to the Directorate of Human Rights of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which appointed a team of experts on business and human rights to carry out this task. In 2019, responsibility for the NAP was transferred from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to Ministry of Justice and Human Rights where Human Rights Undersecretary is located.

The NAP contains 158 action points that cut across numerous state institutions, aiming to strengthen the coherence of policies on human rights and business; generate spaces for national dialogue that promote respect for human rights within business activity; prevent potential negative impacts on human rights that may be generated in the context of business activities; and promote due diligence within responsible business management.

The NAP was adopted for a three-year period and will expire in August 2020. In 2019, the Inter-Ministerial Committee started the evaluation of the NAP and the process to define a roadmap to prepare a second NAP, which will be presented to the Multi-Stakeholder Advisory Group.
5. Target Sectors

5.1. Agriculture

The economic weight of Chile’s agricultural sector has been declining since the 1980s, and attributed about 4% of GDP in 2018, employing about 9% of the population. However, when it comes to the wider agro-food sector, comprising agriculture, fishery and food processing industries, this accounts for 8% of Chile’s GDP, contributes to more than 20% of domestic exports, employs 17% of the national work force and is represented at 70% by micro-enterprises (World Bank, 2019[20]).

Chile’s agro-food value chain is built on well-established public and private institutions. The Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for promoting, steering and co-ordinating Chile’s agricultural, livestock and forestry activities. However, the need for setting up effective public-private consultations was highlighted as an important step in defining better policies, as well as in strengthening the participation of civil society, entrepreneurs along the entire value chain, and local governments and communities (OECD/UN, 2018[7]).

Key agricultural products are fresh and dry fruits, vegetables and wine, fresh and dry fruits account for about half of agricultural exports. In 2016, Chile was the 8th largest wine producer and the 5th world exporter and new investment opportunities are starting to develop in order to use agriculture in the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries (PROCHILE, 2019[21])

**Relevant initiatives**

The Government of Chile has established the Sustainable Agriculture Protocol (Protocolo de Agricultura Sustentable), led by the Ministry of Agriculture, which is a voluntary protocol that sets out ten sustainability principles for the agricultural sector. These principles include water use, human rights and labour conditions, waste management, agrochemicals use, health and sanitation, local communities, biodiversity, energy, soils, animal welfare (Ministry of Agriculture, 2016[22]). With regards to labour, the Foundation for Fruit Development (Fundación para el Desarrollo Frutícola) has developed a Manual of Good Labour Practices (Manual de Buenas Prácticas Laborales) that outlines good practices for, among else, seasonal labour, contracting, and worker safety (Ministry of Agriculture, 2009[23]).

In an effort to further strengthen sustainability in the agricultural sector, the Government established the Department of Sustainability and Regulations, which sits under the Office of Agricultural Policies and Studies (Oficina de Estudios y Políticas Agrarias, Odepa). In 2019 Odepa started a multi-stakeholder process for the development of a Sustainable Agrifood Strategy that, among else, focusses on policy coherence and private-public partnerships (Government of Chile, 2020[24]). Odepa will collect feedback on the draft strategy in different regions of Chile and it is expected that the strategy will be launched in the second semester of 2020.

There are several commodity-specific initiatives in the agriculture sector. The wine industry has developed a Sustainability Code (Código de Sustentabilidad de la Industria Vitivinícola Chilena), which establishes sustainability requirements for managing environmental, social and governance issues; a certification is then awarded by a third party after compliance has been verified (Wines of Chile, n.d.[25]).
5.2. Extractives/Minerals

Mining is the most important sector of Chile’s economy as the country is the biggest producer of copper in the world: with 5.9 million metric tons produced in 2018, Chile accounts for almost 28% of the world’s copper production, while accounting for about 30% of the world’s copper reserves (Government of Chile, 2018[26]). Chile is also the world’s leading producer of iodine (62% of world production), of rhenium (55%), and molybdenum (20%). Additionally, Chile is the second largest producer of lithium (19%) and the fourth producer of silver (4.6%) (United States Geological Survey, 2019[27]). The Escondida mine, in the north of the Atacama Desert, produces 1 million tons of copper a year and is the world’s largest open-pit copper mine. Mining employs around 228,340 workers4 and has an important weight in Chile’s GDP and exports. Over the last decade it accounted for 12.1% on average of GDP and for 55% of domestic exports, 50% of which came from copper alone (OECD/UN, 2018[7]).

As of 2016, Chile accounted for 8.5% and 11% of world’s smelting and refined production. A downward trend in smelting and refining in Chile has been due to China’s increasing capacity for smelting and refining (fivefold between 2000 and 2016). The Chinese appetite for copper ores has boosted Chilean mining exports; however, it has also contributed to increasing specialisation in the extractive segments of the value chain (OECD/UN, 2018). Asia is the main destination for Chile’s mining exports. In 2016, Chile’s copper ore exports mainly went to China (38%), Japan (22%), India (13%) and South Korea (8%), for a total value of USD 11 billion. In the same year, Asian countries combined also absorbed USD 9.8 billion of refined copper from Chile, with China alone accounting for 47% of the total. Since the 2000s, the productivity of mining in Chile has been declining. This is not a unique Chilean problem: between 2000 and 2015, many commodity-rich countries faced productivity declines in industries associated with natural resources. Chile’s main mining sites are experiencing ore grade deterioration, leading to lower productivity. The increasing water demand is an additional challenge for mining in Chile, as most sites are located in the northern regions, next to the Atacama Desert, one of the driest places in the world (OECD, 2018[21]).

Chile has a unique licensing system whereby licenses are awarded by judges on the advice of the National Service for Geology and Mining (Servicio Nacional de Geología y Minería, SERNAGEOMIN), a technical body. Licensing remains an administrative process, but the fact that it is conducted by the judiciary – and all information regarding the status of the applications and the decisions of the judges are available online – makes the process more transparent and independent from political pressures (Caripis, Lisa, 2017[28]). The Environmental Evaluation Service (Servicio de Evaluación Ambiental) evaluates the environmental impacts of projects, manages civil participation in the evaluation of projects, and responds to complaints by civil society. However, there remain grievances related to meaningful stakeholder engagement from communities and CSOs.

Chile is expected to be severely affected by water shortages in the next 20 years, especially in the northern and central areas of the country. According to government estimates, mining accounts for 3% of total water consumption in the country (far behind the agricultural sector’s 82%) (Government of Chile, 2016[29]). However, this percentage goes up significantly in the central north and northern regions; for example, in the Atacama region,

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it is 10.4% but due to the increasing expansion of mining in this region it is estimated that this will increase to 25.4% by 2032 (Aitken et al., 2016[30]). There are ongoing efforts by the mining sector to use desalination plants; by 2030 it is expected that about half of water required by copper mining would be seawater (Government of Chile, 2019[31]). Moreover, two bills of law to amend the Water Code have been in discussion in Congress since 2014, seeking to limit the use of certain water rights in times of scarcity, to forbid granting new water rights in protected areas and glaciers, and to establish higher standards and a prior authorisation from the water authority in Chile for the granting and use of water rights for mining activities (Sherwood, 2018).

**Relevant initiatives**

Chile is part of the Mining and Sustainable Development Goals (MINSUS) programme on regional cooperation for the sustainable management of mineral resources in the Andean countries (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru). The program covers three thematic areas: policies and strategies; stakeholder governance; and transfer of technology and innovation. The regional counterpart of the programme is the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the implementing agencies are GIZ and the Federal Institute of Geosciences and Natural Resources (BGR) of Germany (MINSUS, 2018[32]).

There have been several initiatives from both the industry and the government to address issues of stakeholder engagement related to mining and energy projects in the country, which tend to be project-focused. For example, the Caimanes Dialogue, Consultation and Participation Process that was created to resolve a conflict between a mining company and the community of Caimanes. Conducted between 2015 and 2017, the dialogue contributed to changing the company’s understanding of the conflict with the neighbouring communities, acknowledging its mistakes and collaboratively seeking to find solutions (Inter-American Development Bank, 2018[33]).

Additionally, in 2018 the "Women and Mining National Table" was established, an instance that seeks to advance in better practices to make mining a more inclusive activity. It is estimated that 8.4% of personnel in mining companies are women, while in supplier companies this index reaches 6.7%, averaging 7.9% in the sector (Government of Chile, 2018[26]).
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