

Belgium

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1. DOMESTIC FORESTS AND FORESTRY

1.1 Brief history of forestry in Belgium

Two thousand years ago, most of Belgium was covered by natural forest. The main formations were the oak and birch woods which covered la Campine, the Atlantic oak forests of Central Belgium, and the hornbeam, oak and beech forests of Upper Belgium. First the Gauls cleared patches of forest to practise cultivation and animal husbandry, then the Romans built roads through the forests and made it more accessible.

In the Middle Ages major areas of forest were cleared by Cistercian monks and by feudal lords and princes. At this time the first towns appeared. As the population increased, the cultivated areas were extended and the forest further cleared. This process began earliest in Flanders in the tenth and eleventh centuries, when trade and industry began to develop. The remoter, more mountainous Ardennes, on the other hand, remained a thickly wooded agricultural region throughout the Middle Ages. It was in the thirteenth century that the first communal forests appeared, with specified rights for local people. These included pannage (the herding of pigs), grazing for horses and horned animals, the right to cut firewood, the right to clear forest land for temporary cultivation, the right to extract oak bark for tannin, the use of timber for building and carpentry, and the right to extract organic material from the forest for use on the fields, or as bedding for livestock.

By the sixteenth century, the metallurgical industry was pressing hard on the forest for charcoal to keep the forges going, and charcoal-burners began to be blamed for deforestation. As a result, a detailed Forest Edict on Woodlands and Forests was promulgated in 1617 – a remarkable forest code for the time. It specifically forbade the creation of new forges, but was not able to enforce compliance.

In the eighteenth century, degradation of the forests increased, partly as the result of a regulation dating from 1754 which reduced from 60 to 30 years the age at which trees could be felled. As a result, the vast majority of forests consisted only of coppice with standards by the end of the century. In Flanders, these were composed of oak, alder, poplar, aspen and willow, and in the rest of the country oak, beech, hornbeam and white woods such as ash, maple, elm and lime.

Metallurgy maintained its importance, but from the beginning of the nineteenth century it relocated progressively to coal mining areas. By the middle of the century, as a result, people were beginning to question the economic role of forests by contrast with agriculture, and deforestation rates increased. Despite this, more than 400,000 ha of forest (mainly coppice) were still in place at mid-century.

The trend was reversed only in 1847, when a law was passed relating to land clearance and deforestation, and the state began to encourage reforestation, providing subsidies to communities and individuals for tree planting. Tree cover began to increase again, and the total forest area grew from 435,000 ha in 1866 to 613,800 ha in 1970. An examination of the systems shows that the deciduous high forest area more than

doubled over this period, essentially through the conversion of coppice.

1.2 The timber sector

At the time of the last official census in 1970, the forest covered 613,800 ha, of which 53% was deciduous and 47% coniferous. However, according to a study carried out in the early 1980s (Rondeux, 1980–84), the forest was more widespread and covered 657,500 ha (22.3% of the country). Most of the forest (about 82%) is in the Walloon region. In the deciduous forest the main species are beech, chestnut oak and pedunculate oak followed by other valuable deciduous species such as wild cherry, ash, maple and birch. Spruce represents 85% of the conifers, although in more recent plantations the trend is for diversification with Douglas fir and Japanese larch.

The standing volume of the Belgian forest estate is estimated at 75 million m³, – a density of 120 m³ per hectare on average, together with the poplars outside the forest. Annual production in 1990 and 1991 was 5,270,000 and 4,490,000 m³, i.e. considerably more than 6 to 8 m³ per ha per year. These figures, among the highest in the world, demonstrate the very high productivity of Belgian silviculture.

Production from Belgian forests is on the increase, and in 1991 covered more than 60% of consumption. Most of the imported temperate deciduous timber comes from France and North America; imported tropical deciduous timber originates in South-East Asia (principally Malaysia) and Africa. Imported coniferous timber comes from northern Europe (Germany, Finland, Russia, and Sweden) and from Portugal, Canada, the United States and Chile. Exports are mainly to European Union countries.

Although most of the Belgian forest is located in the Walloon region, it is in the Flemish region that most of the timber-processing plants are located. The added value of the timber sector was BEF 52 billion in 1980, or 1.7% of GDP. In 1987, the added value was estimated at approximately BEF 100 billion.

1.3. Present forest structure

Belgian forests are divided more or less equally between private and public owners. The public forest includes national forests, communal forests (three-quarters of the public forest) and State plantations. All these are subject to the Forest Code of 1854, and subsequent laws and decrees, which lay down the rules governing the administration and supervision of forests. The Code has supported a very competent forest administration, which was regionalised in 1990.

The major differences in the way the Code is applied in the two regions stem from the fact that not only is the forest area in Flanders smaller than that in the Walloon region, but most of it (70%) belongs to private owners. Het Bosdekreet (the Forest Code in Flanders) is notably more restrictive with regard to felling and obliges private owners of more than 5 ha to implement a management plan for their plots. In the Walloon region, private forests are subject to very few regulations. However, they benefit from subsidies to encourage both natural and artificial regeneration of deciduous and conifer species and afforestation of agricultural land. The Walloon region has adopted the principles defined

by the 10th World Forest Congress (1991) and the 1992 Rio and 1994 Helsinki conferences, and intends to continue to manage the forest sustainably and to emphasise the protection, conservation and biodiversity aspects of management. The establishment of simple management plans is being studied and will probably be integrated, by the granting of subsidies, with the other measures applicable to privately owned Walloon forest.

One important feature of the private forest is its division into small holdings. There are more than 120,000 private owners, 80% of whom own less than 2 ha, and only 1.5% of whom have more than 50 ha (representing 45% of private forest). Numerous private owners are grouped together in the Royal Forestry Society of Belgium, (*Société Royale Forestière de Belgique; Koninklijke Belgische Bosbouwmaatschappij*), founded in 1893. This organisation defends their interests both with regard to national bodies and on the Central Committee for the Private Forest (CCPF) a consultative organisation recognised by the European Union (Administration des Eaux & Forêts, 1958; Auteurs Divers, 1985; Bary-Lenger *et al*, 1992; Vertriest, 1990; Ministère de la Région Wallonne, 1996).

2 HISTORICAL INVOLVEMENT WITH TROPICAL FORESTRY¹

2.1 Introduction

The history of Belgian forestry is closely linked to that of the former Belgian colonies. In 1908 the independent state of the Congo became the colony of the Belgian Congo (and at independence in 1960, Zaire). In 1923 Belgium received a mandate from the League of Nations to administer the twin territories of Rwanda-Burundi², a German colony acquired after the 1914–18 war, which at independence became the two states of Rwanda and Burundi.

2.2 Forest research in the colonial period

The years from 1908 to 1914 were devoted to developing Belgian colonial policy and establishing new institutions. In 1910, a General Administration for Agriculture was established within the Ministry of the Colonies. From 1914 to the end of the 1920s, it was essentially the agricultural sector that was developed. The National Institute for Agronomic Studies of the Belgian Congo (INEAC) was created in 1933, its activities also extending to Rwanda and Burundi. Since forests offered considerable economic potential, INEAC established a forest division in 1935, in the Scientific Section of the Yangambi Research Centre located in the Upper Congo region, and then rapidly extended its activities to other regions. For instance, in 1940 the forest station of Luki, located in the region of the Lower Congo, was established. During World War II work and inventories continued and in 1948 the production of a Flora of Congo-Rwanda-Burundi began (Jardin Botanique de l'Etat, 1963). Throughout the war, the local

forest species (*Entandrophragma spp*, *Terminalia superba*, *Cleistopholis glauca*, *Alstonia boonei*, *Podocarpus sp*, *Chlorophora excelsa*, *Pterocarpus soyauxii*, *Khaya sp*, etc.) and exotic species (such as *Pinus spp*, *Eucalyptus spp*, *Acacia spp*, *Callitris spp*, *Grevillea robusta*) thought likely to have a significant economic future were planted and studied under various ecological conditions. Based on the continuity of these observations, silvicultural trials were able to be undertaken from 1946 onwards. The major concerns were environmental protection, soil conservation, protection of forest cover, measures against deforestation and fire-fighting.

In the Belgian Congo, the 1950–59 ten-year plan covered five areas:

1. determination of allowable cut in production forests, regulation of logging activities, perfection of methods of management, enrichment and plantation;
2. trials of new species; improving the profitability of, and diversifying, industrial production (e.g. veneers and plywood);
3. export promotion for timber products;
4. reforestation for firewood;
5. establishment of forest reserves, protection of savannah³, and protection of the forests.

In Rwanda-Burundi, the 1950–59 ten-year plan focused on protection of the upland forests and the establishment of new production forests. In fact, few forests remained and demographic pressure threatened to destroy what was left. By the end of 1959, remaining totals were assessed at 40,000 ha of managed forests, 24,000 ha of afforested areas for production of firewood, 300,000 ha of protected savannah, plus 11,000 ha of afforestation for soil conservation.

Numerous management techniques were tested in three types of silvicultural treatments:

- enrichment planting, using the method of enrichment in dense stands (Anderson method). This method was intended to enrich the natural forest by the establishment of dense nuclei of valuable species in which seedlings were given the chance to grow rapidly with little competition. The intention was that, by the time they came to interact with the natural environment, they would already be large enough to compete successfully;
- progressive evolution of the forest towards a less heterogeneous composition, using the Belgian method of standardisation by height. This method attempted to favour the middle age-classes of the best-represented valuable species by eliminating species with no commercial value, and also by simultaneous intervention in all forest layers. The final goal was to eliminate the largest-diameter stems (apart from those with commercial potential); to maintain a cover of medium-diameter stems rich in desirable species, and to improve light at ground level with a view to encouraging regeneration;
- radical modification of mixed stands into pure stands.

1. Most of the information in this section has been extracted from Drachoussoff *et al* (1991).

2. Actually known as Ruanda-Urundi in the colonial period.

3. Through creation of fire-breaks and encouragement of fire-resistant species.

From 1955 onwards, the older style of arboretum research, which had been to conduct studies of species of potential commercial interest, was progressively replaced by shorter-term comparative trials, conducted in a limited area. These studied the development of a large number of species until they reached the height of 4 metres, the aim being to provide detailed information on growth rates of young trees, on crown diameter, and on susceptibility to pests (Donis and Maudoux, 1951; Lebrun and Gilbert, 1954; Donis, 1956; INEAC, 1961).

2.3 The colonial forest service

A Water and Forests Service was established in the Belgian Congo in 1945. From then on, each province had a forest engineer whose task was to make an assessment of his province, and define forest policy there. In particular, he was asked to establish 'forest operations regions' and to initiate a management programme specific to each, as soon as possible. Strengthening the resources of the Forest Service in this way, made it possible to monitor logging operations more closely and to encourage the establishment of a modern timber industry.

In Rwanda and Burundi, the population had been obliged since 1931 to take part in communal afforestation. Every year, each community had to carry out afforestation at a rate of 1 ha per 300 taxpayers, in order to produce much needed firewood and construction timber for its own needs (De Ligne, 1987).

2.4 Logging operations

A decree governing logging operations was adopted in 1912. The various ordinances which followed made it possible to increase production rapidly. Production rose from 143 m³ of logs and sawn timber exported in 1923, to 9,452 m³ of logs and 3,880 m³ of sawn timber in 1930. The prosperity of the 1920s encouraged private investment and the establishment of colonists. After World War II, all types of logging operations were to be found in the Belgian Congo – and to a lesser extent in Rwanda-Burundi – from modest semi-artisanal sawmills to large-scale operations completely equipped for logging, milling and processing (sawnwood, veneers and plywood). The Belgian authorities tried to encourage operators to maximise the modernisation of sawmills and the processing of logs. In this way the Belgian Congo retained the largest possible proportion of the added value, anticipating current strategies of self-interested industrial development. The volume of logs felled in the colony reached 850,000 m³ in 1955. The production of sawnwood and veneers increased continuously as well, to 56,000 m³ in 1959. The export of logs and processed timber increased from 105,000 m³ tonnes in 1950 to 162,000 m³ in 1959.

2.5 The National Parks

Nature conservation was a major concern of the Belgian authorities. In 1925, the Albert National Park (now the Virunga National Park) was the first national park in Africa. In 1934, the Kagera National Park (in Rwanda) was established, followed by the Garamba National Park in 1938 and the Upemba National Park (now the Volcanoes National Park) in 1939. Management of these parks was the responsibility of the National Parks Institute of the Belgian Congo (IPNCB) created in 1934.

Throughout the period 1945–58 in addition to the 24,740 km² of National Parks, 21 Protected Areas (37,355 km²) and 22 Hunting Areas (54,700 km²) were set up. Conservation and research were the main priorities of the IPNCB; tourism occupied only third place. The national parks of the Belgian Congo were highly thought of and served as examples to many other parts of Africa.

2.6 Post independence

A second 10-year plan (1960–70) was published in January 1960. In terms of the forest, it envisaged the following programmes: an inventory of forest resources; enrichment of the existing forests for industrial timber and pulp for paper-making; reforestation of non-wooded land for purposes of production and/or conservation; and timber technology.

The independence of the Belgian Congo in 1960 and then of Rwanda and Burundi in 1962 did not allow this plan to be implemented. However, the research was partially continued by the National Institute for Studies in Agronomic Research (INERA) in Zaire, as well as by the two Institutes of Agronomic Sciences of Burundi (ISABU) and Rwanda (ISAR).

In Belgium, in 1962, the Development Co-operation Office, currently called the General Administration of Development Co-operation (AGCD), was established. Initially, co-operation focused on the former colonies, but it has subsequently diversified to other countries. For example, it funded two large forestry projects (in Cape Verde and Peru) in the 1970s.

3. STRUCTURE OF DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE DELIVERY⁴

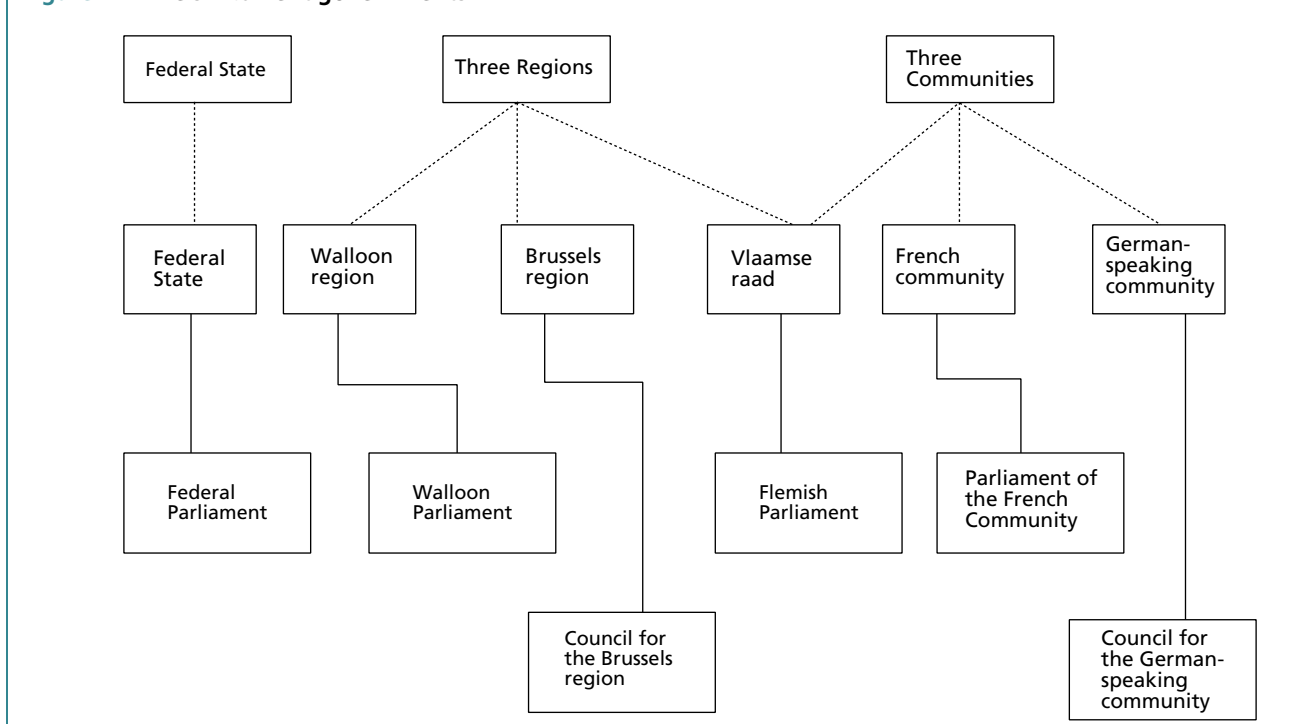
3.1 History of the process of federalisation

Belgium is a federal state consisting of three regions and three communities. This federal structure is the result of a progressive process, the basis for which was laid down in the 1970 reform which allowed three cultural communities to be recognised: the Flemish, the French, and the German-speaking community. Cultural councils were created at that time and authorised to issue decrees with the force of law. These have evolved into the Councils and Parliaments of the Communities.

The reform of 1980 recognised the principle of Regions. Like the communities in 1970, the regions acquired the right to issue decrees with the same validity as national law. However, only two regions were recognised: the Walloon region and the Flemish region. At this point the Flemish region and the Flemish community merged to form the Vlaamse raad. The reform of 1988–89 created a third region: that of Brussels itself. It also devolved certain state responsibilities to the regions and communities. Finally, the reform of 1992–3 put in place a process of direct election to the regional and community councils and parliaments. The 6 current governments are shown in Figure 1.

4. Except where otherwise indicated, sections 3,4,5,7 and 9 of this chapter are based on AGCD, (1990); AGCD, (1993); AGCD, (1994) and AGCD, (1996).

Figure 1: The six current governments



3.2. Federal, regional and community competencies

The federal state remains competent in a series of important areas, in particular development co-operation, monetary policy, justice, social security, foreign policy, some areas of employment, and a large part of public health, national defence and law and order. The regions are competent in the areas of land management, the environment, rural renovation and nature conservation, agriculture, housing, water policy, the economy, energy, some areas of employment policy and the organisation and exercise of supervision over the communes and provinces. The communities have authority in cultural matters and education.

3.3. Organisation of the aid programme

The organogram in Figure 2 shows the decision-making process for Belgian development aid. This aid amounted to BEF 30.4 billion in 1995 (0.38% of GDP). The Secretary of State for Development Co-operation has declared the intention of reaching the 0.7% of GDP UN target by the year 2000 or shortly thereafter and stated that net official development assistance disbursements will increase significantly from 1998 (OECD, 1997: 130). Figures 3 and 4 indicate the picture for 1985–95.

Co-operation between the different departments (Foreign Affairs, Foreign Trade, Finance, Agriculture, etc.) is organised within the Inter-departmental Working Group for Development Co-operation (GTICD), presided over by the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation. Virtually all (as much as 95%) of Belgian activity in tropical forestry comes under the Office of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation, currently Mr Reginald Moreels, who is also assistant to the Office of the Prime Minister. The General Administration for Development Co-operation (Administration Générale de la Coopération au Développement, AGCD, or *Algemeen bestuur van de ontwikkelingssamenwerking*, ABOS) also comes under the Secretary of State.

The organisation chart for the AGCD (Figure 5) is a combination of an earlier one which dates from the reform of the AGCD in 1992, and a later one incorporating modifications adopted in January 1997. A key change is that the old terms – bilateral, indirect bilateral and multilateral co-operation respectively – become governmental co-operation, non-governmental co-operation and international co-operation. To this chart should be added the presence of the Co-operation Sections attached to Belgian embassies (in over 30 countries in 1995). These Co-operation Sections are an integral part of the AGCD, but they are dependent on the embassies which alone are authorised to sign documents in Belgium's name. Their role is essentially to provide follow-up on projects financed or co-financed by Belgium.

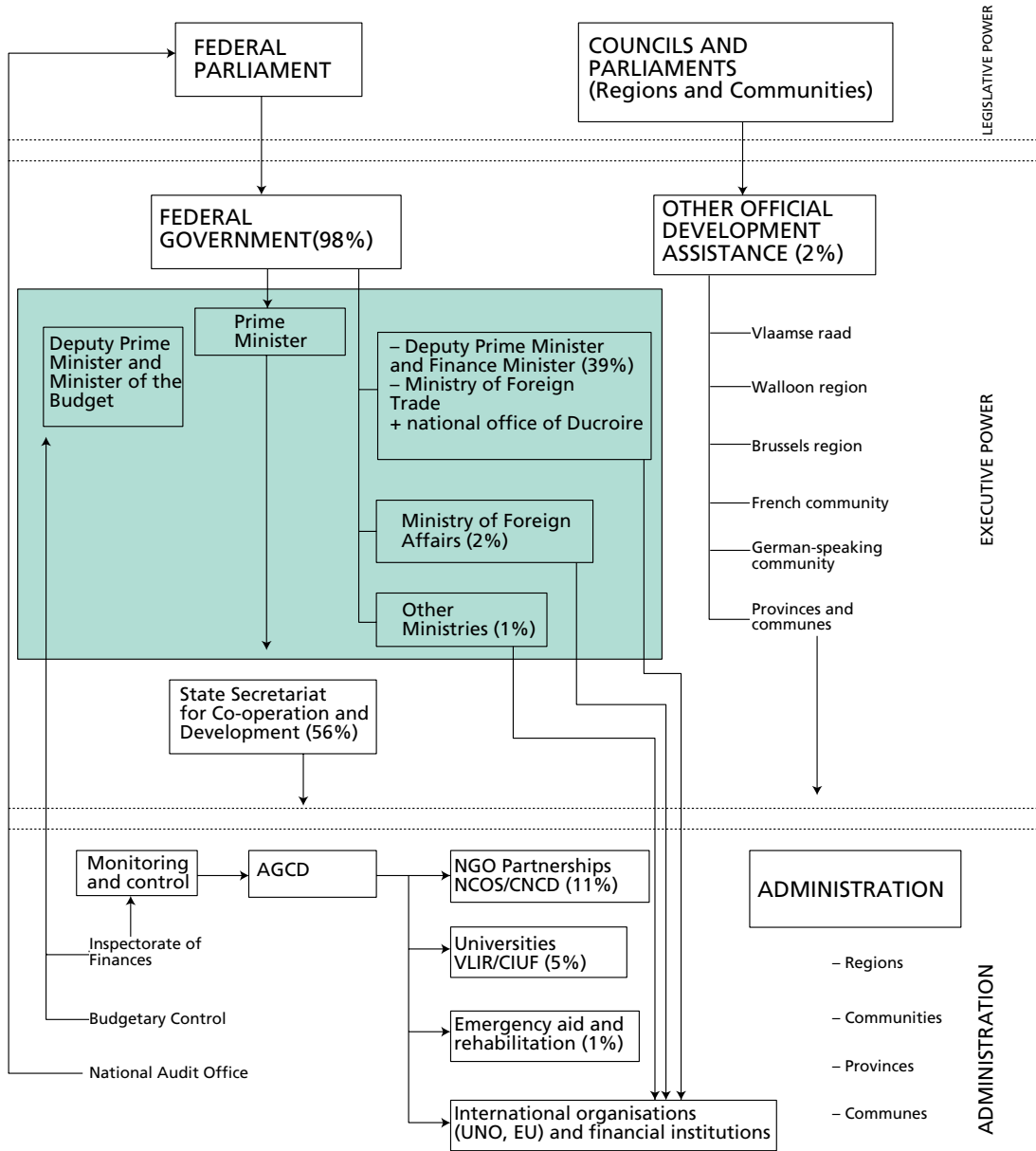
Among the major changes to the structure of the AGCD, the following should be noted:

- (i) the combination of two 'Direct Bilateral Aid Administrations' into the single 'Governmental Co-operation', and the reduction in the number of geographical departments which will henceforth be centred only on the countries with programmes;
- (ii) a new form of collaboration between the country desk officers and the sector specialists (5 sectors);
- (iii) the establishment of an 'Evaluation Section' which formalises the increasing interest in evaluating actions undertaken.

3.4. Bilateral aid

The structure of bilateral aid in the AGCD is not sectoral but geographical, which means, for example, that the Central Africa Department looks after all the activities undertaken in this region, whatever the sector (health, agronomy, education and training, support for democratisation etc). Each geographical department therefore includes project managers who are qualified in different sectors. Ideally each department should

Figure 2: Organogram showing the decision-making process for Belgian development aid



(Source: adapted from AGCD, 1995)

Figure 3: Net disbursements at 1994 prices

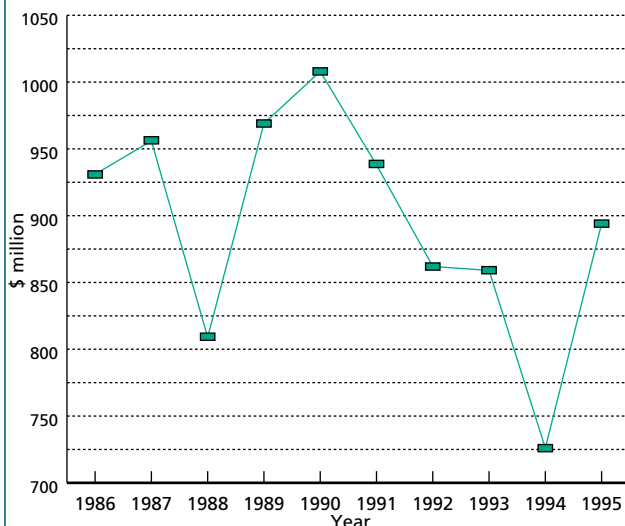


Figure 4: Aid: GNP

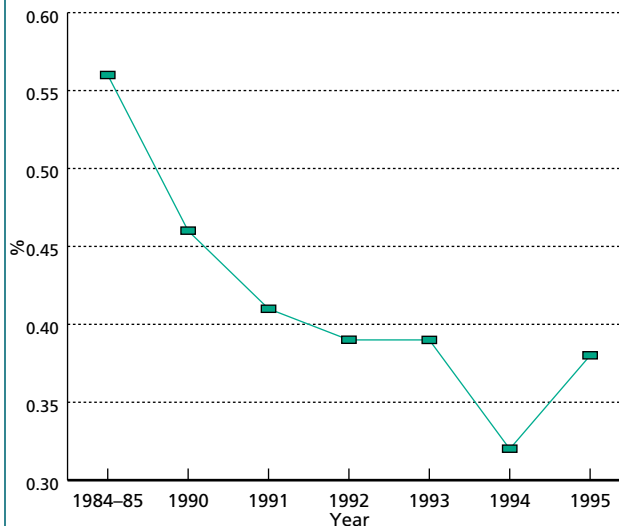
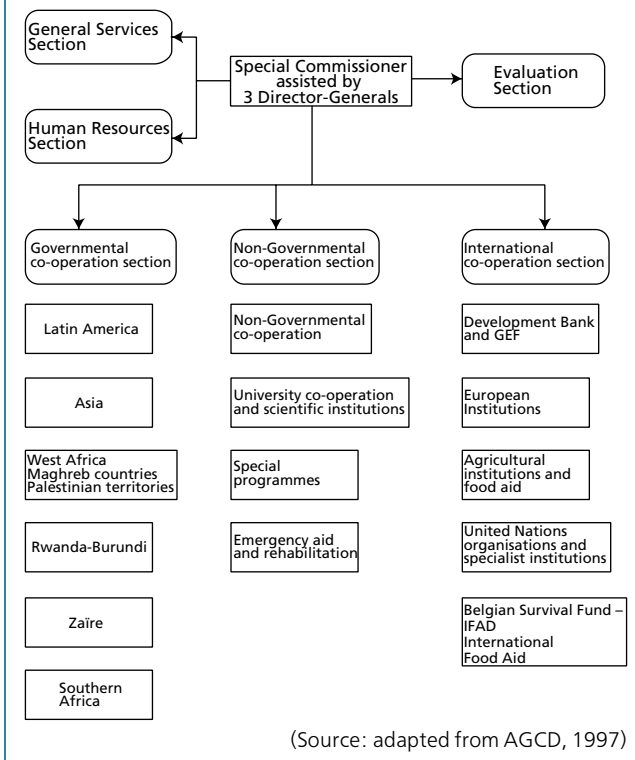


Figure 5: Internal structure of the AGCD from January 1997

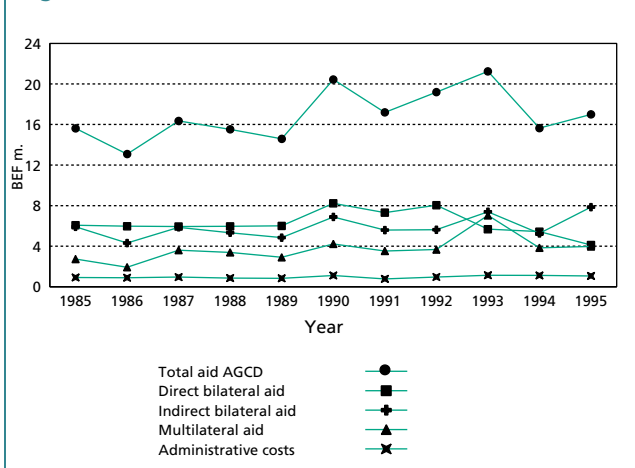


include specialists covering all areas, but unfortunately this is not yet always the case. Tropical forestry is not considered a separate sector but is included in the broader sector of agriculture. There is no designated agency that looks after the implementation of AGCD projects.

3.5 Multilateral aid

The AGCD currently supports about 40 international organisations (such as FAO, UNDP, UNEP, WFP, etc). As far as Belgium's contribution to the FAO is concerned, Belgium participates both in the 'ordinary programme', the obligatory contribution to which is provided by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and in its 'field programme', the voluntary contribution to which is provided by the AGCD. The AGCD is currently financing 3 forestry or agroforestry projects within the framework of this programme.

Figure 6: Distribution of aid 1985-95 (BEF m.)



3.6 NGOs

NGOs that request co-financing of their activities must first be recognised by the AGCD. The latter currently recognises about 100 NGOs. These NGOs are also obliged to be members of the NGO federations concerned with co-financing projects and sending out staff: COPROGRAM for the Flemish NGOs, ADO and CODEF for the francophone NGOs. The AGCD generally co-finances 75% of the total amount of an activity, the remaining 25% being provided by the NGO. However, of this 25%, 10% may be provided by the NGO's local partner.

In order to obtain sufficient funds, a number of NGOs have joined two organisations: the National Centre for Development Co-operation (CNCD) for the francophone NGOs and the *National Centrum voor Ontwikkelingssamenwerking* (NCOS) for the Flemish NGOs. These two associations, at the national level, organised Operation 11.11.11⁵, which combines the donations from the Belgian public for development projects. The sums collected by each of these two organisations are then distributed among the NGO members on the basis of the projects they have submitted and which have been selected by the CNCD. The projects are then submitted to the AGCD for co-financing (*Ministère des affaires étrangères, du commerce extérieur et de la coopération au développement*, 1995).

3.7 Other ministries and federal institutions active in the tropical forest sector

Other ministries intervene in Belgian development aid but they do not directly support actions in the forest sector. The Ministry of Finance, in particular, manages government to government loans (with the Ministry of Foreign Trade), part of the Belgian contribution to European development co-operation activities, and the contribution by Belgium to the World Bank and other Development Banks. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs financially supports various institutions and international bodies, in particular Belgium's obligatory contribution to FAO (BEF 133 m. in 1994) as well as an annual contribution of BEF 2 m. to the International Tropical Timber Organisation (ITTO).

3.8 Regional institutions

The Flemish region does not currently support any tropical forestry project. However, negotiations are in progress between AMINAL (Administration of the Environment, Nature and Land Management) and FAO on a project to combat deforestation in the tropics. The Walloon region's interest in tropical forestry is fairly recent but various initiatives have been undertaken. Contacts have been established between the Walloon Ministry of Agriculture and its Chilean counterpart on the identification of research. Other identification missions have also been carried out in Burkina-Faso, Haiti (December 1996) and Equatorial Guinea. The Walloon region often works in collaboration with research organisations and universities to

5. Operation 11.11.11 was established in 1965; the figures mean that the operation began on 11th November at 11a.m., a date chosen to commemorate the armistice of the 1914-18 War.



despatch experts to field locations. The budget for all these projects relating to the environment is approximately BEF 6 m. The Walloon region is also attempting to promote its know-how in the area of satellite imaging.

4. DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE STRATEGY

4.1. Background

There is no real policy in the forest sector at AGCD level. Notwithstanding a few large forest projects initiated at the end of the 1970s, forestry has never been an important sector for the AGCD. Moreover, the whole forestry sector is included in the broader sector of agriculture. There is no clear definition of what is considered to be part of the forestry sector and what is not. The structure of the AGCD (Figure 5) means that each department for bilateral, NGO or multilateral aid independently manages all its own projects and which projects fall or do not fall within the forest sector.

However, a database does exist where all the projects in which the AGCD has participated financially since 1986 are recorded. Each project is included in this database with a sector code, including the sub-sectors silviculture, department of water and forests, plant protection, inventory, conservation valorisation of the rural environment, forest, silvo-pastoral, and agrosilvo-pastoral resources etc., which all come under the Agricultural and Rural Development Sector. Project managers are free to classify their projects under the heading they consider most appropriate. Although all codes have been drawn up by the AGCD, they are not based on international codes (for example those of the OECD or FAO). The AGCD has virtually no policy for archiving its old projects. It has therefore proved very difficult to find documentation about completed or abandoned projects, especially as staff also change quickly, and the AGCD was restructured in 1992 and is now, once again undergoing structural reorganisation.

Many project managers are field staff recalled to Brussels for a two-year period only. It is thus sometimes difficult to ensure genuine monitoring of projects, and it is even more difficult to preserve any institutional memory of those executed previously.

4.2 Bilateral co-operation

Belgium's policy on development co-operation is closely linked to the various Secretaries of State who have been responsible for it. In principle, each occupies the post for a period of four years. At the time of the two Secretaries of State who preceded Mr Moreels (who took up his post in June 1995), the work of proposing and drawing up projects was carried out by the recipient country, and Belgium merely reserved the right to accept or reject projects based on the priorities of its overall aid policies, and then monitored them. The policy of the current Secretary of State is more active; more concrete proposals are put forward to the countries with which Belgium wishes to collaborate. The office of the Secretary of State also decides on the privileged sectors for Belgian co-operation. All projects which are drawn up by the AGCD (bilateral aid) or

which are financed wholly or in part by the AGCD (multilateral and NGO aid) must be submitted for the approval of the Secretary of State.

Within the framework of bilateral co-operation, a distinction is made between countries linked by a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with Belgium, and those not so linked. The MoUs are drawn up in the course of joint Commissions between Belgium and the partner country which take place in one or other of the two countries. When held in Belgium, these Commissions are chaired by the Belgian Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Co-operation of the partner country. If they take place in the partner country, its Ministry of Foreign Affairs receives the Belgian Secretary of State for Development Co-operation. The leaders of the two delegations each present the priorities of their respective countries, in terms of co-operation, and the two delegations then negotiate the broad framework of co-operation in the key sectors, and the global budgets assigned to each sector. Project titles may even be defined at this point.

There are currently more than 15 countries linked to Belgium by an MoU, notably Bolivia, Ecuador, Burundi, Rwanda, Morocco, Niger, Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Senegal, Tunisia, Côte d'Ivoire, Sri Lanka and Indonesia.

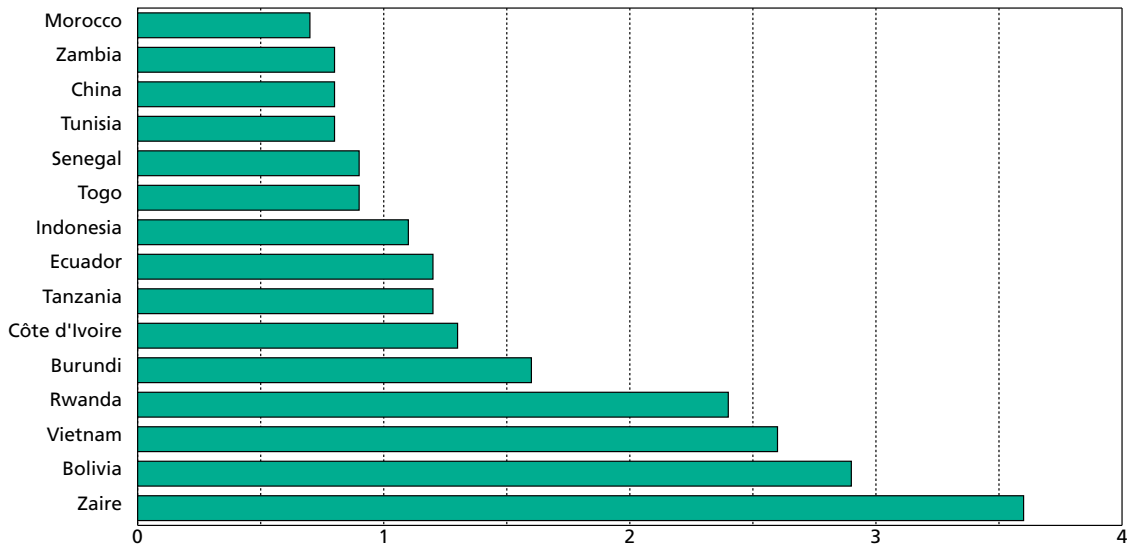
Co-operation with countries without an MoU is based on Belgium's experience of and affinities with these countries. Once the agreement in principle of the Office of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation has been obtained on the major themes for co-operation, the various departments of the AGCD identify projects in collaboration with the partner country. Belgium is active in some 30 countries with which it has various types of arrangement. Among others, these countries include Burkina-Faso, Ethiopia, Gabon, Kenya, Tanzania, Togo, Zimbabwe, Peru, Surinam, Bangladesh, the Philippines, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Thailand and China.

4.3. Co-operation through NGOs

The Secretary of State's policy is orientated towards closer collaboration with NGOs. This trend is probably a consequence of the greater flexibility and speed with which NGOs implement projects, whilst delays are often apparent within the framework of bilateral co-operation. Most NGOs work on multi-sectoral projects although a few (such as FADO, COOPIBO, etc) specialise in the agricultural sphere. The Flemish NGOs are more numerous and active overall than their Walloon colleagues and, therefore, present more proposals to the AGCD. At present there appears to be a desire on the part of the political authorities and the NGOs themselves to increase their professionalism. Discussions are also in progress to reduce the number of smaller less well-organised NGOs.

4.4. Multilateral co-operation

The current policy of the Secretary of State is orientated towards focusing Belgium's multilateral aid on fewer beneficiaries. The Belgian financial contribution in future will involve only 20 international organisations instead of the current 40 or so. Selection of organisations will initially be made on the basis of Belgium's sectoral priorities (FAO, CIFOR and ICRAF would be likely

Figure 7: Major recipient countries 1994–95

candidates, for instance). A further consideration will be the possibility of its being able to gain a seat on the management committee of such organisations or bodies, in order to influence policy and choice of projects.

4.5. Co-operation programme with the private sector

The Secretary of State for Development Co-operation currently wants to put in place a Co-operation Programme for the Private Sector (PCSP), which is intended to establish co-operation between small and medium-sized enterprises of low-income countries and small and medium-sized Belgian enterprises. The aim of this programme is to support the creation and operation of small businesses in the low-income countries and to promote local employment. Negotiations must be initiated with Belgian financial institutions, which will be invited to participate in the project. This type of co-operation will probably not concern the forest sector.

4.6 Impact of international conferences

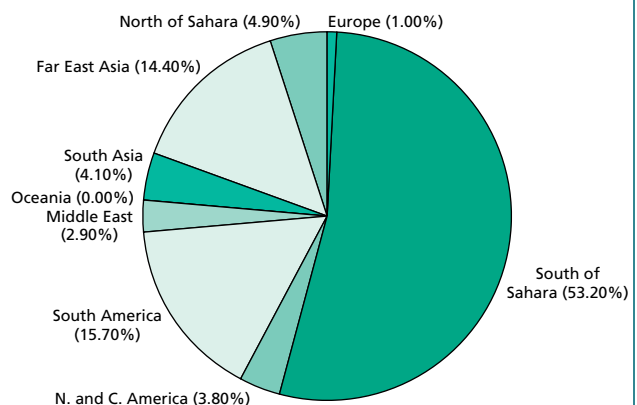
Nature conservation and sustainable development seem to be becoming more important concerns within Belgian co-operation and development projects. Thus, for example, a recent agreement concluded between Belgium and Burkina-Faso includes compliance with Agenda 21 in its preamble. Furthermore, the office of the Secretary of State wants to consult the 'National Council for Sustainable Development' (CNDD) more often, in order to implement a policy of sustainable development and the application of Agenda 21. The AGCD is also making a contribution to the Global Environment Facility (GEF) of BEF 1.1 billion for the period 1994–7. It is noteworthy, however, that the international conferences on the position of women have had distinctly more marked influence on the elaboration of new projects than have international Forestry and Environment Conferences.

5. REGIONAL AND THEMATIC DISTRIBUTION OF FORESTRY PROJECTS

5.1 Regional distribution of projects

Africa has always been the favoured continent for Belgian aid, by virtue of the affinities and experience of Belgium in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Burundi (see Figures 7 and 8). However, following the events on the campus of Lubumbashi University, where several Zairean students were killed, official Belgian co-operation with Zaire ceased in 1990. Co-operation with Rwanda was also interrupted from June 1994 and with Burundi from June 1995. The percentage of Belgian aid going to Rwanda fell from 9% in 1970–71 to 2.4% in 1994–5 and to Burundi from 7.4% to 1.6% in the same period. The cessation of official co-operation with these countries was one of the major causes of the big drop in the number of Belgian aid workers, as shown in Table 1. To this must also be added the desire of the Belgian authorities to reduce the number of aid workers, in particular AGCD employees.

The current Secretary of State has defined new strategies in the area of development co-operation. Belgium will identify some 20 countries, called

Figure 8: Distribution of bilateral aid 1994–95

geographical concentration countries, to which it will essentially limit its actions; Belgium is currently active in approximately 40 countries.

The choice of the concentration countries will be based on the following criteria:

- low income;
- mainly African in view of the traditional affinities and experience of Belgium in these countries;
- Belgian co-operation already has some experience;
- evidence of good financial management;
- countries clustered in the same geographical region, with comparable economic, social and cultural contexts;
- special attention will also be paid to countries in crisis with which Belgium has a certain affinity.

Within these countries, Belgium distinguishes between countries with programmes and countries with projects. The countries with programmes are those where Belgium undertakes to establish co-operation of a sustained character. In countries with projects, co-operation will be limited to one or two projects. The countries with programmes have already been identified and include the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Burundi, Burkina-Faso, the Philippines, Bolivia. There is also a programme region – SADC (The Southern African Development Conference), encompassing several southern African countries, (Mozambique, Angola, Zimbabwe, South Africa, etc.). The 13–14 countries with projects have not yet all been defined but they will also be located close to the countries with programmes. Ecuador and Peru have already been identified in South America, the Mekong region (Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia) in Asia, as well as Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda in Eastern Africa.

5.2 Favoured sectors for current co-operation

The current Secretary of State has also defined five favoured sectors for co-operation:

- health care;
- education and training;
- agriculture and food security;
- basic infrastructure;
- governance and the rights of civil society.

An internal memo on policy strategy relating to the agricultural sector and to food security was drawn up in 1996 by the agronomists' group within the AGCD. It takes account of the orientation defined in the *Plan for the future of co-operation* published by the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation in October 1996. Actions in the agricultural sphere show that the new co-operation strategy is clearly orientated towards an integrated and multi-sectoral approach. Forestry appears as a tool for improving food security by ecological means (for example, preservation of soil fertility and natural resources).

The systematic evolution of forest sector activities since the 1970s has been from large reforestation projects in the period 1970–80, to agroforestry projects. The few current projects in which the forest sector is involved are integrated rural development projects, the components of which are orientated primarily towards

Table 1: Numbers of AGCD and NGO aid workers employed by AGCD, 1989–95

Year	Number of AGCD Aid Workers	Number of NGO Aid workers
1989	1,200	1,451
1991	601	976
1995	341	847

forest management in close collaboration with target groups (Vauron, 1992).

5.3 Regional distribution of forestry projects

Table 2 summarises the great majority of forest projects in which the AGCD has participated since 1986 (plus a few earlier projects). It is not exhaustive because of difficulties in finding data on all the completed projects and accurate information on those listed.

Table 2: AGCD forestry projects since 1986

Country	Duration	Funding level (in BEF m.)
Burundi	1986–94	64.96
	1992–93	7.75
	1988–90	?
	1969–87	190.00
	1986–94	51.82
Gabon	1994–97	48.00
	1996	10.00
Kenya	1997–2000	66.00
	1997–2000	20.00
Rwanda	1986–95	304.49
	1986–92	106.22
	1982–87	33.00
	1986–93	27.87
Zaire	1986–90	60.00
	1986–91	14.16
	1986–91	18.29
Ecuador	1982–89	92.00
Peru	1976–89	310.00
	1982–89	78.00
	1982–89	66.00
	1990–2001	('90–'94) 33.00
Surinam	1989–94	28.00
Malaysia	1986–89	12.00
Sri Lanka	1991–95	50.00
Thailand	1994	0.208

Table 3: Number and types of bilateral forestry projects

Type of project	Number of Projects
Reforestation	7
Forestry Research	6
Integrated Rural Devel. inc. forestry	5
Training projects	4
Management of Natural Resources/Forest	3
Total	25

Note that research and training projects represent 40% of all forest projects. Table 3 shows the types of bilateral forestry projects funded.

Of these 25 projects, 17 began before 1990 and for the time being only 3 are envisaged as running up to the year 2000. This indicates a trend towards fewer new forestry projects. The reforestation projects were carried out essentially between 1986 and 1990, whilst the forest management projects are more recent. The most important forest projects (in financial terms) were carried out in four countries (Zaire, Rwanda, Burundi, and Peru). New projects no longer benefit from as much finance as previously: 8 projects in the 1970s and 1980s had budgets in excess of BEF 60 m. whereas only one forest project started in the 1990s exceeds BEF 60 m. The new projects are also shorter, with an average duration of three years, although delays or extensions are possible. Following the recent events in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Burundi, the new African projects have moved to other countries such as Gabon or Kenya.

The current forest projects in which the AGCD is intervening, either bilaterally or multilaterally, are to be found in Gabon; Peru; China; Cambodia; Vietnam; Philippines; Indonesia; Kenya; Zimbabwe; Togo; Senegal; Guatemala and Bolivia.

5.4 NGOs

The list is not exhaustive, particularly for projects where there is a small forest component; only the projects in which the forest sector was important have been shown. Table 4 summarises these.

Most of the NGO projects are either integrated

Table 4: Types of NGO projects

Type of project	Number of Projects
Integrated Rural Devel. inc forestry or agroforestry	14
Tree-planting (anti-erosion, nursery projects etc)	9
Wood technology, carpentry	5
Management of Natural Resources/Forest	3
Forest Conservation	1
Total	32

projects (agro-silvo-pastoral or agroforestry) or tree-planting projects. There is no forest research and only one forest conservation project. The average duration of the projects is three years. Approximately 50% have a budget of less than BEF 10 m, and only 2 projects exceed BEF 25 m. There are few projects in the Democratic Republic of Congo (only 3), Rwanda and Burundi. Several NGO projects which were due to start in Zaire after 1990 have never begun and activities in progress at that time have often ceased.

No NGO specialises in forestry. There are few forestry projects because they need support over a long period, and represent a duration which is too long for most NGOs (a constraint also increasingly felt in bilateral aid projects). However, it is worth mentioning FADO which specialises in the agroforestry sector and mainly works in Asia.

When a project produces good results, it may be extended by a second phase. The NGOs almost always work with a local partner, which is normally retained if they carry out several actions in the same region. The activities of NGOs are currently orientated towards the sectors of human rights and support for trade union movements, etc., although the proportion of agricultural projects remains high. WWF, which is very active in the forest sector has no project in collaboration with the AGCD.

5.5 Multilateral co-operation projects

Virtually all of the multilateral forestry projects have been undertaken with FAO. The AGCD is currently financing 3 projects implemented by FAO, all in Asia (in Cambodia, China and Vietnam), the aims of which are centred on forest management and improvement. There is also a large FAO-AGCD project in Cape Verde, in which the AGCD has been participating for 15 years, with a total commitment of BEF 442 m.

Apart from these 4 projects there is little information on the activities financed by the AGCD during the period 1986–1991, when budgets were distinctly lower.

6. RESEARCH AND TRAINING

The universities take part in co-operation projects in several ways. First of all, they can submit their own projects to the AGCD under the Specific Initiatives of the Universities programme, or to the European Commission. They may also intervene as the executing agency for part of a direct bilateral aid project (e.g. a timber technology project in Surinam in which the University of Ghent took part); or certain professors may be dispatched on short-term missions as experts (for the AGCD, the Regions, the European Commission, etc). Since 1987, the AGCD has financed only three forest projects drawn up by the universities. Two Belgian universities (the Gembloux University Faculty of Agronomic Science and the Free University of Brussels) are participating in several European Union forestry and conservation projects in tropical Africa. They include projects on conservation and rational use of forest ecosystems; on the future of tropical forest peoples; on natural resource development, and a project on a comparative testing of biodiversity and relations between soil, plantlife and wildlife in Gabon (with the University of Rennes).

The university research programmes which are financed by the AGCD must go through the Inter-University Council of the French Community (CIUF) for the French-speaking universities and through its equivalent, the VLIR, for the Flemish universities. Projects selected are then submitted to the AGCD. Virtually all the subsidies for university tropical forestry research programmes come either from the AGCD via the CIUF and the VLIR or from the European Commission. The French community, however, awards study grants to foreign students via the 'General Commissariat for International Relations of the French Community of Belgium (CGRI)'. Grants awarded by the Flemish community all pass through the Flemish Association for development Co-operation and Technical Assistance (VVOB). The AGCD also pays study grants to foreign students.

The Forest Research Stations of Gembloux and Groedenadaal, which are dependent respectively on the Walloon and the Flemish regions, make available to the regions, the AGCD, the European Commission, FAO, etc experts for missions within the framework of forest projects. They do not execute projects directly. The Association for the Promotion of Education and Training Abroad (APEFE) and the VVOB, presided over by the Community Ministries of Education, are non-profit making associations. They are almost 100% financed by the AGCD; the Flemish region makes a small contribution to financing the VVOB. In 1995, the AGCD subsidised 355 APEFE and VVOB staff in more than 20 countries. The VVOB is more orientated towards technical assistance and intervenes in the forestry or agroforestry sector, in particular by providing ICRAF in Kenya with five of its staff.

Belgium's Royal Museum of Central Africa, which is financed by the Ministry of Scientific Policy, participates in studies of the anatomy and dendrochronology of tropical timber. Furthermore, this museum has the world's second largest collection of specimens of tropical timber. The National Botanical Garden of Belgium, which comes under the Ministry of Agriculture, has been participating in the production of a complete flora of Zaire, Rwanda and Burundi since 1948 (more than one million species have been inventoried to date).

7. PROJECT CYCLE MANAGEMENT

A major problem of development co-operation is the inadequate preparation of interventions, which is why the AGCD has chosen to adopt an internationally recognised methodology that it has called Planning of Interventions by Objectives (PIPO). Some attempt to apply the PIPO method began in the AGCD in 1989. PIPO is closely related to similar logical framework methodologies used in Germany, the Netherlands, the UK and the European Commission, among others. Although the logic of PIPO is not limited to a specific type of problem, in practice the method is especially suitable for technical co-operation projects and investment projects with economic and/or social objectives.

7.1 The stages of the PIPO method

PIPO is structured in two phases (analysis and planning) and several stages. The aim of the analysis is to bring

together and structure the data required for planning the intervention.

The overall objective is chosen from the tree of objectives as the one which is positioned upstream of a series of chains. Several interventions may contribute to it. A single specific objective is formulated for each intervention in order to prevent the intervention from becoming too complex and to ensure that there are no conflicts between several specific objectives.

The assumptions are factors external to the intervention over which it has little or no control, but which are nevertheless important, or even essential, to complete the intervention successfully. If these external factors cannot be integrated into the logic of the intervention, they become assumptions which link together the different levels of the intervention logic. If a majority of the assumptions are negative, it would be better not to begin the intervention. Objectively Verifiable Indicators make it possible to manage, monitor and evaluate the intervention objectively, and the Means of Verification suggest how indicators may be verified.

7.2 Application of PIPO

PIPO has never been applied systematically within the AGCD and has never been imposed. Each geographical department is free to apply it or not as it wishes. It is therefore impossible to determine exactly the percentage of projects planned using PIPO.

Various criticisms have been levelled at PIPO, such as the cumbersome nature of the cycle, which has often caused bottle-necks or delays in implementation. At the participatory meetings where the problems of target groups should be identified, these problems may rather be obscured by the fact that the only local representatives present are the local authorities or group leaders, rather than target group representatives. This can lead to the identification of unsatisfactory project objectives. Finally, PIPO has often been seen only as a phase to be completed at the beginning of an intervention, rather than a tool for monitoring throughout implementation.

A new planning method, called (for the time being) Result-Orientated Integrated and Participatory Management (GIPOR), has recently been drawn up by the AGCD and is currently being examined by the Office of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation. In particular it aims to smooth the transition between the phases of the intervention cycle and to shorten it while preserving PIPO concepts and applying them throughout the cycle. The use of this method is expected to be obligatory for the planning of future AGCD interventions.

NGOs are no longer obliged to apply PIPO when submitting a project proposal to the AGCD for co-financing. However, certain NGOs are trying to maximise the application of the method and some of them have even produced their own PIPO booklet (e.g. COOPIBO).

7.3 Project evaluation

Few evaluations are undertaken by the AGCD, despite the growing number of applications. The monitoring and evaluation office of the AGCD currently has only two staff, and carried out only two evaluation missions in 1996. The full procedure for an evaluation is very prolonged and often takes more than a year. The

application principles applied by the AGCD are based on those of the OECD. Requests for evaluation of projects originate either from the different geographical departments or from the Sections, or even directly from the Office of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation. Nonetheless, it seems that certain departments of the AGCD do not go through the evaluation office in order to perform some evaluations of their projects. Nowadays NGOs are more interested in evaluating their projects; evaluation missions are frequently provided for in their budgets with, if possible, an internal evaluation at the half-way point and an evaluation by an independent expert on completion of the project

8 PROJECT PROFILES

8.1. Bilateral co-operation: an example from Peru (Cajamarca)

The AGCD began working in Cajamarca in 1970, initially within the framework of an integrated development project. It rapidly focused its attentions exclusively on the forest sector. Its involvement is envisaged until the year 2001. The financial contribution of Belgian co-operation from 1976 to 1994 amounts to US\$ 12,345,000. Work in Cajamarca has taken place through three related projects, the CICA-FOR project (1976–89); the PPF project (1982–89); and the ADEFOR project (1990–2001). These projects may be characterised as shown in Box 1.

9. CONCLUSIONS AND TRENDS

In the colonial period, Belgium was very active in the tropical forest sector, particularly in the area of research; the forest division of the INEAC developed several types of silvicultural treatments and carried out numerous growth tests on various local and exotic forest species. At that time nature conservation was also a major concern and led in particular to the establishment of several national parks. Subsequently, the importance of the forest sector was progressively reduced in co-operation projects. At present, forestry has become a very minor area and will probably remain so for the immediate future.

Virtually all the actions in the tropical forestry area financed by Belgium depend on the office of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation. Belgian co-operation currently takes three forms: bilateral co-operation, non-governmental co-operation and multilateral or international co-operation. The administration in charge has been restructured twice since 1991. It is regrettable that archiving of previous AGCD projects has been weak, and no doubt hindered by the restructuring and that, as a result, much interesting information has been lost. It is interesting to note the growing interest that all those involved in development co-operation are now placing on project monitoring and evaluation, so this situation may improve in future.

In the sphere of bilateral co-operation, the new policy of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation is directed towards the geographical concentration of Belgian aid co-operation on some 20 countries. Among

Box 1 Bilateral co-operation; an example from Peru

Support to *The CICA-FOR Forest Research and Training Centre 1976–89*

AGCD collaborated jointly with the Peruvian 'National Institute of Agricultural Research and Agricultural Industries' to support the centre, contributing US\$ 9,383,000 over thirteen years. The objectives of the support were firstly to undertake silvicultural research, agroforestry research and training; and secondly to create the technical basis for large-scale reforestation to produce pulp for the paper industry.

The results included a large scale programme of silvicultural research in 33 arboreta in diverse ecological regions, where 208 species and 382 provenances were tested. Numerous growth trials were carried out under a variety of conditions. Agroforestry trials were carried out to identify suitable windbreak species to protect the cultivation of cereals and potatoes. The training of forestry technicians and professionals was established.

The Reforestation Pilot Project (PPF) 1982–89

AGCD collaborated with the Government of Peru to implement some of the key findings from the CICA-FOR research project. The financial contribution was US\$ 2,007,000 over seven years. Over the lifetime of this project, the key activities undertaken include the establishment of pine plantations on 3,500 ha in Cajamarca; the construction of over 80 ha of agricultural terraces; and the establishment of 110 ha of irrigated pasture lands. Taking these activities together, the project can be seen as a successful example of integrated rural development.

ADEFOR, the Civil Association for Forest Research and Development 1990–2001

AGCD is collaborating with the Universities of Cajamarca and La Molina, and the Peruvian 'National Institute of Agricultural Research and Agricultural Industries' for this final phase of intervention in the region. Spending from 1990–94 amounted to US\$ 955,000.

ADEFOR's goals are to establish large-scale plantations, sell timber, and use the income to support research, training and environmental activities. AGCD's goals are for ADEFOR to become financially independent, and for it to be recognised as a Regional Training Centre. Belgium will primarily support training until the end of the project.

The achievements of the project have included 7,900 ha of plantations; the creation of an institution which has become the main forestry research and training centre in the Peruvian Andes. It has also been able to benefit from the previous projects funded by Belgium both materially and intellectually.

these, Belgium intends to collaborate in the long term with 6: the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Burundi, the Philippines, Bolivia and the SADC region which includes several southern African countries. New aid policy will also be focused on five sectors; health care; education and training; agriculture and food security; basic infrastructure and the consolidation of society. Forestry, which is included in the agricultural sector, will thus fall within the perspective of food security, i.e. essentially within the framework of projects on conservation of soil fertility, preservation of natural resources, and agro-sylvo-pastoral or agroforestry projects (Moreels, 1996).

As far as non-governmental co-operation is concerned, the NGOs are proposing very few strictly forestry projects, but rather integrated projects in which the forestry sector often occupies only a minor position. The policy of the Secretary of State for Development Co-operation is orientated towards closer collaboration with the NGOs.

Only in the sphere of multilateral co-operation – with FAO – is Belgium now involved in three important forestry projects – in Cambodia, China and Vietnam.

Even the Rio conference of 1992 has not, so far, given rise to the establishment of Belgian projects centred on the conservation of forest ecosystems and the maintenance of biodiversity, despite Belgium's earlier strong comparative advantage in this area.

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ACRONYMS

ABOS	Algemeen bestuur van de ontwikkelingsamenwerking (General Administration for Development Co-operation)	INERA	Congo belge (National Institute for Agronomic Studies of the Belgian Congo)
ADEFOR	Civil Association for Forest Research and Development	IPNCB	Institut National pour l'Etude des Recherches Agronomiques (Zaire) (National Institute for Studies in Agronomic Research)
ADO	Association des ONG (Association for Francophone and German-speaking NGOs concerned with co-financing projects and sending out staff)	ISABU	Institut des Parcs Nationaux du Congo belge (National Parks Institute of the Belgian Congo)
AGCD	Administration générale de la coopération au développement (General Administration for Development Co-operation)	ISAR	Institut des Sciences Agronomiques du Burundi (Institute of Agronomic Science in Burundi)
AMINAL	Administratie Milieu, Natuur en Landinrichting (Administration for the environment, nature and land management)	ITTO	Institut des Sciences Agronomiques du Rwanda (Institute of Agronomic Science in Rwanda)
APEFE	Association pour la promotion de l'éducation et de la formation à l'étranger (Association for the Promotion of Education and Training abroad)	MoU	International Tropical Timber Organization
BEF	Belgian francs	NCOS	Memorandum of Understanding
CCPF	Central Committee for the Private Forest	NGO	Nationaal centrum voor Ontwikkelingssamenwerking (National Centre for Development Co-operation)
CGRI	Commissariat Général aux Relations Internationales de la Communauté française de Belgique (General Commissariat for International Relations of the French Community)	OECD	Non-Governmental Organisation
CIUF	Conseil Interuniversitaire de la Communauté française (Inter-University Council of the French community of Belgium)	PCSP	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
CNCD	Centre National de Coopération au Développement (National Centre for Development Co-operation)	PIPO	Programme de Coopération pour le Secteur Privé (Co-operation Programme for the Private Sector)
CNDD	Conseil National du Développement Durable (National Council for Sustainable Development)	PPF	Planification des Interventions par Objectifs (Planning and Interventions by Objectives)
CODEF	Federation of francophone NGOs concerned with co-financing projects and sending out staff	SADC	Reforestation Pilot Programme
COOPIBO	Ontwikkelingssamenwerking internationale bouworde (International development co-operation)	UNDP	Southern African Development Conference
COPROGRAM	Federation of Flemish NGOs concerned with co-financing projects and sending out staff	UNEP	United Nations Development Programme
FADO	Flemish Aid and Development Organization	VLIR	United Nations Environment Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	VVOB	Vlaamse interuniversitaire Raad (Inter-University Council of the Flemish Community)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	WWF	Vlaamse vereniging voor Ontwikkelingssamenwerking en technische Bijstand (Flemish Association for Development Co-operation and Technical Assistance)
GEF	Global Environment Facility	WWF	World Food Programme
GIPOR	Gestion intégrée et participative orientées vers les résultats (Result-Orientated Integrated and Participatory Management)		World Wildlife Fund
GNP	Gross National Product		
GTICD	Groupe de Travail Interdépartemental pour la Coopération au Développement (Inter-departmental Working Group for Development Co-operation)		
ICRAF	International Centre for Research in Agroforestry (Kenya)		
INEAC	Institut National pour l'Etude Agronomique au		

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