Spain

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Contents

1. SPAIN'S FORESTRY HISTORY

1.1 Deforestation

Spain's forestry history is dominated by a gradual decline in forest area and the struggle to recover some of this for forestry. Both on the northern Atlantic fringe, characterised by temperate woods of beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), oak (*Quercus robur, Q. pyrenaica, Q. petraia*), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), etc., and in the drier, warmer Mediterranean areas, where cork and holm oak formations (*Quercus suber* and *Q. ilex rotundifolia*) predominate, deforestation had led to the loss of about 50% of tree cover by Roman times and only 15% remained by the nineteenth century (Bauer, 1980). Due to Spain's mountainous geography and relatively low population density, these remnants have been only partially exploited.

Many processes have contributed to deforestation, among them:

- shipbuilding demand: the Spanish navy demanded vast quantities of wood from the Middle Ages onwards, and exerted 'special rights' over timber extraction;
- the expansion of farming (especially livestock grazing) and charcoal production;
- the reconquest of Spain from the Arabs by Christian monarchs (amongst other wars);
- privatisation of the commons in the nineteenth century (Bauer, 1980; Muñoz Goyanes, 1982).
- climate change, according to certain historians like Thirgood (1981).

Probably the main impact has been from industrialisation and demand for firewood and charcoal. Demand for naval timber mostly affected coastal and riparian areas due to the need to transport huge quantities of large logs and timber; industrialisation was centred in parts of the Basque region, Asturias, and other ports to the west and south; the Reconquest mainly affected the Mediterranean areas; and privatising the commons affected most of the country.

Spain has a long history of forest protection and reforestation. According to some historians, its woodlands were at their best during the Arab occupation when great efforts were made to cultivate and conserve trees. Attempts to protect woodland and promote planting also appear in legislation in the Middle Ages: laws were passed regulating how many trees could be felled and by whom; obliging each inhabitant to plant a given number of trees in a set time span; and controlling rights to collect firewood and make charcoal. But these laws had minimal impacts because of extreme poverty and shortages of trained foresters (until the nineteenth century), nurseries, and finance.

1.2 Emerging forestry development models

Greater progress was made when an organised forest administration, college and forest engineer corps were created in 1837, 1847 and 1853 respectively (Gómez Mendoza, 1982). These highly centralised bodies were heavily influenced by German forestry principles – some of Spain's first foresters attended the Heinrich Cotta forestry school in Göttingen.

The first generations of professional foresters recognised the non-market values of forests and the importance of such factors as natural regeneration. This led them to oppose privatisation of forest land, to proceed cautiously on reforestation, and to centre their attention on basic botanical or wider natural science-based research. Despite calls by some of them to adapt elements of German silvicultural theory and practice, Central European forestry models prevailed in Spain – these involved an early dasonomic approach to high forest management in which the annual cut was equated to growth.

Whereas this might have been appropriate for the Atlantic fringe, it was not suitable for the slow-growing Mediterranean forests. Large areas that still preserved the open savannah-type woodland parks (*dehesas*), in which holm and cork oaks provided a range of forest products such as charcoal, cork, firewood and forage (acorns and pasture for free-range pigs and sheep), but rarely timber, were considered an anachronism by many foresters, and some *dehesas* were replaced with plantations of quick growing timber species such as *Eucalyptus* spp.

Since the nineteenth century, forestry practice has reflected the outcome of an on-going conflict between two models of forest policy: one based on sustainable, multiple-use forestry, and the other on single-purpose timber or pulp production. Although foresters wrote in favour of 'natural' silvicultural techniques and the need to maintain environmental services, the search for quick returns and the pulp/paper industry gradually imposed itself during the twentieth century. Whereas in 1955, 93% of domestic timber was used in solid wood industries, by 1987 this had dropped to only 44%, the rest being absorbed by the pulp, paper and agglomerated board industries. The quality of timber processing also fell.

1.3 Privatisation of the commons and growing environmental awareness

The other great conflict in Spanish forestry history has been the struggle between common and private land ownership. Historically many lands were 'owned' by parish communities or belonged to a given locality.[1] The sale of many commons areas in the nineteenth century caused great hardship and encouraged poaching on previously held commons. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, parish councils also usurped commoners' rights, claiming the land belonged to the 'villagers' council' rather than to the 'villagers'. This paved the way for massive reforestation projects, particularly from 1940 to 1980, managed by local branches of the State forest administration. The imposition of fast-growing conifer plantations led to negative impacts on employment (especially from loss of grazing), the landscape and the environment, leading for example to increased pests and diseases, forest fires, soil erosion, habitat and biodiversity loss (Groome, 1990).

The process of political devolution since 1975, leading to the decentralisation of forestry activities,

1. Currently about 68% of woodland belongs to individual private owners, and 32% to a variety of public bodies.

and increased environmental awareness among the general public resulted in a policy shift to multiple-use and species forestry, and thus towards social and environmental objectives[2] (although in practice this varies from one region to another). In recognition of the recreational and environmental potential of forests, sectoral responsibility was shifted in 1996 from the Ministry of Agriculture to the Ministry of Environment, but in some Regional Governments forestry issues have remained under agriculture.

2. HISTORY OF INVOLVEMENT IN TROPICAL FORESTRY

(general sources: Aranda, 1995; Bauer, 1980; Perpiña, 1945)

2.1 Perceptions of tropical forestry resources

Spain's attitude to tropical forestry has been influenced by its perceptions of tropical forest resources as a source of:

- quality timber, increasingly scarce at home;
- genetic material for reforestation (in the event, the two main imported species/genus employed were Californian *Pinus radiata* and various species of *Eucalyptus*);
- private sector development: various companies have transferred their planting activities to the tropics, like the pulp and paper manufacturer Torras Hostench, SA, which, taking advantage of incentives from the Brazilian Government, bought 60,000 ha and planted at least half of this with conifers.

2.2 Shipbuilding demand

Spain's involvement in tropical forestry is also closely linked to its merchant and military navy or *armada*. Overseas commerce increased from the thirteenth century onwards and relied heavily on sea transport. Shipbuilding consumed huge amounts of wood, initially extracted from the coastal fringes around the ports and along the major rivers. The navy controlled and regulated access to timber.

Gradually, however, suitable timber resources became depleted. By the late sixteenth century, the timber needed to build Spanish ships amounted to some 300,000 tons of wood, the equivalent of six million m^3 of roundwood. Since the end of the fifteenth century, when Spanish colonists first reached America, teak, mahogany, Spanish cedar and other species were imported for naval use. Previously timber had been imported from the Baltic and Central Europe, but tropical sources soon became important, and naval officials were sent out to undertake timber surveys. For example, a plan was drawn up at the end of the eighteenth century to extract and import 70,000 m^3 a year from Cuba. Large quantities of timber were also imported from the Philippines; between 1860 and 1885, 1.5 m. trees were felled in public woodland. As a colony, Equatorial Guinea supplied timber well into the 20th century; in the 1920s and 1930s, wood represented at least 70% of its total export value, although over half of this was exported to other countries.

Spain also founded shipyards in its colonies, for example in Haiti, the Philippines (Cavite) and Cuba (Havana). Cuba became increasingly important: over 60 ships were launched from Havana between 1730 and 1780. During the eighteenth century, 25% of Spain's ships were built abroad. Again the Spanish Navy was given special rights over timber in the colonies; for example, in the case of Cuba it had rights over all timber trees within 220 km of Havana.

Timber exploitation for naval purposes was a decisive factor in the deforestation of Cuba, Haiti and the Philippines. However, tropical deforestation in Spanish colonies also resulted from clearance for agricultural plantations, above all for sugar and tobacco in Cuba, rice, sugar and tobacco in the Philippines, and coffee, cocoa and coconuts in Equatorial Guinea.

2.3 Forest management models and early attempts to intervene in the Tropics

With the introduction of a centralised forest administration in Spain from 1837, and the creation of the Ministry of Overseas Issues in 1863, more formal attempts was made to govern forestry interests in the colonies. Foresters were sent out to control extraction and make inventories. Although the need for widespread replanting was acknowledged, few resources were devoted to this.

The inclinations of these early foresters led to a cautious approach to reforestation in the tropics and an emphasis on basic and especially botanical/taxonomic research. Works of a high technical quality such as 'An Introduction to the Forest Flora of the Philippine Archipelago' were produced. 'The Forest Problem of Latin America and its Influence on Flooding' indicated an early appreciation of environmental externalities.

Another noticeable impact of colonial forest administration was the shift from highly selective felling to utilisation of a wider range of species. This affected reforestation models. However, the loss of Spain's American and Philippine colonies in the nineteenth century, and the influence of foreign-owned corporate timber interests in Equatorial Guinea, meant that little overall success was achieved in tropical afforestation.

2.4 Early 'aid' initiatives linked to commerce and training

Some early forestry 'aid' initiatives indicate the role of Spanish commercial and other domestic interests. For example, trade and economic agreements with Argentina and Chile in 1977 highlighted mutually beneficial research, including the 'Forest and Paper Industries', while there were several training projects in the cellulose and paper industries in the early 1980s. Another early project was the Andean Centre for Rural Development in Bolivia, which was linked to a nearby project for the settlement of Spanish families.

2. For example, many think there is a need for an economic mechanism for incorporating non-market values into forest accounts in order to make sustainable forestry a viable prospect for both private and public owners.

In 1975 the Spanish Government set up the International Centre for Training in Environmental Sciences in Madrid as an international environmental training centre for Spanish-speaking countries, but this was disbanded in the early 1980s. Other early projects like the 'Study and design of new development models for the Amazon' (1981–3) and an Environmental Education project in Peru indicate a growing environmental interest. In 1981 the International Centre for Training in Environmental Science developed a state-sponsored programme of scientific co-operation with Latin America, laying the basis for several later environmental and forestry projects.

Spain's dependence on the tropical timber trade has meant a continuing influence on tropical forest resources, despite the loss of its tropical colonies. Tropical logs represented 86% of all logs imported in 1970, and 69% in 1987, while tropical timber imports rose from 7% to 28% of sawn wood imports over the same period. Also, as already mentioned, several Spanish companies have started forest industry operations in the tropics, planting fast growing species for their pulp and paper industries.

3. STRUCTURE OF AID DELIVERY

3.1. Organisation of the aid programme

Spain introduced a formal aid programme only in1985, when the *Secretario de Estado para la Cooperación Internacional y para Iberoamerica* (State Secretariat for International Co-operation and for Latin America – SECIPI) was created, and resources were allocated annually to aid in the national budget. It must be remembered that Spain was on the DAC list of developing countries until 1983, and only became a member of DAC in 1991. Prior to 1985, aid was organised through the *Instituto para la Cooperación con Ibero-America* (Institute for Co-operation with Latin America – ICI), as well as various research institutions and a number of Ministries. Different bilateral Commissions were set up, mainly with Latin American countries, such as the 'Science and Technology', 'Economy and Trade' and 'Cultural' Commissions.

Figure 1 reveals a complex structure of Spanish aid; SECIPI in the *Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores* (Ministry of Foreign Affairs – MAE) has to coordinate the efforts of over a dozen Ministries and their various departments. For example, in 1996 at least 19 different government bodies were involved in official forestry and environmental aid. SECIPI directly manages only about 10% of the overall aid budget (OECD, 1994). To facilitate coordination, the *Comision Interministerial de Cooperación para el Desarrollo* (Interministerial Commission for International Co-operation – CICI) was set up in 1986, chaired by the Foreign Minister.

The *Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional* (Spanish Agency for International Co-operation – AECI) was established in 1988 to implement bilateral aid. Following a major reform in 1995, it now comprises two main departments: that responsible for Latin American aid (ICI) and that responsible for Arab, Mediterranean and (other) developing countries (ICMAMPD). AECI implements most bilateral grants with the help of 28 Technical Co-operation Offices: 20 in Latin America, 3 in Arab countries, 3 in Africa and 2 in Asia. It also runs 9 cultural centres and 3 training centres in Latin America, and has 5 'special offices' in Equatorial Guinea, Algeria, Egypt, Jordan and Mauritania. In 1989 the Planning and Evaluation Office (OPE) was established within SECIPI to prepare and monitor the Annual International Co-operation Plan (PACI), the first of which was published in 1987. The OPE is also in charge of the programme of 'subsidies' to development NGOs.

The complexity of the aid structure prompted the Spanish Parliament to recommend that a single body should direct all aid activities, and that a general law regulating Spain's development co-operation activities be introduced (*Congreso de los Diputados*, 1992). NGOs have echoed the latter recommendation (Intermon, 1996), calling for the creation of a State Secretariat for Development Co-operation. This was still being discussed in 1996.

3.2 Components of Official Development Assistance

Spanish aid statistics distinguish between the wider term 'international co-operation' and 'official development assistance' (oda). The latter refers to projects or co-operation funded by public money, donations, or loans with at least a 25% grant element, and where the aim is to enhance economic development and standards of living in the DAC list of developing countries.

In this chapter, the term 'aid' is used interchangeably with 'official development assistance' when referring to Spanish aid statistics. Programmed aid, according to the 1995 and 1996 International Co-operation Plans, came to Ptas. 191 billion (equivalent to ECU 1.2 billion in 1996) in both 1995 and 1996 (representing 0.28% and 0.26% of GNP respectively), while actual aid expenditure (from data provided by MAE) was Ptas. 168 billion in 1995 (0.24% of GNP) and Ptas. 160 billion in 1996 (0.22% of GNP). Table 1 presents the evolution of Spanish aid from 1991 to 1996 according to actual expenditure flows, and broken down according to multilateral and bilateral aid.

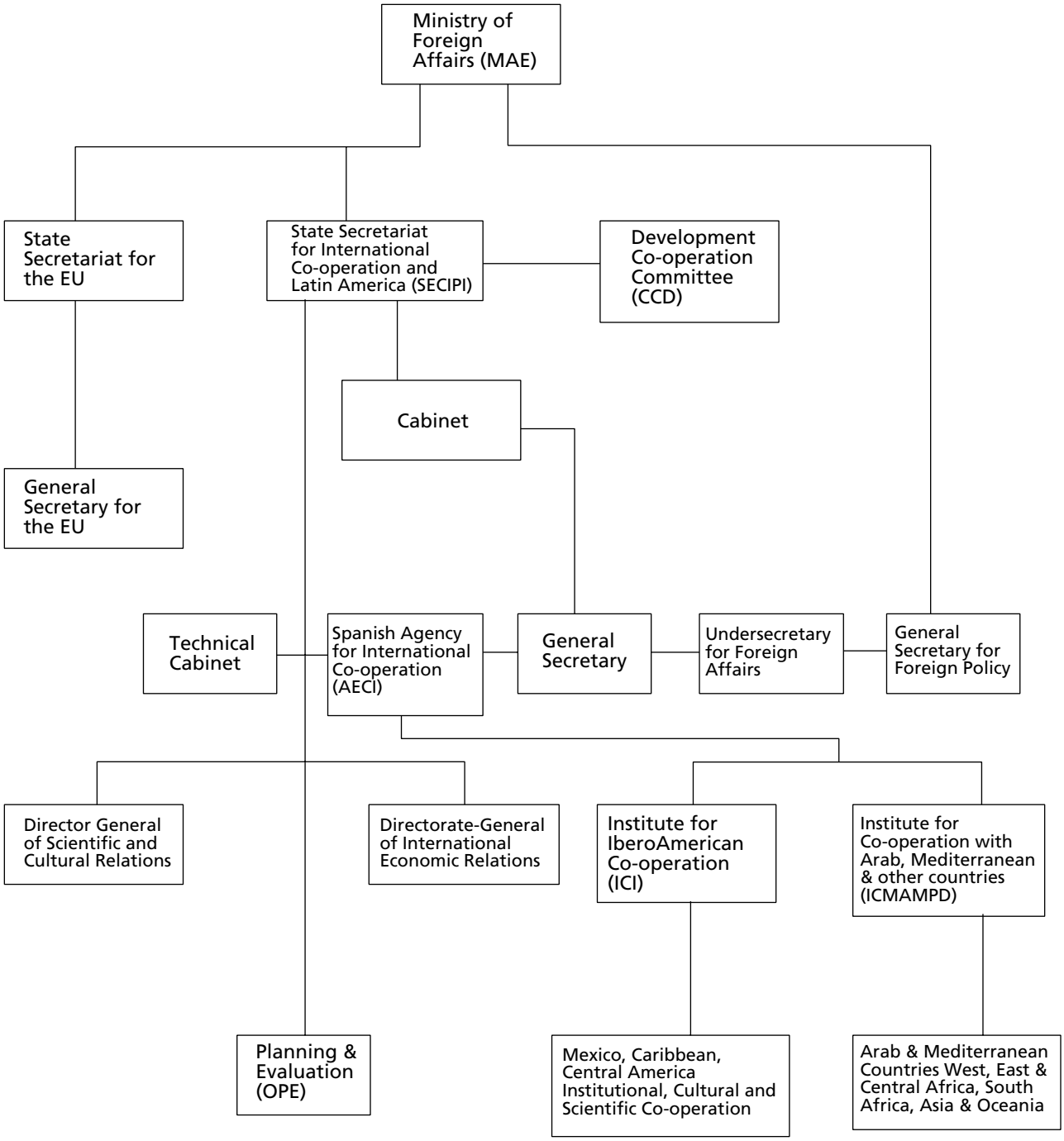
Table 1 shows that the bilateral:multilateral split of Spanish aid was about 70:30% in 1996, while in 1995 it was about 60:40%. In 1996, bilateral aid increased by about 10%, while multilateral aid fell by about 27%. In the following sections, the categories of aid of most importance for forestry are presented.

3.3 Centralised bilateral aid: technical, cultural and scientific projects

According to Table 1, this amounted to Ptas. 31 billion in 1995 and Ptas. 24 billion in 1996, equivalent to 31% and 22% of bilateral aid in 1995 and 1996 respectively. While there is no precise definition of forestry in the aid statistics, the 1996 International Co-operation Plan distinguished Ptas. 339 m. for 'environmental protection', Ptas. 86 m. for 'silviculture', and Ptas. 105 m. for 'conservation and soil improvement'.

The project identification process is primarily reactive. Projects are initially proposed by national agencies via the country's Spanish Technical Co-operation desk, and then provisionally appraised in Spain by aid

Figure 1: Centralised Spanish Aid Structure



officials and technical experts in the Ministries. There is no forestry or environmental budget line, so forestry must compete with other sectors in the bilateral Mixed Commissions. In these, high ranking state officials from Spain and the partner country meet every two or three years, in alternating venues, to consult about the list of provisionally approved projects, the country's needs, and how these can be matched with Spain's aid priorities. Projects that reach the Mixed Commission stage are rarely rejected. 24 Mixed Commission agreements were signed over the 1994–95 period.

Since AECI has no in-house forestry or environmental expertise, a range of outsiders are called in at different points in the aid delivery process – NGO staff, academics, Ministry technical staff, private consultants, etc. Sometimes NGOs and recipient countries propose local country experts, but the preference is for Spanish citizens. Consulting companies have played a generally minor role in aid delivery – they have occasionally been called in for specific projects where appropriate skills have not been located within the public sector.

3.4 Decentralised aid

This component of bilateral aid, which only started in 1990, refers to commitments by Regional governments and local councils. Table 1 indicates that this amounted to Ptas. 14.7 billion in 1995 and Ptas. 17.7 billion in 1996, representing 14.5% and 16% of bilateral aid respectively. According to MAE data, in 1996 some Ptas. 560 m. of this decentralised aid was in the 'Agriculture, silviculture and fisheries' category, and Ptas. 174 m. was in the 'Protection of the environment' category.

Table 1. Spanish Official Development Assistance: expenditure 1991–96 (millions of pesetas)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
• Contributions to the EU	33,007	35,122	35,734	44,722	41,184	34,085
• International Financial Organisations	14,958	3,681	7,433	7,403	17,050	2,684
• International non-Financial Organisations	4,094	4,064	3,757	8,338	8,320	12,061
Total Multilateral	**52,059**	**42,867**	**46,924**	**60,463**	**66,554**	**48,830**
Soft Loans	53,805	86,982	94,926	80,021	35,292	40,212
Non-reimbursable	25,261	25,614	24,003	32,796	66,255	71,403
• Debt rescheduling	—	—	406	8,972	7,608	15,261
• Technical, cultural and scientific projects	17,812	17,813	14,758	16,649[a]	31,040	24,005
• Food aid	1,728	371	1,184	534	432	1,683
• Emergency aid	875	483	368	511	2,435	1,611
• NGO support subsidies	2,025	3,158	3,102	3,187	10,073[a]	10,984[a]
• Decentralised cooperation	2,821	3,789	4,185	2,943	14,667[a]	17,729[a]
Total Bilateral	**79,066**	**112,596**	**118,929**	**112,817**	**101,547**	**111,485**
TOTAL oda	**131,125**	**155,463**	**165,853**	**173,280**	**168,101**	**160,315**
Percentage GNP	0.24%	0.27%	0.28%	0.27%	0.24%	0.22%

[a] Estimated figures

(Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs)

Regional governments were formed gradually during the 1980s, but it is only very recently that all 17 Regional governments have had aid budgets. Andalucia has the most important aid programme for tropical forestry, with 5.7% of its aid over the 1992–95 period committed to forestry and environmental projects, as compared with the Basque Country, which had the largest aid budget among the Regional governments, and spent only 0.8% on forestry and environmental projects. Navarra and Cataluña also had significant (general) aid programmes. AECI has promoted joint agreements with 12 Regional governments, organised seminars for Regional government aid officials, and allowed them to take part in the bilateral Mixed Commissions. Also, since 1991 both Regional governments and local councils have participated in the elaboration of the annual aid plans (PACIs).

No less than 124 local councils have undertaken an aid project of some sort. The most important have been Madrid (Ptas. 1,665 m. in 1994), Barcelona, Zaragoza, Seville and Vitoria-Gasteiz. Even some parish councils have participated, like the Catalan village of Arbucies (4,602 people), which dedicated 1.4% of its budget to aid in 1993 (CONPGD, 1994). Interest began with the twinning of towns and villages. By 1996, 34 local councils had committed 0.7% or more of their budget to aid.

The main aid delivery 'actors' in decentralised aid have been NGOs. Andalucian government projects are implemented by a number of agencies: public institutions, universities and NGOs in partner countries, often with the support of Spanish NGOs and universities.

3.5 Aid through Non-Governmental Organisations

Table 1 shows that there has recently been a sharp increase in the proportion of aid going to NGOs as 'support and subsidies', rising from 2–3% of bilateral aid in the 1991 to 1994 period to about 10% in 1995 and 1996, or Ptas. 10–11 billion in absolute terms. It is estimated that forestry and environmental projects accounted for about 6% of this NGO aid in 1995. Although the subsidies under the aid programme are important for their work (15% of their total budget in 1993), development NGOs draw most of their funding from their own funds (56%), as well as from the EC (14%), donations (7%), Regional governments (6%) and local councils (2%).

In recent years, NGOs have become important actors in the aid programme, particularly in their policy lobbying role. NGOs can bid for funds from two budgets: the first, published each Spring, comprises SECIPI funds managed by MAE, while the second, published in the Autumn, comprises the 'Social Fund'. Taxpayers can specify, if they wish, that 20% of their tax should go to the Catholic Church or the Social Fund. The latter currently amounts to about Ptas. 2.5 billion per year (FCD, 1996), although only a proportion of this is channelled into overseas development projects. Box 1 summarises the development of NGOs in Spain, and indicates their heterogeneous and sometimes conflicting nature.

NGOs usually employ local expertise unless SECIPI conditions insist on the use of Spanish nationals. Spanish NGO staff are involved in project selection, and occasional monitoring and evaluation visits. Some NGOs have a system of 'volunteer brigades' in which Spanish volunteers spend time on projects.

3.6 Loans

While soft loans with a 1–2% interest rate comprised as much as 36% of development aid in 1996, since 1995 only two soft loans (1–2% rate of interest) to forestry projects were identified, both orientated to the processing sector – financing three saw mills and a carpentry workshop in Guinea Bissau.

3.7 Multilateral aid

The major component of Spain's multilateral aid since the late 1980s has been its contribution to the EU aid budget – usually about 25% of Spain's total aid budget. Various ministries make contributions to multilateral organisations, most significantly to UNEP (Ptas. 108 m. per annum over the 1994–96 period), IUCN (Ptas. 24 m. per annum) and ITTO (Ptas. 8.1 m. per annum). Although multilateral contributions are usually fixed by international agreements, Spain has often tried to attach conditions, for example it has tried to get its multilateral EU contributions channelled more to Latin America (MAE, 1990: 447).

4. FORESTRY AND ENVIRONMENTAL AID STRATEGY

4.1 Forestry and environmental aid initiatives in the 1980s

The first major tropical forestry initiative was a 1981 'Co-operation in Forestry and Nature Conservation Programme'. According to ICI (1981), this constituted "the start of a huge co-operation plan with Latin America in forestry and nature conservation", to be coordinated by the Ministry of Agriculture through the *Instituto para la Conservación de la Naturaleza* (the Institute for Nature Conservation – ICONA).[3] The programmed budget for 1982–84 was Ptas. 75 m. The emphasis was on technical assistance, exchanges, training, project design missions, and private sector collaboration in support of three sub-programme objectives:

- strengthening the capacity of forestry administrations to manage natural resources;
- utilisation, creation and industrialisation of renewable natural resources;
- nature conservation.

During 1981 various 'Co-operation Agreements' were signed with countries such as Honduras, Costa Rica and Mozambique. While ICI (1981) emphasised the nature conservation aspects of these agreements, it was clear that the main emphasis was on production forestry. However, the only substantial activity to emerge from the 1981 Programme seems to have been a series of project identification missions or 'study trips' to Colombia, Costa Rica, Honduras, Ecuador and Peru (ICONA, 1983). Some of the project ideas were absorbed into later aid projects, indicating that the Programme might have lived on under another guise.

The fact that the 1981 Programme never really materialised, and the lack of references indicating strategic thinking on tropical forestry, may reflect the period of uncertainty that Spanish forestry experienced during the 1980s, when it underwent major administrative, philosophical and practical changes as a result of the regional devolution of forestry responsibilities and the impacts of new environmental thinking. The 1980s witnessed a huge upsurge in environmental awareness in Spain, as pulp plantation projects were questioned in Parliament, and ICONA, with greatly reduced forestry powers, began to acquire a greener image through its involvement in the prevention of forest fires, National Park management plans and Tropical Forest Action Plans.

Box 1. Evolution of the NGO sector

The first development NGOs in Spain, with the exception of the Red Cross (1864), were closely linked to the Catholic Church. These disbursed school, health and material aid in addition to missionary work. In the 1950s and 1960s, new non-missionary and more development-orientated Christian NGOs appeared, such as Intermon, IEPALA, and Manos Unidos. A 'third generation' of NGOs, including several international NGOs like Friends of the Earth, have been more concerned with integrated development projects and attempts to influence structural problems. From 1981 to 1990, 51 new development NGOs were founded.

In 1983, the larger NGOs established a national body, the *Coordinadora*, both to help coordinate their activities and to formally represent themselves in dealings with the Government. While there are currently some 80 NGOs in the *Coordinadora*, Spain has more than 150 other development NGOs, many of them very small. Some NGOs have criticised this huge increase in small NGOs. Intermon (1996) states that "the proliferation of small NGOs with no grassroots and high dependence on public money does not help the need for adequate consultation with the authorities". While recognising this potential problem, smaller NGOs consider the larger groups to have become bureaucratic and to have hindered the initiatives of smaller groups. Some 15 development NGOs control nearly all the private resources.

(Sources: Felipe and Rodriguez, 1995, Intermon, 1996)

4.2. Centralised aid strategy

4.2.1 General sectoral priorities

In 1989, the State Secretary of CICI stated that aid had a dual purpose: solidarity with developing countries and defence of Spanish interests (MAE, 1990: 446). General sectoral priorities for aid were established by SECIPI in 1987. These were as follows:

- agriculture
- health
- teaching Spanish
- professional training
- support for institutional development
- infrastructure development.

In addition, CICI annually approves 'guidelines' for Spanish aid. The 1996 guidelines were to:

3. Despite its name, ICONA was Spain's central forestry authority up to 1996. Forestry is now handled by the newly created Ministry of Environment.

- concentrate on human development in war zones and least developed countries
- contribute to economic development, in the context of self-sustaining growth and development
- promote geographical concentration and sectoral specialisation to guarantee the maximum impact of any programme
- promote 'integrated co-operation' (coordinating public and private interests in aid)
- give consideration to the environmental impact of projects
- give importance to women
- integrate programmes related to debt rescheduling.

Since forestry has not been considered to be a subsector of agriculture, it has therefore not been part of SECIPI's sectoral prioritisation (agriculture has anyway not surpassed 4% of bilateral aid).

4.2.2 Importance and definition of tropical forestry

While there are great difficulties in the identification of 'forestry' aid, as discussed below, data presented in Section 5.2 indicates that, even using a very broad definition of forestry (for example including protected area projects), a maximum of 0.4% of the aid budget can be estimated as going to forestry-related projects. This contrasts starkly with estimates by aid officials that forestry projects consume 5–10% of the aid budget. There are a number of possible explanations for this discrepancy, including aid officials' inaccurate knowledge of the true situation, an attempt to include the forestry components of integrated rural development projects, training programmes and other more general projects, and the desire to present a green image of Spanish aid.

There has been a large variation in official terminology over the years. In some aid documents, a global classification of 'agriculture, livestock and forestry' is used, in others 'agriculture' and 'environment' are put together, while in others more specific terms like 'silviculture' are used. The view of some AECI officials is that it was never the intention to separate out forestry. Biodiversity conservation and protected area projects are never included in the term 'forestry', which is regarded in aid circles as being virtually synonymous with 'reforestation', reflecting the predominant domestic use of the term. The term 'environment' in aid statistics mainly refers to 'defensive' conservation projects, but may or may not include reforestation, forest management, forest training, etc., as well as some non-forestry projects like solar energy.

4.2.3 Strategies and trends in forestry and environmental aid

In general, forest projects have comprised one-off actions or been part of a multi-sectoral approach, as with integrated rural development projects. The selection of projects has been basically demand-led, as discussed in Section 3.3. Explanations for this lack of forestry policy or strategy can be found in the weak coordination of the state aid agencies, lack of in-house forestry expertise and thus a dependence on external advisers brought in on an *ad hoc* basis, and the devolution process which has resulted in the regionalisation of domestic forest policy; the lack of a tropical forestry policy partly reflects the lack of a unified domestic forest policy. A current statement on tropical forestry was complicated by the 1996 transfer of forestry authority from the Ministry of Agriculture to the new Ministry of Environment.

The terminology used in aid documents indicates a shift in priorities. There is now less use of 'reforestation', and there are attempts, above all by NGOs and Regional governments, to link reforestation to social forestry, support forest conservation, and integrate forestry with other rural development activities. Secondly, the use of such terms as 'biodiversity', 'biosphere' and 'ecotourism' has increased. In fact the first SECIPI documents referred to environmental issues as 'habitat' and only from 1993 was the term 'environmental protection' used. Some recent projects show evidence of more 'progressive' thinking, for example a project to help farmers manage wildlife, and projects targeted at women.

Notwithstanding the definitional problems, it is clear that 'environmental' actions have been better resourced than 'forestry'. While the importance of some areas of traditional forestry expenditure, such as agroforestry and reforestation, has persisted, the emphasis in Spain's aid budget has moved towards 'defensive' conservation expenditure, with relatively less emphasis on forest management initiatives. Also, in view of insufficient resources for sustained support, the policy has been to provide seed money for larger projects (eg to help develop a Park management plan that can then be submitted to a larger donor like the EC).

It is also important to mention the importance of integrated rural development (IRD) projects in Spanish aid – there have been nearly a hundred since 1989, many with important forestry or environmental components. For example, from 1991 to 1995, preliminary studies were carried out on a Ptas. 750 m. (more than the combined annual commitment for forestry and environmental projects) IRD project in the El Kheirat Wadi, Tunisia, with major erosion control and agri-silvopastoral components.

4.2.4 Influences on strategic thinking

A number of influences on the evolution of Spain's forestry aid programme can be identified as follows:

- democratisation: strong public interest in nature conservation (eg in ornithology) has emerged through the political system during the last 20 years, especially via the NGOs;
- the TFAP process: from 1989 to 1991, Spain funded TFAP meetings in seven Latin American countries, and some TFAP projects such as the planning and management of National Parks in Panama in 1995;
- the 1992 UNCED Conference: at Rio, the Spanish President underlined the fact that development and the environment are linked, and that this should be reflected in the aid programme (Recio, 1993). Also, since Rio all projects should be analysed for their possible environmental impacts, and particular attention paid to biodiversity as Spain is a

Table 2. **Geographical spread of Spanish Official Development Assistance 1989–95 (%)**

	Latin America	Africa (non Arab)	Middle East & Maghreb	Asia & Pacific	Others
1989	53.1	21.7	7.7	7.2	10.2
1990	27.9	20.2	15.7	24.3	11.8
1991	47.1	17.9	7.0	0.7	27.4
1992	41.3	12.4	22.6	19.2	4.5
1993	51.4	7.9	10.8	24.4	5.5
1994	47.6	12.1	9.4	26.0	4.9
1995	51.5	10.1	11.7	16.1	11.0

(Source: SECIPI, various years)

signatory to the Biodiversity Convention;
- forest fires: the severe domestic problem of forest fires has reinforced an interest in protected areas, encouraged by multilateral initiatives such as UNESCO's Man and the Biosphere programme;
- timber certification and the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC): Spanish forest authorities have participated in several international meetings on timber certification during the 1990s.

4.2.5 Regional and country selection

Spain's first official aid plan referred to the need to help the least developed countries, while emphasising that 'special consideration' should be given to Latin America. Accordingly the following medium term plan for aid distribution was drawn up: 45% to Latin America; 38% to Africa; 9% to the Asia/Pacific region; 4% to the Middle East; and 4% to other countries (SECIPI, 1986).

Table 2 shows that since 1989, Latin America has generally received about half the bilateral aid budget. Africa's share had gradually fallen to 10% in 1995, while aid to other regions had been very variable – for example, the Asia and Pacific region received 24% in 1990 and less than 1% in 1991.

NGOs have been critical of the small proportion of aid going to the poorest countries (González Parada *et al*, 1995; Intermon, 1996), but have themselves also concentrated (with or without SECIPI financing[4]) on Latin America: 60% of all projects by members of the *Coordinadora* of NGOs were carried out there in 1993, and 57% in 1995 (CONPGD, 1994 and 1996).

Official documents (eg, MAE, 1990: 443) and almost all central and local government officials interviewed considered Latin America to be the logical choice for Spanish aid. This is partly due to a fear that other countries will penetrate Spain's Latin American market, as revealed in a parliamentary question (MAE, 1989: 528). Aid allocation to individual countries results from a combination of international geo-politics, the relative capacity of national authorities, the strength of national green lobbies/NGOs, the presence of a Spanish adviser, and occasionally the personalities involved in the projects (Recio, 1993). Geopolitics can have a marked impact on aid distribution; for example, the Rwanda crisis resulted in a big increase in Spanish NGO activity, but only while the Spanish public maintained its interest.

4.2.6 Technical advisory inputs

Currently there is no forestry or environmental specialist in the aid agencies. After the UNCED Conference, AECI employed an environmental lawyer for two years to coordinate environmental projects in Latin America, but he dealt more with administrative issues, relying for technical advice on ICONA. The Planning and Evaluation Office of SECIPI employed an environmentalist briefly in 1992, but she went on secondment overseas, returned briefly in 1996, and is now based in the Ministry of Environment. Thus all technical forestry advice is currently provided by Ministries, universities and consultants.

4.3 Decentralised aid strategies

Regional government aid priorities have generally reflected local priority issues. Andalucia's official number one aid priority is 'environmental protection'. This is due to various influences including experience since devolution in the creation of various National Parks in Andalucia, a Biosphere Reserve, forest plans, etc., UNCED and the global Biodiversity Convention (Molina Vazquez, 1995). By contrast, most other Regional governments have supported more traditional 'forestry' activities, especially reforestation, nurseries and agroforestry.

Regional governments tend to rely on project requests from national governments, AECI and NGOs, so again this is a mainly reactive approach. However, the impact that a dynamic individual can have in promoting a more pro-active strategy is clear in Andalucia, where the energy and vision of one individual (an environmentalist) has been the dominant factor in shaping the programme. On country selection, Andalucia has had no particular strategy apart from a concern for expediency in implementation; it has proved easier to work in Venezuela, Panama, Costa Rica and Nicaragua, than in Guatemala and Morocco (F. Molina Vazquez, pers. comm.).

In the case of local councils, forestry comes under 'production', which accounted for 6.4% of total local council aid in 1995, and is not regarded as a priority

4. In 1995, 57% of SECIPI funds to NGOs went to projects in Latin America, 17% to non-Arab Africa, 13% to Middle-East/Maghreb, 2% to Asia/Pacific and 11% to other regions.

area in the same way as education, health and housing (FEMP, 1996).

4.4 NGO strategies

In general, forestry is not a priority for most NGOs, as opposed to health, education, etc. Most forestry projects and lobbying come from a small group of more environmentally-orientated NGOs, such as *Bosque y Comunidad* (Forestry and Community), IPADE, Intermon, CODESPA, Friends of the Earth, ACNUR, *Ayuda en Acción*, *Veterinarios sin Fronteras*, and *Amazonia Solidaridat*. Information derived from a questionnaire to NGOs about their forestry and environmental activities revealed some interesting trends:

- most NGOs felt that the environment should be a basic component of all actions, and it is not normally treated as a separate activity;
- they increasingly target indigenous communities;
- reforestation has been re-oriented to local community use (above all for firewood) as opposed to more commercial aims;
- increasing interest in the development of local ecotourism and control of commercial tourism.

These NGOs have developed into a significant forest policy lobby in recent years. NGO lobbying was one reason behind the creation of the *Consejo de Cooperación al Desarrollo* (Council for Development Cooperation – CDC) in July 1995, through which NGOs hoped to improve the quality of Spanish aid (Felipe and Rodríguez, 1995). The CDC is supposed to meet at least four times a year to:

- fix aid criteria and priorities;
- analyse and comment on the annual aid plans and any proposed aid legislation;
- plan and carry out periodic evaluation of aid projects.

NGOs, who fill 6 of the 27 committee seats, have been critical of CDC: its members have only an advisory role, and the body appears to lack 'political clout'. The new (1996) government is likely to reform it.

5. PROJECTS FUNDED BY TYPE AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

5.1 Classification of forestry and environmental projects in centralised aid

As discussed in Section 4.2.2, 'forestry' is difficult to define from the aid statistics. The projects have therefore been re-classified here according to the project name and any other available information. Anything coming under biodiversity conservation, protected areas, ecotourism, ecological management, environmental education, etc., is classified under 'environmental', reflecting the Spanish preference for this term, while energy and health-related environmental projects have been excluded.

Because of the definitional problems in the aid statistics, there is a permeable distinction between the forestry and environment categories. This is also partly due to the multiple objectives of some projects. For example, the 'Talamanca-Caribe Biological corridor' project, classified as 'environmental', included a subproject on sustainable forest management. Integrated rural development projects have been left out of the analysis because of the disaggregation problem, in spite of their often significant forestry and/or agroforestry components.

5.2 Thematic distribution of projects

5.2.1 Mainly centralised aid

Table 3 presents a breakdown of financial commitments over the 1990 to 1996 period by type of 'forestry' project, and Table 4 by type of 'environmental' project for all the forestry and environmental projects it was possible to identify. These tables include some regional government and NGO projects financed from the aid budget, but 84% of forestry project expenditure and 92% of environmental project expenditure reported here corresponds to centralised as opposed to decentralised aid, implying that the latter is under-reported in these data.

According to the identified forestry projects, the average annual forestry commitment was Ptas. 126 m. over the 1990–96 period. It can be observed from Table 3 that the most important project categories were agroforestry (30%) and reforestation (24%), while 'subericulture' or cork cultivation/science (12%), courses on forest fires (9.5%), 'sustainable forestry' (8%), and forest industry (6%) were on a second level of importance. There are no strong trends apart from a significant increase in subericulture, and a slight fall in reforestation. The most common projects were forest fire courses, agroforestry and reforestation.

Table 4 shows on 'environmental' projects an average annual expenditure of Ptas. 323 m. The most important project categories were national parks and biosphere reserves (23%), environmental education (18%), 'territorial planning' (land-use planning) (15%), 'environmental and natural resource management' (11%) and wetland management (6%).

Observable trends have been an increase in aid for defensive conservation actions and environmental education over the last four years, while other categories assuming greater importance have been environmental legislation, ecotourism, wetland management, 'agro-ecological development', flora and fauna inventories and sanctuaries, and environmental funds. The main category to decline in relative importance has been land-use planning. Parks, courses and wildlife sanctuaries have been the most common projects to receive support.

Combining the average annual expenditures for forestry and environmental projects from Tables 3 and 4 indicates the proportion of the aid budget going to forestry and related projects to be slightly less than 0.4% of average annual oda (expenditure) over the 1991–96 period (see Table 1).

5.2.2 Decentralised aid projects

For Andalucia, the emphasis has also been on defensive environmental expenditure, as shown in a list (not exhaustive) of projects supported (Molina Velazquez, 1995):

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Table 3: Spanish 'forestry' aid by type of project 1990–96 (thousands of pesetas)

Forestry	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996 (prov)	Total 1990–6	% Total
Agro-forestry	8500		24459	76300	54781	21000	71200	256239	30.0
Reforestation/ plantations	2628	33968	56938	32715	45644	20000	17800	209693	23.7
Subericulture					5000	28265	75000	108265	12.2
Forest fire courses	9723	11319	17084	7120	3168	11500	23682	83595	9.5
Sustainable forestry			6000	45000		11000	7000	69000	7.8
Forest industry		5821	14560	10000	20000	6165		56546	6.4
Forest hydrology courses				6575			12000	18575	2.1
Forest roads					16075			16075	1.8
Forest training				6800	3204		6000	16004	1.8
Habitat and reforestation						15050		15050	1.7
Forest nurseries/ Reforestation					4000	10100		14100	1.6
Defence of the Amazonian Ecosystem						10000		10000	1.1
Forest development						4000		4000	0.5
Courses on reforestation	2100							2100	0.2
Forest planning				1542				1542	0.2
TFAP debate	850	550						1400	0.2
Forest system research	361							361	0.04
Degradation native forest	282							282	0.03
Total	**24444**	**51658**	**119041**	**186053**	**151871**	**137080**	**212682**	**882828**	

- planning and property rights in protected areas, including Biosphere Reserves (Dominican Republic, Cuba, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela);
- public use of protected areas/ecotourism (Venezuela, Dominican Republic);
- protection of endangered species (Venezuela);
- study of fauna/flora (Morocco);
- protection of the pinsapo pine (Morocco);
- sustainable forest management (Guatemala, Colombia);
- management plan for a flamingo sanctuary (Colombia);
- seed money for consolidation of protected areas (Venezuela);
- collaboration in national biodiversity strategies (Uruguay);
- environmental education (Uruguay);
- volunteer collaboration and 'expert exchanges' in national parks (Costa Rica).

Other Regional governments have tended to support more traditional forestry activities, especially tree nurseries and reforestation. The following list of projects, many of which were implemented through NGOs, also shows the popularity of carpentry workshops, partly because this type of project is small and relatively uncomplicated for busy local government staff to manage:

- Basque: production plantations, forest roads, carpentry workshop and agroforestry;
- Madrid: forestry-livestock cooperative, carpentry workshop and reforestation/nurseries;
- Cataluña: carpentry workshop, reforestation/nurseries, defence of the Amazonian ecosystem;
- Valencia: reforestation, forestry and livestock production;
- Navarra: carpentry workshops and nurseries;
- Galicia: agroforestry and watershed management;
- Extramadura: strategy for biodiversity conservation and protected areas.

Identifiable local council forestry projects, the vast

Table 4: Spanish environmental aid by type of project 1990–6 (thousands of pesetas)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996 (prov.)	Total 1990–6	% Total
Parks and Biosphere Reserves	35809	23341	89151	66073	70295	97873	136058	518600	22.4
Environmental education & awareness		500		62078	79934	133500	125371	401383	18.1
'Ecological Territorial Planning'	49538	126296	56000	92850	3000			327684	14.3
Environment & natural resource management	8248	49372	20181	58049	27620	34573	39155	237558	10.7
Wetland management				32650	3000	94872		130522	5.9
Watershed management & agro-planning			26786	20527	21014	47748	12660	128735	5.8
Agro-ecological and eco-development				3048	35000	131204		169288	7.6
Ecotourism				33560	2500	10000	13260	59680	2.7
Environmental legislation			1600		6000		35000	42600	1.9
Flora/fauna inventories	14000			1816	2728	12500		31044	1.4
Biodiversity			13143	6900	1500	6510		28053	1.3
Energy, environment and development			3600		6500	16929		27029	1.2
Sustainable development and environment				10000		5401	20000	35401	1.6
Flora/fauna sanctuaries	500		4100	375	2670	3000	10000	20645	0.9
EIA courses	6695			11324		272		18291	0.8
Inventory				4500	3500	8994		16994	0.8
Environmental funds							15000	15000	0.7
Environmental seminars					5500	5070		10570	0.5
Biogas plants					8500			8500	0.4
Courses				4616				4616	0.2
Private sector promotion						4000		4000	0.2
Women, environment and health						3000		3000	0.1
Wildlife management and farmers					362	1288	427	2077	0.1
Desertification				1100				1100	0.1
Totals	**114790**	**199869**	**214561**	**409502**	**279623**	**616734**	**407291**	**2242371**	

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majority of which are implemented through NGOs, show a strong similarity to Regional government projects:

- Valladolid: carpentry training workshop (Nicaragua); reafforestation (Peru);
- Barcelona: river and green belt protection (Ecuador); forest nursery (Nicaragua);
- Fons Catalá: nurseries and reforestation; environmental education and reforestation (both Nicaragua);
- Molins de Rei: nursery for reforestation (Nicaragua);
- Logroño: sawmill and carpentry workshop (Zaire); afforestation and pasture recovery (Peru); women and use of stoves/forest (Guatemala);
- four councils combined: firewood production and reforestation projects (Guatemala).

5.2.3 NGO projects

NGOs use classifications like 'agriculture' and 'integrated development' rather than environment, which is expected to be a component of all projects. Identification of forestry projects therefore proved difficult. However, Table 5, which lists the forestry and environmental projects funded by SECIPI in 1995, indicates an emphasis on 'defensive' conservation projects.

In contrast, non-SECIPI projects identified through a questionnaire reflect the close links between NGOs and decentralised aid:

- *Veterinarios sin Fronteras*: promoting women's participation in a reforestation project as part of a larger IRD project (Guatemala);
- *Ayuda en Acción*: tree nurseries, reforestation and environmental education (Nicaragua); ecotourism (Ecuador);
- *Bosque y Comunidad*: indigenous forestry (Chile); agroforestry (Peru); forest germplasm bank (Bolivia); a planned 'social forestry' project (Mozambique);
- ACNUR (UNHCR)-España: forest inventory, reforestation, mobile sawmill, forest machinery (Guatemala);
- YPE: recovery of native seeds, including tree seeds (Brazil);
- ACSUR – Las Segovias: eco-tourism in Biosphere Reserve (Nicaragua);
- Intermon: forestry and livestock production (Ecuador);
- IFADE: community reforestation and sustainable management (Philippines);
- BATA-CIC: agroforestry/rural development project (Cuba).

5.3 Regional distribution of projects

The geographical distribution of forestry and environmental projects follows similar tendencies, as shown in Table 6. Latin American countries dominate projects of all kinds, apart from some cork processing, rural planning and park projects in the Maghreb countries. Within Latin America, there has been an uneven distribution of forestry projects.Venezuela, Nicaragua and Guatemala have been particular beneficiaries, the latter two especially from decentralised aid and NGOs.

6. TRAINING AND RESEARCH

Spain supports several international research and training programmes with forestry and environmental components, some of which are not included in the aid statistics. Three of the more important ones are the Latin American Science and Technology Development Programme (CYTED), Intercampus and the Latin America Academic Training project, which was set up with EC finance in 1994, with environmental training as a high priority.

CYTED is a multilateral programme created in 1984 in association with 21 Latin American countries. Its aim is to facilitate technological R & D through coordination and co-operation between universities, research centres and innovative companies in Latin America,

Table 5. NGO forestry/environmental projects funded with central Spanish aid funds in 1995

Country	NGO	Project description	Ptas. million
Tunisia	ACPP	Sustainable management Mediter. woods	7
Costa Rica	AEDMAR	Conservation of marine turtles	4
Mauritania	A migos Doana	Conservation and eco-development	3.2
Equat. Guinea	A migos Doana	Conservation and eco-development	33
Paraguay	A migos Doana	Wetland conservation & ecodevelopment	26
Dominica	IEPALA	Sustainable development in Jaragua Park	40
Mauritania	MON 3	Postgraduate agro-ecology course	3.6
Mexico	Paz y Solidaridad	Sustainable develop. lake system & selva	32.4
Nicaragua	ISF	Agro-ecological develop. in dry tropics	80
Mauritania	MON 3	Ecological recovery of oasis	8.5
Total NGO budget funded by SECIPI			237.7

(Source: SECIPI, 1996)

Table 6. Geographical distribution of Spanish forestry and environmental aid 1989–1995

	% of forestry (100%) and environmental (100%) aid in each year[a]							
	Latin America		Africa		M.East/Maghreb		Asia/Pacific	
	For.	Env.	For.	Env.	For.	Env.	For.	Env.
1989	91.2	67.3	—	17.6	—	—	—	—
1990	100	39.6	—	—	—	60.4	—	—
1991	100	33.9	—	—	—	66.1	—	—
1992	85.1	78.5	8.3	1.6	5.0	19.9	—	—
1993	69.9	98.8	5.4	—	—	1.2	25	—
1994	58.3	80.4	38.1	15.8	—	3.0	—	—
1995	74.3	85.2	—	7.0	25.7	4.3	—	3.5

[a] Including subsidies to NGOs

(Source: SECIPI, various years.)

Spain and Portugal. Financing for national research teams, networks and research projects comes from a variety of sources including Spain, Portugal and the Inter-American Development Bank. Examples of important CYTED initiatives include:

- support for several research networks: the 'Rational exploitation of forest resources' network; the Tropical and Sub-tropical Mountain Network; the Pasture and Savannah Biodiversity network; the Coastal and Mangrove Ecosystems Network; and the Iberoamerican Biosphere Network;
- research on animal and plant communities along the Negro and Amazon rivers, Brazil;
- helping a Spanish/Uruguayan joint company venture to develop forest planning and management models.

Intercampus was set up in 1994 and financed by AECI to provide exchanges between Latin American and Spanish universities. In 1995, about 7% of the exchange offers from Spanish universities were related to agronomy or forest sciences, and 1.6% to ecology and the environment. For Spaniards going to Latin American universities, the percentages were 7.7% and 1.8% respectively.

The Latin America Academic Training programme is planning to introduce the Tropical Forestry and Agroforestry Network for Research and Education (RIETA-1), involving Spain's main forestry training school, and four Central American and six European institutions. The basic objective is to strengthen the teaching and research capacities of the participating institutions (Alfonso San Miguel, ETSIM, pers. comm.).

Additionally, various research and training programmes are sometimes included in Spanish aid, for example 'Ecological planning of Las Tuxtlas Sierra' in Mexico, involving finance from the Andalucia government and the participation of three Madrid universities. AECI also occasionally provides training grants for Latin American foresters.

In Spain, the *Escuela Tecnica Superior de Ingenieros de Montes* (Higher Technical School for Forest Engineers – ETSIM), Madrid, and the University of Lugo run tropical forest management courses.

7. PROJECT CYCLE METHODOLOGY

7.1 Centralised aid

In general, aid procedures have only been formalised since 1989 when the Planning and Evaluation Office (OPE) of SECIPI was set up. The normal procedure is for a country to propose a series of projects to SECIPI or AECI via the technical co-operation offices in each country. Since 1994, these projects are supposed to be presented with a log framework. The projects are subject to an initial appraisal in which each project is assessed in terms of its technical feasibility and against SECIPI's aid criteria. Appraisal is undertaken by both AECI officials and appropriate government department staff, or sometimes consultants, as well as by counterpart Ministries. ICONA officials have often been asked to assess forestry-related proposals. Consultants are only occasionally (20–30% of cases at most) brought into the process, due to the cost – Ministry staff time is not costed to the aid programme.

Projects are referred to the Mixed Commissions (see Section 3.3) only when given the green light by the AECI and external experts, and after the MAE has considered whether Spain will finance all or only part of a project. This will depend on how much it thinks the partner country should pay, and on co-financing possibilities with Regional governments, local councils or even NGOs.

Monitoring is limited to project reporting by the AECI in-country desk officer, and occasional project visits by aid officials. Country desk officers often make evaluation-type reports (see Section 8.3). Each AECI desk officer in Madrid is responsible for 'follow-up' in two or three countries. The lack of evaluation in practice is mainly attributed to the lack of procedures, unsystematic use of the log-frame, and lack of technical expertise and/or resources. However, reforms in the pipeline should remedy this situation (Blanca Rodriguez, OPE, pers. comm.).

7.2 Decentralised aid

Regional government projects operating through agreements with AECI tend to employ the centralised aid methodology, but those implemented by NGOs are subject to fewer procedures. Some Regional governments run yearly grant systems for NGOs, with more or less standardised application forms and reporting requirements. Each project funded by the Andalucia government has a manager in the Andalucia Environment Ministry, who makes occasional project visits.

Most large councils offer annual grants to NGOs, following a methodology similar to that of the AECI. However, interviews with several councils revealed dissatisfaction with project methodology. A number of larger councils, worried about their lack of trained staff, are searching for ways to improve the coordination and management of their growing aid funds. Despite attempts to coordinate council aid and finance larger projects, it is recognised that there is still "a growing tendency towards dispersion and fragmentation given the large number of municipal funds and the huge number of projects presented to these" (FEMP, 1996). Regional governments and local councils also generally rely on the implementing NGOs for monitoring and evaluation, and only rarely visit the projects themselves.

7.3 NGOs

Project methodology is strictest where SECIPI funding is involved. NGOs have to complete a comprehensive application form, which SECIPI then sends to the AECI office in the target country, which passes it on to the relevant national bodies. Each of these entities comments on the proposal, before a joint Commission of AECI and SECIPI personnel makes the funding decision.

While the legislation obliges NGOs to define "the system and means by which a project will be evaluated" (Orden 9–7–87, Article 5c), the emphasis in monitoring and evaluation is still on reporting. For example, biannual reports to SECIPI are supposed to include information on technical and economic progress. In addition, each year an aid official visits a number of selected projects.

NGO projects with no official finance tend to self-evaluate through field visits by Spain-based staff. Manos Unidas, one of the largest development NGOs, recognises that little systematic evaluation has been carried out, but efforts are now being made to 'professionalise' the evaluation process.

7.4 Constraints to more effective project cycle management

Lack of evaluation is among the main identified constraints to improved effectiveness in the aid programme. For example, the *Fundación de Cooperación* (FCD, 1996) cites 'insufficient evaluation' as a major failure of Spanish aid, while Intermon (1996) criticises the patchy evaluation of bilateral aid projects. It is also suggested that NGOs need to work towards greater participation of local communities in the project cycle, and to improve their own assessment of project impacts (Intermon, 1996). FCD (1996) also stresses the need for environmental impact assessment.

The problem of coordination among the numerous institutions involved in different parts of the aid programme, and the need to reorganise Spain's aid administration, centring it all in one body, is also pointed out by Intermon (1996). A reformed CDC might go some way to improving coordination between the aid agencies.

While in most parts of the aid programme there is considerable flexibility, the SECIPI grants to NGOs appear to be rather inflexible, leading to NGO criticism. A further NGO criticism of centralised aid is the requirement to use Spanish technical assistance and to purchase Spanish equipment.

8. PROJECT PROFILES

8.1 Centralised aid project: Guatemala agroforestry project (Sources: SECIPI, 1995 PACI follow-up document; ICI, 1993)

This project ran from June 1992 to December 1995 in two areas characterised by their critical shortages of firewood and severe environmental problems. The project finished in 1995 due to lack of finance. The project involved the following activities:

- creation of new forest nurseries;
- planting out saplings in both private (farmer) plantations and common lands;
- training courses on constructing tanks for collecting rainfall and other water; collection and processing of forest seeds; propagation of tropical fruit trees by grafting; and elaboration of Eucalyptus creams and syrup;
- participation in national-level courses;
- participation in periodic meetings of the National Commission of Forest Training and the Central American Madeleña Agroforestry Network;
- construction of 28 low-consumption firewood stoves.

The project failed to achieve its objectives, which included reforestation of 1000 ha, as Table 7 indicates.

While the Report refers to drought conditions which slowed down plantation development, there is little mention of impacts on local communities, or technical aspects like species type and plantation techniques to help guide future projects.

8.2 Decentralised aid project: Sustainable Management and Exploitation Plan for San Juan River Woodlands, Cauca Province, Colombia

Origin and objectives

This project came to the Andalucia government through the AECI Technical Co-operation Office in Colombia, following a request by the Colombian authorities. The management plan involved 60,000 ha of high value forest, subject to continued exploitation for pulp through an industrial concession which had been recently recovered by the Ministry of Environment.

The general objectives of the project, which ran over the 1995–96 period, were to contribute to the sustainable management of forest resources, and to improve

Table 7 Summary of Guatemala agroforestry project

	Individual plantations	Community plantations	Both types combined	Total
Families involved	452	1,303	57	1,812
Villages involved	20	2	4	26
Number of trees	205,753	108,698		314,451
Total reforested (ha)	70.89	41.45		112.3

standards of living by promoting sustainable resource-based livelihoods. Project outputs or activities included establishing a model for sustainable forest exploitation, and organising and training local communities.

Financing and implementation

The project was jointly financed by the Andalucian Ministry of Environment (Ptas. 10 m.), the EC (Ptas. 15 m.) and the National Institute of Natural Resources of Colombia (Ptas. 5 m.) and was due to last for two years. The project was to be implemented by the Colombian state institutions mentioned, with technical and financial support from the Andalucian Ministry of Environment, and coordinated by the Colombian AECI office.

8.3 Evaluations by AECI Peru Country Desk Officer (based on ICI, 1995)

8.3.1 Watershed management River Huancarmayo, Peru

This was a preliminary evaluation carried out in 1995 on a project begun in 1992. The main comments were as follows:

- the construction of slow formation terraces and infiltration ditches was soon completed and proved to be of benefit to most people, but there was markedly less interest in working on the more capital-intensive absorption terraces, which were also affected by budget cut-backs;
- legal problems hindered river bank work (state permission was not granted);
- targets for tree nurseries (4), afforestation (35 ha) and agroforestry (37 ha) were all achieved;
- reservoir plans and social services' aims were not achieved due to lack of funds;
- there was generally strong local participation, and even unskilled employment was welcomed; however, a constraint was the poor local understanding of watershed functions;
- participation in the tree nurseries was very positive, but it was still not clear if the nurseries were viable as community businesses;
- the project clearly strengthened local organisations with the setting up of irrigation, women, forest and soil conservation committees. A watershed committee was set up with statutes, and all communities have participated in this;
- there had been a conscious effort to promote the participation of women;
- there was a clear preference for *Eucalyptus* spp., due to their rapid growth and multiple uses. However, the Desk Officer felt that the high consumption of water and nutrients made it an inappropriate species;
- much of the agroforestry was poorly protected against livestock.

8.3.2 Integrated Rural Development project, Iquitos, Peru, 1989–95

This report was rather more critical. The main comments of the country desk officer were:

- all local people benefited in some way;
- Spanish funding arrived promptly, but the Peruvian share was always late;
- there was weak local participation in policy definition and project management;
- no attempt was made to support existing local organisations or create new ones;
- the project was deficient in several environmental aspects, such as woodland management, environmental education, and soil conservation, in spite of the clear need;
- measures to benefit women were adopted only towards the end of the project;
- the project had no overall development plan – planning was carried out on an annual basis;
- there were doubts about the long-term profitability of the production activities and the continuity of the social services introduced, suggesting the project had little chance of maintaining itself.

9. CONCLUSIONS

One of the distinguishing characteristics of Spanish forestry aid is its complex structure, with several government agencies responsible for different aspects of the centralised aid programme, and the large proportion of aid being managed on a decentralised basis and through NGOs. Political devolution to the Regions during the 1980s has resulted in some Regional governments, like Andalucia, having significant aid programmes directed to the environmental sector.

It is difficult to estimate how much aid goes to the forestry sector, because of the overlapping and changing terminology used in the aid statistics. However the data presented here indicate that forestry and forestry-related aid expenditure accounted for about 0.4% of average aid expenditure over the 1991–96 period, whereas aid officials estimate the proportion to be

5–10%. While this is almost certainly an overestimate, it is based on an assessment of all forestry-related aid in different parts of the aid budget which are not sectorally defined, such as the much-favoured integrated rural development projects, education and training programmes, etc. Forestry is therefore likely to be considerably more important than the aid statistics would suggest.

The emphasis in Spanish forestry aid has traditionally been on reforestation, nurseries, agroforestry, training courses and other traditional forestry activities which reflect recent domestic concerns. However, in recent years there has been an observable trend towards socially and environmentally oriented projects, in which forestry is seen as part of a multi-sectoral approach aimed at rural livelihoods, equity goals and biodiversity conservation. In particular there has been a trend towards 'defensive' conservation projects related to protected areas, so that 'environmental' aid has become more significant than 'forestry'. This trend has developed as NGOs and greener Regional governments like Andalucia have increased their influence, and due to various factors related to the 1992 Earth Summit, for example Spain's responsibility as a signatory to the Biodiversity Convention. NGOs like *Bosque y Comunidad* have also had some influence in introducing a greater social orientation, for example working with indigenous peoples and making reforestation projects more responsive to local needs. The Government of Andalucia has been particularly prominent in taking up the mantle of biodiversity conservation, reflecting the influence of a dynamic environmental officer.

A generally reactive approach has been adopted to project type and country selection. Much seems to depend on who demands what, and how effectively requests are channelled through aid offices in recipient countries – primarily Latin America. Reasons for the lack of a tropical forestry policy or strategy include the lack of in-house expertise, lack of coordination between the various state agencies, and the lack of a clear domestic forestry policy following devolution. This situation is unlikely to be quickly rectified following the 1996 restructuring in which forestry concerns have been transferred from the Ministry of Agriculture to the new Ministry of Environment.

The major preference shown for Latin America, as opposed to poorer African countries, reflects the obvious political and commercial expediency, and has been a point of severe criticism from some NGOs.

Aid delivery has involved a large range of actors. Since the centralised aid agencies have no technical forestry expertise, Ministry and university staff play an important role in project appraisal, but consultants have been relatively little used. Reliance has thus been put on recipient country institutions to implement the projects with relatively light Spanish technical assistance. In the case of decentralised aid, Spanish NGOs have been the main actors, working through counterpart national NGOs.

Most projects are small and of fairly short duration. Often the objective is to develop a basis – for example, through the development of a management plan – for submission to bigger donors like the EC. While the appraisal of projects appears to be becoming more systematic, with the introduction of log frameworks since 1994, the main weakness of the project cycle methodology has been the lack of evaluation, especially of centralised aid. Another important constraint to improved aid effectiveness is the coordination problems within the centralised aid agencies, and between the central, regional and local government programmes. However, proposed reforms to the CDC and in the Planning and Evaluation Office of SECIPI should go some way to ameliorating these problems.

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ACRONYMS

AECI	Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional (Spanish Agency for International Co-operation)
ADENA	Spanish Worldwide Fund for Nature
AITIM	Wood and Cork Industries' Research Association
CDC	Consejo de Cooperación al Desarrollo (Council for Development Co-operation)
CICI	Comision Interministerial de Cooperación para el Desarrollo (Interministerial Commission for Development Co-operation)
CYTED	Programa Iberoamericano de Ciencia y Tecnología para el Desarrollo (Iberoamerican Science and Technology Programme for Development)
EIA	Environmental Impact Analysis
ETSIM	Escuela Técnica Superior de Ingenieros de Montes (Higher Technical School for Forest Engineers)
FEMP	Federación Española de Municipios y Provincias (Spanish Federation of Municipalities and Provinces)
ICI	Instituto para la Cooperación con Ibero-América (Institute for Co-operation with Iberoamerica)
ICMAMPD	Instituto para la Cooperación con el Mundo Arabe, el Mediterráneo y los Países en Desarrollo
ICONA	Instituto para la Conservación de la Naturaleza (Institute for Nature Conservation)
IRD	Integrated rural development
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
MAE	Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores (Ministry of Foreign Affairs)
OPE	Oficina de Planificación y Evaluación (Planning and Evaluation Office)
PACI	Plan Anual de Cooperación Internacional (Annual International Co-operation Plan)
Ptas.	Pesetas
SECIPI	Secretario de Estado para la Cooperación Internacional y para Iberoamerica (State Secretariat for International Co-operation and Latin America)

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