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POSSIBLE IMPLICATIONS OF SANITARY AND PHYTOSANITARY MEASURES FOR EXPORTERS OF OILSEED-BASED PRODUCTS TO THE EUROPEAN UNION

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INTRODUCTION

1. In its previous session, the Group agreed to continue its review of certain aspects of the Uruguay Round agreements. The present document was prepared in response to the Group's request to collect and analyze information on sanitary and phytosanitary (SPS) measures applying to trade in oilseeds and oilseed-based products. This request reflects the Group's concern that, while necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health, SPS measures could be applied in a manner which would constitute a means of arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination between countries where same or similar conditions prevail or - as the results of the Uruguay Round will reduce the incidence of other trade barriers - a means of disguised trade restriction to protect domestic markets.

2. The approach followed in this paper is that of a case study. The large number of SPS measures used world-wide, together with resource limitations, induced the Secretariat to concentrate on a particular region first, possibly covering other markets later on. The EU market was chosen for a number of reasons, in particular its importance for global trade in oilseed products (see Table 1). The paper compiles commodity-specific information, with a view to help exporters of oilseeds and oilseed products to adjust to SPS requirements of the EU. Furthermore, relevant policy issues are discussed against the background of the WTO Agreement on the Application of SPS Measures and an attempt is made to assess the relevance of SPS measures for exports of oilseed-based products to the EU.

SPS MEASURES APPLYING TO THE EU MARKET FOR OILSEEDS, OILS AND OILMEALS

3. In this paper, SPS measures are presented in two distinct groups¹: (a) legislation enforced by EU governments, and (b) voluntary measures introduced by the private sector².

EU legislation

4. In the EU, SPS legislation aims at protecting human, animal, and plant health, while ensuring fair trade and providing for the necessary control mechanisms. Within the Community, legislation has been harmonised to a considerable degree, thus reducing border control over intra-community trade. Goods imported from outside the EU are normally subject to the same requirements as those originating within the Community. The majority of regulations is not commodity specific but refers to broad groups of foods and feedstuffs. Regulations specifically referring to oilseed products or having a bearing on these products are presented below in five major groups.

¹ There is a third group of regulations, namely international standards, guidelines and recommendations issued by international bodies, such as the FAO/WHO Codex Alimentarius Commission. These standards, which partly cover SPS aspects and may apply to parts of the oilseeds sector, are not directly affecting EU trade and are, therefore, not explicitly discussed here. However, the role of these standards and their relationship with other SPS regulations are addressed in various parts of the text.

² In addition to voluntary measures introduced by the private sector in the EU, this group also covers rules set up by international trade associations, to the extent these apply to imports of oilseed products into the EU.

Food legislation

5. Extraction solvents: Their use is regulated to ensure that foodstuffs, including processed oils, do not contain solvent residue levels dangerous to human health.

Erucic acid: Its content in oils and in foodstuffs to which they have been added may not exceed certain levels.

Food additives: In some oils, mainly processed oils or oils used for manufacturing of foodstuffs, only specific additives and defined amounts of them are allowed.

Transportation requirements: For bulk transportation of oils (in vessels or other containers), previous cargoes must be either foodstuffs or a commodity included in a special list of acceptable previous cargoes.

Contaminants: At the Community level, only general framework legislation exists; therefore, national provisions are enforced by individual member countries. For aflatoxins, the contaminant of major importance in oilseeds and derived products, a variety of national regulations determines maximum admissible levels depending on the type of aflatoxin and class of food.

Feedstuffs legislation

6. Contaminants: EU law established maximum levels for certain 'undesirable substances' in animal feedstuffs. Regulations apply to raw materials and feedstuffs put into circulation, whether domestically produced, imported, or destined for export outside the EU. Generally, legislation refers to broad groups of feedingstuffs. Regulations specific to oilseeds and oilseed products include maximum tolerances for:

- free gossypol in cottonseed cake;
- hydrocyanic acid in linseed and linseed cake;
- volatile mustard oil in rapeseed cake;
- specific pesticides in oilseeds in general;
- aflatoxin-B1 in groundnut, copra, palmkernel, cottonseed and derived products.

Currently, a proposal for further tightening of EU legislation (i.e. the extension of maximum tolerance levels hitherto applied to 'straight feedingstuffs', that is feedstuffs ready for consumption, to feed material in general, including raw materials) is under consideration.

General legislation (covering food as well as feedstuffs)

7. Pesticide residues: In 1993, harmonized maximum pesticide residue levels for products of plant origin intended for the manufacture of food and feedingstuffs, including oilseeds were established. Regulations are binding for all EU trade, i.e. they apply to domestic as well as imported goods. Efforts to harmonise means of control and methods of analysis are on-going. The extension of current legislation to all dried and/or processed products as well as to composite processed products is currently under consideration. Although specific requirements for individual oilseeds (or oilseeds in general) exist with respect to over 50 pesticides, many pesticides are not yet covered by EU legislation, in particular those used outside the EU. Member countries may apply specific national legislation to cover those pesticides.

Phytosanitary legislation

8. Quarantine pests: EU legislation, sometimes complemented by national law, enforces protective measures against the introduction of organisms harmful to plants and plant products and against their spread within the Community. The introduction of such harmful organisms and of some plants/plant products requires official phytosanitary certificates. Oilseeds affected by

such requirements include sunflowerseed, rape- and mustardseed and cottonseed. Different requirements may apply for material originating within or outside the Community.

Other legislation potentially related to SPS aspects

9. Several regulations, while primarily related to labelling, quality assurance and similar aspects, may also aim at contributing to human and animal health protection. Those having a bearing on oilseeds, oils or oilmeals are listed below:

- a) Genetically modified organisms (GMOs): In recent years, several genetically engineered crops have been developed, mainly with a view to maintain or improve yields, increase herbicide and pest resistance, create new uses and/or improve marketability. According to EU legislation, the release and marketing of GMOs require legal approval to ensure that they do not represent a danger to the environment or human health. Once approval is granted by especially established scientific committees, a GMO becomes eligible for importation and circulation within the Community. With regard to oilseeds, to date, approval was given (i) to import genetically modified soybeans for direct transformation into food and feed products, and (ii) to produce, market and import certain types of genetically manipulated rapeseed for all purposes. In the near future, genetic engineering will require (throughout the EU) specific mention on labels when GMOs enter the market. Furthermore, in view of the rising use of genetic engineering in plants destined for food use and in response to increasing consumer concerns about potential health risks, specific legislation has recently been introduced on the marketing of food products containing (or derived from) GMOs, to establish under which conditions foodstuffs need to carry special labels referring to the use made of genetic modification. In the case of soyoil derived from genetically modified beans, no extra labelling is required as equivalence with conventional soyoil has been proven. The introduction of additional regulations governing the use of GMOs is currently under consideration. For instance, EU labelling requirements presently applied to food products may be extended to feedstuffs (e.g. soymeal) and food additives (e.g. soya-based lecithin). In that case, soymeal derived from genetically modified beans could become subject to special labelling requirements. Despite efforts to address GMO related aspects through community legislation, some EU member countries have introduced national regulations that differ in their level of restrictiveness, in an attempt to protect consumer interests. Any regulation singling out GMOs (and products derived from them) has the potential to considerably affect national and international trade, in particular if GMO-derived produce needs to be handled separately from conventional produce throughout all post-harvest operations, including trade and processing. Consequently, plans for future legislation in this area are intensively debated and carefully screened against the background of the WTO agreements on technical barriers to trade and/or on the application of SPS measures.
- b) Circulation and marketing of food and feedstuffs: Both Community and national legislations apply, covering domestic as well as imported products. Foodstuffs legislation concentrates on labelling, product presentation and advertising aspects, with the objective to inform and protect consumers and to ensure fair competition. EU legislation on feedstuffs aims at ensuring the right use of suitable, good quality, feed materials which are to be sound, genuine and of merchantable quality and shall not represent a danger to animal or human health. Compulsory labelling calls for indications on the feed purpose of a product as well as on its analytical composition.
- c) Seed material: EU phytosanitary legislation includes unified regulations on the production and marketing of seed material. Oilseeds (as any other seeds) are subject to seed certification requirements, to guarantee seed identity, varietal purity, germination capability

and absence of harmful organisms. Requirements apply equally to seed material produced and marketed within the Community and seed imported from third countries.

Voluntary codes of practice

10. In certain cases the private sector has taken the initiative and has developed a voluntary code of practice (VCP) with the objective of facilitating trade. The classification of certain VCPs as SPS measures is not always straight forward. For instance, while provisions contained in shipping contracts (see (c) below) focus mainly on quality issues, certain SPS related aspects are also covered. There are other reasons why VCPs are not really comparable to the SPS legislation covered above. First of all, VCPs are always of a voluntary nature, i.e. a trader is free to decide whether or not to comply with them. Furthermore, most VCPs apply to trade world-wide, and therefore are not specific to the EU market. Also, a number of VCPs specifically refer to products originating in certain countries or regions, while EU legislation generally does not differentiate between trade partners. Although of a rather different nature and not legally binding, VCPs can represent important complements to official SPS legislation and international standards. They may precede the introduction of proper legislation, or simply translate existing legislation to make it more compatible with the needs of the industry.

11. In what follows, the main national and international VCPs applying to the EU market for oilseed products are discussed briefly.

- a) Heat transfer media: Heat transfer media (HTM) are used in closed-coil systems of processing and storage tanks and vessels to keep oils and fats liquid or to heat them. If a leak develops in these heating systems, HTM may contaminate the oil. The toxicity of various widely used HTM has become a concern, in particular where oil is intended for human consumption. A Codex Alimentarius regulation addressing this issue is currently under review. In the meantime, various international and regional private sector organizations have advised their members to refrain from using HTM other than hot water and steam.
- b) Salmonella contamination: EU private sector associations have developed specific VCPs aimed at the control and prevention of salmonella contamination in vegetable feedingstuffs, including oilmeals.
- c) Shipping contracts: A very large portion of international trade in oilseeds, oils and oilmeals is based on widely recognised shipping contracts issued by two international associations. Used on a voluntary basis, these contracts have evolved over many years to suit the needs of the trade. Included in these contracts are requirements to ensure that goods traded are safe, in good condition and of fair merchantable quality, and to help trading partners to comply with national or international SPS legislation and standards. Requirements vary depending on the commodity traded and its intended use, the country of origin or destination, and the form of shipment.

MAIN POLICY ISSUES

Compliance with WTO regulations

12. The WTO agreement on SPS measures affirms the right of governments to enforce SPS measures. However, considering that such measures have the potential to distort or restrict trade, the agreement contains provisions to minimise the possible negative effects of SPS measures on trade. The above review of SPS legislation shows that EU policy in this area is largely driven

by increased consumer concerns over the safety of foods and feedstuffs and related health issues. It appears that, in general, SPS measures have not been used as a means to restrict trade and that efforts were made to minimise their potential trade restricting effects. To date SPS legislation affecting oilseed products has not given rise to formal disputes between EU member states or with EU trade partners. Where the justification for introducing specific SPS measures has been challenged, scientific evidence seems to have prevailed over other considerations.³

13. VCPs are also subject to the WTO agreement on SPS measures, in so far as governments are supposed to ensure observance of the agreement by non-government entities. Mainly designed to facilitate marketing and trade, VCPs and related measures are normally the result of extensive consultations within the trade community. Though until now they have not led to formal disputes, these measures can be controversial in that they may not adequately reflect the interests of producer and consumer groups.

Harmonization of legislation

14. The review of SPS measures shows that a wide range of regulations applies to the EU oilseeds, oils and oilmeals market. Measures are based on national law, Community law and voluntary private sector initiatives. The general trend over the last decade has been to dismantle national legislation gradually, replacing it with unified Community law. This process was accelerated by the introduction of the single market in 1993, which called for the elimination of all forms of EU-internal border control and technical barriers to trade. The harmonisation of SPS legislation within the EU can be considered as advantageous for the international trade community, to the extent that exporters are confronted with a more homogenous and transparent set of regulations. Furthermore, EU legislation is generally based on international standards and guidelines developed by specific international institutions (such as the Codex Alimentarius Commission) as recommended in the WTO agreement on SPS measures. In some cases, EU legislation may not fully conform to international regulations and recommendations, either to better reflect specific local conditions or because the required international standards are not yet available.⁴ Though, potentially, this situation may constrain exports to the EU, under WTO regulations recourse to national legislation is permitted provided that certain conditions are met, in particular SPS measures should be based on scientific justification and on an accurate assessment of risks involved and should not be more trade-restrictive than required. The situation observed in the EU seems to be in line with a general trend towards bilateral and regional harmonisation of SPS legislation, reflecting the desire to improve trade relations between individual countries or within particular country groups. Under these circumstances, however, specific requirements of third countries exporting to (or importing from) members of a particular bloc of countries may not be sufficiently addressed. In order to alleviate this problem, it would be advantageous if governments contributed to world-wide harmonisation of SPS legislation to the extent possible, by making increased use of international standards and guidelines as advocated by the WTO agreement on SPS measures.

³ Examples are the decision not to extend salmonella control measures to oilmeals because of insufficient scientific evidence about related health hazards, and the fact that the responsibility for the release of GMOs into the market has been assigned to specialized scientific committees.

⁴ In this context, it should be noted that the Codex Alimentarius Commission is expected to review a number of oilseeds related standards and codes, covering, *inter alia*, tolerance levels for contaminants and toxins (including aflatoxin) in raw materials and food products (including oilseeds and oils); recommendations on the use of HTM during storage and transport of edible oils and fats; and practices for good animal feeding to counter health threat to humans (including control of aflatoxin contamination in feedstuffs).

TRADE IMPLICATIONS

15. In this section, an attempt is made to assess how various oilseed-based products and countries exporting these commodities towards the EU are affected in general qualitative terms by the application of SPS measures.⁵ In fact, a systematic quantitative assessment of the impact of these measures on trade is rendered difficult by the fact that a comparison of the actual state with a situation where no SPS measures are applied would be needed. All that can be done is to identify the trade covered by specific SPS measures, but even this is difficult for trade with the EU because of a variety of factors. First, the incidence of SPS regulations on particular trade flows may vary from regulation to regulation, depending on the extent to which regulations are binding, on the respective control mechanisms and on whether they are applied in a global or targeted way. Secondly, the impact on trade may also vary from country to country and over time. Thirdly, many SPS regulations in force in the EU apply to large groups of products rather than individual commodities.

16. For the purpose of measuring trade effects, the various SPS measures discussed in previous sections are classified as follows:

1. SPS legislation with horizontal product coverage

Regulations applying to oils in general cover:

- transportation
- extraction solvents
- erucic acid (affecting **rapeseed oil** in particular)
- food additives

Regulations applying to other groups of commodities comprising oilseeds and oils cover:

- aflatoxin (applying to all oilseeds other than groundnuts, all foodstuffs, or all children food)
- pesticides (applying to all oilseeds)
- seed material
- release and marketing of GMOs

These measures apply to oilseeds and oils (not oilmeals) in their primary or processed form, whether destined for seed use, animal or human consumption. Principally directed toward the EU internal market, they equally apply to third country imports. Though most oilseeds and oils and a large number of exporting countries seem to be affected, a meaningful measurement of trade flows concerned is not possible as these measures apply to entire classes of commodities or foodstuffs, without any further differentiation by commodity or product.⁶

2. Commodity-specific SPS legislation

Regulations which do apply to specific oilseeds or derived products and which, therefore, affect

⁵ While this paper only analyzes the implications of SPS measures applied to oilseeds, oils and oilmeals, there can be situations where measures on different (but related) groups of commodities are also relevant. Recent changes in SPS legislation on trade in and use of mammalian meat and bone meal, for example, are relevant for the entire meal market, and in particular for other high-protein-content meals such as oilmeals.

⁶ In this context, readers may want to refer to Table 1 which provides an insight into the global pattern of the EU import market for oilseed-based products.

specific trade flows cover:

- aflatoxin in **groundnuts** intended for human consumption;
- contaminants in feedstuffs, including: gossypol in **cottonseed cake**; hydrocyanic acid in **linseed and its cake**; volatile mustard oil in **rapeseed cake**; and aflatoxin in **groundnuts, copra, palmkernel, cottonseed and the respective products**;
- quarantine pests in **sunflowerseed, rape- and mustardseed, and cottonseed**.

For the individual products highlighted above in bold print, average EU import volumes and major suppliers are shown in Table 2. The table gives some indications of the importance of selected SPS regulations for the EU import market in oilseeds, oils and oilmeals. Apparently, the volume of trade affected by these measures is greatest in the case of oilmeals, followed by oilseeds, while trade in vegetable oils seems to be hardly affected.⁷ The most affected commodities seem to be (in decreasing order of importance) palmkernel meal, sunflowerseed, rapeseed, copra and rapeseed meal. While a great number of exporting countries is involved, the commodities in question are exported predominantly by developing countries. Furthermore, seen within the context of global EU imports (see Table 1), it appears that on average 20% of the EU's annual oilseed imports (about 3.6 million tons) are subject to SPS regulations; the corresponding figures for oils and for oilmeals are 0.5% and 23% (or 17 000 and 4.4 million tons) respectively. However, considering that Table 2 includes only SPS measures applying to specific products, it needs to be concluded that, overall, the relevance of SPS regulations for EU imports of oilseed products is larger, although this cannot be accurately assessed at this stage.

3. Voluntary measures

With regard to VCPs the following picture emerges (see Table 3). Voluntary SPS measures apply to international trade in oilseeds and oils but not to oilmeals. Measures either apply globally to the entire trade in a certain commodity (i.e. irrespective of the country or region of origin), or refer specifically to products from a certain origin. The latter case mainly applies to measures related to oilseeds, while requirements for oils do not normally refer to specific origins. With regard to oilseeds, all major crops (and in particular groundnuts) are subject to measures relating to possible product contamination and other impurities. Some 95% of total EU oilseed imports and practically all EU imports of vegetable oils are subject to voluntary VCPs. Contamination during transport and storage seems to be the major concern. As to the countries of origin, exporters in developed and developing countries seem to be equally subject to voluntary SPS measures.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

17. The review of SPS measures applying to the EU oilseeds, oils and oilmeal market shows that a large number of regulations are currently in place or under consideration. They are designed to protect human, animal and plant health, and do not differentiate between goods produced inside the Community and those originating in third countries.

18. The product coverage and the complexity of SPS measures have increased over time, mainly reflecting rising public concern over food safety as well as animal and plant health issues. Concerns that SPS measures might be used for protectionist purposes seem to lack conclusive evidence, and, to date, no formal trade dispute has arisen with regard to SPS measures applying to the oilseeds, oils and oilmeals sector.

⁷ It should be noted, however, that the picture changes when non-commodity specific SPS measures (listed under A above) are taken into consideration; in fact, those measures apply mainly to oils and oilseeds.

19. Notwithstanding this, SPS measures inevitably affect access to import markets and competition among commodities and countries. Virtually all oilseed products are subject to one or more SPS measures, and all EU trade partners are affected. The extent to which different commodities and countries are affected varies, depending on the SPS measure involved. Given that many regulations have a horizontal commodity coverage and others are of a voluntary nature, it is very difficult to quantify the impact of SPS measures on EU trade.

20. The increasing number and complexity of SPS measures in the EU (and generally in other developed importing countries) have implications for exporting countries. Thus, direct access to information on SPS requirements in force or under consideration in importing countries is of crucial importance. Also, exporting nations require technical know-how and financial means to modify their production, processing and transportation systems in order to comply with more demanding SPS requirements.

21. Generally, exporting countries are concerned about the harmonisation of SPS legislation between countries or groups of countries. It appears that the harmonisation of SPS legislation is proceeding within the EU as well as within other regions, and that governments are making efforts to achieve convergence with internationally agreed standards such as those contained in the Codex Alimentarius. Notwithstanding, in some instances individual countries may require a different level of SPS protection than that established by international standards. Moreover, in certain other cases, relevant international standards may either not yet be available or may be under revision. Overall, in view of the rising need for SPS legislation, governments seem to recognize the importance of the development of international standards and of their world-wide application.

22. In conclusion, future international efforts to minimise potential negative effects that SPS measures could have on trade in oilseed products should concentrate on (a) enhancing general access to information on SPS measures, (b) encouraging governments to make use of international standards wherever possible, (c) ensuring the active participation of governments and other parties in the development of international standards, and (d) assisting developing countries to overcome difficulties encountered in complying with SPS measures of importing countries.⁸

23. The following proposals for future work by the Secretariat in this area are submitted to the consideration of the Group:

- extension of the monitoring and analysis of SPS measures to other markets/regions;
- development of methodologies for assessing the impact of SPS measures on trade, in particular, for estimating their quantitative effect on trade flows.

⁸ With regard to the last recommendation, it should be noted that (since, in the WTO SPS agreement, Codex Alimentarius standards and guidelines were adopted as benchmark standards for the international food trade) the relevant technical divisions within FAO have increased their technical assistance to member countries, particularly in the following areas: strengthening of national food control systems; reformulation of national food regulations; and establishment of import/export food inspection and certification programmes.

Table 1. Overview of EU import market for oilseeds, oils and oilmeals

| Commodity | EU (15) imports (<i>excl. intra-trade</i>) 3-year averages (1993-1995) | | Share of EU(15) imports in global imports (in %) |
|-------------------------------|--|------------------|---|
| | volumes (in '000 mt) | shares (in %) | |
| oilseeds | 17 822 | 100 | 41 |
| of which | | | |
| soybeans | 13 967 | 78 | 46 |
| sunflower seed | 1 427 | 8 | 53 |
| rape seed | 1 031 | 6 | 19 |
| groundnuts (shelled&unsh.) | 477 | 3 | 37 |
| linseed | 434 | 2 | 50 |
| cottonseed | 153 | 1 | 20 |
| copra | 91 | 1 | 37 |
| sesame seed | 47 | - | 9 |
| castor beans | 24 | - | 44 |
| palm kernel | 22 | - | 42 |
| oils (from oilcrops) | 3 209 | 100 | 14 |
| of which | | | |
| palm oil | 1 655 | 52 | 18 |
| coconut oil | 571 | 18 | 37 |
| palmkernel oil | 357 | 11 | 44 |
| olive oil | 154 | 5 | 19 |
| sunflower oil | 149 | 5 | 5 |
| castor oil | 83 | 3 | 35 |
| safflower oil | 19 | 1 | 20 |
| rapeseed oil | 17 | 1 | 1 |
| soybean oil | 6 | - | - |
| linseed oil | 3 | - | 2 |
| meals (from oilcrops) | 18 856 | 100 | 46 |
| of which | | | |
| soybean meal | 12 517 | 66 | 44 |
| palmkernel meal | 1 789 | 9 | 90 |
| sunflowerseed meal | 1 426 | 8 | 62 |
| copra meal | 902 | 5 | 76 |
| rapeseed meal | 859 | 5 | 23 |
| cottonseed meal | 450 | 2 | 43 |
| linseed meal | 194 | 1 | 47 |
| groundnut meal | 189 | 1 | 28 |
| sesameseed meal | 16 | - | 37 |

Source: FAO

Table 2. Commodities and countries affected by selected SPS legislation applying to the EU import market

| Commodities targeted | EU(15) import <i>(excl. intra-trade)</i> 3-year averages (1993-1995), in '000 mt | Main suppliers <i>(brackets show shares of individual countries in total EU imports, in percent)</i> |
|------------------------------|--|--|
| sunflowerseed | 1 427 | Argentina (27), Russian Fed. (23), Hungary (17), USA (12), Ukraine (10) |
| rapeseed | 1 031 | Canada (79), Poland (9), Hungary (3), Czech Rep. (2), Russian Fed. (2) |
| groundnut (shelled&unsh.) | 477 | USA (34), China (33), Argentina (19), India (4), South Africa (3) |
| linseed | 434 | Canada (98) |
| cottonseed | 153 | Benin (58), Burkina Faso (8), Syria (6), Ghana (5) |
| copra | 91 | PNG (29), Indonesia (22), Philippines (21), Vanuatu (15) |
| palm kernel | 22 | Malaysia (28), Nigeria (26), PNG (19) |
| rapeseed oil | 17 | Canada (21), Czech Rep. (17), China (12), Poland (8) |
| palm kernel meal | 1 789 | Malaysia (65), Indonesia (24), Nigeria (9) |
| copra meal | 902 | Philippines (53), Indonesia (43) |
| rapeseed meal | 859 | China (32), India (26), Czech Rep. (18), Poland (15), Canada (5), Slovakia (3) |
| cottonseed meal | 450 | China (44), Argentina (17), Uzbekistan (8), Côte d'Ivoire (6), Brazil (5), Tanzania (5) |
| linseed meal | 194 | Argentina (52), China (22), USA (19) |
| groundnut meal | 189 | Senegal (39), Sudan (30), Argentina (17), India (10) |

Source: FAO

Table 3. Commodities and countries potentially affected by voluntary, SPS related codes of practice applying to the EU import market

| Commodities targeted | Specific requirements | Country or region of origin targeted | EU(15) imports by countries or regions affected Volumes in '000 tons and, in brackets, individual country shares in total EU imports 3-year averages (1993-1995), excl. intra-trade |
|---|---|--------------------------------------|---|
| groundnut (shelled&unsh.) | aflatoxin certificate | China, Argentina, USA | USA: 160 (34%), China: 158 (33%), Argentina: 90 (19%) |
| groundnut (shelled&unsh.) | fumigation certificate (aflatoxin control) | Argentina | Argentina: 90 (19%) |
| groundnut (shelled&unsh.) | phytosanitary certificate | China | China: 158 (33%) |
| groundnut (shelled) | testing for certain characteristics and possible product contamination | Africa | Africa: 33 (8%) (mainly South Africa, Gambia, Sudan, Senegal, Egypt) |
| groundnut (shelled&unsh.) | inspection certificate | USA | USA: 160 (34%) |
| groundnut (shelled&unsh.) | testing for certain characteristics and possible product contamination | all origins | 477 |
| copra | testing for certain characteristics and possible product contamination | Philippines | Philippines: 19 (21%) |
| soybeans | testing for certain characteristics and possible product contamination; absence of castorseed and other poisonous seed | South America | South America: 5547 (40%) (mainly Brazil, Argentina, Paraguay) |
| soybeans rapeseed sunflowerseed | inspection certificate | USA, Canada | USA: 7925 (57%), Canada: 436 (3%) |
| | | Canada | Canada: 812 (79%) |
| | | USA, Canada | USA: 166 (12%), Canada: 19 (1%) |
| sunflowerseed cottonseed palmkernel | testing for certain characteristics and possible product contamination | all origins | all origins: 1427 (mainly Argentina, Russian Fed., Hungary, Ukraine, USA) |
| | | all origins | all origins: 153 (mainly Benin, Burkina Faso, Syria, Ghana) |
| | | all origins | all origins: 22 (mainly Malaysia, Nigeria, PNG) |
| all edible oils | list of banned previous cargoes; testing for certain characteristics and possible product contamination; cleanness of vessels and tanks; recommendations on HTM use | all origins | all origins: 3209 |

Source: FAO