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Country. Profile

Ecuador

July 1973

NATIONAL INTELLIGENCE SURVEY

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GENERAL SURVEY CHAPTERS

COUNTRY PROFILE Integrated perspective of the subject country • Chronology • Area Brief • Summary Map

THE SOCIETY Social structure • Population • Labor • Health • Living conditions • Social problems • Religion • Education • Public information • Artistic expression

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS Political evolution of the state • Governmental strength and stability • Structure and function • Political dynamics • National policies • Threats to stability • The police • Intelligence and security • Counter-subversion and counterinsurgency capabilities

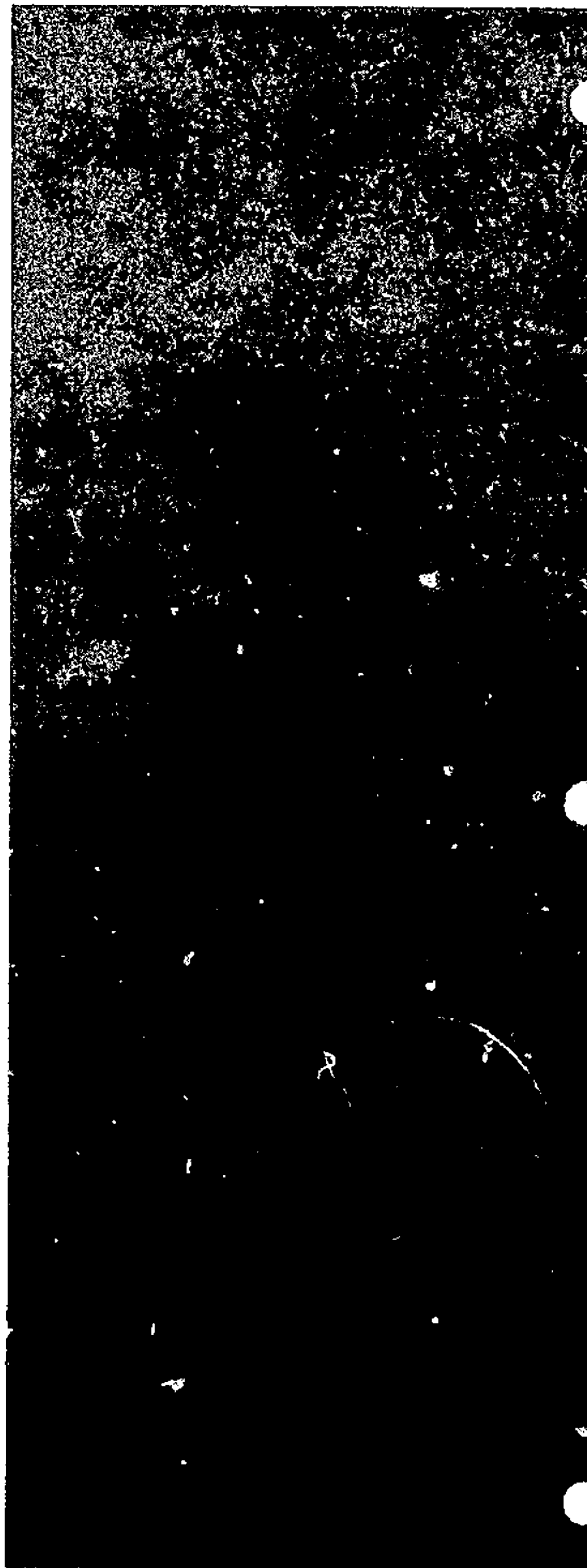
THE ECONOMY Appraisal of the economy • Its structure—agriculture, fisheries, forestry, fuels and power, metals and minerals, manufacturing and construction • Domestic trade • Economic policy and development • International economic relations

TRANSPORTATION AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS Appraisal of systems • Strategic mobility • Railroads • Highways • Inland waterways • Pipelines • Ports • Merchant marine • Civil air • Airfields • The telecom system

MILITARY GEOGRAPHY Topography and climate • Military geographic regions • Strategic areas • Internal routes • Approaches: land, sea, air

ARMED FORCES The defense establishment • Joint activities • Ground forces • Naval forces • Air forces

INTELLIGENCE AND SECURITY Structure of organizations concerned with internal security and foreign intelligence, their responsibilities, professional standards, and interrelationships • Mission, organization, functions, effectiveness and methods of operation of each service • Biographies of key officials



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ECUADOR

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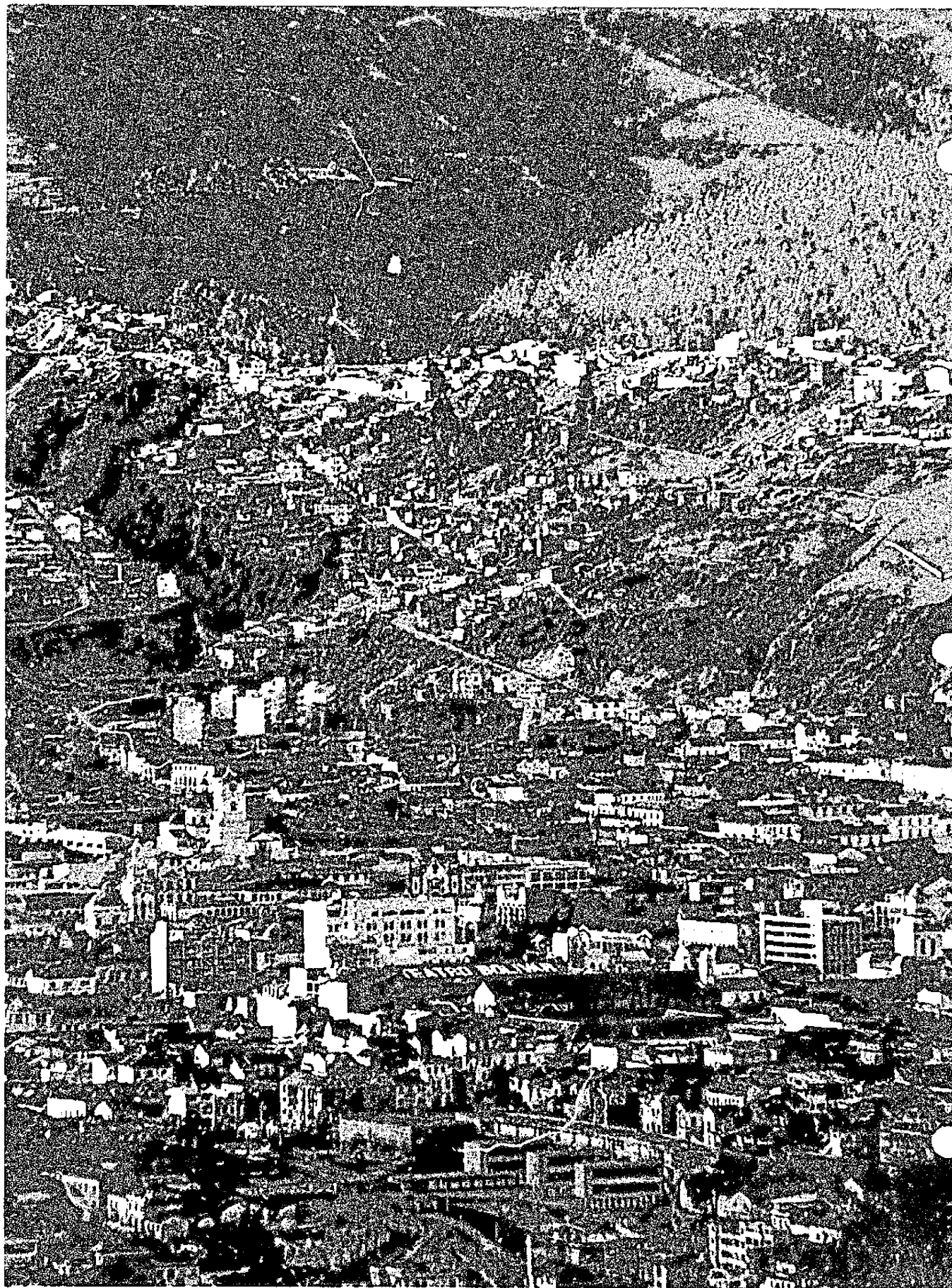
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This Country Profile was prepared for the NIS by the Central Intelligence Agency. Research was substantially completed by March 1973.

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Struggle for National Definition (c)

Regional geographic diversity and the dissimilar economic interests that result, together with racial differences, are the root causes of problems Ecuador has been trying to surmount in a long struggle to define its territory and achieve nationhood. Together with historical experiences that produced deep social cleavages, these factors explain in part the instability of government that also has characterized Ecuador's development. The incumbent military administration of Guillermo Rodriguez has been more responsive than most Ecuadorean governments to the need for social reform and expects to finance social programs with revenues from newly developing oilfields. But it faces formidable barriers in its quest for the political stability and economic viability conducive to the reforms that could nurture a genuine national consciousness.

Fronting the Pacific Ocean for about 640 miles, Ecuador consists of a triangular wedge of land 103,000 square miles in area that has been uplifted markedly in the middle by the spectacular Andean mountains. The two parallel north-south ranges, their intermontane valleys, and the basin between the ranges together are commonly known as the Sierra. Flanking the mountainous backbone on the seaward side is the Costa, a somewhat irregular, hilly to flat lowland. On the landward side is the Oriente, a vast, jungled portion of the Amazon Basin. Mainland Ecuador is supplemented by an archipelago, the Galapagos Islands, lying 600 miles due west in the Pacific Ocean. This topography, in conjunction with a combination of trade winds and ocean currents, results in an extremely diversified climate, and despite its location astride the Equator—from which Ecuador got its name—much of the country lies in the cool Sierra highlands.

As with the Incas before them, the great majority of Spanish colonists settled almost exclusively in the temperate basins of the Sierra, which made Quito the traditional center of the cultural and political life of Ecuador. From the middle of the 19th century, however, there began to develop a populous and economically important regional society centered on



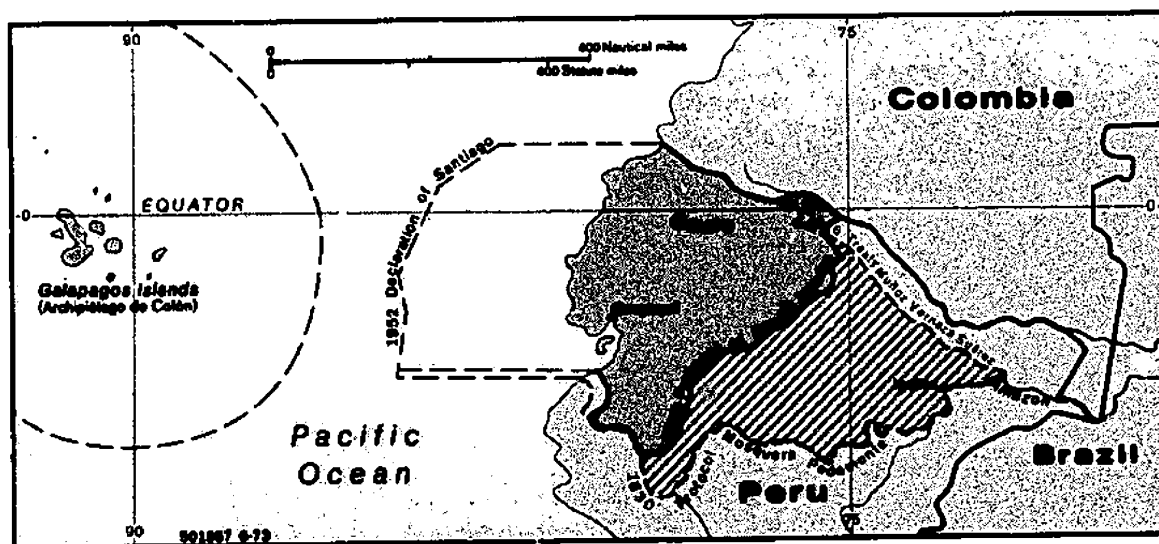
Ecuador's three historical regions. Unlike present regional boundaries, which generally follow those of the provinces for statistical reporting, these historical regional boundaries approximately trace the 1,600 foot contour line.

the port of Guayaquil, and the contest of sectional interests resulting from the challenge by the progressive Costa element to the political dominance of the Sierra aristocracy has become a constant in national political life. The Oriente, still thinly settled, remained for most Ecuadoreans little more than a zone of contention with neighbors, particularly Peru, until significant oil reserves were discovered in that isolated region in 1967. The Galapagos Islands were largely a curiosity of nature—and more so for outsiders than for Ecuadoreans—until 1966, when Ecuador began to enforce its claim to territorial waters for fishing purposes not only for 200 miles off the mainland but extending the same distance from these offshore islands as well.

Ecuador's struggle for territorial definition began with the conquest of the aboriginal Kingdom of Quito by the Inca Empire and the selection of Quito as capital of the northern half upon division of the territory

Quito, Ecuador's capital, climbs the mountains surrounding its 9,200-foot-high valley.

by the Inca Huayna Capac between Atahualpa (son of his Quito wife) and Huascar (son of a Cuzco wife). Quito became capital of the whole empire upon the defeat of Huascar by Atahualpa, who in turn was liquidated by the Spanish conquerors under Francisco Pizarro. It then became a Spanish colonial city (founded in 1534 as San Francisco de Quito by Sebastian de Benalcazar). Throughout the colonial period that lasted nearly 300 years, Quito and its surrounding territory fought to survive and to maintain its identity as it was shifted back and forth as an *audiencla* (royal court of justice, with some political and military functions) under the Spanish viceroalties whose seats were at Bogota and Lima. The struggle continued into the fight for independence. Its proclamation in 1809, though abortive, led finally to liberation from Spain in 1822 and then to separation from the Confederation of Gran Colombia in 1830. Even since independence, however, Ecuador has had to maintain the struggle, submitting to losses of claimed territories in the Andes to Colombia and in the Amazon region to Brazil, Colombia, and Peru. Although Ecuador acceded to a 1904 treaty with Brazil and a 1916 treaty with Colombia, it has declared null and void the 1942 Protocol of Rio de Janeiro, which attempted to resolve the border conflict with Peru by awarding the disputed territory in the Amazon Basin to that country. Ecuador is striving still for further definition of its nationhood by claiming jurisdiction over 200 miles of tuna-rich waters along its coastline.



Economic and Social Diversity

Climatic conditions associated with Ecuador's varied terrain range from the strictly tropical, continuously hot and humid conditions of the eastern lowlands of the Oriente and the northwestern lowlands of the Costa to the permanent snowscapes of the high Andes in the Sierra. Within the Sierra, below the timber line, lies the Quito basin, described by many as a "land of eternal spring," and numerous similarly temperate intermontane valleys; at lower altitudes there are subtropical pockets. The coastal region, too, is divided into the burning hot and humid area of the north and the hot, dry desert of the south. Except for the recent petroleum bonanza, mineral resources have been discovered only in small quantities in Ecuador as compared with neighboring Andean countries. Claims to and exploitation of abundant fisheries in the Pacific have been initiated with determination and some success. The tourist attraction of the Galapagos Islands shows promise for continued development. Ecuador's basic resources consist chiefly of its tropical forests, which cover an estimated 55% of the land area and are yet to be fully exploited, and a climate that combines with the soil and an adequate labor supply to produce virtually any temperate or tropical crop, the latter in fair abundance. Agriculture, therefore, as has been the case for four centuries, is the mainstay of the economy, despite the fact that a scant 11% of the land surface is arable.

The output of the two principal agricultural areas—the Sierra and the Costa—is directly related to their geography and climate. Since colonial times, the principal products of the Sierra have been grains, livestock, and root crops for domestic consumption; planters of the fertile Costa plains, whose contribution to the economy became significant only after the mid-19th century, have specialized in cocoa, coffee, and more recently bananas—largely for export.

The location of economic resources and the manner of their development, at least until the late 19th century, have contributed to the pattern of regional divergence of interest and the rigid stratification that are both characteristic of colonial society. Land tenure and labor organization still reflect their feudal origin, particularly in the Sierra. Small subsistence farms (*minifundios*) predominate in terms of numbers of units but hold only one-tenth of the land, while large

estates (*latifundios*) with over 250 acres account for almost one-half. Indians—including the true Indian and such derivatives as the mestizo (Spanish-Indian) and *montuño* (Indian-Negro-Caucasian), who altogether constitute 80% of the population—perform most of the manual labor. They serve as agricultural workers (whose numbers compose more than half of the labor force), nonskilled urban laborers, and domestics. The characterization of the perpetually poor non-European masses dominated by a small, wealthy, white minority closely reflects Ecuador's socioeconomic reality—the majority of the people continue to live on a subsistence level and an estimated one-third to one-half of the total population remains outside the money economy altogether.

Ecuador is a mosaic of racial and cultural elements. The socially, economically, and politically dominant whites make up 10% of the population; Indians account for approximately 40%; a wide range of Ecuadorians of Indian-Caucasian as well as Indian-Negroid-Caucasian combinations make up another 40%; and a small number of Negroes, Orientals, and others constitute the remainder. Rigidifying this ethnic diversity is a class system that has been fairly well entrenched since colonial times but is less established in the Costa than in the Sierra. The masses—consisting at the bottom of the Indian peasants and above them the rural Sierra mestizos, rural Costa *montunos*, domestic servants, artisans, small shopkeepers, and most factory workers—are separated from the wealthy elite by a wide gulf that is slowly being bridged by an emerging middle class.

The white minority has preserved the Spanish heritage in its language, religion, and intellectual life; in its great estates; and in its domination of political and economic life since the founding of the Ecuadorian republic. Concentrated in the Sierra, the descendants of the Spaniards for three centuries have sought successfully to preserve the essentials of their own way of life: the Roman Catholic Church, despite constitutional experiments with anticlericalism, remains strong, and the principle of hereditary privilege continues to enjoy tacit acceptance. The imprint of the Hispanic cultural traditions imposed by the oligarchic Sierra aristocracy completely overshadows the strong Indian heritage. Its only real challenge comes from the commercial Costa aristocracy, which, albeit Hispanic, has been profoundly influenced by values and changes wrought by foreign trade and industrialization.



The Indian heritage is also evident, especially in the Sierra. Somewhat more than half the people of Ecuador speak an Indian language, principally Quechua, and approximately 10% use no other language. The Sierra Indian, who far outnumbers the members of isolated tribes in the Oriente and has been economically crucial since the days of the traditional Hispanic aristocracy, in a real sense leads a double life. He typically wears a mask of humble, uncommunicative, hardworking resignation in his contacts with employers and other outsiders, whereas his behavior within his own group is much more frank, talkative, generous, and convivial. He has remained mostly separate from the stream of national social and political life in his struggle for a livelihood that barely maintains his family near a subsistence level. Though impoverished, he maintains a deep attachment to the land. During the colonial era, Sierra Indians demonstrated talent for fine craftsmanship in church construction, ornamentation, and art, and some of their descendants remain competent artisans. In a few places, such as Otavalo, Indians have managed through handicrafts, especially weaving, to accumulate enough capital to buy small plots of land. Almost totally dominated by a basically hostile social environment, the Sierra Indians demonstrate neither time for nor interest in politics.



The wide range of mestizo Ecuadoreans extends from the Sierra into the Costa. *Montuvios* also form a significant portion of the coastal population. Mestizos and *montuvios* in general share the poverty of the Indians, although, unlike the Indians, they are ordinarily an integral part of the social and economic life of the country. Many Sierra mestizos are subsistence small farmers; others are town-dwelling craftsmen or tradesmen. Costa mestizos are mostly small farmers, but some are wage earners on large plantations. Mestizos retain some traditional Indian values, but almost always use the Spanish language and European dress, and often live in an urban environment. They normally stress family and kinship loyalties but, unlike the village Indians, show little sense of community. Although both Sierra and Costa mestizos themselves generally identify with the Spanish element in national society, they are disparaged by the whites and scorned by the Indians.

Even though the diverse groups making up the population of Ecuador have lived in the same territory under common rule for more than four centuries, they have not formed a single people with a single language and a shared way of life. The dual cleavage, persistent and intense, that on the one hand sets the whites apart from the bulk of the population, and on the other hand sets the Sierra and Costa whites apart from each other, has forestalled in the past and continues to impede the emergence of a national society. Overwhelmed by a poverty that requires virtually his full energy merely for subsistence, the Indian, traditionally illiterate and apathetic, has little sense of nationhood. In their striving to rise within the social, economic, and political environment, the mestizos and *montuvios*, rejected by both cultures that spawned them, have developed considerable dissatisfaction and restlessness. These factors, too, are incompatible with the development of a national consciousness.



The elitist political overlay on Ecuador's economic and social reality has given rise to a series of constitutions that barely serve the needs of the whole nation. A charter of representative democracy with balanced powers was drawn up at independence, but frequent periods of political disorder and unstable governments have led to new constitutions on the average of once every 9 years. Formal governmental structure, however, has changed little throughout the nearly 150 years of independence. Political struggle during the 19th century focused chiefly on the role of the Roman Catholic Church in government, with separation eventually winning out. The 20th century witnessed the struggle for dominance between the legislative and executive branches. The 1967 Constitution is the most recent, but the 1945 Constitution, which contains some relatively strong checks on the executive, was put into effect by the 1972 Nationalist Revolutionary Government insofar as that charter did not conflict with the decrees of the military regime.

The presidential story of Ecuador is capsuled in the record of more than 70 changes of government since independence on 13 May 1830. In general, the Presidency has been occupied by more or less demagogic strongmen—some military, some civilian—in the deeply embedded cultural tradition called *caudillismo*. Although their tenure has been uncertain, unpredictable, and often short, a succession of *caudillos* has occupied the Presidency. This personalistic rule has precluded the formation of the solid political base that is needed for economic and social development. The chronic instability of government may stem in part from the leaders' failure to deal with widespread economic problems. But other major factors are the intense personal rivalries within the small ruling class, strong regional animosities, ineffective leadership in general, and a low level of civic responsibility. The charismatic appeal of some leaders, such as five-time President Jose Maria Velasco has propelled the average voter into a kind of mystical confusion of the man and the nation's destiny. Exceptional charismatic personality can work electoral magic, but unfortunately it does not imply an ability to govern. Velasco was not able to impart qualities of effective administration to his governments, and was allowed by the ever-present military to complete only one of his terms of office.

In line with Ecuador's history of a succession of *caudillos*, most political parties have revolved around the ambitions of such strong men rather than fundamental political programs, and some have been

organized expressly for the purpose of furthering the political career of a single individual. Historically, the two oldest parties represent philosophies characterized by their names, Conservative and Radical-Liberal. In fact, however, they defend the interests of the oligarchies of the Sierra and Costa, respectively. The Conservative Party is composed of wealthy landowners, middle class professionals in small and medium-sized cities, and Roman Catholic priests and intellectuals. The Radical-Liberal Party draws its support from businessmen, middle class professionals in Guayaquil, and anticlerical intellectuals. The smaller Socialist Christian Party is supported by conservatives who are independent of the church, including some landowners, along with middle class professionals and upper class women. Of considerable recent importance is the moderately left Concentration of Popular Forces, headed by Guayaquil businessman Assad Bucaram. With a program promoting better living conditions for the poor, Bucaram's strong bid for the Presidency in the aborted 1972 election was a major factor in the military takeover. Far leftist parties are fragmented and have little influence.

The military establishment, along with the police, is constitutionally disenfranchised. Nevertheless, the military leadership has been and still is a key element in political life. Perhaps truly considering itself a reluctant neutral, the military has stepped into the executive branch at times to become the final arbiter of politics. Basically disenchanted with civilian politics in general, the military has expressed disgust at rampant administrative corruption, though military officers have themselves at times been involved in graft. Prior to the 1972 intervention, the armed forces ousted the inept civilian government in 1963 and remained in power until 1966. Although apparently not eager to reassume the burdens of government, the armed forces again felt compelled on 17 February 1972 to take over the Velasco government. There was little popular reaction for or against the coup.

Elusive Search for El Dorado

The legend of El Dorado, the mythical country that represented gold in abundance, was an attraction to the Spanish adventurers who searched far and wide in the mountains and jungles of the New World seeking to fulfill their fantasies of instant riches. Although no abundant mother lode was ever found, new generations of dreamers and seekers carry on. Prosperity truly has been elusive for Ecuador as a nation, though some individuals and families have achieved wealth. A poor, small country which produces hardly any capital goods and few of the devices that are required for the development of modern agriculture and industry, Ecuador's ability to fill its material needs is highly dependent upon its capacity to import, which in turn depends upon its capacity to produce exports and its ability to attract foreign capital. Ecuador still is basically rural, and agricultural output is nearly evenly divided for export and domestic consumption. Large imports are required, particularly of wheat. Agricultural growth has been slow and is a powerful drag in terms of overall growth of the economy. Production for domestic consumption, although increasing at the same rate as production for export, has not kept up with demand because of the rapid population increase—the current annual population growth rate of 3.4% is second only to that of Venezuela in South America. Ecuador's recent balance of payments problems follow directly from the widening gap between rapidly rising import demands and slowly increasing exports.

The beginning of modern commercial life in Ecuador came with the expansion of exports of cocoa after 1870. Reaching a peak between 1910 and 1925, cocoa declined commercially until 1945, but by 1971 it was back near its highest export level, accounting for one-tenth of export earnings. Other tropical plantation products came to the rescue of Ecuadorean exports during the period of decline in cocoa, rice and coffee being the mainstays until bananas took the lead after 1945. By 1950 Ecuador was the third largest banana producer in the world, and its share of about 4% of world banana exports rose to more than 25% during the 1960's. Since 1964 it has maintained both its export volume and its position as number one exporter, partly by switching to the more marketable Cavendish variety of "green gold." The nation's trade balance,

naturally, has been highly sensitive to erratic fluctuations of world market prices for its chief export products. Although not as vulnerable as some countries that depend on the export of only one or two products, Ecuador's reliance on bananas, coffee, cocoa, and sugar for 80% or more of its total foreign exchange earnings nevertheless has been precarious.

Despite the flashiness of major agricultural export production at some times, economic development, particularly of the agricultural sector producing for domestic consumption, has been painfully slow. The list of factors impairing growth is long: A limited amount of arable land combined with the traditional land tenure system and the very poverty of the Indian laborers forestalls anything beyond subsistence agriculture; a lack of technical expertise results in the widespread application of primitive methods of sowing and harvesting; a deficient marketing structure results from a sparse and low-quality transportation system, rugged geography, and high construction costs; the great expense of refrigeration and other forms of preservation lead to inadequate supply and storage facilities; and a traditional reliance on private funds for development make for a general absence of effective agricultural credit. Solutions by the government to the restraints on agricultural production have been limited and sporadic. But there is a positive side. A modest program of agrarian reform was carried out by the 1963-66 military regime: *Huasipungaje*, a feudal system whereby Indians were allowed to live on miniplots in return for labor on large estates, was abolished, and some government lands were subdivided and resettled. Public investment, complemented by international financial assistance, has improved the highway system as well as maritime facilities at Guayaquil. A program of agricultural diversification is receiving prime emphasis, African palm oil growing on old banana plantations and increased plantings of soybeans and peanuts being specifically encouraged. And the answer to improving economic development for the urban areas has focused mainly on expanding manufacturing, particularly as thousands of migrants to the cities have crowded the scene to increase the problems related to rapid urbanization.

Urban migration, indeed, is one manifestation of Ecuador's socioeconomic problem. It stems from the rapid population increase—from 3.2 million at the time of the 1950 census to 6.6 million at the beginning of 1973—and the greater employment opportunities in

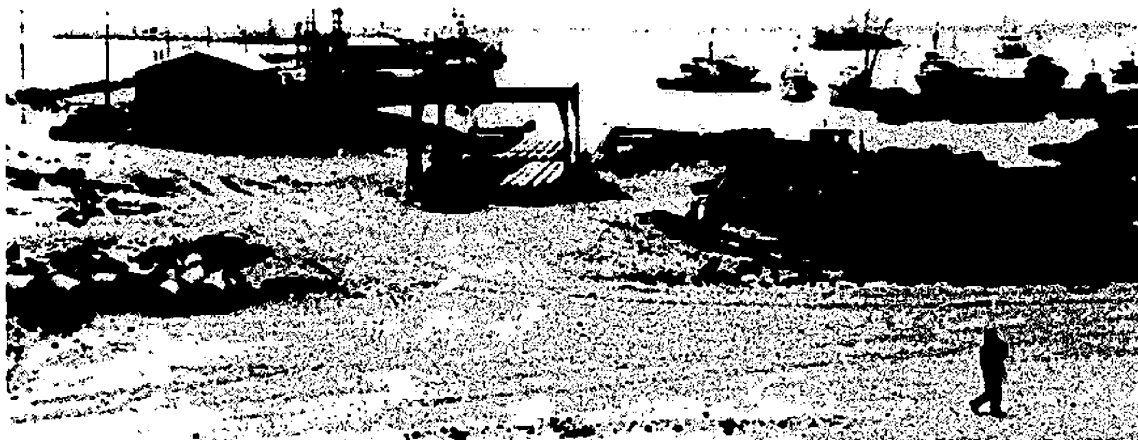
urban areas. Even before this, population pressure on the agricultural land had established a migrational trend not only to the cities but from the Sierra to the Costa, so that, whereas less than 10% of the population lived in the Costa at the end of the colonial period, by 1972 the populations of the Sierra and the Costa were about equal. In addition to the agricultural developmental problem inherent in a race between production and constant population growth, urbanization and the population growth in general have accentuated demands for employment, housing, education, and other social services.

The elusive search for El Dorado continues, as an expected improvement in Ecuador's economic situation

has been ushered in by a petroleum boom. Deposits of this "black gold" had been exploited since the 1920's in the Peninsula de Santa Elena in the Costa region, and until the mid-1950's provided for the bulk of domestic requirements. But the 1960's witnessed rapid depletion of known reserves, as well as increased demand. Fortunately, in the Oriente a Texaco-Gulf consortium came up with a significant discovery of oil in 1967. This led to investment in exploration and development that included a more than 300-mile, 20- to 26-inch-diameter crude oil pipeline from fields around Lago Agrio across the high Andes to storage and loading facilities adjacent to the port of Esmeraldas. Foreign exchange earnings from petroleum are expected to net approximately US\$130 million in 1973, which would amount to more than half the value of total 1971 export earnings.



— Pipeline



At the Crossroads

Prospects for paying for social reform with the benefits expected from economic growth are problematical, given Ecuador's history of political instability. The turmoil deriving from regional disunity, deep ethnic divisions, Indian apathy, and the huge challenge of food production remains a very great concern. Politicians all too frequently praise the richness and potential of their land but falter in pushing for its balanced development. At the same time, developments of the 20th century, particularly since World War II, have muted regional hostilities somewhat. Population shifts, combined with improved transportation and communications which have made more people aware of existing inequities, have focused the concern of the political and social elite more on problems relative to urbanization and the need for integrated economic advancement than on their traditional differences.

It may be that an awakening of national dignity, expressly evoked by President Velasco in his 1960 inauguration when he rejected the 1942 Protocol of Rio de Janeiro, will serve as a catalyst, as a larger proportion of the populace becomes conscious of its distinctive Ecuadorean character amid foreign buffeting in the world arena. Stimulation of such an identity is a natural consequence of seeking to find economic support regionally in the Latin American Free Trade Association, the Andean Subregional Pact, and the Andean Common Market. The stress on increased foreign trade and the augmented flow of foreign capital, characteristic of recent years, can have a similar effect. Certainly, the determination with which Ecuador affirms its claim to 200-mile limits of territorial seas against foreign powers such as the United States can be expected to stimulate national sentiment. And fundamental differences between Ecuador's position on jurisdiction and exclusive fishing rights and the traditional U.S. concept of freedom of the seas—which have come to a head in "tuna war" incidents—are not likely to disappear in the foreseeable future.

Even as the flowing "black gold" of the newly discovered oil has set the stage for changing the nation's internal complexion, the diverse members of Ecuadorean society may be moved closer together by external pressures as well. The promise of an increase in government proceeds resulting from oil revenues

brings a great opportunity for easing chronic national budget problems, for relieving balance of payments strains, and for financing public investment in roads, communications, electric power, agrarian reform, agricultural extension, health, education, and welfare. But dangers also underlie the oil boom, with both the government and the public tending to forget that, in contrast to the potentially renewable soil resources that support agriculture, petroleum resources are finite. Nevertheless, current resources provide Ecuador with an unprecedented opportunity for advancement.

At this juncture in its development, Ecuador's military government has been trying to apply the experience and special abilities of the armed forces to the complexities of government and economics, and it has had limited success. Gen. Guillermo Rodriguez Lara calls his government revolutionary and nationalist. The failure of the military to set forth a clear reformist strategy, however, indicates disagreement between moderates and liberals within the government which also parallels interservice and regional rivalries, since the more radical point of view comes from the coastal naval faction. A moot question is whether a lack of military consensus for an adequate reform program will impair the execution of policies that can forestall widespread public disenchantment with the regime as it stands at the crossroads.



Chronology (u/ou)

1460-80

Inca Tupac Yupanqui conquers southern provinces of Ecuador.

1526

Tupac Yupanqui's son Huáscar dies, dividing his kingdom between Huáscar, in the south, and Atahualpa in the north. Civil wars result, weakening the Incas, with Atahualpa the ultimate victor.

1534

Colonial Quito is founded by Sebastian de Benalcázar after Inca settlement is burned by retreating Indians.

1563

Quito is made a seat of the Royal Audiencia.

1765

Economic grievances lead to popular revolt.

1770-1800

Indian peasants engage in four uprisings.

1822

Battle of Pichincha secures Ecuadorian independence from Spain; Ecuador joins Colombia and Venezuela in the Confederation of Gran Colombia.

1830

Ecuador secedes from Gran Colombia to form an independent republic.

1860-75

Gabriel García Moreno dominates politics in attempt to build a theocratic state.

1895

Liberalism triumphs under Eloy Alfaro.

1925

Military revolts against political elite dominated by coastal bankers.

1934

Jose Maria Velasco Ibarra is elected President.

1935

Velasco is deposed.

1941

July-August

Ecuador suffers humiliating military defeat by Peru in border war.

1942

January

Protocol is signed at Rio de Janeiro defining the disputed borders with Peru and providing for their definitive demarcation, under guarantee of Chile, Argentina, Brazil, and the United States.

1944

May-June

Coup returns Velasco to power.

1947

August

Velasco is ousted by military coup.

September

Carlos Julio Arosemena is declared Interim President by Congress.

1948

June

Galo Plaza Lasso is elected President in a fair national election.

1952

June

Velasco, candidate of the National Velasquista Movement, is elected President in the first transfer of power by an elected President to an elected successor in over three decades.

1956

June

Camilo Ponce Enríquez is elected President, the first elected to the office by the Conservatives in 60 years.

1960

June

Velasco is again elected President.

1961

November

Velasco, ousted by popular and military action, is replaced by leftist Vice President Carlos Julio Arosemena Montroy, son of previous President.

1963

July

Arosemena—alcoholic, inept, and lenient toward Communists— is ousted by armed forces; military junta takes power.

1964

July

Junta announces agrarian and other reforms aimed at allaying criticism and discontent.

1966

March

Junta relinquishes power to civilian interim President Clemente Yerovi Indaburu.

October

A Constituent Assembly is elected to prepare groundwork for return to constitutionality.

November

Constituent Assembly names Otto Arosemena Gomez Provisional President.

1967

April

During meeting of American Chiefs of State at Punta del Este, Uruguay, President Arosemena adopts stance critical of U.S. hemispheric actions.

May

New Constitution is adopted; Arosemena's term is extended to 1 September 1968; national elections are scheduled.

1968

June

Velasco is again elected in close three-way presidential race. Bicameral legislature is also elected.

September

Velasco becomes President for fifth time in final phase of full return to constitutional government.

1970

June

President Velasco assumes extraconstitutional power in the face of a continuing financial crisis and student disorders. Congress is closed and a modified version of 1946 Constitution is reimposed.

1972

February

President Velasco is again ousted by military coup; Army Commander Gen. Guillermo Rodriguez Lara becomes President.

August

First cargo of Ecuadorean crude oil leaves port of Balao near Esmeraldas, making Ecuador Latin America's second-largest oil exporter, behind Venezuela.

CONFIDENTIAL

Area Brief

LAND (U/OU)

Size: 106,000 square miles

Use: 55% forests; 11% arable; 8% pastures and meadows; 26% built-up areas, wasteland, and other

Coastline: 640 miles

PEOPLE (U/OU)

Population: 6,617,000, excluding nomadic Indians (est. 1 January 1973); density about 62.6 persons per square mile

Ethnic groups: 40% Indian; 40% mestizo; 10% white; 10% mulatto and Negro

Religion: Predominantly Roman Catholic

Languages: Spanish is the national language, but over 10% of the population speaks an Indian language, mainly Quechua

Literacy: Approximately 70% of the population age 10 and over

Health, nutrition, and sanitation levels: Low

Males 15-49: 1,572,000; 64% fit for military service

GOVERNMENT (U/OU)

Unitary republic of 19 provinces and the territory of Galapagos Islands

Constitutional democracy; executive and legislative powers held by executive since February 1972, when army commander general became President following coup

Political parties: National Velasquista Federation, Concentration of Popular Forces, Social Christian Party, Conservative Party, Radical Liberal Party of Ecuador, Ecuadorian Socialist Party, Communist Party of Ecuador
Member of the United Nations and the Organization of American States

ECONOMY (U/OU)

GDP: \$1.7 billion (at official exchange rate, 1971); \$260 per capita

Food: Self-sufficient in most staple foods except wheat, milk, and vegetable oils; main crops are bananas, sugar cane, coffee, cocoa, corn, rice, beans

Main industries: Food processing, beverages, textiles, drugs, rubber and leather products, petroleum, fishing, fertilizers, cement

Electric power: Installed capacity 320,000 kw. (1971); estimated production 1.1 billion kw.-hr.; per capita consumption 155 kw.-hr. (1971)

Exports: \$241 million (f.o.b., 1971); bananas, coffee, cocoa, sugar, and fish products; Ecuador began to export crude petroleum in August 1972 at a rate of 200,000 barrels per day

Imports: \$366 million (c.i.f., 1971); wheat, chemicals, metals, petroleum products, construction materials, transportation equipment, and most capital goods

Conversion rate: 25.25 sucres = US\$1 (selling rate)

Fiscal year: Calendar year

COMMUNICATIONS (C)

Railroads: 660 route miles narrow-gage, single-track non-electrified lines; 615 miles 3'6"-gage and 45 miles 2'5 1/2"-gage

Highways: 14,200 miles; 1,900 paved; 5,100 crushed stone, gravel, cobblestone, or stone blocks; 3,800 improved earth; 3,400 unimproved earth

Inland waterways: 960 miles navigable

Pipelines: 387 miles crude oil; 50 miles refined products

Ports: 2 major (Guayaquil and Manta), 11 minor

Merchant marine: 9 ships of 1,000 g.r.t. and over, totaling 49,773 g.r.t. or 57,585 d.w.t.

Civil air: 46 major transports

Airfields: 169 usable, 23 sites, 3 seaplane stations; 5 airfields have runways between 8,000 and 11,999 feet, and 19 have runways between 4,000 and 7,999 feet; 15 have permanent-surfaced runways

Telecommunications: Adequate only in larger cities; 105,000 telephones; 680,000 radio and 120,000 TV receivers; 220 AM, 20 FM, and 13 TV stations; communications satellite ground station

DEFENSE FORCES (C)

Personnel: Army 17,000, navy 3,150 (including 580 marines), air force 1,665 (117 pilots)

Major ground units: 6 brigades (5 infantry and 1 cavalry), 6 separate battalions

Ships: 7 combat ships, including 2 patrol escorts and 3 amphibious warfare ships; 3 auxiliaries; 5 service craft

Aircraft: 91 (28 jet) in air force, 5 (prop) in navy, 10 (prop) in army

Supply: Dependent primarily on U.S., some major purchases from Western Europe

Military budget: For fiscal year ending 31 December 1972, \$35.3 million; about 10.4% of central government budget

Places and features referred to in this General Survey (u/ou)

COORDINATES		COORDINATES			
° S	° W	° S	° W		
Alfaro	2 12	79 50	Palmita	2 05	78 43
Amazon basin (barra)	1 00	75 50	Paoaje	3 20	79 42
Amato	1 15	78 37	Pasta, Colombia	1 13 N	77 17
Andes (mts)	2 00	78 40	Península de Santa Elena (peninsula)	2 15	80 50
Islahoyo	1 49	79 31	Piedras	3 38	79 55
Baca	0 27	77 53	Playas	2 38	80 23
Baia de Cariquez	0 30	80 25	Portoviejo	1 03	80 27
Islas de Manabí (bay)	0 54	80 42	Puerto Bolívar	3 16	79 58
Bogotá, Colombia	4 36 N	74 05	Puerto Nuevo	2 13	79 55
Borbon	1 06 N	78 58	Putumayo	0 07 N	75 52
Bucay	2 10	79 06	Quito	1 02	79 29
Calí, Colombia	3 27 N	78 31	Rio Balahoyo (arm)	0 13	78 30
Cajabamba	1 42	78 45	Rio Chone (arm)	2 10	79 52
Canal Guayas-Salado (canal)	2 17	79 55	Rio Chone (arm)	1 40	78 38
Cancos	1 35	77 45	Rio Chone (arm)	0 35	80 25
Caucho	2 12	80 54	Rio Daule (arm)	2 10	79 52
Cayambe	0 03 N	78 08	Rio Esmeraldas (arm)	0 58 N	78 38
Cerro de Colomche (mts)	2 00	80 20	Rio Macuza (arm)	2 36	79 52
Chimborazo (mt)	1 28	78 48	Rio Napo (arm)	3 00	78 13
Chone	0 41	80 40	Rio Naranjo (arm)	2 44	77 24
Coca	0 28	76 58	Rio Napo (arm)	3 20	72 40
Cordillera Occidental (mts)	1 30	78 55	Rio Putumayo (arm)	3 07	67 58
Cordillera Oriental (mts)	1 30	78 30	Rio Santiago (arm)	1 05 N	78 58
Costa (region)	1 40	80 00	Rio Vinces (arm)	1 39	79 47
Cotacachi (mt)	0 40	78 36	Salinas	2 13	80 55
Cuenca	2 53	78 69	Salinas	0 30 N	78 08
Dauile	1 50	79 56	San Cristóbal	0 55	89 34
Emmeraldas	0 59 N	79 42	Sangolquí	0 19	78 27
Estero Salado (estuary)	2 27	80 02	San Lorenzo	1 17 N	78 50
Galapagos Islands (isls)	0 30	90 30	Santa Cecilia	0 03 N	76 58
Guayaquil	2 10	79 50	Santa Cruz	0 32	80 21
Golfo de Guayaquil (gulf)	3 00	80 30	Santo Domingo	0 15	79 09
Hoya de Carachi (basin)	0 45 N	77 45	Seymour	0 25	80 17
Ibarra	0 21 N	78 07	Sibambe	2 12	78 55
Isabela	0 58	91 01	Sierra (region)	2 00	78 30
Isla Baltra (is)	0 25	91 30	Sullana, Peru	4 53	80 41
Isla Fernandina (is)	0 30	91 06	Taura	2 18	79 24
Isla Santa Maria (is)	1 17	90 26	Tenguel	3 00	79 46
Jipijapa	1 20	80 35	Tigre	2 19	80 49
La Libertad	2 14	80 57	Tiñón	2 08	78 48
Latacunga	0 56	78 37	Tulcan	0 48 N	77 43
Lima, Peru	12 03	77 00	Tulcan Basin	0 48 N	77 43
Loya	4 00	70 13	Zumbra	4 52	79 09
Macara	4 33	79 57			
Macacha	3 16	79 58			
Manabí	0 57	80 44			
Mindezu	2 43	78 19			
Milagro	2 07	79 38			
Montalvo	2 04	76 58			
Nuevo Rocafuerte	0 56	75 24			
Orcute (region)	2 00	77 00			
Orto (oilfield)	0 15 N	76 55			
Oravito	0 14 N	78 16			

COORDINATES		COORDINATES			
° S	° W	° S	° W		
Palmita	2 05	78 43	Cotacachi	0 55	78 36
Paoaje	3 20	79 42	El Carmen	2 04	79 59
Pasta, Colombia	1 13 N	77 17	General Ulpiano Paiz	2 12	80 59
Península de Santa Elena (peninsula)	2 15	80 50	Mariscal Lamar	2 53	78 59
Piedras	3 38	79 55	Mariscal Sucre	0 08	78 29
Playas	2 38	80 23	Seymour	0 27	80 16
Portoviejo	1 03	80 27	Simon Bolívar	0 09	79 53
Puerto Bolívar	3 16	79 58	Taura	2 10	79 43
Puerto Nuevo	2 13	79 55			
Putumayo	0 07 N	75 52			
Quito	1 02	79 29			
Rio Balahoyo (arm)	0 13	78 30			
Rio Chone (arm)	2 10	79 52			
Rio Chone (arm)	1 40	78 38			
Rio Daule (arm)	2 10	79 52			
Rio Esmeraldas (arm)	0 58 N	78 38			
Rio Macuza (arm)	2 36	79 52			
Rio Napo (arm)	3 00	78 13			
Rio Napo (arm)	3 20	72 40			
Rio Putumayo (arm)	3 07	67 58			
Rio Santiago (arm)	1 05 N	78 58			
Rio Vinces (arm)	1 39	79 47			
Salinas	2 13	80 55			
Salinas	0 30 N	78 08			
San Cristóbal	0 55	89 34			
Sangolquí	0 19	78 27			
San Lorenzo	1 17 N	78 50			
Santa Cecilia	0 03 N	76 58			
Santa Cruz	0 32	80 21			
Santo Domingo	0 15	79 09			
Seymour	0 25	80 17			
Sibambe	2 12	78 55			
Sierra (region)	2 00	78 30			
Sullana, Peru	4 53	80 41			
Taura	2 18	79 24			
Tenguel	3 00	79 46			
Tigre	2 19	80 49			
Tiñón	2 08	78 48			
Tulcan	0 48 N	77 43			
Tulcan Basin	0 48 N	77 43			
Zumbra	4 52	79 09			

Selected oilfields		
Cotacachi	0 55	78 36
El Carmen	2 04	79 59
General Ulpiano Paiz	2 12	80 59
Mariscal Lamar	2 53	78 59
Mariscal Sucre	0 08	78 29
Seymour	0 27	80 16
Simon Bolívar	0 09	79 53
Taura	2 10	79 43

NOTE: All latitudes are South unless otherwise indicated.

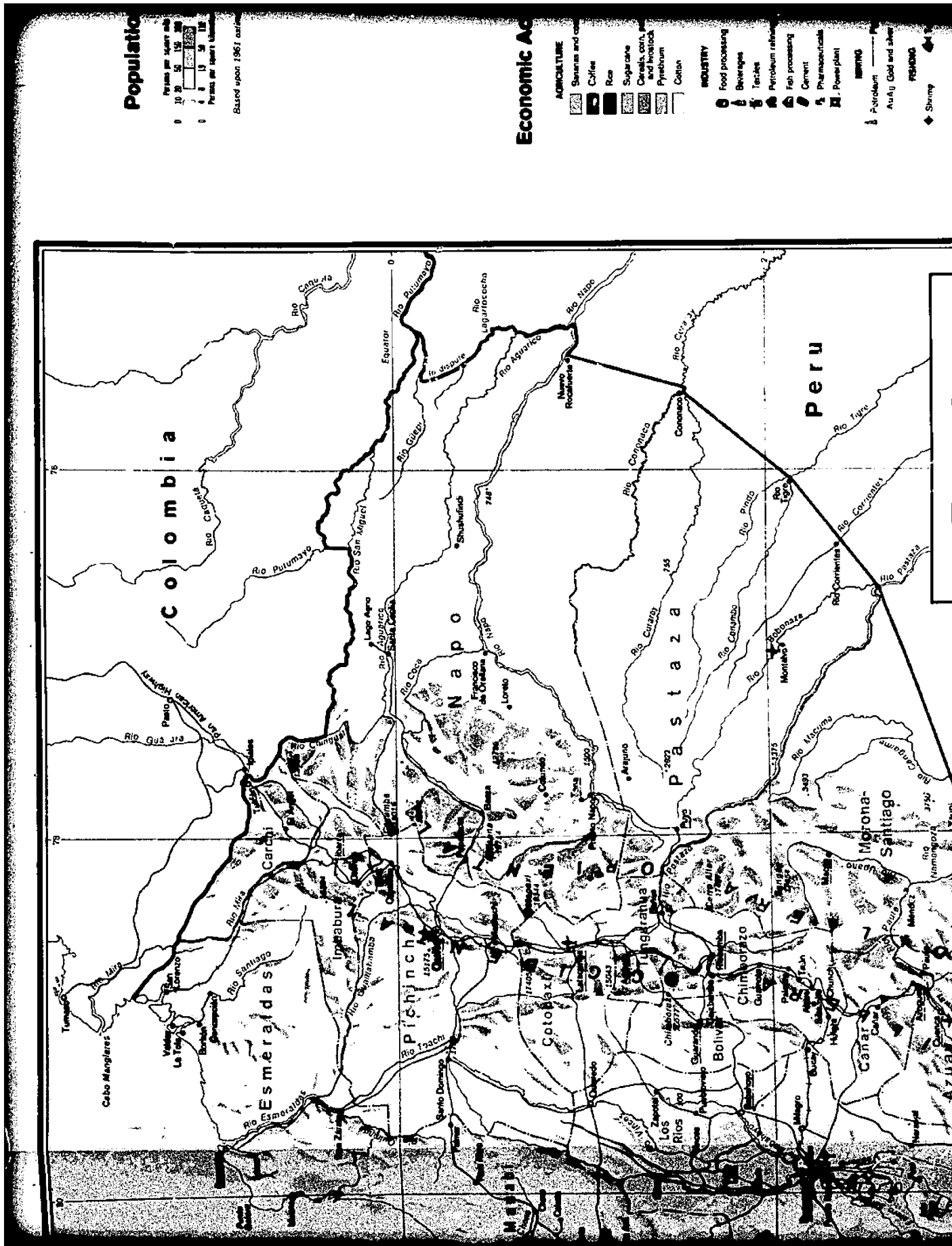
NOTE: All latitudes are South unless otherwise indicated.

Selected oilfields

Cotopaxi	0 55	78 36
El Carmen	2 04	76 59
General Ulpiano Paez	2 12	80 59
Mariscal Lamar	2 53	78 59
Mariscal Sucre	0 08	78 29
Seymour	0 27	80 16
Simon Bolívar	2 09	79 53
Taura	2 10	79 43

COORDINATES		COORDINATES	
° S.	° W.	° S.	° W.
Alfaro	2 12	79 36	2 05
Amazon Basin (<i>basin</i>)	1 00	75 56	3 20
Ambato	1 15	78 37	1 13 N.
Andes (<i>mts</i>)	2 00	78 30	2 15
Bahabuyo	1 49	79 31	3 38
Barran	0 27	77 53	Playas
Bahia de Cariquez	0 26	80 25	Portoviejo
Bahia de Manta (<i>bay</i>)	0 54	80 12	Puerto Bolívar
Bogotá, Colombia	4 38 N.	74 05	Puerto Nuevo
Borbon	1 06 N.	78 59	Putumayo
Bucay	2 10	79 06	Quevedo
Calif. Colombia	3 27 N.	76 31	Quito
Cajabamba	1 42	78 45	Rio Bahabuyo (<i>strm</i>)
Canal Guayas-Salado (<i>canal</i>)	2 17	79 55	Rio Banamba
Campes	2 15	77 45	Rio Chone (<i>strm</i>)
Cayambe	1 12	80 54	Rio Daule (<i>strm</i>)
Cayambe	0 02 N.	78 08	Rio Esmeraldas (<i>strm</i>)
Cerro de Colonech (<i>mts</i>)	2 00	80 20	Rio Guayas (<i>strm</i>)
Chimborazo (<i>mt</i>)	1 28	78 48	Rio Macuma (<i>strm</i>)
Chone	0 41	80 06	Rio Naranjosa (<i>strm</i>)
Coca	0 28	78 58	Rio Napo (<i>strm</i>)
			3 20
			72 40
			47 58

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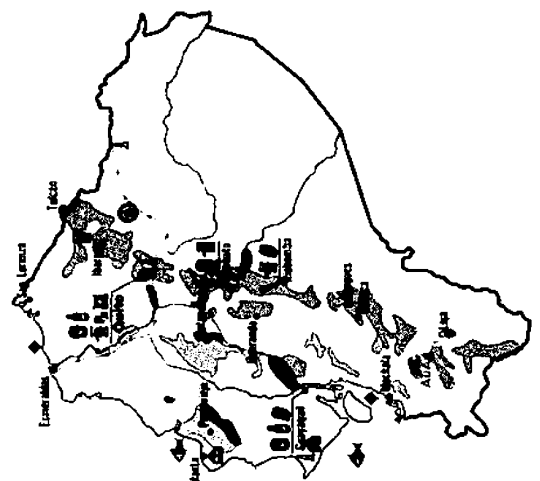




Population



Based upon 1961 estimate



Economic Activity

