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THE CANADIAN CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT
AND ITS ROLE IN INTERNATIONAL
DEVELOPMENT

BY

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B.A. (Hons.), M.A. (English)

A thesis submitted to Carleton University
in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

In the modern world there is widespread belief in the value of co-operation in achieving social and economic benefits for millions of people exposed to the evils of poverty, ignorance and exploitation. There has been a trend towards greater international concern for co-operative development in the less developed countries. The industrialized countries have a great role to play in this field. It is mainly in this vein that the Canadian Co-operative Movement is studied in this thesis.

Based mainly on the overall study and partly on the writer's personal interviews and correspondence with officials and experience with co-operators, in Canada and elsewhere, the thesis endeavours to project how the international trend should develop in the Canadian Co-operative Movement. The thesis emphasizes the need for the Canadian Co-operative Movement to greatly expand its programmes of international co-operation and development which up to the present have been minimal compared with the potential that exists and given the overwhelming needs of the developing countries. Such a direction is shown to be clearly consistent with and indeed demanded by the fundamental principles which are the basis of the Canadian Co-operative Movement.

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CHAPTER I

PHILOSOPHY AND PRINCIPLES OF CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

There is the same reason for a union of all the societies of the world as there is for a national union of societies and for a union of individuals to form the primitive Society. The principles of the movement, set going by the pioneers, seem to indicate world encompassing co-operation. Co-operation naturally, tends to expand into the international fields.¹

In recent years the co-operative movement has come to be universally recognized as a means of channeling assistance to developing countries. The International Co-operative Alliance has, in co-operation with the United Nations, designated the seventies as the Co-operative Development Decade with a view to stimulate the co-operative movements in the developing countries by mobilizing the numerous co-operative organizations throughout the world.²

It is mainly in this context that the Canadian Co-operative Movement will be studied in this work. But first it is necessary to discuss in some detail the philosophy and principles of the co-operative movement.

Robert Owen, 1771-1858, an idealist, is considered as the "Father of Modern Co-operation". All co-operators are agreed upon that point. Owen, an English industrialist, recognized the power inherent in the industrial revolution and felt that

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1. Harbasse, Peter James. Co-operative Democracy, Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York and London, 1936, p. 255
 2. The Co-operative Development Decade 1971-81, a pamphlet published by ICA, 11, Upper Grosvenor Street, London W1X9JA, January 1971. P. 1

the workers should share directly in the responsibility and benefits involved. It was his firm belief till his death "that self-governing, self-supporting communities, colonies of simple Communists, inspired by an ideal of mutual aid were the only form of co-operation worth striving for".¹ Inspired with the vision of a 'New Moral World' he set up a weaving industry in Lanark and established an organization that involved workers in operating decisions and in profit sharing. Although his attempts were experimental and eventually did not survive, the message conveyed was invaluable for the coming generations who formed their trade unions, co-operative societies and friendly societies - organizations in the form of which we know them today.

Robert Owen died in 1858 but the seed of his teaching had already borne fruit when the twenty-eight Equitable Pioneers of Rochdale had organized their historic society and opened their distributive store in 1844. Thus began the modern co-operative movement in England, the country which is popularly known the world over as the cradle of co-operatives.

About the achievement of the Rochdale Pioneers, Potter observed, "These twenty-eight Lancashire workingmen successfully grafted certain portions of Robert Owen's co-operative

1. Clayton, Joseph. Co-operation, London: T.C. & E.C. Jack, 1. 2.

ideal on a vigorous democratic stock, out of which has sprung the modern co-operative movement ...".¹ The industrial revolution completely changed the life of the European people. By about 1831 machines were already in use for production of goods in factories. As a result, economically the common people, the working people were the hardest hit. By about 1840 there was much hunger in nearly every country in Europe. It was during these Hungry Eighteen Forties that the Co-operative Movement was born in England.

Since then the co-operative form of enterprise has gained widespread popularity throughout the world, especially in agriculture and the industries connected with it, in distribution and in certain forms of banking and insurance, and more recently in housing and fisheries.

A co-operative enterprise can be defined as "... one which belongs to the people who use its services, the control of which rests equally with all the members, and the gains of which are distributed to the members in proportion to the use they make of its services".²

It will be noted that a co-operative enterprise is a business organization having a charter of its own which pro-

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1. Potter, Beatrice. The Co-operative Movement in Great Britain, London, Swan Sonnenschein & Co., 1892, p. 59
 2. U.S. Report on Co-operative Enterprise in Europe, 1937, p. 31

vides the membership with the required authority and a legal basis for carrying on business. It serves primarily an economic rather than a social purpose. Its real and primary aim is to serve the needs of members. Unlike private business, it is owned and controlled by those who do their business through it and who alone are entitled to become members. Thus, agricultural co-operatives are owned by farmers, fisheries co-operatives by fishermen, co-operatives for savings and credit by borrowers and depositors, and so on. The common object of all types of co-operatives is to secure equal benefits for all members, and to distribute these benefits in proportion to the use each member has made of the co-operative.

A definite set of principles has emerged out of the success and failures of co-operative organizations over the years. Adherence to these tried and proven principles, in the main, has come to be regarded as essential to co-operative achievement.

The Equitable Pioneer Society of Rochdale became the standard universal model of the whole co-operative movement, and out of its experience emerged the fundamental principles of all forms of co-operation. It has been said¹ that the

1. Harbasse, Peter James, Co-operative Democracy, Harper & Brothers Publishers, London, 1. 26

pioneers did not originate each of the Rochdale principles. They examined many of the existing plans in operation and finally chose several, combined them and put them into practice. Their great contribution lies mainly in their judicious combining of these principles. The principles which they made use of have proved ultimately, when combined, to constitute the very essentials of co-operation. The pioneers also formulated the appropriate technique for successful application of these principles together in the operation of their co-operative society.

The Rochdale principles as formulated and re-stated in the subsequent literature of co-operative movement are:

(i) open membership and ownership, irrespective of race, nationality, politics or religion; (ii) democratic control - one member, one vote; (iii) limited returns on capital and (iv) return of gains to members through patronage refunds.

In addition to the above basic principles, the Rochdale Pioneers also evolved a number of rules or methods which are as essential to successful co-operative action, namely, (a) regular provision of funds for promotional and educational work; (b) cash trading; (c) trading at market prices and (d) regular provision for the building of substantial reserves.

Each one of these principles and methods needs more elaborate discussion.

1. Open membership and ownership - This principle was intended to enable anyone subsequently to join the co-operative and participate in the benefits, on equal terms with original members. This was a departure from the practice of closed corporation, and special promotion privileges to original investors. This principle throws the door of a co-operative society open to the rich as well as the poor alike irrespective of their race, nationality, politics or religion, but it is people of small income who generally constitute the typical co-operative membership.
2. Democratic Control - one man, one vote. The corner stone of the co-operative strength is the principle of democratic control, the essence of which is that a member who owns several shares of stock has no more voting power than a member who owns one share only. In other words, it is membership, not investment, that gives control. As a result, no individual or clique can easily get control. This principle differs from the practice of the profit corporation in which the individual has as many votes as he has shares of stock. Voting by the members has to be direct and no proxy voting

is permitted. The principle of democratic control provides the structural basis of a co-operative organization.

3. Limited returns on capital - The capital fund in a co-operative is derived from the sale of membership shares and from savings borrowed from members. A fixed and limited interest (approximately five percent or less) is allowed in capital invested in the co-operative. This fixed low rate of interest has been provided in order that investment in co-operative enterprise shall not become speculative or a primary consideration of shareholder membership as in private industry.

4. Patronage refunds - The profits of a co-operative society, over expenses, interest, and a fixed percentage of reserve are distributed in direct proportion to the amount of patronage they have given the society by buying from it or using its services. These patronage refunds are usually made once in a quarter. The members may invest part or all of their patronage refunds to buy more shares in the co-operative (up to a maximum allowed) or by depositing in its savings account or loan fund. By returning the surpluses to purchasers an important co-operative purpose is served, namely reducing the cost of goods to the member consumers.

5. Promotion of co-operative education - Education is also

basic to the life of co-operative movement. No co-operative can be a success if its members are ignorant about the basic principles of co-operation. This is why, as a rule, a co-operative shall set aside a substantial sum for educational purposes in the field of co-operation. Not only the members need to be educated in co-operative theory, practice, loyalty and ideal, and the employees in business efficiency and leadership, but also the housewives need education in family budgeting and intelligent selection of goods, if a co-operative movement has to be a success. Potential co-operators - the greater public still outside the membership, also need co-operative education.

6. Cash trading - As a rule, co-operative business shall be done for cash only, no credit to be extended to the consumer. This rule is intended to encourage thrift on the part of the members and at the same time safeguard the co-operative organization as a whole against loss and possible bankruptcy through bad debts.

7. Trading at market prices - This rule emphasizes that co-operative trading shall be carried on at market prices not only in order to guard against losses, but also in order that the members may receive a larger patronage refund than would be possible with lower prices. One reason for insisting on

this rule is the impossibility of calculating cost at the time of sale. Warbasse stated, "The most important thing is that such a policy supplies surplus capital for the business. It makes expansion possible, permits assistance to other co-operatives and obviates a cause of competitive business hostility".¹ However, in modern co-operative management cash trading and sale at market price are often considered as operational policies rather than genuine co-operative principles.

8. Provision of reserve fund - It is essential that provision should be made in a co-operative for the building up of a substantial reserve fund for needed expansion. Such a fund which is created by regularly setting aside a portion of the net surplus into a reserve fund, instead of distributing the entire amount as patronage refunds, tends to make a co-operative increasingly self-sufficient financially.

In addition to the principles and methods discussed above, the following methods are also commonly observed:

(a) Membership of a co-operative society shall be unlimited. No member shall be expelled except when his purpose might be to injure society.

1. Warbasse, Peter James, Co-operative Democracy, Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York and London, p. 16

(b) Membership shall be voluntary.

(c) There shall be political and religious neutrality.

Although following the historic example set up by the "Equitable Society of Rochdale Pioneers" many powerful consumer co-operatives grew in Great Britain, and co-operatively owned factories, retail outlets and insurance services also grew there out of the needs of expanding co-operatives, the credit union movement did not take root in that country. The main reason for this was that in Britain credit unions were not actually needed because of the fact that co-operative members could deposit their dividends in their own co-operative stores where it would be readily available for purchases or withdrawal at will.

The honour, however, to organize the first successful credit union institutions in Europe actually fell to Germany. In that country there had been a long spell of draught and an agricultural crisis during 1846-47. The most important problem which was crying for a solution was that of the farmers who were generally hopelessly in debt to usurious money-lenders. The fate of the dwellers of the crowded cities and factory towns was not a whit better and they also were fair game for the cruel "Loan Sharks". When such was the plight of the farmers and the city dwellers, Germany was

fortunate to have the services of two great humanitarians, who came to the rescue of these unfortunate people - one, Friedrich Wilhelm Raiffeisen, a dedicated Lutheran lay preacher with his principle of Christian charity and loyalty, of self-help, and another, Herman Schulze-Delitzsch, a young lawyer with his sound business principles. While Raiffeisen volunteered himself to solve the desperate poverty of the German farmers, Schulze-Delitzsch was determined to help the small tradesmen and wage earners out of this deplorable situation.

Each man acting on his own conviction and working through the problems peculiar to his own people, experimented and perfected credit societies.¹

It is interesting to note that Raiffeisen was a contemporary to Karl Marx, the founder of scientific Socialism: both died in the 1880's, the former in 1888 and the latter in 1883. Both were concerned with improving the fate of the exploited masses and both believed that man could change his environment and himself and that he must seek his own economic salvation. But their approaches to the problem were poles apart. While Karl Marx preached to mankind his "quick, virile, red and bloody way of revolution, brought about by the proletariat"²

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1. Clements, Muriel. By Their Bootstraps, Clarke, Irwin & Company Limited, 1965, P. 13
 2. Coady, M.M. Masters of Their Own Destiny, New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1966. P. 136

Raiffeisen adopted a patient, gradual, democratic and evolutionary economic cure through his co-operative credit society - a way which involved "manipulation of the more subtle and powerful forces, the economic, political, cultural and spiritual".¹ While the former advocated the most violent method of wresting by the proletariat of their economic freedom from the hands of the Capitalist class and had the least faith, as an iconoclast, for the traditional state and its law and order, the latter put special emphasis on the Christian virtues of brotherhood, morality and loyalty, and set the promotion of material and moral well-being as the twin objects for his credit society.

Schulze-Delitzsch devised a scheme of unlimited liabilities for his societies, which meant that each member should share liability for all unpaid debts. He was strongly in favour of building up stabilizing share capital on the long-term savings of members rather than deposit accounts which took care only of immediate withdrawal needs. The main principles followed were self-help, self-government and self-responsibility. The number of memberships was unrestricted and the requirements rather a little too stiff as the value of individual shares was set as high as \$125. and an entrance

1. Coady, M.M. Masters of Their Own Destiny, New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1939. P. 136

fee assessed varying from \$2.50 to \$10. which naturally only the solid citizens could afford. The most disappointing thing about this stiff attitude, i.e. his unbending stress on a businesslike structure, was that it "excluded the very people who needed his credit societies most, the poorest of the poor who were unable to save at all".¹

Raiffeisen on the other hand evolved a system that worked satisfactorily among the poorest tenant farmers in Germany. He, too, accepted the principle of unlimited liability, though motivated by a sense of Christian brotherhood - each responsible for the other - rather than any business. In fact the spirit of brotherly love formed the very core of his movement. He himself recorded as one of his objectives, "The foundation upon which (credit societies) are built is that of christianity and loyalty ...".² Unlike Schulze-Delitzsch, Raiffeisen societies restricted no one by entrance fees, issued no shares, paid only the accountant who handled the money, and put all earnings in an indivisible common fund belonging to the society.³ In his lifetime there were 423 credit unions; since then there has been tremendous growth and now there are thousands of Raiffeisen societies in Germany.

1. Clements, Muriel. By Their Bootstraps, p. 16

2. Ibid, p. 14, quoted by the author from the Report of the Saskatchewan Agricultural Credit Commission, 1913

3. Ibid, p. 14

From Germany the institution of credit union quickly spread to Italy where Luigi Luzzatti, like Raiffeisen in Germany is remembered as the father of credit societies. In 1866 by way of saving his countrymen from the clutches of 'loan sharks' who were charging "1000 percent interest",¹ he opened his first urban credit union in Milan, which was closely modelled on the scheme of Schulze-Delitzsch, his master. But for solving the credit problems of the Italian farmers he turned to Raiffeisen's bank for a model. His adaptation of the German models and his own contributions to them is of immense importance. In fact, he greatly improved the Schulze-Delitzsch system by a number of modifications and innovations. For instance with a view to bringing the benefits of his credit unions to the poor subscribers he reduced shares to \$10. Secondly, he adopted the democratic principle of co-operative management, namely, one member, one vote, regardless of the amount of money invested. Thirdly, he reached a compromise between the Raiffeisen and Schulze-Delitzsch systems by setting up a reserve fund made up of one-quarter of the annual earnings. Finally, he also introduced a bold innovation by making provision of unsecured "honour loans".

1. Ibid, P. 15

But his society was based on two sensible principles: first, credit must be earned by sound security, even if that security was the borrower's good name; secondly, capital must come from the tremendous currency value of the people's own financial resources. He agreed that the society must avoid risks, but its very reason for existence was to provide cheap credit. Therefore, he insisted that each loan must be carefully assessed, and each borrower given a credit value. Like his German teachers, he stressed the purpose of the loan, and those who chose to ignore the purpose of the loan were given bad credit ratings.¹

This, briefly, is the history and philosophy of the credit union movement as it developed in Europe in the Nineteenth Century. In later years, Alphonse Desjardins of Quebec profusely drew inspiration and guidance from Europe before founding the credit union movement in North America.

The Rochdale pioneers co-operated for their self-defence against the economic ills of the society in the Hungry Eighteen Forties. Naturally, therefore, what they visualized was a national co-operative movement. But since then, like many other democratic institutions the co-operative idea also has spread all over the world and to-day it is hard to find a country where co-operation is not known as a means whereby the common people, either as producers or consumers, can defend and further their own economic interest through self-help in the form of mutual aid.

Mr. Hebe Speaull very rightly pointed out, "One of co-operations greatest contributions to social progress, over and above its economic benefits, is that its principles provide an unbroken sequence of thought leading from mutual aid between individuals to mutual aid between nations".²

1. Ibid, p. 16

2. Quoted from the 'Forward' of the Co-operative Movement in the World today, Harrie and Lockliff, London 1905, p. 1.

Thus, the last of the six¹ essential principles of co-operative organizations formulated by the ICA and adopted at the 23rd ICA Congress in Vienna, 1966, is as follows:

All co-operative organizations, in order to best serve the interests of their members and their communities should actively co-operate in every practical way with other co-operatives at local, national and international levels.²

This is the twentieth century addition to the co-operative principles laid down by the Rochdale Pioneers and it reflects the modern trend for international expansion of the co-operative movement.

The great virtue of the co-operative movement lies in its universal principles which mankind can easily follow in peace for prosperity through self-help. These principles shall sustain the movement through the ages.

1. See Appendix A

2. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1966, p. 183

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CO-OPERATIVES IN CANADA

It was the farmers of Quebec and Nova Scotia who were the first in Canada to form some pseudo-co-operative organizations as far back in 1789. They formed themselves into associations with a view to co-operating with the capital in promoting agricultural and rural economy. In Quebec, their efforts started under the patronage of no less a person than the Governor, Lord Dorchester.¹ A similar agricultural society was first formed in Upper Canada two years later but it did not survive beyond 1805.

These early co-operative societies were interested mainly in improved husbandry, and by collective action encouraged and assisted in the introduction of new machinery, seeds and livestock and in the treatment and application to the soil of the natural limestone deposits. Through their organizations they also assisted immigrants in settlement on the land and in finding employment.²

In Quebec, another important development of the co-operative movement began with the formation of the farmers' fire insurance company in 1852. The result was that co-operative insurance soon spread to the life insurance field. The first fraternal society was formed in 1863. Both mutual

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1. Mooney, Geo. S., Co-operatives, Today and Tomorrow. (Prepared for the Survey Committee, Montreal) 1938, P. 73
 2. Ibid, P. 73

fire insurance and fraternal societies still continue to be important types of co-operatives in Quebec and have spread to other provinces as well.

The Dominion Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry, a Canadian farmers' organization, was granted federal charter in 1877. This organization was formed from branches of the American Grange operating in Ontario and Quebec. It established a number of co-operative enterprises of a business nature, such as fire insurance, banking, etc., none of which have survived, and it eventually united with another farmers' organization. In 1889, another farmers' organization, the Patron of Industry, came to Canada from Michigan. It also promoted and established a number of co-operative enterprises which handled binder twine for farmers.

In the Prairie Provinces the development of the co-operative movement began with the rapid development of agriculture in about 1890 following the opening of the rail lines when commercial wheat growing was largely dependent on export markets.

Wheat could be economically moved to the head of the Great Lakes only by rail. It was out of the organized prairie farmers' early struggle with railroad and grain elevator companies and the Winnipeg Grain Exchange that producer (marketing) co-operative enterprise emerged to condition prairie farmers for subsequent development of consumer co-operation.¹

1. Wright, Jim F.C., Prairie Progress, Modern Press, Saskatoon, Sask., Canada, P. 11

The farmers of Winnipeg Manitoba, were the first in the Prairie Provinces to organize their Manitoba and North-West Farmers' Union in 1883. Co-operative creameries were established in the Territories (north Saskatchewan and Alberta) in the 1890's and early 1900's mainly with the help of the Federal Department of Agriculture. The purpose of these creameries was to provide marketing facilities for cream in communities where there had not been any. Another early co-operative creamery was started in Vancouver Island in 1896.

Most co-operatives organized before 1900 were loosely formed organizations, without definite provisions for such features as are now considered to be the characteristics of a co-operative society. These features were not provided in company legislation, and for that reason most of the co-operatives organized before 1890 were unincorporated.¹

Consumer Co-operation

The first Consumers' Co-operative Store was established by a group of coal miners at Stellarton, Nova Scotia in 1861. This was followed by ten additional stores in that province before the turn of the century. Only the original one survived beyond the close of the century but eventually it ended in failure in 1916 for two main reasons. Although the

1. Royal Commission on Co-operatives,
Ottawa, 1945, P. 15

Nova Scotia miners who had come to Canada after having been members of co-operative societies in Great Britain and organized on Rochdale principles, their initial co-operative venture suffered from the lack of two of the cardinal principles, namely, provision for a reserve fund and other business on cash basis. The history and experience of these organizations led to the formation of "the British-Canadian Co-operative Society at Sydney Mines in 1906 that marked the beginning of a successful consumer co-operative movement in Canada, and it was based on the principles adopted by the original group of weavers who had set up their pioneer co-operative society at Rochdale, England in 1844".¹ The society had a humble beginning like the Equitable Society of Rochdale Pioneer. It started with a membership of 32 and an average share capital of \$6.00 each. In about thirty-two years the organization came to be regarded as "probably the most successful consumers' society on this continent".² In 1936 the society had a business year totalling \$1,159,352.³ while in the same year the annual returns of the much older Rochdale Equitable Pioneers' Society was £ 666,702.⁴

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1. McIvor, R. Craig, The Post-War Taxation of Canadian Co-operatives, Canadian Tax Foundation, Toronto, Ontario, 1959.
 2. Mooney, op. cit., P. 75
 3. Mooney, op. cit., P. 75
 4. Brown, W. Henry, The Rochdale Pioneers: A Century of Co-operation, Printed in Great Britain by the Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd., Manchester, P. 95

By the turn of the present century, co-operation, both as a consumer and a producer movement had gained a struggling foothold in widely scattered parts of the Dominion. Farmers' co-operatives of one form or another had arisen in most of the provinces; isolated Consumer Co-Ops were functioning in Cape Breton, British Columbia and other industrial centres; while in Quebec, under the inspired leadership of Desjardins, the first halting developments of Credit Unions, les Caisses Populaires, were being laid. But as far as the urban consumer movement was concerned, it was only a foothold. It was later to meet with severe setback.¹

The brief life of the Guelph Co-operative (1904-1925) and the 47 Co-operative Consumer Stores opened under the auspices of the United Farmers' of Ontario offer good examples of pre-war failures. These consumer stores were opened under the multiple or chain store plan. They were gradually closed or turned over to local co-operative societies. The failure of the U.F.O. co-operatives was mainly "due to the tendency of their members to go bargain hunting at other privately owned stores".²

During the period 1900-1914 consumer co-operatives did not have any particular success. While the Caisses Populaires met with unqualified success, co-operative stores completely vanished during this period. The picture was no better in other parts of the Dominion - New Brunswick, the Prairie Provinces and British Columbia.

1. Mooney, op. cit., P. 76

2. Ibid, P. 77

The history of Consumer Co-operatives in Canada is perhaps best summarized in an article in the Canada Year Book for 1925, prepared by Miss M. Mackintosh of the Department of Labour:

The record of producers' co-operation in Canada has been, on the whole one of steady growth ... but the history of consumers' co-operation shows no such development. The first co-operative stores were opened by groups of workers who were applying the principle of co-operation they had learned and practiced in England. In the late '90's and in following decades, when the increasing cost of living put greater pressure on the wage earners, co-operative stores were opened in many towns. Another wave of co-operative activity followed the rising prices during and after the war. But the more individualistic characters of the population and the higher standard of living made possible by higher wages appear to have rendered consumers in Canada less inclined to co-operative effort than in the older countries of Europe, so that many co-operative societies have languished for lack of funds, suffered from poor or indifferent management and backed the enthusiasm of a membership of genuine co-operators. The success achieved by a small number of societies is all the more striking by contrast.¹

Scattered as they are over a vast territory, Consumers' Co-operative Societies of Canada have laboured under the disadvantage of lack of communication and absence of opportunity for the discussion of common problems. The desire to effect a saving by commodities has been the only motive of most of the members and there has been little knowledge of the principles of co-operation, with consequent failure to observe one or the other of the fundamental requisites for the successful operation of the co-operative stores. Managers have been drawn from the retail trade and have not always had any real interest in or understanding of the co-operative system. To these reasons may be ascribed many of the failures of co-operative stores in Canada.²

1. Mooney, op. cit., P. 78-79

2. Mooney, op. cit., P. 78-79

According to a Federal Government census taken in 1930 there was a grand total throughout Canada of 1173 different consumer co-operative societies doing a volume of business in sales amounting to \$22,881,151.¹ Most of these societies were of farmer origin and only a fractional proportion of them members of the Co-operative Union of Canada.

Gradually farmers acquired more knowledge of the problems involved in the marketing of their products and purchasing of their supplies, and they became more and more interested in the extension of their co-operative activities, especially in Western Canada. As a result a number of important farmers' organizations appeared on the Canadian scene within the first two decades of the Twentieth Century. There was much dissatisfaction among the prairie pioneers about marketing of grain. In the early 1900's the Territorial Grain Growers Association and the Manitoba Grain Growers Association were formed. While some progress was made through some regulatory legislation, these organizations ultimately decided that co-operative marketing was the real solution, and the Grain Growers Grain Company was formed in 1906. Saskatchewan Co-operative Elevator Company was organized in 1910. Province-wide co-operative elevator companies were well established in

1. Ibid, P. 80

each of the three Prairie Provinces by 1913. The United Grain Growers Ltd. was formed in 1917 through amalgamation of two of these: the Grain Growers Grain Company in Manitoba and the Alberta Farmers Co-operative Elevator Company. For the marketing of fruits associations were organized in Nova Scotia in 1912 and in British Columbia in 1913. At this stage the need for co-ordinating the activities of local marketing and purchasing groups led to the organization of the United Farmers Co-operative Company of Ontario in 1914, and the Co-operative Federée de Quebec in 1922.

Although some of the early co-operatives survived and are still in existence, many of them either failed or evolved into joint stock companies. One of the main reasons for their early failures was that they were handicapped by the lack of appropriate legislation dealing with their incorporation and operation. In order to tide over these difficulties after 1900, the provinces began to enact co-operative statutes. Quebec enacted her first Co-operative Act in 1906 to provide for the organization of Credit Unions and other co-operatives. Nova Scotia passed a Co-operative Act in 1908; British Columbia in 1911 and Saskatchewan in 1913. In subsequent years provincial co-operative legislation became general, and by 1938 most provinces provided special departmental services for the

administration of such legislation. In 1908 a federal bill for incorporation of co-operatives was passed in the House of Commons only to be rejected by the Senate.

Meanwhile, the need was apparent for some central national federation, some common association among co-operatives. Thus a group of leaders met in Hamilton on March 6, 1909, to form the Co-operative Union of Canada, which became a coordinating and educational body. The CUC is an association of English speaking co-operatives in Canada. It is one of the two Canadian members of the ICA, the world federation of co-operatives, with headquarters in London. The other Canadian ICA member is Le Conseil Canadien de la Co-operation which serves the co-ops where the French language predominates. Some of the objects of the CUC are as follows:

(a) To encourage the application of co-operative principles and methods to economic and social needs by the organization and development of co-operative organizations and associations for distribution, production, manufacturing, marketing, housing, health, insurance, credit and any other services or activities to which co-operative principles and methods may be applied.

(b) To carry or encourage and assist educational and advisory work relating to co-operative enterprises.

(c) To protect the interest of co-operatives by

appropriate action in making representations to legislative, administrative and judicial bodies.

(d) To print, publish and circulate any newspaper or other publication in the interest of co-operative enterprises, principles and practices.

(e) To render services designed to insure efficiency and uniformity in the conduct of the business of its member associations.¹

The severe depression that began in 1929 had a serious impact on the co-operative movement in Canada and eventually led to failure of a number of them. It gave rise to difficult problems to many marketing co-operatives. One result of the depression was that prices of agricultural products continued to have a downward trend for over three years and finally stabilized at extremely low levels. For example, Saskatchewan Co-operative Creameries Ltd. went bankrupt, but was later re-organized. The set-back suffered by the grain pools offers another example of depression effects. Through the grain pools farmers could receive average annual prices for their produce rather than the prevailing market price on delivery date. The pools usually made payments at time of delivery that were expected to be substantially below the final price. But in the 1929-30 co-op year the prices fell so rapidly that these

1. Canadian Co-operative Digest Vol. 13 No. 1 1970
Published by the Co-operative Union of Canada.
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initial payments proved to be much higher than prices realized when the grain was sold. All the three large grain pools, which were organized by 1925 by the prairie farmers and which handled about half the grain marketed in the Prairie Provinces, were thus heavily affected as a result of the depression. However, government-guaranteed loans tidied the three grain pools over the crisis.

The depression experiences made it abundantly clear that even large pooling co-operatives could not stabilize the prices of Canadian grain. The government had to take the required step to assist in this stabilization by establishing

.... by Order-in-Council, a Wheat Board which had a monopoly in selling the entire wheat crop for both domestic consumption and export trade. This was the beginning of the Canadian Wheat Board, which eventually became recognized as a step on the way to the orderly marketing which was to become an urgent issue with the organized farmers when wheat prices declined as the wartime stimulus to commerce subsided.¹

The Wheat Board operates pools for marketing the grains of the Prairie Provinces, and all the western grain co-operatives work as agents for the Board and assemble and store half the grain marketed in Canada.

All the setbacks of the depression years did not, however, prevent the farmers from giving their support to co-operatives. The basic strength of the movement remained

1. Wright, op. cit., P. 20

unimpaired. As a matter of fact, the following decade brought a revival of interest in co-operative purchasing. New co-operatives were organized by farmers with assistance of the grain-marketing co-operatives, especially the Saskatchewan Wheat Pool. Another important development in the co-operative movement took place during this period partly due to lower prices of farm products and partly due to mechanization of agriculture. As farm products sold at low prices, the farmers became more concerned for savings on the purchase of farm supplies through new co-operatives. For example, in the Prairie Provinces mechanization of agriculture led the farmers to take special co-operative interest in savings on the cost of petroleum. The result was the first co-operative oil refinery in the world - Consumers Co-operative Refineries Ltd. - which was organized in 1935 by a small group of farmers. The establishment of this refinery marked the beginning of a new era in co-operative purchasing in Canada, which continues to this day.

By the end of 1943, according to the Economics Division, Dominion Department of Agriculture, there were 1675 agricultural marketing and merchandising in Canada, with a membership of 585,826. These included co-operatives handling dairy products, fruits and vegetables, grain and seed, livestock, poultry, honey, maple products, tobacco, wool, fur, lumber and wood, food products, clothing and home furnishings, petroleum products and auto accessories, feed fertilizer and spray material, machinery and equipment, coal, wood and building material as well as miscellaneous marketing and miscellaneous merchandising not specified.

there were 2538 co-operatives in the year 1966 in Canada, excluding credit unions.¹ They had a membership of 1,625,300 and a total volume of business of \$1.95 billion. By far the largest and most successful co-operatives are farmers marketing co-operatives, but co-operatives for purchasing goods and supplies needed by farmers are also quite important. All the above mentioned co-operatives fall into the following classes: marketing and purchasing (1420), Fishermen's (83), service (663) and production (372). In addition, there are eight co-operative wholesales to serve the marketing and purchasing co-operatives.²

One is struck by the remarkable variety of co-operatives developed by Canadian farmers - there is hardly a service of any kind needed by rural people that has not been developed somewhere or other on a co-operative basis by Canadian farmers.

The co-operative philosophy and spirit is a part and parcel of Canadian politics. On it was founded Canada's Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) in 1932. The purpose of the CCF was described as:

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1. Statistics of Credit Unions for the year 1966 will be given in the next chapter
 2. Co-operatives in Canada, Canada Department of Agriculture, publication 1119, 1968, P. 9

The establishment in Canada of a co-operative Commonwealth in which the basic principle regulating production, distribution and exchange, will be supplying of human needs instead of the making of profit.¹

One of the eight points of the CCF Party programme adopted at the Calgary Conference in 1932 was directly concerned with co-operative enterprise: "Encouragement of all co-operative enterprises which are steps to the attainment of the co-operative commonwealth".²

The Regina Manifesto (1933) of the Party included inter alia, the following:

Whilst the family farm is the accepted basis for agricultural production in Canada the position of the farmer may be much improved by (a) The extension of consumers' co-operatives for the purchase of farm supplies and domestic requirements; and (b) The extension of co-operative institutions for the processing and marketing of farm products. Both of the foregoing to have suitable state encouragement and assistance ...

In agriculture ... the primary producer can receive a large net revenue through co-operative organization of purchase and marketing. Similarly in retail distribution of staple commodities such as milk, there is room for development both of public municipal operation and of consumers' co-operatives, and such co-operative organization can be extended

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1. Young, Walter D. The Anatomy of a Party: The National CCF, University of Toronto Press, 1969, p. 41-42
 2. Ibid, p. 304

into wholesale distribution and into manufacturing. Co-operative enterprise should be assisted by the state through appropriate legislation and through the provision of adequate credit facilities.¹

The same co-operative spirit was embodied after twenty-four years, in 1956, into the Winnipeg Declaration of Principles of the CCF: "In many fields the best means of ensuring justice to producers and consumers is the co-operative form of ownership. In such fields, every assistance will be given to form co-operative and credit unions and to strengthen those already in existence".²

After a period of twenty-nine years of its separate existence and eventful history the CCF ceased to exist formally in 1961 and joined with the Canadian Labour Congress to found the New Democratic Party. In fact the CCF disappeared in name only. W.D. Young says, "The same people, essentially the same goals, and the same belief in the cause of socialism continue to form the solid core of the NDP".³

Some conspicuous trends are noticeable in the overall growth of the Canadian co-operative movement, except credit union, from the statistics and figures submitted at

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1. Ibid, P. 308-9
 2. Ibid, P. 315
 3. Ibid, See preface.

Appendix B to G.¹ These are:

: The business volume of marketing and purchasing co-operatives in 1966 has more than tripled since 1946 (the increase is about thirteenfold over 1932 - the year from which tabulated statistics of co-operatives are available).

: The number of co-operatives has been steadily declining since the peak year of 1950. One reason for this decreasing trend is that the smaller co-operatives have been consolidating into larger ones.

: Purchasing business of co-operatives has been gaining in importance though it represents only half of the volume of marketing business which is 66 percent of the total volume of business in 1966. Marketing business in 1966 was about three times that of 1946, but purchasing volume increased over sixfold in the same period.

: Grains and seeds are the most important commodities marketed by co-operatives in 1966; their value is more than any other commodity. It should be noted that the Prairie Provinces dominate in the marketing of these commodities as well as of livestock and livestock products. Co-operatives in all provinces, except Newfoundland, handle dairy products, with Ontario and Quebec together accounting for 52 percent of the total.²

1. Co-operatives in Canada, Canada Department of Agriculture, Publication 1119, 1968

2. Ibid, P-11

: Farm supplies and food were the main products bought through co-operatives in 1966, and accounted for the greater part of Canadian co-operative purchases of \$609 million. Ontario, Quebec and British Columbia represent the bulk of the co-operative purchases of feed, while petroleum products are the main commodities purchased in the Prairie Provinces.

There are a number of province-wide organizations which conduct a large part of the co-operative marketing in Canada. They assemble, store, and sell some closely related agricultural commodities; and some of them process as well. The most important among them is the Saskatchewan Wheat Pool which operates a flour mill. In Quebec, there are the packing plants of La Co-operative Federée which process much of the livestock marketed in that province. Besides, Manitoba, Ontario and Nova Scotia each has a co-operative slaughter house. Some co-operative plants also process such commodities as honey, oilseeds, maple syrup, fruits and vegetables.

Among the important interprovincial marketing and purchasing co-operations are the United Grain Growers Limited, the Canadian Co-operative Wheat Producers Limited and the Canadian Co-operative Implements Limited. The UGGL maintains elevators throughout Western Canada and terminals on the Great Lakes and at Vancouver. The CCWPL represents three

provincial wheat pools which, through it, consider programmes and policies common to each of them and to the many thousands of other grain producers in the Prairie Provinces. The CCIL of the Prairie Provinces is, as far as is known, the world's only farmers' co-operative for the manufacture and distribution of farm machinery. It is an independent farmer-owned association with its head office in Winnipeg. Established in 1940, its membership also extends to Northwestern Ontario. In 1966, it sold machinery worth \$20 million.

The Canadian Co-operative Wool Growers Limited is the only co-operative organization that operates on a national basis. It handled about 70 percent of the wool passing through government-registered stations during the ten years ended 1968.

In Canada, there are eight regional co-operative wholesales to which are affiliated nearly all the co-operatives that purchase farm supplies and consumer goods for their members. The largest among them are: La Co-operative Federée de Québec, United Co-operatives of Ontario, and Federated Co-operatives Limited in the Prairie Provinces. The total assets of the eight wholesales including those of the Interprovincial Co-operatives Limited (a wholesaler for the wholesales) amounted to \$176 million in 1966.

Another common type of co-operative in Canada is that

of fishermen's which operates in all the provinces. In 1966, there were 83 fishermen's co-operatives, with 10,000 members who sold \$27 million worth of fish and \$3 million worth of supplies. Canada has three federations of fishermen's co-operatives, namely, United Maritime Fishermen, Quebec United Fishermen and Saskatchewan Co-operative Fisheries Limited. Besides the Prince Rupert Fishermen's Co-operative Association in British Columbia is a provincial organization which operates fish processing plants in Prince Rupert and Vancouver, as well as fishermen's supply business in Prince Rupert.

The service co-operatives deal with insurance (life, automobile, fire, hail, general casualty, fidelity and medical insurance), electricity, housing and other services including water, transportation, cold storage and seed cleaning. In 1966, the service co-operatives numbered 663 (excluding insurance co-operatives other than medical insurance co-operatives) and had a membership of 273,000, business revenue of \$32 million. Some fifty medical insurance co-operatives were functional in Canada in 1966. Rural electrification through co-operatives has been a tremendous success in Alberta where over 80 percent of the farms have already been provided with electricity. Housing co-operatives have developed mainly in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

The 372 production co-operatives reported in 1966 included grazing, feeder, artificial insemination and machinery co-operatives, and had a membership of 33,000, and a business of \$15 million.

In Canada, co-operatives are found in all provinces and in all parts, even in the far north beyond the Arctic Circle, but, apart from credit co-operatives, the greatest concentration is found in the Prairie Provinces.

In the Canadian North, a Co-operative Development Programme was started in 1959. The programme has already met with the interest of the local people. By April, 1966, there were twenty-two co-operatives active in the Northwest Territories and Northern Quebec, and another eight groups were in the formative stage. The total sale of these co-operatives was estimated in 1960 as over \$1 million with some of the individual co-operatives at the \$100,000 level. For their initial development the Arctic Co-operatives had to depend heavily on outside capital. The Federal Government (Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development), the governments of the Province of Quebec and the Northern Territories, the Co-operative Union of Canada and the Conseil de la Co-operation du Quebec are providing necessarily assistance in the co-operative development in the North.¹

1. Ibid, P. 25-26

Although in some places, as in the Arctic areas mentioned above, and also at certain times in the past co-operatives received valuable assistance from the government, both provincial and federal, but by and large they have grown under their own power and out of the resources of the members themselves.

There is no denying the fact that in the Canadian economy co-operatives play a significant role in the employment of labour, in the use of capital for resource development, in the accumulation of savings in Canadian hands, and in the support of essential services. They are subject to the same income tax as other business. In many communities throughout Canada they are among the largest payers of property tax.

Another notable feature of Canadian co-operatives is that they "are non-partisan in politics, but this rule is not intended to prevent individual members from taking an active part in political affairs as long as they do not involve their organizations in party politics".¹

The Brief mentions yet another very important feature:

Canadian Co-operative means Canadian ownership, ownership in the hands of as many Canadians as possible, in the hands of all Canadians if they so wish. Moreover, it is Canadian ownership in no danger of foreign control or takeover.

1. Brief to the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Consumer Credit (Prices), presented by the Co-operative Union of Canada, Feb. 2, 1967, P. 14

A good case in point is found in the petroleum industry, a segment of the economy that is notoriously un-Canadian in its ownership and control. But one small oasis in the desert of foreign holdings is in Saskatchewan, where in the midst of the depression thirty years ago farmers set up the first co-operatively-owned oil refinery in the world. Its very nature as a co-operative means that it remains in Canadian hands, because it was organized on the basis of production for use, not for profit or investment.¹

1. Ibid, P. 17

CHAPTER III

THE DESJARDINS CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

The Desjardins Co-operative Movement is the finest economic and social success in French Canada. The typical co-operative credit union which goes by the name of its founder, Alphonse Desjardins of Levis, Quebec, and which is the vehicle of the movement, is French Canada's most outstanding contribution not only to the co-operative movements in North America but it is also destined to provide a unique model for the benefit of the whole world.

It was good luck for North America that Alphonse Desjardins worked as a Hansard reporter of the Quebec Legislature from 1879 to 1890 and later in 1892 as an official reporter of the House of Commons in Ottawa. While pursuing this career he first came to know from speeches made in the House that money-lenders in his country were extracting as high as 50 or 60 percent annual interest from the poor, small borrowers. This fact moved him and aroused his interest to help his fellow citizens, especially the poor and needy ones.

Another factor that motivated him was:

Canadian economic problems in the 1880's were such that a great part of the population was emigrating to the States, and the Liberal party generally favoured going

whole hog. Desjardins combatted this trend in the name of self-help - the same reason, basically, that led him a few years later into the study of co-operative credit.¹

After a thorough examination of the problem of usury he found out that the root of the evil lay in the unsatisfactory credit system which was apathetic to the credit needs of the poor people. There was in fact no credit organization to cater to the needs of ^{the}labouring classes: credit had been organized by large capitalist groups and was a virtual monopoly of traders and industrialists. Consequently, farmers, artisans and labourers had nowhere to go to meet their credit needs except the money-lenders and pawnbrokers. In other words, the banks were not organized to supply credit to needy people. Desjardins was convinced that the real cause of usury was the absence of an effective credit system for small borrowers.

Once fully grasping the true nature of the problem, Desjardins found the remedy not far at all from the poor people themselves. What was needed was to organize a democratic economic life for them. He, therefore, came to the firm conclusion that the poor farmers and labouring classes could themselves solve their own problems of credit by associating to organize their own financial institutions in the co-operative way. Thus he resolved to embark upon a

1. Giles, Richard Y. Credit for the Millions, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1951

democratic movement in the field of credit in North America about the great significance of which M.M. Coady observed:

... Alphonse Desjardins did something that was not only calculated to alleviate the poverty of the little people but he struck something that was profoundly philosophical and scientific ...

It is to the eternal honour of Desjardins that he selected the field of credit for group action by the people because this is both good psychology and philosophy. Psychologically, therefore, it was a master stroke to start co-operative action in this field. From a strategic point of view it was clever. This type of co-operative action causes less controversy than any other. But more than that it meets a great need and is at the same time in harmony with man's future. It gives him a chance to be master of his own fate. Those who control money and credit control the life of mankind.¹

The task before Desjardins was far from easy, and necessitated painstaking study. For fifteen years he diligently studied the literature of the European credit societies and exchanged letters with leaders of that movement before he actually formulated his own scheme. He thoroughly read all he could, especially about the Rochdale Pioneers, Raiffeisen and Schulze-Delitzsch, and most significant of all, he corresponded with Luigi Luzzatti. He carefully examined the German and Italian systems to eliminate the weaknesses of each and finally combined the advantages of all the systems and adapted them to suit the particular requirements of Quebec.

1. Quoted from a speech by M.M. Coady International Conference on Les Caisses Populaires Desjardins and Credit Unions, August 1950, published by La Federation des Caisses Populaires Desjardins de Quebec, p. 17

He took from Schulze-Delitzsch the self-saving thrift; from Raiffeisen, the honour loans and the limited liability; ... and from all of them, he took the willingness to help one's neighbour in time of need.¹

But all these borrowings from the German experiences would not serve Desjardins' purpose completely. He was convinced that some vital improvements were especially necessary in order to satisfy the credit needs of his people and that followed from his stroke of genius. He then conceived a completely new form of co-operative institution where savings precede supply and feed credit. In other words, he combined in the same institution the functions of savings and credit. His credit unions are popularly known as Caisses Populaires Desjardins. The first caisse he organized on December 6, 1900 at Levis, Quebec, with eighty members and \$26 in capital, thus founding a great movement which in the near future he was to help spread to the United States.² His caisse populaire was different from any that had ever been organized. Unlike the European group, for example, it depended entirely on the savings of its members for capital, and it permitted the withdrawal of savings on a month's

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1. Clements, Muriel, By Their Bootstraps, P. 18
 2. Alphonse Desjardins contributed actively to the organization, in 1909, of the first Caisse Populaire in the United States, at Manchester, Mass., in the parish of St. Mary

notice. He took the church parish boundary as the territorial limit of his organization because he believed that people within the small parish community were well known to each other and inclined to help one another, a factor which, he was confident, would be immensely conducive to organize self-help amongst them. Some of the other most important improvements which he made on the European schemes were:¹

1. Limitation of business to members only.
2. variable and withdrawable share capital.
3. Remedial loans.
4. The division of management into two separate independent bodies:
 - (a) the board of directors
 - (b) the credit commission for loans to members.

Desjardins formulated his co-operative principles as follows:²

A co-operative must conform to democratic principles.

It must have an educational effect.

It must provide primarily for the needs of working people.

It must exclude the idea of philanthropy.

It must be legally constituted.

Thus Desjardins transformed the European models of co-operative credit unions into a completely new type of financial institution based on co-operative principles.

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1. Tremblay, Rosaro, Desjardins Co-operative Movement (Publication of the Quebec Federation of Regional Unions of Caisses Populaires Desjardins, Levis, Quebec, Canada. Printed in Canada, March 1969) P. 15
 2. Giles, Richard Y., Credit for the Millions, P. 89

Congratulating him for the extraordinary merit of his newly conceived institution, Luigi Luzzatti, the father of the co-operative credit movement in Italy wrote:

By a flash of genius you have created a new type of Caisses populaires, well in advance of ours and more complete.¹

As for democratic control, Desjardins closely followed the Rochdale principles. Like the Rochdale pioneers again, he placed special emphasis on education of members. He strongly believed that his caisse was an organization of men, not of dollars, and that the members and the elected officers must learn elements of law, bookkeeping, accounting, administration procedures for meetings, human relations, etc., in order to handle their own economic affairs properly and also to learn the advantages of thrift, saving and foresight. He also believed that his institution would not only improve the economic conditions of the members and thus alleviate their poverty but also help them to become better citizens. His primary object, however, was to see that the institution effectively attends to the needs, problems and aims of its members. Realizing that most of his members were too poor to provide a reasonable security he did not hesitate to adopt the Italian practice of "honour loans", that is, unsecured loans. On principle, he abhorred the idea that his credit unions should ever be helped through state

1. Tremblay, Rosario, Desjardins Co-operative Movement,
p. 16

charity or philanthropy. To quote his own words, "savings and prudence, not charity or the help of the state, ought to serve as the basis of true credit if you would develop the qualities of the people rather than paralyze them or weaken their energy".¹ Within five years his Le Caisse Populaire de Levis had saved \$4,000. He became convinced that his movement was destined to spread beyond Levis. But one vital component was still lacking: a co-operative legislation to protect the caisse populaire and give it a legal basis. His first attempt failed in 1907 when he sponsored a co-operative bill in the federal parliament.² Although the bill was passed in the House of Commons, it was unfortunately turned down by one vote in the Senate. This did not discourage him for it was in the same year that he secured the passage of a similar bill in the Legislature of Quebec, under the title of Quebec Co-operative Syndicate Act. The first caisse to be incorporated under this act was his own at Levis.

By 1908, Desjardins had helped establish eighteen more caisses populaires in Quebec before he offered his assistance to help draw up a credit union legislation for the State of Massachusetts in the United States. In 1909, he actively contributed to the organization of the first caisse populaire at Manchester, in the parish of St. Mary. In the

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1. As quoted by Richard I. Giles in his Credit for Millions P. 90
 2. In Canada, the first Federal Co-operative Act was unanimously passed in 1970

United States, the caisse was modified to form credit unions which met the needs of industrial workers. While the caisse populaire used the parish as a basis of association for members, the industrial credit unions used the place of employment as its basis.

By 1930 although there were many caisse populaires in Quebec, other provinces lacked legislation governing incorporation and supervision of caisse populaires, so that only a few were organized and most of these failed.

A typical Caisse Populaire Desjardins may be described as a co-operative organization for savings and loans, in which people from the same community or having some similar interest, associate ^{an} on/equal basis to fulfil their social and economic needs through savings and credit operations. It is a voluntary association of persons owning an economic undertaking, managed and controlled democratically to satisfy their own specific needs as well as those of their community as fully and economically as possible.

A Caisse Populaire Desjardins is based upon the general co-operative principles, such as, one member, one vote: limited interest (bonus) on share capital; provision of education, and open membership. It differs from a consumers' co-operative in that after provision has been made for reserves and a limited interest for capital, the balance of

net earning is distributed to borrowers as a rebate of interest, to depositors as additional interest, or it is placed in a fund for development of additional services to the community or the members.

The caisse provides a wide coverage. Parents, children, indeed all persons in the parish or community are eligible for membership, including corporations and partnerships. Even minors are admitted, though as auxiliary members who may attend meetings but cannot vote or hold any office. A member corporation or society votes through its representative. A caisse can give an intensive coverage with an average of two to three or even four members per family in its area. In 1967, there were 210,000 members in the 1,300 caisses populaires of the Quebec Federation of Regional Unions of Caisses Populaires Desjardins.

A caisse has small shares of \$5 each fixed by the Savings and Credit Union Act, which can be either paid in cash or in instalments of 20 cents a week. A member can withdraw his capital share on 30 days notice, although in practice withdrawals are made right at the counter without notice.

A caisse follows the principle of gratuitous administration. All members engaged in the administration render voluntary and gratuitous services, except the manager who

is paid. Other employees, who may be paid, are not eligible for office.

In order to strengthen the financial power of the caisse and help to compensate eventual losses, a portion of its annual net earnings is set aside in general reserve, the minimum of which the Act sets at 10%. According to existing by-laws however, the minimum is 20%. The Act also provides for placing into the reserve the initiation or entrance^{fee}/which is charged on each share. In accordance with by-laws, a secondary reserve fund is also raised from an additional 10% of the net annual earnings. This fund is not to be divided among members or spent otherwise. In the event of dissolution of the caisse, this fund along with any other remaining assets, is distributed in the area in works of public utility designed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council.

The caisse populaire has three main objectives, namely thrift and savings; good and low-cost credit; and reliable investment.

Dr. M.M. Coady was obviously referring to the typical caisse populaire when he stated:

In a credit union we have the simple mechanic required to implement a programme of self-help through a process of systematic savings by the individual for himself and on behalf of his fellow members.

The first appeal is always that of "savings". We begin with what we have and continue to participate according to our means. We have through our credit unions to acquire better homes, greater convenience in life, and education for our children and in doing so, provide for those who must borrow to obtain the many necessities of life. We do this consciously through regular savings and must continue to do so in order to keep faith with the philosophy of self-help which the movement represents.¹

The caisse populaire encourages its members as well as the other people of the community it serves to be thrifty with foresight, for thrift stimulates savings which, after accumulation from members as deposits, is given to them as loans. The only source of its capital is from savings of its members. Savings are accepted in the form of share capital or savings deposits. Share capital in caisses populaires represents roughly 10% of their savings deposits. Some 400 caisses populaires also give life insurance protection up to \$1,000 or \$2,000. The share capital in 1957 was over \$150 million in the local caisses populaires alone, while the savings deposits in that year were over \$1.25 billion.² To provide incentive for savings more than 1100 caisses populaires also offer free life insurance protection for the first \$1,000, and some offer it up to \$2,000.

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1. From the report of International Conference on Les Caisses Populaires Desjardins and Credit Unions, August, 1950, P. 155
 2. Tremblay, Rosario, Desjardins Co-operative Movement P. 25

To inculcate the habit of thrift and saving among the school children small savings are also collected from them. In 1967, there were 435,000 children depositors with more than \$11,000,000.

The second objective of good and low cost credit is also as important. It constitutes the service part of the organization. A member needs no financial security to obtain a loan. To be eligible to borrow he must be of good moral standing. Only loans for useful and productive purposes are granted. The principle followed is that credit must be sound, inexpensive and effective. Different types of loans are provided to the members. They may take personal loans, the maximum of which varies generally between \$1,000 and \$3,000. Larger amounts are also available with proper security. The rate of interest charged is generally the lowest available in the market. Besides, the borrowers also enjoy life insurance protection for an amount equal to the balance due on the loan. Medium term loans of still larger amounts may also be available at the cheapest rate against mortgages on immovable properties, with life insurance protection up to a maximum of \$10,000 to \$15,000. The farmers can get loans pledge of agricultural property. The Farm Improvement Act gives those who loan to a farmer a 3% interest from the government of Quebec, provided the loan does not exceed \$7,000 and is for the improvement of his farm. Loans are

also made to co-operative undertakings and public institutions such as municipalities, schools, etc.

As for investments, part of the liquidity fund (which was around 42% of the liabilities in 1907) approximately 15% is kept in cash on hand and part in deposit in the Regional or Central Caisse, while the rest is invested in bonds of various kinds which are negotiable at all times. The Savings and Credit Act provides that an affiliated caisse cannot invest in bonds of any kind without the previous approval of the Federation.

The Caisses Populaires Desjardins collectively own a number of institutions, namely, La Societe d'Assurance des Caisses Populaires, l'Assurance-Vie Desjardins (Desjardins Life Insurance Company), Association Co-operative Desjardins, and Desjardins Co-operative Institute. Besides, along with the Government of Quebec and the general public, the caisses populaires Desjardins are also shareholders of the General Investment Corporation of Quebec. The corporation started functioning in 1963 with a capital of \$16,000,000 and it had assets of \$37,105,000 of December 31, 1967. The caisses populaires are authorized to invest in the corporation up to 25% of their reserves.

Administrative Structure: A general meeting of the

caisse populaire is the democratic forum in which the members elect, on the principle of "one man, one vote," the other functionaries, namely, a Board of Directors, a credit commission and a Board of Supervision. It is regularly convened. The members present legally constitute a general meeting. It can make or unmake a caisse populaire, and in that sense it is sovereign in its power.

A Board of Directors of at least five members is elected from the eligible members for a term of three years. A director is eligible for re-election. The Board is entrusted with the sound administration of the caisse populaire. It manages the affairs of the caisse populaire, and exercises on its behalf, within the limits of the by-laws, the powers generally or especially delegated to it by the general meeting. It is responsible to the membership and has to submit a yearly account of its management at the general meeting. Directors enjoy certain privileges and have certain duties which are determined by the Savings and Credit Act and the by-laws of the caisses populaires.

The Credit Commission is composed of three selected members who are entrusted with the task of judging loan requests. In the event of its turning down any loan request, the member concerned may appeal to the Board of Directors.

Its members must not be either borrowers or bails for any loan from the caisse populaire. Its privileges and duties are also determined by the Act and by-laws. Thus it is mainly responsible for the effective utilization of savings. It is also liable for annual account to the membership.

The Board of Supervision composed of three members has the largest scope of authority bestowed by the general meeting of members of the caisse populaire. Its principle duty not only is to ensure that the spirit and regulations of the caisse populaire are enforced, but also to see that resolution of the general meetings are properly carried out. It has also to make sure that all transactions are done in accordance with co-operative, legal and sound principles. "The Board of Supervision will frequently balance financial reports, supervise the decisions taken by the credit commission, check the monthly report of the manager and perform any other supervision desired. Its observations, suggestions, and requests are reported in the minutes. Afterward, it makes sure that the board of directors and the credit commission take them into consideration and carry them out".¹

Federative Structure: The Caisses Populaires Desjardins in Quebec have grown into a large federative structure.

1. Tremblay, Rosario, P. 36

At the first level they are regionally associated in Regional Unions to promote and protect their common interests. These Regional Unions are also co-operative associations, the members of which are the caisses populaires of the respective regions. They in turn, at the second level, have grouped themselves on the provincial plan and have formed the Quebec Federation of Regional Unions of Caisses Populaires Desjardins in order to promote the common interests of the Caisses Populaires Desjardins in the whole province. The Federation is also a co-operative association which along with the Regional Unions is governed by the same act: The Savings and Credit Act. Thirteen hundred caisses populaires are affiliated with ten Regional Unions who have formed the Federation. The Federation structure completes the organizational/in the co-operative field of savings and credit in Quebec.

Although many caisses populaires were organized in Quebec by 1930, the real interest in credit unions¹ increased during the 1930's. In Nova Scotia, the organization of credit unions was encouraged by extension workers of St.

1. The term "credit union" is commonly used in North America while "caisse populaire" refers to French-speaking credit unions in Canada.

Francis Xavier University at Antigonish.¹ The Nova Scotia credit union legislation passed in 1932 became a model for the rest of English-Speaking Canada. In a few years all provinces adopted appropriate legislation; Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick in 1936; Saskatchewan and Manitoba in 1937; Alberta and British Columbia in 1939; Ontario (her third legislation) in 1960; and Newfoundland in 1969. Thus finance co-operative movement entered a phase of rapid growth which still continues (see Appendices² H, I and J). In Canada now, credit unions and caisses populaires have more members and more assets than all other types of co-operatives combined. It has been estimated, as the above-mentioned Appendices will show, that in 1966 there were 4,871 credit unions and caisses populaires with 3,953,200 members and total assets of over \$2.9 billion. The Province of Quebec, still leading, alone has a third of the finance-co-operatives in the country, half of the total membership and more than 50% of the assets.

The Desjardins type of caisse populaire is one of Canada's remarkable contributions to the world co-operative

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1. Promotion of credit unions in Nova Scotia through the Antigonish Movement will again be touched in the next chapter.
 2. The source of Appendices H, I and J is Co-operatives in Canada (a pamphlet published by Canada Department of Agriculture, Publication 1119, 1968) Pages 20, 22 & 30.

movement. Pierre Elliott Trudeau's claim that "Historically, French Canadians have not really believed in democracy for themselves ..." ¹ might be politically true, but economically, the Desjardins Co-operative Movement has been a grand success; and socially, it is certainly a democratic success in French Canada.

1. Federalism and the French Canadians, Macmillan of Canada, 1968, Toronto. P. 103.

CHAPTER IV

THE ANTIGONISH MOVEMENT

The Antigonish Movement represents the zenith of the Canadian Co-operative Movement. Its adult education approach married to mass economic reforms through development of co-operatives has done miracles in Canada. Its universal virtues have made it widely popular all over the world. It is indeed an ideal model particularly for the developing world to emulate.

One of the basic principles of the co-operative movement is that it depends on education and training of more than one kind. Essentially there can be no co-operation worthy of the name without co-operators who possess the minimum knowledge, the social techniques, and the moral qualities which co-operation demands from members and leaders alike. "Co-operators", observed Mr. W.P. Watkins, Director of I.C.A., "are mostly not born but made by a process of education which implies ... learning from fresh experience, adoption of noble ideas, adjustment of new methods and habits, acceptance of new loyalties and standards of behaviour on the part of both individuals and groups".¹

One of the most effective means of imparting this much

1. Paper on "Long-term Programmes of Co-operative Promotion and the Conditions of Their Realizations", see Twenty-Second Congress Report of I.C.A., p. 165.

needed co-operative education, besides the co-operatives themselves, has been the medium of adult education. In the co-operative movement, the traditional regard for adult education is well known. It may be recalled that the pioneer society at Rochdale, England, had its foundations in education as well as poverty. In fact the early co-operatives in England were an educational as well as economical movement. The founders "aimed not merely at controlling members but at making good co-operators of them in a very broad sense, including not only a clear understanding of the principles of co-operative trading, but also a new outlook on the problems of citizenship and on the forces, moral and material, that were shaping the developing world of steam power and large scale production".¹

In Canada, the educational aspect of the co-operative movement has been tremendously fostered by the Antigonish Movement sponsored by St. Francis Xavier University at Antigonish, Nova Scotia. In 1938, eight years after the Extension Department of the University had started working, Mooney observed, "St. Francis Xavier has perhaps discovered and added a new principle to orthodox Rochdale co-operative philosophy. It will perhaps turn out to be Canada's contri-

1. Cole, G.H.D., A Century of Co-operation, P. 71

bution to this mighty world movement. Succintly stated it might be termed: No co-operation without preparation. Or in other words, education before action".¹

The founder spirit behind this movement was Dr. J.J. Tompkins, who was destined to make a singular contribution to adult education in North America, and indirectly to the whole world. He, as well/^{as} other professors of the University like Dr. Hugh MacPherson, strongly believed that the colossal problems which faced Canada could be largely solved by education, by adult education for the rank and file of people on whom the whole economy ultimately rests. Imbued with this spirit, Dr. Tompkins "formulated a new philosophy of education, a philosophy that evaluated every educational institution for its worth to society and to all the people rather than its benefit to a few talented and fortunate individuals".² Through his valuable writings he preached his convictions about the need for an educational reform in that direction and in 1920 seriously urged upon the University for Extension which he defined as "an organized effort to give the people not in college some of the advantages enjoyed by the one-half of one percent who are able to attend college.

1. Co-operatives, Today and Tomorrow, P. 84

2. Laidlaw, A.F., The Campus and the Community, Montreal, Harvest House Limited, 1961, P. 63

It reaches out to the farmer, the workman and the average citizen, and says to each: If you cannot go to our college, your college will come to you. Agricultural Extension makes better farmers, and general Extension makes more effective and successful men and better citizens".¹

By 1930 the Extension Department of the University was actually at work in the field and adult education came to be recognized as a duty and a proper function of the University. The dream of Dr. Tompkins was finally realized.

It was under the distinguished leadership of Dr. M.M. Coady that the Extension Department was first organized. The chief purpose was to improve the economic, social, educational and religious conditions of the people of Eastern Nova Scotia. The original programme included, among other things, short courses - cultural and vocational, such as, Agricultural, Home Economics, Historical, etc., - in college and in field; short courses for selected men and women with a view to developing rural and industrial leaders: correspondence - vocational and cultural: study clubs in rural and industrial fields: radio courses: the development of technical schools and folk schools: and night schools. The "non-credit" type

1. Knowledge for the People, P. 5

of activities, which proved on the whole more popular and successful, included such items as general lectures; lending of books to study clubs; establishing circular libraries; visual education service; publishing an Extension bulletin; and organizing (a) country-wide debates on vital topics, essay and public speaking competition, (b) planning programmes for community centres, (c) rural community and town improvement competition, and (d) debating club, literary art and dramatic clubs, etc.¹ Thus the University launched a most comprehensive programme for popularization or extension of its advantages and resources to the people of the entire community it served.

St. Francis Xavier was not the first University in Canada to enter the field of adult education. Other universities, for example, the University of Alberta and the University of Saskatchewan had organized Extension Departments for adult education long before. But St. Francis Xavier has made its distinction not only as the pioneer of a new philosophy of adult education but also as the pioneer of certain methods and educational techniques. An early Extension pamphlet neatly describes the general method of procedure which the workers followed in their educational campaign:

1. The Campus and the Community, P. 71-72

The Extension is first brought to a community by holding a mass meeting of the people. At this meeting one or more professors give in general outline the problems confronting the people. It is explained that brain, not brawn, is the secret of human progress. The possibilities of life, whether for the individual or for the nation, will be realized in proportion to the ability to think. Education is explained as the instrument which enables a people to realize these possibilities. In the case of simple people it is comparatively easy to show them that, in the economic field at least, they have not taken advantage of all their opportunities. The Extension professors on account of their intimate knowledge of local conditions, are generally able to prove to the people that their past is full of economic tragedies. This awakens them from their lethargy and inertia and puts them in a mood to begin the work. The general method of action is then outlined and the groups, or study clubs, which are formed at this meeting begin work in some particular field.¹

The idea of study clubs is undoubtedly a positive contribution of the Antigonish programme to adult education methods in Canada. The clubs did not confine their activities to their own local groups for they used to organize monthly community rallies. Occasionally, the communities would meet in area meetings, called associated study clubs, to discuss their mutual problems. Finally they would assemble together in an annual conference in the university.

The Extension Department opened its first course for training of leaders in 1933. Since then it has continued as a valuable project of the Department.

1. As quoted by Dr. Laidlaw (see P. 74) from a pamphlet titled Program of Catholic Social Action, dated Sept. 1955, P. 6.

To recall, the first consumer co-operative in Canada was organized in Nova Scotia. Other kinds of co-operatives had also existed in the province before the Extension Department started its programme. One of the main reasons why these early co-operative ventures did not survive long was that the co-operators lacked a most important asset - education. Nothing was more clear to the leaders of the Extension programme who laid special stress on the removal of illiteracy of the people before enabling them to fight their own poverty. Dr. Laidlaw writes, "The role of the Extension Department in this situation was four-fold: (1) It supplied the educational basis that was to a great extent lacking up to that time. (2) It greatly speeded up the organization of new societies. (3) It introduced new types of organization that were not in existence before. (4) It united all kinds of organizations in a people's movement and gave them a sense of social purpose".¹

The result was a miracle. A new awakening took place among the farmers, fishermen and all other vocational groups in the urban areas. The study clubs gave them the idea to help themselves through co-operatives. Under the able guidance

1. The Campus and the Community, P. 83

of the Extension Department a good many farmers (fertilizer and feeds) and fishermen's (lobster cannaries) co-operatives were established by 1934.

It was in the field of credit unions that the Extension Department made its most significant contribution which was to have the greatest effect on other parts of Canada. Although *caisse populaires* had flourished in Quebec since 1900, it was yet to be introduced in Nova Scotia.

At the initiative of the Extension leader, Dr. Coady the first Credit Union Act was passed for the province of Nova Scotia in 1932, and in the same year the first credit union came into existence at Canso.

... it was through the little knots of discussion groups and study clubs, under the leadership of Dr. J.J. Tompkins that the idea of credit unions first emerged among the rank and file of the people of English-speaking Canada...

Through the efforts of the Extension Department ... the idea spread like wild fire to other provinces of Canada.¹

For a proper understanding of the Antigonish Movement and its contribution to adult education it is necessary to define adult education and point out the bearing the Movement has upon the co-operative movement.

1. Quoted by Dr. Laidlaw (see P. 85) from a leaflet, How the Credit Union Came to Canada, by Ellen Arsenault, Published by the Extension Department.

From a social point of view adult education has been defined by Kilpatrick "as a movement (which is) the conscious and organized effort to help the people study their problems and meet their needs".¹ From the point of view of co-operation, one of the most relevant definitions has been provided by Roben J. Maaske: "Adult education is a group learning effort, voluntarily undertaken by persons past adolescence, outside formal school institutions, deliberate in purpose, based on interests and needs of the learner, for the purpose of enrichment and enlightenment"². Certain essential elements that emerge from these definitions and take on special significance in relation to co-operatives are: it is pursued voluntarily by mature adults; it must be purposeful; it is not narrowly vocational in its aim, and finally, it must be socially meaningful.

Essentially, therefore, adult education is not necessarily class-room education and is best suited to promote co-operation. To quote Mr. Watkins again, "It is possible to get knowledge and information and to receive ideas in classrooms but the basis of co-operation and the end of co-

1. UNESCO, Universities in Adult Education, P. 134 (as quoted by Dr. Laidlaw, P. 20).

2. "Needs in Adult Education Today" in School and Society, LXIX (Jan. 1, 1949), P. 9.

operation are practical. We learn it in and through and by practice, and we apply it to practice in the end".¹

The Antigonish Movement has linked adult education with the co-operative movement of Canada. As a result, co-operatives in Canada today have a strong educational element in their composition. Indeed the Canadian co-operative movement is inseparable from the Antigonish movement.

The Extension Department has six basic principles before it to follow. These principles constitute the very core of the philosophy of the Antigonish movement. The first is the primacy of the individual based on both religious and democratic teaching. From religious point of view it emphasises the dignity of man, created in the image and likeness of God. Democratically, it stresses the value of the individual and the development of individual capacities as the proper aim of social organization.

The second principle is that social reform must come through education. The third states that education must begin with the pressing economic needs of the people. The fourth principle of the Antigonish movement states that education must be through group action. This principle is certainly

1. Twenty-Second Congress Report of ICA, P. 169

conducive to co-operative education as a co-operative union is essentially an organization of a group of persons having common economic problems to overcome. The fifth principle is that effective social reform involves fundamental changes in social and economic institutions. The Antigonish movement believes that real reform will necessitate strong measures of change which may prove even unpopular in certain quarters. The last but not the least is the principle that the ultimate objective of the Antigonish movement is a full and abundant life for everyone in the community through economic co-operation as the first step.

These principles are universal in their significance. They are not only relevant in the Canadian context but also equally applicable to the rest of the world. All over the world to-day there is the same concern for the common man, for his welfare and betterment. The Antigonish movement has illustrated an important way how to help those who are in need, and has demonstrated to the world that social reconstruction must begin among the common, working people who are the great majority everywhere, and that the success of democracy as a way of life necessarily depends on their education and well-being. The Antigonish concept of securing social progress by educating the mass of the population through adult education

has a valuable lesson to give especially to the developing world. "A philosophy that does not perpetuate competitive spirit of modern society but which would value all education in terms of preparing everyone to make his best contribution to the community, the nation and all mankind".¹

Co-operatives are viewed by the leaders of the Antigonish movement, first as adult education vehicle and secondly, as a method of economic emancipation. Dr. Coady's remark will best illustrate this point, "Antigonish - visualizes culture through lobster factories and other agencies that minister to the material wants of the people".² The educators in Antigonish view economic co-operation as an instrument of education more than an economic instrument. They looked upon co-operatives "as a means to other ends, not as ends in themselves: means to social justice, to intelligent participation in democracy, and to enjoy the better things in life".³ As a matter of fact the teaching of economic co-operation, and the promotion of co-operative generally are not the whole aim and concern of the movement, although these constitute one of the most important features of its philosophy.

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1. Dr. A.F. Laidlaw, The Campus and the Community, P. 101
 2. As quoted by Paul Hubert Casselman in his The Co-operative Movement and Some of its Problems, P. 42
 3. The Campus and the Community, P. 109

The encouragement and assistance of co-operative development is of course the most important part of the movement.

The Antigonish philosophy of co-operatives has been best expressed in the following oft-quoted passage by Dr.

Coady:

We have no desire to remain at the beginning, to create a nation of mere shopkeepers, whose thoughts run only to groceries and to dividends. We want our men to look into the sun and into the depths of the sea. We want them to explore the hearts of flowers and the hearts of fellowmen. We want them to live, to play and pray with all their being. We want them to be men, whole men, eager to explore all the avenues of life and to attain perfection in all their faculties. We want them to have the capacity to enjoy all that a generous God and creative men have placed at their disposal. We desire above all that they will discover and develop their own capacities for creation. It is good to appreciate: it is Godlike to create. Life for them shall not be in terms of merchandising but in terms of all that is good and beautiful, be it economic, political, social, cultural or spiritual. They are the heirs of all the ages and of all the riches yet concealed. All the findings of science and philosophy are theirs. All the creations of art and literature are for them. They will usher in the new day by attending to the blessings of the old. They will use what they have to secure what they have not.¹

The Extension Department of St. Francis Xavier University was originally designed to attend to the specific needs of the poor farmers, fishermen and miners of Nova Scotia. Needs of the farmers got the priority and the first work of the External Department was based on the farming communities of

1. Masters of Their Own Destiny, P. 163

Eastern Nova Scotia, which still remains as one of the chief interests of the programme. The present programme, therefore, mainly concentrates on rural life and development of agriculture in the Maritimes. Presently the Department is engaged in a most ambitious programme of rural development for Eastern Nova Scotia which aims at centralized modern facilities for marketing farm products from the whole area, for replacing eventually the smaller units of marketing that were established in earlier days. Extensive adult education is involved in this programme. The Department's work also includes settlement of immigrants families on farmlands in the eastern countries.

Adult education for agricultural communities is thus the first task and responsibility of the Extension Department. Its objective is to develop the best type of rural life, based on the family farm, and to promote the co-operative and community organizations that will help to build a progressive agricultural industry.¹

Fisheries have received the second priority in the Extension Department's current programme. The Government of Canada is also providing financial help to the Department enabling it to give a wider coverage of the area than would otherwise be possible. Presently the Department is running fisheries programmes in the three maritime provinces, namely,

1. The Campus and the Community, P. 144

New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia.

Primarily, the programme aims at organizing the fishermen of the area for co-operative processing and marketing of their products, and, of course, at providing them with a variety of adult education. The chief aims of the programme have been stated as below:

- (1) To organize the fishermen for co-operative ownership of processing plants and marketing facilities.
- (2) To assist fishermen in the best scientific development of the fishing industry, in the ownership of modern boats and equipment, and in the intelligent conservation of the natural resources of the sea.
- (3) To encourage and assist fishermen in other types of group organization, especially credit unions and consumer co-operatives, that contribute to the general betterment of community life.
- (4) To carry on a general programme of adult education that will help the fishing community of the Maritimes to make their best contribution to the Canadian nation.¹

The Department is also actively engaged in a broad urban programme for the benefit of the industrial workers and urban

1. The Campus and the Community, P. 114-115

people generally. Besides adult education and promotion and assistance of co-operatives, the programme is also concerned with labour education and assistance to labour union leaders. The industrialization of Cape Breton is a shining example of the outstanding achievement of the Antigonish movement in the field of urban co-operatives. Most of the successful urban co-operatives in Canada are to be found in that area. About fifty percent of the credit unions and most of the housing groups of the whole of Nova Scotia have grown in this area.

In the development of these housing groups, the Government of Nova Scotia, through a Housing Commission, and the Extension Department have provided an almost unique and much-admired solution to the problem of low-cost housing for working people. The general procedure in organization is for an Extension field-worker to prepare the group educationally for their building project and to guide them through the initial stages of organization, until the Government Housing Commission takes over when the group is ready to start construction of their future homes. This plan of co-operative housing has been described in many magazine articles and in the literature of the Extension Department.¹

The techniques and methods now followed by the Extension Department are not on the whole different from those originally followed. References have already been made to mass meeting, study club, leadership school and conference. These methods still continue to be used. Co-operative training courses are organized to give specialized instructions

1. Ibid, P. 115

on community organizations and administration of co-operatives. Besides short refresher courses for the local people, special short courses are also frequently arranged for overseas students. Week-end Institutes are held for labour leaders, directors of co-operative organizations and ladies' guilds. Weekly Radio programmes based on vital topics of local interest are also arranged. Industrial study classes are conducted in industrial areas to develop community leaders. The Seminarians vacation school is an interesting addition which, held in August each year, provides a kind of pre-service training to the desirous Catholic Seminarians in community work. Finally, there is the important technique of kitchen meetings which are organized by trained visiting leaders in collaboration with the local leaders of a community. Neighbours who attend such meetings discuss local problems and plan ways of action. At the end of such house meetings, a mass meeting is held which is attended by the rank and file of the community, and in which objectives are set and future plans decided.

The Coady International Institute¹ was established at St. Francis Xavier University in 1960 "to centralize and

1. Other details including courses offered at the Institute in 1971-72 may be seen in the booklet provided in Appendix K.

to expand the specialized training in social leadership now provided or to be provided by the university - to provide a centre of information that will handle requests for information and assistance from foreign countries".¹ The Institute is destined to spread its beacon to the whole world. In particular the emerging countries stand to reap the highest benefit from it. Already a good number of foreign students have received diplomas or certificates in social leadership from the Institute. The number of foreign participants is gradually increasing each year. Over the last few years, international organizations have increasingly begun to grant stipends to social workers and co-operative leaders in developing countries to study in Antigonish. The Institute is now an internationally acknowledged centre of co-operative education for emerging nations.

While at home both French and English colonial powers had such famous co-operative institutes as the British Co-operative College, the Plunkett Foundation for Co-operative Studies in London, the French College Co-operatif and the Centre of International de la Co-operation in Paris, they showed only nominal interest in the promotion of co-operative

1. Msgr. F.J. Smith, The Casket, Oct. 27, 1960
(As quoted by Dr. Laidlaw, P. 159)

movements in the colonies. Konrad Engelmann rightly observes, "Their educational work was based on the colonial status of the respective areas and oriented to the co-operative traditions and interests of the colonial power". He goes on to say, "Co-operative education was directed less toward progress in general and more toward organizing the work of natives to improve the yield and to establish discipline among rural workers".¹ Therefore, whatever co-operative institutions the newly-independent countries have inherited from their colonial masters can hardly meet the modern educational needs which are based upon the recognition that the co-operative methods of organization are among the most effective means for technical and spiritual progress, paving the way to socio economic improvements and political independence. Naturally, they have to look out to the developed countries for new ideas to fulfil their needs.

In this respect the Antigonish experience has already caught the imagination of the developing countries. In East Pakistan, for example, the Comilla² experiment is an outstanding independent co-operative movement in the Antigonish direction. The great emphasis is on education, along with

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1. Building Co-operative Movements in Developing Countries, Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, New York, 1968, P. 158-159.
 2. Incidentally, Comilla happens to be the writer's home town.

other forms of co-operative development. The existing co-operative societies are admitted to the reform programme and emphasis is placed on weekly membership meetings for educational purposes held under the centre's supervision. Many members also attend separate training courses, which they also report on at the weekly membership meetings. In this way, over 5,000 co-operators have already been reached by the course work. All aspects of rural life are the topics of course study and discussion. Special emphasis is laid on co-operative discipline as the prerequisite for an effective application of the new agricultural techniques that are taught in the courses. The programme has effectively combined adult education with rural reform and has already brought about remarkable increase in the district's agricultural production. The programme is also encouraging primary education through the co-operative members.¹ Like the Seminarists vacation school at Antigonish, the Comilla programme also takes keen interest in training the village imams (priests) who are taught the basic ideas of the reform programme, with the emphasis mainly on the principles of co-operative work and the co-operative way of life.

1. Ibid, P. 152-153.

The co-operative college at Kotbari, Comilla, bears the memory of Antigonish: "The block for discussion and meeting was called Antigonish, while another with more formal classrooms was named Hochdale".¹ The Antigonish ideal has had so much influence there that a student of Coady International Institute wrote back from Comilla, "The people have no money, so we use rice instead. We have a rice credit union and are getting ready to set up a rice co-op".²

Like Father Tompkins and Dr. Coady at Antigonish, Comilla was also fortunate to have the dedicated services of Mr. Akhtar Hamed Khan, a former member of the Indian Civil Service, who was the practical founder of the centre and who is still devoting his entire time and energy for the success of the programme and its spread elsewhere in the country.

In recognition of his selfless work for rural development Mr. Khan was presented the Magsaysay Award by the Philippine Government and an honorary Doctorate of Laws by Michigan State University.

The Comilla co-operative experiment represents the combined efforts of the Ford Foundation, Michigan State

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1. Griesbach, Floyd F. "Co-operative Training in East Pakistan," in Canadian Co-operative Digest, Spring, 1964, vol. 7, no. 1, p. 24
 2. Cameron, Zita, "The Coady International Institute" in Canadian Co-operative Digest, Spring 1964, Vol. 7, no. 1, p. 36

University, the Academy of Rural Development (Comilla), Japanese farm experts and the governments of the United States and of East Pakistan. It would be most beneficial to the project's country-wide future expansion if the St. Francis Xavier University with all its Antigonish experience could also join this small international team preferably through CIDA's aid.

The Comilla experiment should not only encourage the other emerging countries, it should also convince the Canadian Government and the people at Antigonish that they have a vital role to play by way of helping these countries.

In general, the rural problems of the Maritimes is the same as the rural problem all over the world, more so in the developing countries. The Antigonish approach to the problem will perhaps be more relevant in the context of the developing countries. "The possibilities for the application of this programme", wrote Msgr. M.J. MacKinnon former Director of the Extension Department, "to the emerging countries of the world are unlimited. It is a programme of self-help and mutual help. It takes the people where they are, even the illiterate, and leads them to the higher levels of human performance. It is inexpensive and easily applicable to large numbers of people over wide areas. It is also big

enough philosophically and scientifically to appeal to the most fastidious. It is a programme suited to democracy in this scientific and technological age. It is a programme of adult education that begins in the economic field, fans out into every phase of human activity; it is a programme which will give life to all nations and all peoples, and not just to the favoured few".¹

While taking stock of aid to education the Pearson Commission very rightly suggested:

Education ought not be defined in terms of uniform blocks of unchanging numbers of years of study. Rather, it should be an adaptable process with many "tracks" and varying achievement levels designed to meet many different qualitative objectives. It should be geared to give each individual, at any time of his life, the tools and the experience to adjust his ability to his ambitions. This requires fundamental changes both in educational policy and in the nature² and magnitude of the aid effort that will be needed.

The most pivotal role of education in development policy cannot be exaggerated. In order to make the best possible utilization of foreign aid the developing countries have, therefore, a great responsibility to develop a concept of education relevant to their needs. It is all the more necessary because it has been proved that their out-

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1. Quoted by Dr. Laidlaw in The Campus and the Community, (P. 160) from Msgr. F.J. Smyth (from the Casket, Oct. 27, 1960).
 2. Partners in Development, Report of the Commission on International Development, Praeger Publications, New York, 1969, p. 201.

moded and traditional concept of education is ill-suited to proper development. Each developing or under-developed country is, therefore, faced with the problem of education reform. In shaping their new educational policy they can benefit immensely from the Antigoniish example.

CHAPTER V

THE INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATIVE ALLIANCE AND ITS PROMOTION OF CO-OPERATIVES THROUGH TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

The International Co-operative Alliance was founded by the International Co-operative Congress held in London in 1895. It is one of the oldest existing international voluntary bodies, having completed 75 years of service¹ in 1970. The Alliance is an association of national unions of co-operatives. It seeks to promote all over the free world a non-profit system of production and trade, organized in the interest of the whole community and based upon voluntary and mutual self-help. The constitution of the organization was laid down in the Second Congress of the I.C.A. held in Paris in 1896. The over-all purpose of the I.C.A. is proclaimed in Article 1 of its Rules which, as amended in the 24th Congress of the I.C.A. held in Hamburg in 1969, reads as follows:

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1. The ICA has recently published Mr. W.P. Watkins The International Co-operative Alliance 1895-1970. This volume of ICA history commemorates the 75th Anniversary of the ICA tracing its evolution from its first manifestation to its present status. It is a fine review of the eventful history of the ICA.

The International Co-operative Alliance in continuance of the work of the Rochdale Pioneers and in accordance with co-operative principles, seeks in complete independence and by its own methods, to substitute for the profit making regime a co-operative system organized in the interest of the whole community and based upon mutual self-help.¹

Article 3 of the Rules sets the objectives of the ICA as follows:

(a) To be universal representative of Co-operative Organizations of all types which, in practice, observe the co-operative principles. (b) To propagate co-operative principles and methods throughout the world. (c) To promote co-operation in all countries. (d) To safeguard the interest of the Co-operative Movement in all its forms. (e) To maintain good relations between its affiliated organizations. (f) To promote friendly and economic relations between the co-operative organizations of all types, nationally and internationally. (g) To work for the establishment of lasting peace and security through co-operative efforts.²

Membership: The Alliance comprises co-operative organizations in every continent and has a total affiliated membership of over 255 million in 60 countries.³ The consumers'

1. Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63, No. 3, 1970, P. 99

2. Ibid, P. 83

3. Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63, No. 3, 1970, P. 99.

movement accounts for about half the membership, the other half consisting of agricultural, credit, workers productive, artisanal and fishery societies. In addition to observing the aims of the ICA and the policy laid down by its Congress, to be eligible for membership a co-operative organization as a rule, must observe in practice the famous principles of Rochdale as reformulated by the Twenty-Third Congress of the ICA. The ICA also admits into its membership such auxiliary organizations as Women's Guilds and other Associations which, though not constituted as co-operative societies, are genuinely co-operative in spirit and otherwise serve the purposes of the movement. There is also the provision of associate membership for those co-operative organizations who do not as yet conform strictly to the ICA standards. Thus since 1954 the ICA has accepted co-operative organizations under government supervision and control as associate members, as a transitional stage until they attain self-government and become eligible for full membership.

Auxiliaries: The ICA really functions through a series of auxiliary committees established under Article 4 of the Alliance, created over the years, dealing with important branches of co-operative activity. The auxiliaries covering the banking, insurance and trading organizations are -

International Banking Committee (1922), International Insurance Committee (1921), and Co-operative Wholesale Committee (1956) respectively. Through these organizations the ICA promotes direct commercial and financial relations between co-operative enterprises in different member countries so as to enable them to exert on the world market, as well as at home, an influence beneficial to consumers and primary producers alike. Besides these three auxiliaries there are five more covering the fields of production, agriculture, housing, retail distribution and petroleum. Created in 1947, the International Committee of Workers' Co-operative Productive and Artisanal Societies cares for the needs of special types of societies which are not so powerful as Consumers or Agricultural Co-operatives, but which have possibilities of greater expansion in some of the underdeveloped countries. The Agricultural Committee, created in 1951, deals with agricultural questions of co-operative interest, particularly inter-trading in agricultural produce and requisites between consumers' and producers' organizations. The Housing Committee, which has been in existence since 1952, provides a forum where these societies may discuss the problems and work out plans of joint action, not merely among themselves but in combination

with consumers' and other types of societies. The Committee on Retail Distribution was set up in 1958 to study the rationalization of commodity distribution. The International Co-operative Petroleum Association was organized in 1947. Since then the organization is continuing to work in developing countries towards more co-operative distribution of petroleum in these areas, and is also continuing to emphasize training of personnel of members from different countries. In 1968 the ICPA was admitted as an individual member of the ICA, and no longer, therefore, is listed as an auxiliary committee but as a regular member.

Administration: The administration of the ICA is carried on by its three principal organs, namely the Central Committee, the Executive and the Secretariat.

The main responsibility of the Central Committee is to ensure that the decisions of the Congress - the assembly of delegates of the affiliated organizations, usually meeting every three years, in a different country by invitation of one or more member organizations - is carried out. The Committee is also authorized by Rules to take other important decisions on its own responsibility.

Article 28 of the Rules relates to the membership of the Central Committee. Under it every national organization

with its subscription fully paid up is entitled by virtue of its membership to one representative in the Committee. Before 1960, such an organization could have one additional representative for every £ 200 it subscribed annually, up to a maximum of ten. In the 1960 Congress an amendment to the Article changed the entitlement to additional representatives from each complete £ 200 subscription to each complete £ 400, and also reduced the maximum representation of any one country or union of countries from ten to eight members. On this basis, the Central Committee now comprises 144 members representing affiliated organizations in 41 countries.

The first job of the Central Committee, at the close of each Congress, is to elect the President, two Vice-Presidents, and all members of the executive, all of whom hold office until the next Congress. The Committee also appoints the auditors, trustees, chief officers of the Alliance. Through it the ICA convenes the International Congress; decides on the date, approves the agenda and reports all questions submitted to Congress. The Central Committee acts as an appellate body in respect of appeals against the Executive. It also has the power to exclude an organization from membership in case of gross violation

of rules, objects or interests of the Alliance. As a rule it has to meet at least once a year and also immediately before and after Congress.

Article 32 of the Rules of the Alliance provides:

The Executive shall consist of the President, two Vice-Presidents and thirteen other members elected by the Central Committee from amongst its members immediately after each Congress.¹

Executive: The main function of the Executive is to exercise control over the affairs of the ICA between meetings of the Central Committee. It keeps in touch with every aspect of the work of the Secretariat , and is concerned especially with finance and membership. It is empowered by the Rules to admit or reject application for membership of the Alliance. Any rejected applicant has, however, the right to appeal to the Central Committee. The executive also examines the budget prepared by the Secretariate, oversees income and expenditure, appoints principal assistants and decides the conditions of employment of the staff. There is no rule as to how many times the Executive will meet, but normally it is not convened more than four times in any year. No country or union of countries may be represented

1. ICA Twenty-Fourth Congress Agenda and Reports, 1969
(uncorrected copy) p. 50

on the Executive by more than two members, unless one is President.

The Secretariat : The headquarters of the ICA is in London where its Secretariate is housed in a building in 11, Upper Grosvenor Street, which was purchased by the Alliance in 1951 and furnished by generous gifts from the affiliated organizations. The Secretariat is headed by the Director and the General Secretary, who participate in meetings of the Authorities of the Alliance in advisory capacity only and has no power to vote. The Director is responsible for ICA affairs in the intervals between Executive meetings. Besides, he is directly responsible for the relations of the ICA with the United Nations and Specialized Agencies and the editorship of ICA publications. The General Secretary, on the other hand, is responsible for conducting the general work of the Secretariat . In addition he manages the finances of the Alliance, organizes the Congress and meetings of the Authorities and of certain Auxiliaries. Besides he also carries out the procedure laid down by the Rules for the admission of new members. At present, Dr. S.K. Saxena and Mr. R.P.B. Davies respectively are the Director and the General Secretary of the Alliance.

The ICA works with an annual budget of slightly over

£ 119,000. The totals of income and expenditure of the three years from 1966 to 1968 are given below:

	<u>Income (£)</u>	<u>Expenditure (£)</u>
(1966	108,440	91,999
1. (1967	109,448	100,811
(1968	119,085	116,503

It is evident that expenditure is not keeping pace with income.

The income of the ICA is obtained almost entirely from the annual subscriptions paid by its members. Affiliated co-operative societies pay subscriptions based on their membership. Unions of Federations of Societies paid, until 1969, a fixed subscription of £ 115 per annum as "individual" members. In view of salary increases each year, administrative costs rise annually because of increase in postal and telephone charges, printing, etc., and also in consideration of recent extensions of the work of the ICA, the Central Committee, at its meeting in April 1969, agreed to an increase of 10% in subscription in 1970 and a further 10% in 1971.²

The Congress: The Congress is the supreme authority of the Alliance. As already stated, it normally meets every three

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1. ICA Twenty-Fourth Congress Agenda and Reports, 1969
(copy for correction) P. 8
 2. Ibid, P. 9

years, in a different country by invitation. The last Congress was held in Hamburg in September 1969. A set of twenty-six standing orders govern the procedure of the Congress. Accordingly its sessions extend over four full days of two sessions each. The President¹ is responsible for conducting the business of the Congress, assisted by the members of the Congress Committee. The Congress reviews the work of the Alliance since it last met and gives or withholds its approval. It discusses motions proposed by the Central Committee or affiliated organizations and passes resolutions. The proceedings are carried on in the four official languages of the Alliance: English, French, German and Russian, with the aid of simultaneous translation. The length of speeches and method of voting are determined by the Standing orders. A speaker is allowed five minutes, except the mover of a motion or amendment or the mover of a paper. He may, however, be accorded an additional five minutes by the decision of the Congress.

Representation is on the basis of two delegates for each national organization, though "collective" members are entitled to extra delegates according to a sliding scale.

1. Mr. M. Bonow is the present President of the ICA elected in the Twenty-Sixth Congress held in Hamburg in September 1969.

As a rule, no organization may hold more than one-fifth of the total voting strength of the congress.

Each delegate has one vote, Organizations, may however, entrust all their votes to a single delegate provided that no one delegate shall use more than ten votes. The President has only one vote. He has no casting vote in case of tie.

A large number of fraternal delegates and guests also attend the Congress by invitation. They include official representatives of the United Nations (such as ILO, FAO, UNESCO), National governments, international organizations such as the International Co-operative Women's Guild, World Veterans' Federation and International Chamber of Commerce. They may, with the consent of the Congress Committee, address the Congress but may not vote.

Publicity and Co-operative Education: The ICA furthers the teaching and study of co-operation and issues publications and research data. The Review of International Co-operation (bi-monthly), The Cartel (quarterly), The Co-operative New Service (fortnightly), Film Bulletin, Reports of International Congresses, International Co-operation, etc., are the important publications of ICA. Most of these publications deal with co-operative development in every part of the world.

The study of International Co-operation takes place under the auspices of the Henry J. May Foundation. The Rainbow Flag of the ICA was selected in the Third Congress held in Paris in 1900.¹ The International Co-operative Day, instituted over forty-eight years ago, is observed every year on the first Saturday or Sunday in July as a festival of rejoicing and rededication of co-operators all over the world.

The ICA and the United Nations: The ICA collaborates closely with the United Nations as well as with voluntary and non-governmental international bodies which pursue aims of importance to co-operation. It has also the privilege of working and consulting with the United Nations on many international problems. In the United Nations, its Economic and Social Council, as well as in some other specialized agencies, eg. FAO, UNESCO, UNICEF, IAEA, etc., the ICA enjoys the right of participation in their meetings and works as an International Organization with the highest consultative status - Category A. The U.N. and these agencies undertake programmes of technical assistance in the developing countries to promote co-operation in order to raise their business and

1. "The French Co-operative Movement and the International Co-operative Alliance" by Roger Kerinee in Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63 No. 3, 1970, p. 119.

living standards. The ICA is called upon to work with these agencies on an increasing number of practical tasks including the exchange of information, research, organization of courses, arrangements of study tours and training of technicians. In collaboration with the U.N. Second Development Decade, the ICA has also declared the seventies as the Co-operative Development Decade and initiated a wide-ranging collaborative programme for the development of co-operatives in developing countries through research, technical and educational programmes. The Decade would be a means of channeling to developing countries that tangible help which is essential for bringing strength to the new co-operative movements of those areas. It is expected that this help would mainly come from co-operators in developed countries, and from the U.N. and other international agencies. "The ICA intends to act as a nerve centre for the Decade operation of marshaling, co-ordinating and channeling resources to co-operative development in the less developed countries. It will provide leadership; it will disseminate publicity and information; it will help identify needs, the kind of help required to meet those needs and the potential resources of such support ... and it will collaborate with all other agents of co-operative

development".¹

ICA's Technical Assistance for Promotion of Co-operation:

In the first 55 years of its past 75 years of historical development, the membership, activities and interests of the Alliance were largely confined to the developed world. It was only since the Second World War and particularly in the last fifteen years that the needs of the developing countries have played an increasing part in the deliberations of the Alliance. Thus, in its Declaration issued on the 28th International Co-operative Day, 1950, the ICA voiced its reaffirmation to the belief:

That the standard of living and economic development in the more advanced countries and in the under-developed countries of the world shall be brought to a more comparable level by the raising of the standards in the under-developed countries, particularly by the promotion of co-operation.²

During this period the development of co-operation throughout the world entered a new phase. The governments of the less developed countries no longer ignored it. Many of them, indeed with the support of the United Nations and its specialized agencies, sought to educate and help their citizens by using co-operation as a means of raising the

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1. The Co-operative Development Decade 1971-1980
Studies and Reports, Published by ICA (sixth in the series) January, 1971, P. 12
 2. I.C.A.: Its Aims and Works, published by ICA,
11 Upper Grosvenor Street, London W.1, P. 25.

standard of living and of modernizing agriculture, industry, commerce and education in their respective countries.

This new trend did not go unnoticed in the ICA. Recognizing that the promotion of co-operation in these countries cannot be left entirely to their governments but requires the aid of the United Nations and of special inter-governmental institutions, the ICA decided to develop its own programme of technical assistance supported by a Development Fund. Therefore, after the Paris Congress of 1954, the Executive laid down the course of ICA action in this field. The result was that the post-war plans of the Alliance included the expansion of its organization so that functions of its Secretariate could be devolved gradually upon regional offices in different parts of the world. The region of Southeast Asia was given the first priority among the less developed regions because of its extent and vast population. Dr. G. Keler was deputed to undertake a study tour of the region, which led ultimately to the Kuala Lumpur Conference of 1958 and the establishment in 1960 of the ICA regional office in New Delhi. Mr. W.P. Watkins' observation on this new venture is significant:

The results in the last ten years cannot be enumerated now, but they certainly include enhanced inter communication and cohesion on the part of the ICA's membership

right across Asia from Iran to Japan; the development of education and training with an improvement in the quality of co-operative management and of government guidance and supervision of co-operative organization; a thorough exploration of the possibilities of inter-co-operative trade between the different countries.¹

Dr. S.K. Saxena, the present Director of the Alliance, has more fully described the recent activities of the New Delhi Regional Office of the ICA:

A series of seminars and conferences, both national and regional, have resulted in a wide interchange of experience on an intra-regional basis; literature has been produced which is directly relevant to the needs of the movements; and sustained efforts have been made to provide technical assistance by undertaking feasibility studies and by providing on-the-spot advice for the creation of economic organizations on a co-operative basis. In short, the ICA Regional Office and Education Centre has become a beehive of activities and shows considerable promise in providing movements in Southeast Asia.²

About four-fifths of the total expenditure of the ICA in Southeast Asia comes from the members of the Swedish co-operative movement. The Swedish project, initiated by the Ko-operativa Forbundet (KF), to establish a co-operative college for Southeast Asia at New Delhi, was amalgamated in 1963 with the ICA regional office as its Education Centre. The Centre is financed entirely by the annual collections

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1. "Seventy-five Years of the ICA: A Commentary" in Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63, No. 3, 1970, P. 110.
 2. Ibid, P. 96

made by the KF from its affiliated societies, their members and other well-wishers. The main function of the Centre is to reinforce in every possible way the co-operative education carried on in a variety of forms, and on several different levels, by the co-operative organizations, governments and other institutions of the region. Its annual programmes, therefore, include courses, seminars or similar meetings organized directly by the Centre; courses convened by the national unions, with the technical guidance and assistance of the Centre; special studies and research; publications; collaboration and consultation for educational and training purposes with other international organizations, such as UNESCO, ILO and FAO, with national governments and institutions interested in co-operation.

The second extension of the ICA was its regional office for East and Central Africa, with headquarters in Moshi, Tanzania, which was inaugurated on October 1st, 1968.¹ The Swedish co-operative movement again came forward to help: Mr. Arne Holmberg was seconded, with salary support, by the Swedish Co-operative Centre (SCC) to work as the first Regional Director of the office, which position he held until August 18th, 1970. Besides, substantial financial support

1. Mr. Watkins (Ibid, P.110) mentions the opening year of the office as 1969, while Mr. Arne Holmberg gives the above-mentioned inauguration date in 1968. Vide his article "The ICA Office for East and Central Africa", Review of International Co-operation Vol. 63, No. 5, 1970 p.168. Mr. Holmberg should be correct as the same date is given in the Report of the 24th Congress held in Hamburg in 1969. See P. 9 of the Draft report.

towards the cost of the office was also provided by the Swedish Foundation "Without Boundaries" and its educational programmes are sustained by contributions from the Swedish International Development Association. The office is already active through its recently formed governing body - the Advisory Co-operative Council, consisting of three representatives from each of the member organizations in the area covered by the office, namely, the Kenya National Federation of Co-operatives Ltd., the Co-operative Union of Tanganyika Ltd., and the Uganda Co-operative Alliance. So far three Working Parties are at work on co-operative education; accountancy, statistics and audit; and the credit and finance. They are sifting the common co-operative problems, analysing them and making proposals to the apex organizations and the co-operative commissioners of the three member countries.

In Latin America, there has been no necessity of opening a regional office of the ICA because the co-operative movements in that region have their own regional organization, namely, the Organizations of the Co-operatives of America. The Alliance is supporting the activities of the CCA and maintaining effective collaboration with it.

ICA Development Fund: Technical assistance activities of the ICA are financed by its Development Fund which is composed mainly of donations from the affiliated organizations. The history of the Fund goes back to the 19th ICA Congress in 1954, where for the first time the need for technical assistance to co-operatives in the developing countries was felt and the following motion passed:

This Congress resolves to establish an international fund under the auspices of the International Co-operative Alliance, to foster, encourage and develop co-operative activities and enterprises in under-developed countries.¹

The following amounts were contributed to the Fund since its inception up to 1969:²

<u>Years</u>	<u>Approximate figures</u>
1954-57	£ 46,000
1957-60	£ 2,000
1960-63	£ 600
1963-66	£ 24,000
1966-69	(£ 39,626
	(£ 20,928 (special contributions)

(The main contributors are Australia, Austria, Canada, Netherlands, Norway, Japan, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom and U.S.A.)

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1. ICA Twenty-Fourth Congress Reports, 1969, (copy for correction), P. 16
 2. ICA Congress Reports, 1957, 1960, 1963, 1966 and 1969.

on sizable, meaningful projects would heighten the impact of technical assistance to developing countries.

So far as technical assistance is concerned the most serious drawback of the ICA lies in the inadequacy of the Development Fund. Ever since its establishment there has been resolution after resolution for strengthening the Fund. But in spite of that the generosity of the contributors has not yet been aroused, rather it has rapidly declined between 1957 and 1963, as may be seen from the figures given earlier. The ordinary contribution of the last three-year period is still less than that of the first three-year period, i.e. 1954-57. The latest resolution runs as follows:

Resolves to urge all its affiliated organizations to increase substantially their contributions to the Development Fund, in raising the finance for which they should start a wide-scale campaign in their respective countries in commemorating the ICA's forthcoming 75th Anniversary, and in this connection commends among others the practice whereby member organizations donate 10% of the sum raised for their own technical assistance programme ...¹

In the previous Congress (1966) this inadequacy of the Development Fund was seriously debated particularly by the delegates of the developing countries, which resulted in a

1. Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63, Nos. 1-2, 1970, p. 21.

resolution to the effect that "the assistance so far rendered is grossly inadequate to meet the immense and urgent needs manifest in the present world situation"¹ and that the Fund should be strengthened. Among others, Mr. R. Ahmeed of Pakistan stressed:

If we look at the Report we find sums mentioned which are rather meagre. This is the fourth Congress which I have attended, and at every Congress we have heard noble speeches expressing sympathy for the downtrodden and underprivileged peoples of the world, but I would like ... to say quite often such speeches amount to no more than lip service and that the sincerity of sentiments is proved by action.²

The delegates of Japan, Chile and India also struck the same cord. The Indian delegate Mr. B. Perakash said, "Merely to add some scholarships or other activities of that kind will not help much, because what is really needed is good productivity in the sphere of agriculture. Productivity is the most important factor, as will be readily appreciated, because in the developing countries we want also to see the development of marketing and processing. In that respect, as I said at the last Congress, technical assistance will be required in the matter of

1. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Reports, 1966, P. 236

2. Ibid, P. 59.

management training and collaboration. We shall need collaboration on projects between the developed and the developing countries".¹ What is true of India in this respect is true of most of the developing countries in Africa and Asia.

There is little doubt that the future activities, programmes and effectiveness of the ICA must depend to a large extent on the adequacy of the Development Fund. On the other hand, it is also equally doubtful whether, in spite of all the well-meaning resolutions, the position of the Fund will undergo any radical improvement in the near future.

It was perhaps such a dim prospect that prompted Mr. C. Pedersen, a delegate from Denmark in the Twenty-Fourth Congress, to express² the feeling that co-operative activities of the ICA in the field of technical assistance must not be limited too strictly to the small amounts of money available from co-operative organizations. He suggested that if the co-operative movement were to achieve its goal, the necessary money should be obtained from other sources, including governmental ones.

1. Ibid, P. 59

2. Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63, Nos. 1-2, 1970. P. 23.

Dr. Bonow, President of the ICA, in his inaugural address to the Twenty-Third Congress drove home the same point in different words:

What we as representatives of co-operative enterprises can provide, which no one else can, is the co-operative know-how. Neither governments nor international agencies can assist with this fund of knowledge without tapping the resources of practical experience which, over many decades, have been accumulated within the various branches of our world co-operative movement. But governments and international agencies can provide the other essential elements for speeding up the co-operative development process and that is finance. The combination of co-operative know-how and government and/or intergovernmental finance is the necessary prerequisite for the implementation of co-operative development programmes in the lesser developed countries to such an extent that a real impact can be made on agricultural production and a betterment of food supply generally be achieved.¹

The writer completely agrees with Mr. Pederson and would go further to suggest² that each aid giving country should set aside at least 5% of its total technical assistance allocations and channel the amount to the ICA Development Fund, through affiliated organizations of that country, to be utilized as technical assistance in the field of co-operatives. This would certainly be the most

1. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1966, P.10

2. Dr. S.K. Saxena, the Director of ICA, was kind enough to offer his personal opinion on this suggestion which may please be seen in Appendix E.

practical approach towards helping the co-operative movements in the developing countries. The ICA then would be financially strong enough to implement successfully its ever increasing future programmes. Once the question of finance is solved the ICA can make the best use of the co-operative know-how which is abundantly available in the industrialized parts of the world for the benefit of the lesser developed countries.

CHAPTER VI

PARTICIPATION OF THE CANADIAN ICA - AFFILIATED ORGANIZATIONS IN PROVIDING TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The Co-operative Union of Canada has been one of the two members of the ICA since 1912. It represents the English-language co-operatives in Canada. The other member is a parallel organization, Le Conseil de la Co-operation, which serves the French-language co-operatives in this country. The two bodies, CUC and CCC, work closely together and in complete harmony. In the past, the Canadian Co-operative Movement rendered considerable help and support to the ICA through these two organizations - both in terms of finance, resource persons and by providing in the highest councils of the ICA the service of leading Canadian co-operators. At present, the movement is represented in the Executive Committee of the ICA by Mr. W.B. Melvin, the president of the CUC, while Messrs. K.F. Harding, W.B. Melvin, J.T. Phalen, Y. Daneau, M.J. Legere and A. Rouleau are elected members of the Central Committee. Mr. Melvin is also a member of the Congress Committee. The two affiliated organizations of Canada paid general subscription, for

example, of ¹ 681-17-8 in 1962, ² 917 in 1965 occupying the 17th and 16th position in a list of 48 countries. Incidentally, it is interesting to note that even a developing country like Pakistan³ figures higher in the list of subscription payment than Canada.

The record is no better in respect of the Canadian Movement's contribution to the ICA Development Fund; it figures as one of the lowest among the contributors.⁴ It is apparent that the situation is a question of the prestige of the Canadian movement. Since contribution to the Fund is voluntary in principle there is no likelihood of its being increased remarkably in the near future in normal course unless the government of Canada decides to channel a suitable portion of its technical assistance allocation in the field of co-operatives to it through the Canadian member organizations. Such a course of action, the writer believes, would be in the right direction.

It is, however, expected that the contributions of the Canadian movement will be stepped up considerably in line with the ICA declaration of the '70's as the "Co-operative Development Decade" - a document which covers a ten-year programme of research and action. Efforts are being made

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1. ICA Twenty-Second Congress Report, 1963, P. 285
 2. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1966, P. 307
 3. Ibid, P. 307
 4. Ibid, P. 31.

to raise a substantial fund for a major overseas programme which would be supported by Canadian co-operatives through the CUC. The CUC has taken the initiative and a meeting has already been held with representatives of the ICA, CIDA, and the CCC to discuss a suitable project for the Canadian co-operative movement to undertake as a part of the ICA Development Decade Programme. The tentative proposal decided upon is that the CUC and CCC contribute funds which will be matched by the CIDA to initiate a training activity in a bilingual country of West Africa. "The project might start with one person and develop with help from other countries into a fully equipped training centre similar to the ICA Centre in Tanzania".¹ There is little doubt that the ultimate success of such a project would largely depend upon CIDA's contribution.

Direct Assistance: The CUC has had limited involvement in providing direct assistance to co-operatives in developing countries. It has, however, provided support for programmes undertaken by the Government of Canada and other agencies involved in development works. It continues to do so. Its personnel are available to the CIDA for consultation on

1. Annual Report, 1970, Co-operative Union of Canada, Congress, June 14-17, 1971, Kitchener, Ontario, P.29.

projects involving co-operative action, invariably those on overseas training programmes.

A statement of training facilities would not be complete without mention of the excellent participation of the many co-operative societies and associations in Canada, and the CUC whose advice and counsel is freely given.¹

CUC personnel have attended numerous meetings in Canada and occasionally overseas where programmes in developing countries were being discussed. For example, its president, Mr. W.B. Melvin, as an advisor to CIDA, attended the Third International Conference on Aid for Co-operatives in Developing Countries held at the Co-operative College in Loughborough, U.K., April 13-17, 1971.

Two areas in which the CUC has been particularly active are: recruiting co-operative experts for overseas assignments and assisting with the development of co-operative training programmes in Canadian co-operative institutions and universities.

Another overseas activity of the CUC in financial terms although minimal, is that it contributes \$1,000 each year to support the budget of the Organization of Co-operatives of America, an organization set up to help the development

1. Hon. Paul Martin (Secretary of State for External Affairs - March 10, 1967), "Canadian Co-operatives and International Development" Canadian Co-operative Digest, Spring 1967, Vol. 10, No. 1, P. 11.

of co-operatives particularly in Central and Latin America and adjacent islands. Besides, a good deal of co-operative information and study material is constantly being requested by the developing countries and is sent out by the CUC and its member organizations.

The involvement of the CCC in providing direct assistance to co-operatives in developing countries has been far more limited than that of the CUC. However, the CCC and the Council of Co-operation of Quebec (CCQ) are presently occupied with a plan of action favouring co-operative movements in developing countries. The main object of the plan is to formulate a co-ordinated programme out of all sorts of sporadic activities in this regard.

The CCC, in collaboration with the CCQ, organized in September, 1970, a visit to Quebec of the participants of an ICA Seminar held in the U.S.A. on "Co-operative Management in the Seventies". The French Canada Co-operative movement of saving and of credit participated in the Second International Conference of Savings and Credit Unions which was held in Paris in September 1970. The only tangible contribution that French Canada has really made so far has been through the Desjardins Co-operative Institute, the first residential centre of

education for adults in French Canada. This institute has also occupied itself with the economic and social problems confronting the developing countries and has for several years regularly received groups of participants from these countries.

It is abundantly clear that the contribution of the Canadian co-operative movement to the development of co-operatives overseas by way of providing technical assistance has not so far been significant: it does not compare with that of any of the movements of the developed countries which reported their activities to the ICA in 1965, for example.¹ Although the Canadian co-operative movement is very rich in terms of expertise and co-operative know-how, its main handicap is the inadequacy of its development fund. The following table prepared from the reports furnished to the ICA Congress of the technical assistance rendered by co-operatives in developed countries to co-operatives in developing countries will show the meagre achievement of the Canadian movement:

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1. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1966, Pp. 217-230
 2. Ibid, Pp. 217-230.

Name of Movement	Technical Assistance Fund Collected & Utilized in 1964	Approximate Total £
1. Swedish Co-operative Movement	Technical assis-) tance rendered) by KF for Co-op) £87,300 projects in the) developing) countries) Paid to the ICA) Development Fund) £604,000 Raised by) Folksam) £ 7,144	698,444
2. Switzerland Co-operative Movement	Fund raised for Technical Aid	182,000
3. USA Co-operative Movement	Fund raised by the Co-operative League during its Second annual fund-raising campaign in 1964	13,600
4. German (Fed. Rep. of) Co-operative Movement	Fund raised by ZDK, GEG, etc.	103,150
5. Australian Co-operative Movement	Fund raised by consumer band and others	7,569
6. Canadian Co-operative Movement	Fund raised by CUC	6,154

(Figures of the Movements in Great Britain, France, Denmark, etc., were not quoted in their reports).

For sometime the Canadian movement's aid to the developing countries was channeled mainly through "co-operative Everywhere" formed in 1962 - a programme designed to foster and guide the development of new co-operatives amongst the Indians and Eskimos in Canada. This programme "CO-EVER", as it became known was originally intended to assist the development of the co-operatives in the West Indies and Latin America, but this aspect of the programme never came into operation. Ultimately, the whole programme had to be abandoned for want of funds. Mr. W.B. Melvin describes its fate:

Financed by voluntary contributions from co-operatives and individuals and by contracts undertaken on behalf of the federal government, CO-EVER never really elicited the full support of the former, and found itself hampered by shifts in policy and all too frequent personal changes within government. Despite the tireless efforts of Dr. Staples and several close associates in the undertaking, support gradually dwindled and the project was suspended by the Council in April 1968.¹

The Canadian co-operative movement has vast resources in terms of invaluable experiences and co-operative know-how in various fields of co-operation. The leaders of the movement are well aware of their great potential to assist the co-operative movements in the less developed countries.

1. "The Changing Years", Sixty Years of Service;
Co-operative Union of Canada, CUC Congress, April
1969, p. 20.

They are also eager to help. To quote Dr. A.F. Laidlaw, who was actively associated with the CUC for a decade:

In Canada we know agricultural co-operatives, and we would share our knowledge with the world. Our farmers have recently built one of the most modern fertilizer plants in America, and we have one of the most modern milking plants on the American Continent. We have one of the few co-operative farm machinery manufacturing plants in the world. These are the things that we should like to share, and that, with our fisheries which are progressing, and the caisse populaire movement, from things about which we can supply knowledge.¹

On the other hand, the Canadian co-operative leaders are themselves fully conscious of their limited contribution made so far, and they also realize that their movement has a far greater role to play in the overall technical assistance programme of Canada. Emphasizing this need, and urging upon his fellow Canadian co-operators writes Mr. Norman MacKenzie,

I must plead with you to raise your sights a bit, to the tremendous role you can play in building the kind of world where we will have true democracy - where wealth will be controlled by the emerging masses of mankind. Let's never be satisfied with just sending out a few million dollars for technical assistance. We must be more realistic and get the advantages of all that technical assistance down to the common man. You and I have the key in our co-operatives. Let's get going on a bigger programme in international affairs than we are doing now.²

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1. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1966, P. 247.
 2. "Role for Co-ops in Technical Assistance Programmes" in Canadian Co-operative Digest, Summer 1967, Vol. 10, No. 2, P. 40.

There is no dearth of sympathy for, and realization of the pitiable plight of the millions of little fellows in the "third world" on the part of the Canadian co-operative leaders. There is no doubt that they are too full of the milk of human kindness. This fact was amply witnessed by the writer himself in the last CUC Annual Congress held in Kitchener, June 14-18, 1971, which the writer had the privilege to attend as a guest research delegate from Carleton University. On the fourth day of the Congress after lunch, Mr. Harold Braaten, Executive member NACCU, and a delegate in the congress, reported on his participation in the World Council on Credit Unions held in New Delhi. Mr. Braaten's account of his impression of the teeming millions of Asia was so moving that in the pin-drop silence that prevailed throughout his speech it appeared to the writer that there was none in the whole audience who was not convinced of the direst need of those unfortunate poverty stricken mass of population and who would hesitate to make any amount of sacrifice by way of assisting their cause. But perhaps the matter ended with the meeting. The same old reason: the CUC operates on a limited budget. But where there is a sincere will there surely is a way out. The writer's suggestion in this regard will find a place in the concluding chapter.

CHAPTER VII

CANADIAN AID PROGRAMME IN THE FIELD OF CO-OPERATIVES

The history of Canadian bilateral assistance to less developed countries goes back to 1950 when Canada joined Britain, Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan and Ceylon to establish the Colombo Plan to enable Commonwealth countries to co-operate in coping with the political economic and social problems confronting the newly independent nations of South and Southeast Asia. In subsequent years this programme has expanded and to-day receives Canada's largest bilateral assistance contribution, with the bulk going to India and Pakistan. In the past ten years the Canadian bilateral assistance programme has been further extended to include technical, capital and financial assistance to some 70 countries in Africa, the Caribbean, Asia and in Latin America. In addition to bilateral aid, Canada also provides export credits through the Export Development Corporation; multilateral assistance through the International Development Association, the Asian Development Bank, the Caribbean Development Bank, the IBRD, the UNDP, the World Food Program and other UN agencies.

All Canada's official development aid disbursement are now made through the CIDA which is responsible to the Secretary of State for External Affairs. The CIDA follows two principles as its aid policy: first, the need for a comprehensive evaluation of the needs of recipient countries and project proposals; and second, the best identification and mobilization of Canada's particular human and physical capacities to supply aid. Therefore, the CIDA makes extensive use of experts in the areas of agriculture, forestry, fisheries and education to aid in evaluating various programmes. It is in this area that co-operatives in Canada have a great potential for rendering assistance.

Canada's technical assistance programme includes the training of foreign students in Canada and the assignment of Canadian teachers to developing countries in the fields of teaching techniques, health agriculture, power, transport, communication, etc. Two main techniques are followed: one, the policy of involving Canadian universities in specific projects and establishing training arrangements between institutions in developing countries and in Canada; two, the undertaking of multi-stage technical assistance projects - this means

supplying Canadian experts to organize and man certain projects in a recipient country and at the same time training staff from that country in Canada to man the project later. The latter technique seems to be a method of assistance which would be especially adaptable to co-operative assistance programmes.

The CIDA has also recognized the importance and enormous potential of Canadian non-governmental and voluntary agencies to help the developing countries and has initiated a programme to assist them, to encourage, strengthen and increase their participation in international development. Under this programme, CIDA shares, on a matching principle, in financing sound projects undertaken by Canadian non-governmental agencies in the developing countries. In several countries projects involving co-operatives and credit unions have received support under this programme.¹

The Government of Canada actually started giving regular aid in the field of co-operatives in the early nineteen sixties when the then External Aid Office set up special group programmes for training in co-operatives,

1. Brief supplied with the Statement of Information from the Government of Canada to Third International Conference on Technical Assistance for Co-operatives in Developing Countries, P. 6.

to accommodate the increased numbers who were coming to Canada to seek this type of training. The spirit and philosophy of the government's interest in this new field is aptly manifest in the following words of the then Secretary of State for External Affairs, Hon. Paul Martin:

The purpose and goals which inspire the co-operative movement in Canada lead naturally to a willingness and desire on the part of Canadian co-operators to share their experience and knowledge with the people of the developing countries. Assistance in the development of co-operatives has thus become an important aspect of the Canadian Government's external aid programme.¹

CIDA has made specific administrative arrangements for dealing with assistance for co-operative development. Any request for co-operative assistance either from the public or the private sector, must be made by the government of the developing country through the Canadian diplomatic mission accredited to this country. The processing of a request, within CIDA, starts in the Planning Branch. After a request is accepted it is passed on to the Operations Branch for implementation. Both these branches of CIDA are structured on a regional basis.

1. "Canadian Co-operatives and International Development" in Canadian Co-operative Digest, Spring 1967, Vol. 10, No. 1.

Although the Canadian co-operative movement plays a part in this programme, there is no formal machinery of consultation between CIDA and the various co-operative organizations in Canada. Through its Resource Division, CIDA keeps itself well informed of activities of the Canadian co-operative movement and of the types of service it can contribute to the development of co-operatives in the less-developed countries. As mentioned in the previous chapter, CIDA officials maintain frequent personal contacts with the officials of the co-operative organizations, mainly of the two national organizations, and exchange information. Requests for technical services also take place in the course of those consultations.

CIDA's technical assistance programme for development of co-operatives may be reduced to two main heads:

(a) recruitment and financing of experts; (b) training courses at home and abroad.

Recruitment and Financing of Experts: During 1970-71, four advisors in co-operatives were recruited by CIDA to serve overseas: one each in Zambia, Ghana, Guyana and Barbados. Some details¹ of their contracts are given below:

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1. Statement of Information from the Government of Canada supplied to the Third International Conference on Technical Assistance for co-operatives in Developing Countries, (held in Co-operative College, Loughborough, April 13-17, 1971), P. 2-3.

1. Zambia - At the request of Zambia, CIDA recruited Mr. B.N. Arnason who undertook an assignment in 1968 in that country as Senior Advisor of Co-operatives. His contract was extended to March 1971. His work involves consultations on rural and urban area development as well as the preparation of a series of publications, dealing with government policy on co-operatives and preparing programmes of development for the next few years.
2. Ghana - Mr. J.R. DuMouchel was assigned to Ghana in 1970 to assist the Trade Union Congress of Ghana in the extension, reorganization and improved administration of the Co-operative Credit Union Movement in Ghana. He will also conduct related seminars and training programmes for credit union personnel in that country.
3. Guyana - At the request of Guyana, Mr. A.G. Nogue completed a two-year assignment in that country in July 1970. He co-ordinated a programme of consumer co-operative development in Georgetown, MacKenzie and in other places. He was mainly responsible for a training programme of officers of co-operative societies and the general membership of consumer co-operatives in that country.
4. Barbados - Mr. D.H. Slimon went to Barbados in

September, 1970 on an assignment to work as Advisor in Co-operatives to the Regional Development Association. Presently, he is also engaged in a survey of existing co-operative organizations in the eastern Caribbean Islands and would recommend on setting up of new ones in that region.

All these advisors were recruited by CIDA after consultation with the CUC. Such experts are usually drawn from experienced co-operators of well reputed Canadian organizations. Each of them enters into an individual contract with CIDA, the terms and conditions of which include payment of a fee based on Canadian earnings and an overseas allowance based on marital status as well as the cost of living in the country of service as compared to Canada. The travel expenses of the expert and his dependents to the country of service, together with the expense of the removal of personal effects, are paid by CIDA. According to the contract, the host government undertakes to provide accommodation, either free or at a nominal rental, the cost of on-duty local travel, and also certain duty-free privileges. An expert is ultimately responsible to CIDA, but in his day-to-day duties he works under the direction of designated officials of the host country.

Training Courses at home and abroad - Though few in number, training courses in co-operatives have been offered in Canada to students from overseas since the coming into being of the Colombo Plan. Many variations and changes have taken place in these courses since then. In 1970, six formal courses in English and one in French were offered. These courses have again been offered in 1971 with one change for the French course which will now be given at the University of Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, Quebec. It is estimated that over eight hundred persons have been trained in co-operatives, credit unions and related fields from 1951 to 1970. These programmes have a capacity to accept about 185 trainees per year.

The seven formal courses are offered in
(i) Social Leadership (Co-operation, Economics, Sociology, Accounting, Rural Development, Nutrition and Hygiene, and Fieldtrips); (ii) Community Development (Antigonish Movement, Co-operatives, Credit Unions, Adult Education and extension methods); (iii) Credit Unions (all phases of credit union activities, also accounting, budgeting and financial institutions); (iv) Fish Co-operatives (Community Leadership, Co-operative Organization and

Technique of fishing and fish handling and storage); (v) Co-operative Education (Educational methods and techniques, and Communication related to the promotion of co-operative movement, merchandizing, management and supervision); (vi) Agricultural Marketing (general marketing training in co-operatives with specialized attention to marketing operation); and (vii) Education Co-operative et Animation Sociale (social and economic aspect of co-operatives, also history and doctrine, Adult Education, Legislation, marketing and communication).

The length of these courses vary from seven weeks to eight months and the training institutions involved are: the Coady International Institute; Memorial University and College of Fisheries, St. John's, Newfoundland; Western Co-operative College; and University de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, Quebec.¹ The names of the developing countries benefiting from these training courses may be seen in Appendix N.

So far the Canadian Government has not provided any capital aid for development of co-operatives either direct or through governments of developing countries or via the Canadian national co-operative movement.²

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1. More details pertaining to these courses may be seen at Appendix K.
 2. Statement of Information from the Government of Canada, I. 2.

The feeling that the need for co-operative development is not receiving due consideration either by the aid giving countries or by the governments of the recipient ones is widespread. This fact was noted with concern in the Third International Conference on Aid for Co-operatives in Developing Countries held in the Co-operative College, Loughborough, April 13-17, 1971, in which Canada also participated:

This problem(of finance) was much in the minds of delegates. It was noted that international aid was given to large national projects and that aid to co-operatives was a later and contingent development. On the other hand large agricultural schemes might fail to produce full economic and social development, if no grass roots organization was available to ensure the participation of the small producer. It was felt that co-operative projects, which might have been valuable from this point of view often received no aid because they have not been properly presented.¹

Eight years before this international conference the same concern was voiced in the ICA by the delegates of the co-operative movements of the developing countries. For instance, Mr. R. Ahmed of Pakistan said:

... grants and loans government to government do not always suit the co-operative movements of the developing countries. When governments agree to give or accept grants they think in

1. Minutes of the Conference, P. 3.

terms of dams and bridges, of buildings, universities, big hospitals and roads, but the case of the small farmer ploughing his two or three acres away in the interior and ekeing out a precarious existence is quite often over-looked. What we need is an arrangement whereby grants will be given from co-operative to co-operative ...¹

While stressing the need for getting the benefits of technical assistance down to the common man and emphasizing the importance of the role that the Canadian co-operative movement has to play, Mr. Norman Mackenzie has stated, "I believe that co-operatives have a very important role to play in the whole field of technical assistance, because I'm convinced that if all we in the west did is give technical assistance to these developing nations, in the last analysis, all we're going to do is make the rich richer, and the poor poorer".²

The policy makers of Canadian aid would do well to take note of such cautions and to give much more than contingent consideration to the development of co-operatives in the less-developed countries. Apart from reaching where it must - the common man - more Canadian aid in that direction would certainly improve the Canadian image abroad.

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1. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1963, P. 82
 2. "Role for Co-ops in Technical Assistance Programmes" in Canadian Co-operative Digest, Summer, 1967, Vol. 10, No. 2, P. 38.

Commenting on the type of foreign aid given through the Coady International Institute, for example, Zita Cameron has stated:

This, then is one type of Canadian foreign aid, using the person to person approach. It is given with love and respect, accepted with love, dignity and benefit. It is a gift of self-help that is not offered to enhance the Canadian image, but there can be little doubt that it does just that.¹

1. "The Coady International Institute" in Canadian Co-operative Digest, Vol. 6, No. 4, Winter, 1963, p. 36.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

Most of the early co-operatives in Canada went out of existence after a brief life-span mainly because they were not based on sound co-operative principles. The movement had a steady growth only since 1900 when the cardinal co-operative principles as formulated by the Rochdale Pioneers came to be broadly followed. Mr. R. Craig McIvor comments:

In its development since 1900, the Canadian movement has sought to apply the basic Rochdale principles, adapted wherever necessary to meet the particular problems presented by the Canadian economic environment.¹

An analysis of current Canadian co-operatives, however, reveals that there are substantial variations, among both producers' and consumers' co-operatives, in their structure and operation. Nevertheless, there is an underlying unity arising from the fact that they

... have attempted to apply to a variety of problems a few general principles. While these principles are neither precise nor

1. McIvor, R. Craig Recent Growth in Canadian Co-operatives, Canadian Tax Foundation, Toronto, Ontario (Canadian Tax Paper No. 28) - reproduced article by the author on "The Post-War Taxation of Canadian Co-operatives", P. 2.

rigorous, they are sufficiently definite to have left their mark on co-operative practice and statutes.¹

Thus, the Canadian co-operatives have generally followed the main four principles; open membership; democratic control - one man, one vote; limited returns on capital; and patronage refunds. But, as for the Rochdale rule of "sale at current market prices" striking examples of deviations are noticeable. Like co-operatives in some countries, notably in Sweden, and even in Britain, some of the Canadian co-operatives have also shown signs of abandoning this rule. Deviation from this rule can be found in the case of the farmers co-operatives who have not always gone along with current prices. Another Canadian example where there has been a complete departure from this rule is the case of the Co-operative Supplies Depot of Ottawa Ltd., incorporated in 1966, which turns goods over to members at actual cost, while the members undertake to share operating expenses in a separate accounting.² This is a new co-operative enterprise presently under experiment the success of which only the future can tell: the present however, seems to be promising.

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1. Report of the Royal Commission on Co-operatives (Ottawa: King's Printer) 1945, p. 21
 2. Brief to the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Consumer Credit (Prices), presented by the CUC Ottawa, February 2, 1967, p. 32.

It should, however, be noted that the Rochdale rule of "sale at current market prices" is not considered a basic principle of co-operatives, of the same order as the four principles mentioned above, but rather a secondary rule or operating practice applicable to some co-operatives and a very suitable one in most circumstances.

On the whole, the Canadian co-operators are true to the basic principles set by the Rochdale Pioneers. While debating on the report of the ICA Commission on Co-operative principles at the Twenty-Third Congress Dr. A.F. Laidlaw said:

We have a very high regard and very deep feelings for co-operative principles and the teachings of Rochdale, and I should like to tell Congress that Canadian co-operators feel so strongly on this subject of principles that we have issued a statement, after two years of study, on social and public issues, which we should like to make available to the ICA for distribution to co-operators anywhere in the world.¹

The co-operative movement is not an isolated phenomenon in Canada. The co-operative philosophy and spirit is ingrained in the very body politic of the Canadian nation as mentioned earlier in Chapter 2.

1. ICA Twenty-Third Congress Report, 1966, P. 198.

It should be clearly understood that political interest in co-operatives in Canada does not mean that the co-operative principle of political neutrality is not followed by the Canadian co-operatives. On the contrary, Canadian co-operatives are non-partisan in character, but individual members are free to take part in political activities as long as they do not involve their organizations in party politics.

The co-operatives of Canada are broadly classified as marketing and purchasing co-operatives, fishermen's co-operatives, service co-operatives and financial co-operatives. The marketing co-operatives are concerned mainly with the sale of farm products - the United Grain Growers and the three Wheat Pools of the western provinces are outstanding examples. From a business point of view, it is this kind of marketing activity that dominates the Canadian co-operative scene. In other words, the largest co-operative business in Canada takes place in the agrarian setting, mainly in the western provinces. Co-operative marketing in Canada has been dominated by the "grain and seed" component. Purchasing co-operatives provide farmers' supplies, and it is within this category that consumers' co-operative stores are to be found. Service co-operatives include a host of co-operative activities such as housing, rural electrification, medical insurance, transportation, medical

facilities, restaurant, boarding houses, etc. In terms of membership, the Canadian credit unions serve more people than all the other forms of co-operatives put together. "Credit unions", said R. Craig McIvor, "have enjoyed uninterrupted growth in Canada since the end of World War II, in terms not only of members but also total membership and total assets".¹

In addition to the above mentioned classification of co-operatives in Canada, there are in operation in almost all of the provinces the federations or groupings of local co-operative associations, known as co-operative "whole-sales", nine in number, engaged both in merchandising and in marketing activities on behalf of their members.

Regarding the co-operative contribution in Canada the CUC made the following observations in its appearance before the Special Senate Committee on Poverty, February 12, 1970.

Co-operatives have held a place of varying importance in the lives of many thousands of Canadians. History would support the contention that some of these individuals have been able to stay above the poverty line because they associated themselves with one or more co-operative activities. Primary producers in particular have utilized the co-operative technique to own, control and operate their service, supply and marketing businesses and thus improving their standard of living.

In the overall, co-operative techniques have not been widely accepted by Canada's poor.²

1. Recent Growth in Canadian Co-operatives, "The Post-war Taxation of Canadian Co-operatives", p. 4
2. Canadian Co-operative Digest, Spring 1970, Vol. 13, No. 1, p. 25.

Besides the large and famous "grain pooling" co-operative movement of the western provinces, the Canadian co-operative movement has been enriched by the growth of two other outstanding movements, namely, the Desjardins Co-operative Movement in Quebec and the Antigonish Movement in Nova Scotia.

The Desjardins co-operative movement has earned a unique place for Canada in the co-operative history of the world. Alphonse Desjardins transformed the European models of co-operative credit unions into an altogether different type of financial institution based on co-operative principles and especially suited to the credit needs of the poverty stricken farmers of Quebec who were distressfully in debt to usurious money-lenders. By 1930, Desjardins type of caisses populaires spread all over Quebec, and in the following decade, encouraged by the Extension workers of St. Francis Xavier University at Antigonish, it engulfed the entire English-speaking Canada. The founder helped spread the movement in the USA in 1909, long before it actually attracted the attention of the English-speaking Canada.

In spite of the fact that "... the credit union is the same tool in the hands of people everywhere and

the problem of mastering money is universal",¹ the Desjardins Co-operative Movement is not as widely known in the developing countries as the Antigonish Movement. One reason for this situation is that the Desjardins Co-operative Institute - the lighthouse of the movement - established in 1960, gives courses mainly in French and as such is capable of serving the training needs of the French-speaking world which is far less than the English-speaking areas of the world. There is a need, therefore, that the Institute should expand providing an adequate English section to cater to the much needed technical assistance needs of the English speaking developing world. Another reason is that there is a conspicuous dearth of literature of the movement in English. The Institute may as well remedy this situation by fostering the publication of literature of the movement into English language.

Although the Desjardins Co-operative Institute is a co-operative association created for educational purposes under the Quebec Co-operative Association Act, yet co-operative education is receiving only a partial attention in the Institute. According to its Educational Director

1. Clements, Muriel. By Their Bootstraps, Clarke Irwin & Co. Ltd., Toronto, 1965, P. 7

with whom the writer made some correspondence,¹ only 25% of its customers are coming annually from co-operative organizations. This is because the Institute is chiefly interested in training people in "animation", group work, communication, audio-visual aids, management developed programmes, etc., rather than in co-operative action. The writer strongly feels that if the Institute is to live by its principles and truly represent the Desjardins Co-operative Movement whose name it bears and if it is to render as valuable service, both at home and overseas, as the Coady International which represents the Antigonish Movement, it must sufficiently broaden its sphere of co-operative interest.

The Desjardins Co-operative Movement can make a very valuable contribution in the less-developed countries where poor people have remained poor for centuries mainly for want of easy and safe credit and where the need for promotion of savings is paramount. It can help in many ways: by providing more training facilities both to the English as well as the French speaking trainees of the less-developed countries; by actively co-operating with CIDA in placing well trained co-operators of both the

1. Please see Appendices C and D.

languages for assignment as advisors overseas; by sending volunteers to study co-operative needs abroad; and also by providing financial assistance. Another effective way can be to co-operate with the Antigonish movement in combined technical assistance projects abroad through CIDA.

Canada can be proud of her Antigonish movement which has become world-renowned for its efforts in promoting self-help at home and abroad. Now in its forty-first year, the movement has sufficiently proved to be based on solid principles. It has contributed not only to Canada but also to the whole world a challenging philosophy of action and a new technique of adult education - an outstanding example of how education of adults can literally lead to the development of the impoverished and desperate basic elements of the community. Its philosophy views "economic co-operation as part of a broad social philosophy whose ultimate objective is the attaining of a fuller and more abundant life for every member of the community".¹ Although originally planned to meet the specific needs of a special area of Canada, namely Nova Scotia, co-operatives of all types have multiplied manyfold, since its inception,

1. McIvor, R. Craig, Recent Growth in Canadian Co-operatives, 1962, "The Post-war Taxation of Canadian Co-operatives", P.18.

among poor fishermen, farmers and miners alike all over The Maritimes. Indeed, the Antigonish movement has amply contributed to the Canadian Co-operative Movement.

The Antigonish movement has plenty of virtues having universal appeal. Its philosophy and principles can be profitably transplanted and adapted to co-operative movements having different environment with different needs. Emphasizing its universal applicability, Mr. Paul Hubert Casselman said:

... all areas can profit from the Antigonish experience, by giving more emphasis to adult education in co-operative affairs, by the greater use of the study circle, by forming co-operators before establishing co-operatives, and by having the various co-operative sectors operating in greater unison.¹

Commenting on the merit and significance of the movement, Mr. Bertran B. Fowler said:

... in its wider implication, in its meaning to the masses of the American people, it is as important as anything that has happened in decades. following the basic fundamentals of co-operatives, the people of Eastern Nova Scotia have worked out a philosophy and a technique that are in advance of any similar movement in the world. The changes brought about in fishing, farming and mining

1. The Co-operative Movement and some of its Problems, Philosophical Library, New York, 1952, P. 42.

communities are, therefore, of tremendous significance. The educational impulse which is the heart and soul of this strong and positive movement is portentous in a world wide sense.¹

The Antigonish experience has become now part of the universal heritage of mankind. The need for application of its philosophy, outlook and methods is most pronounced in the less-developed regions of the world where millions of have-nots are undergoing untold sufferings due to similar problems which prompted the philanthropists of Antigonish to launch their movement in Canada. It is really heartening to note that the developing countries are being immensely benefited from the Antigonish experience transmitted through the Coady International Institute. The responses both ways are encouraging no doubt. That the Antigonish concept and technique are being successfully implemented in those countries, has already been shown by citing the example of the Comilla programme in East Pakistan. But the one thing that strikes the mind of the writer is that the Comilla project is but a pilot one which has so far covered only a microscopic portion of the huge population in that portion of the country. In other words, the progress, though effective and successful, is

1. The Lord Helps Those, The Vanguard Press, New York, 1938, P. 13

too slow and it would perhaps take decades to cover the whole population if the programme continues in the same pace and the same people were to spread it.

There are reasons for this situation. In most of the newly emerged countries the co-operatives are being developed through governmental efforts. The government, therefore, cannot spare, nor are there available, as many personnel for training abroad as would be necessary to undertake a wider programme to cover a major portion of the population. Even if it could, it would not be possible on the part of an institute like the Coady International to provide training facilities for as many trainees. The result is that very few persons can receive this much needed training. And on trained people depends the spread of any project anywhere based on the Antigonish principles. Perhaps this situation could be helped by the Antigonish movement itself - by the Extension Department of the St. Francis Xavier University through its Coady International Institute. A corps of co-operative volunteers could perhaps be raised in sufficient numbers and they could be given initial training in the Coady Institute before sending to the different less-developed countries to

modest size of the ICA Development Fund, the technical assistance activities undertaken so far by the organizations have also been modest. Since the inception of the Fund in 1954, which is fed by voluntary contributions from member organization, the responses from the industrialized member countries have rather been discouraging, with the exception of Sweden, Canada featuring as one of the lowest in the contribution list. There is the great need for strengthening the Fund if ICA is going to make substantial contributions in the current Co-operative Development Decade.

The inadequacy of the Development Fund is the greatest weakness of ICA. The organization has too long been satisfied to merely consult with other financially strong international organizations interested in co-operative techniques, such as the UN and its specialized agencies. The writer feels the case should have been reverse, the ICA should have been the most prominent body for co-operative development in the whole world. Given the required finance, with its endless resources of co-operative know-how, it is most capable of doing such a job. But unfortunately the Fund, as it is, enables the ICA to play the role "of a nerve centre stimulating the activities of a wide range of agencies,

co-operative, governmental and international".¹ In other words, principally the role is that of a co-ordinator. The ICA must be strengthened to do more.

The inadequacy of the Development Fund vis-a-vis the ever expanding programmes of the ICA in newer jurisdictions is most alarming and it must be remedied. Considering the resolutions of the past Congress and their apparent failure to sufficiently strengthen the Fund, the writer is inclined to feel that perhaps nothing short of governmental donations from the aid giving countries could improve the situation and enable the ICA to do its job effectively in the less-developed countries. It would be only proper if the aid giving countries, including Canada, of course, decide to channel at least 5% of their total technical assistance aid allocations to ICA Development Fund through their member organizations and also spend another 5% as bi-lateral aid in this field. Such resources when combined with the abundance of co-operative know-how available in the member industrialized countries could certainly prove most valuable in the co-operative development of the less-developed countries. This would also give incentive to their national co-operative movements to be more active at home and to participate more vigorously in the ICA.

1. "The ICA Control Committee prepares for the Seventies" in Review of International Co-operation, Vol. 63, No. 6, 1970, p. 220.

It can be estimated partly from the training statistics in Appendix N and partly from information received by the writer from interviews with some of the connected CIDA officials that in 1970 an amount of about \$32 million was allocated as technical assistance by CIDA for various countries in Asia, Africa and the Latin America, out of which roughly \$186,000 was spent for co-operative training within Canada and on a few advisors sent abroad. This is a minimal amount which clearly shows the contingent consideration that CIDA has been giving in the development of co-operatives. Certainly this field deserves much more. A five percent allocation as suggested earlier would be reasonable and could include numerous programmes which could be put forward by the Canadian Co-operative Movement utilizing its co-operative expertise and know-how.

The Movement cannot come up with their programmes and ask for matching grants from CIDA because according to the existing system they have to provide 50% of the project cost as initiators which their funds do not allow. Under the present system CIDA must obtain the approval of the Treasury Board in order to provide matching grants exceeding 50% which means that co-operative projects, being by nature small and numerous, can hardly expect this benefit.

The writer feels that CIDA should be empowered to provide up to 90% matching grants without going to the Treasury Board when convinced of the genuineness of a co-operative project. This would encourage the Canadian co-operators to formulate projects for international co-operative development.

The writer's interviews also revealed the fact that CIDA has not yet made any evaluation of the aid given so far, particularly in the field of co-operatives. There is a need for this. Once it is done, CIDA would certainly be convinced of the necessity of channeling more funds for improvement of co-operatives overseas.

Coming to the Canadian co-operative movement and its conspicuous lack of fund for technical assistance programmes, the writer has a word of suggestion as promised earlier. To repeat, there is no dearth of understanding and sympathy for the deplorable masses of the less-developed countries. Perhaps more is needed. In the first instance, more Canadian co-operative leaders should visit these countries to study for themselves the existing local conditions as well as the ways in which the Canadian movement can render most effective assistance. Their visits may be financed if possible by their own organizations, failing which either by the CUC and CCC or CIDA.

On their return from such visits overseas the leaders can appeal to their membership in a collection drive to contribute individually at least one dollar each to the Development Fund for the Co-operative Decade. Canadians are by nature humane people. It is fortunate that they are affluent also. The writer is confident that, once convinced, no Canadian co-operator will ever hesitate to part with a dollar for a noble cause for his fellow co-operators in distress. A dollar might be a trifling thing to a Canadian co-operator but when pooled together there may be a collection of about seven million dollars for there are about as many people involved in co-operatives as members in this country. There may be more accumulation of fund because many Canadian co-operators would be glad to contribute much more than a dollar. They do not, however, have to repeat this over and over again. When the decade is out successfully perhaps there may not be any further necessity.

If such a drive yields ten million dollars, it can be matched by grants from the government under its present practice with equal or even more amount putting the CUC and the CCC in a favourable position to launch comprehensive programmes worth twenty to thirty million dollars, both at

home for the under-developed Eskimos and Indians, as well as overseas in the less-developed countries. In any case, the Canadian Co-operative Movement has a greater role to play in providing co-operative assistance to developing countries than it has done in the past.

Another practical way of creating a perpetual fund for international development would be by making the present caisse populaire technically more development oriented. To begin with this can be done by amending the present Quebec Co-operative Syndicate Act which, as stated earlier, provides for a secondary reserve fund of 10%, in addition to a general reserve fund of 10%, of the net annual earnings of a caisse populaire. This fund is raised with a view to spend in the area covered by the caisse, in the event of its dissolution, in works of public utility as designed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council. Individually the members have no right to the fund.

When one comes to think of the over 1,300 Caisses Populaires Desjardins in Quebec, one can easily realize the hugeness of the fund that is being kept idle for indefinite period of time because very few caisses populaires ever get dissolved. The very purpose for which the fund exists is outdated because at the present time any government in Canada, be it Quebec or Nova Scotia, is all too

willing and prepared to take care of public utility works. When Alphonse Desjardins lived, the story was different and the provision for the fund in the Act was fully justified. Had he lived to see the present affluence of the Canadian society and the dire need for improvement of co-operatives in the less-developed countries, he would most probably himself insist on an amendment to the Act diverting the fund for international development. The writer would, therefore, strongly advocate an amendment not only to the Quebec Act but also to the Credit Union Acts all over the country. So far as the credit union movement in Canada is concerned, such a step would definitely go a long way in providing a permanent solution to the staggering paucity of its development fund, enabling it to render valuable assistance not only to the needy co-operatives overseas but also to those among the under-developed "peoples" within Canada.

It goes without saying that the future of the Co-operative Movement in Canada, and for that matter in any country, depends on the children of to-day. But one wonders, while there is much ado about adult education as a medium of co-operative learning, and although half-hearted attempts are being made here and there to encourage

thrift and savings among school children, why co-operative education is not introduced in the country in a large scale. When the subject is so vital to the life of the people, there can be no valid reason why it should not be taught at all levels of education.

The literature produced so far on the Canadian Co-operative Movement shows that it is largely a product of some professional people who are involved in the Movement. In fact few scholars have taken adequate interest in the subject. There is the great need, therefore, that the Canadian Universities must make a conscious effort to foster its growth. They should offer courses in co-operatives and encourage students to produce research works, theses, dissertations, etc., covering all the phases of the Movement. The university professors and scholars should take extensive interest in the subject throughout the country and thus pioneer a co-operative renaissance in Canada. This should not be confined to the Canadian Movement only. The universities should also sponsor studies abroad by Canadians of co-operative movements elsewhere in the world, especially in the developing countries with a view to exploring possibilities of expansion of more and more co-operation and development.

APPENDIX A

The Essential Principles of Co-operative Organizations
as Approved by the International Co-operative Alliance

The following should continue to be considered as essential to genuine and effective co-operative practice both at the present time and in the future as far as that can be foreseen:

1. Membership of a co-operative society should be voluntary and available without artificial restriction or any social, political or religious discrimination, to all persons who can make use of its services and are willing to accept the responsibility of membership.
2. Co-operative societies are democratic organizations. Their affairs should be administered by persons elected or appointed in a manner agreed by the members and accountable to them. Members of primary societies should enjoy equal rights of voting (one member, one vote) and participation in decisions affecting their societies. In other than primary societies the administration should be conducted on a democratic basis in a suitable form.
3. Share capital should only receive a strictly limited rate of interest, if any.

4. Surplus or savings, if any, arising out of the operations of a society belong to the members of that society and should be distributed in such manner as would avoid one member gaining at the expense of others.

This may be done by decision of the members as follows:

- (a) by provision of development of the business of the co-operative;
- (b) by provision of common services; or
- (c) by distribution among the members in proportion to their transactions with the society.

5. All co-operative societies should make provision for the education of their members, officers and employees and of the general public in the principles and techniques of co-operation, both economic and democratic.

6. All co-operative organizations, in order to best serve the interest of their members and their communities, should actively co-operate in every practical way with other co-operatives at local, national and international levels.

- Formulated by the ICA Commission on Principles and adopted at the 23rd ICA Congress in Vienna, September 1966.

APPENDIX B

Business Volume of Marketing and Purchasing Co-
operatives has more than Tripled since 1946.

(See Appendix F for details)

APPENDIX C

Purchasing business of co-operatives is gaining in importance.

(See Appendix F for details)

APPENDIX D

Grains and seeds are the most important
commodities marketed by co-operatives - 1966.

(See Appendix C for details)

APPENDIX E

Farm supplies and food are the main products
bought through co-operatives - 1966.

* feed, fertilizers, spray materials and petroleum products.

(See Appendix G for details)

APPENDIX F

GROWTH OF MARKETING AND PURCHASING
CO-OPERATIVES IN CANADA, 1932 - 66

<u>Crop year</u> <u>Ended</u>	<u>Associations</u> <u>Reporting</u>	<u>Marketing</u>	<u>Purchasing</u> Thousands of dollars	<u>Total Business</u> <u>including</u> <u>other revenue (a)</u>
1932	795	134,611	10,665	145,303
1936	781	144,962	12,788	158,165
1937	1,024	157,031	16,363	173,927
1938	1,217	134,493	20,091	155,080
1939	1,332	180,747	20,400	201,659
1940	1,151	214,293	21,129	236,322
1941	1,395	215,030	24,895	242,158
1942	1,722	214,762	42,327	257,090
1943	1,650	295,499	55,689	352,785
1944	1,792	459,798	65,508	527,855
1945	1,824	500,481	81,360	585,650
1946	1,953	454,564	95,603	554,329
1947	2,095	578,638	127,001	712,583
1948	2,249	616,347	157,876	780,085
1949	2,378	783,293	191,806	982,232
1950	2,495	803,639	206,082	1,015,264
1951	2,348	769,264	209,985	988,459
1952	2,194	840,113	234,848	1,112,469
1953	2,221	874,698	245,629	1,147,590
1954	2,086	735,780	234,583	989,066
1955	1,949	704,047	228,446	941,377
1956	2,041	823,389	258,751	1,092,516
1957	2,022	817,601	283,730	1,116,002
1958	2,002	898,168	296,743	1,209,805
1959	1,982	963,330	332,943	1,315,167
1960	1,934	972,333	365,744	1,358,625
1961	1,914	1,019,819	391,761	1,430,197
1962	1,877	928,502	423,302	1,372,605
1963 (b)	1,583	1,100,200	489,000	1,617,900
1964	1,546	1,234,000	522,800	1,780,600
1965	1,495	1,201,700	549,400	1,774,600
1966 (c)	1,420	1,238,600	609,500	1,873,600

(a) Other revenue includes patronage rebates from co-operative wholesales, interest on investments, rental income, custom work, etc.

(b) Calendar year basis for 1963 and subsequent years

(c) Preliminary

APPENDIX G

VOLUME OF BUSINESS OF MARKETING AND
PURCHASING CO-OPERATIVES IN CANADA, 1966 (a)

<u>Farm Products</u>	<u>Thousand Dollars</u>
Dairy Products	306,800
Fruits and Vegetables	42,500
Grains and Seeds	587,100
Livestock and Products	234,400
Poultry and Eggs	54,100
All Other	13,700
	<hr/>
	1,238,600
 <u>Supplies</u>	
Food Products	166,800
Feed	142,300
Fertilizer and Spray Material	39,800
Hardware and Machinery	79,900
Petroleum	94,700
All Other	86,000
	<hr/>
	609,500
 Total Sales	1,848,100
Service Revenue	14,700
Other Income	10,800
	<hr/>
Total Volume of Business	1,873,600

(a) Preliminary

APPENDIX H

Assets and loans of credit unions and caisses populaires
have grown rapidly.

(See Appendix J for details)

APPENDIX I

Credit Unions and Caisses Populaires
are becoming more popular.

(Please see Appendix J for details)

APPENDIX J

GROWTH OF CREDIT UNIONS AND CAISSES

POPULAIRES IN CANADA, 1946-66

Year	Credit Unions & Caisses Populaires	Members	Members as Percentage of Total Population	Assets	Loans to Members During Year
1946	2,422	688,739	5.6	188	53
1947	2,516	779,199	6.2	221	81
1948	2,608	850,608	6.6	254	90
1949(a)	2,819	940,427	6.9	282	100
1950	2,965	1,036,175	7.5	312	108
1951	3,121	1,136,931	8.1	359	125
1952	3,333	1,260,435	8.7	424	154
1953	3,606	1,434,270	9.7	489	203
1954	3,902	1,560,714	10.3	552	213
1955	4,100	1,731,328	11.1	653	260
1956	4,258	1,870,277	11.6	761	310
1957	4,349	2,059,835	12.4	846	345
1958	4,485	2,187,494	12.8	1,009	391
1959	4,570	2,360,047	13.5	1,158	473
1960	4,667	2,544,300	13.9	1,299	482
1961	4,682	2,740,251	14.9	1,509	579
1962	4,767	2,879,179	15.3	1,674	676
1963	4,809	3,123,735	16.6	1,920	771
1964	4,870	3,418,033	17.6	2,213	919
1965	4,939	3,677,291	18.6	2,542	1,078
1966(b)	4,871	3,953,200	19.5	2,923	1,132

(a) Newfoundland included in 1949 and subsequent years

(b) Preliminary.

Coady

International
Institute

ST. FRANCIS XAVIER UNIVERSITY
Antigonish, Nova Scotia, Canada

A survey made by a doctoral candidate at Cornell University in 1961 showed that by conservative estimate more than 5,000,000 persons in Asia, Africa and Latin America had been involved in, and directly benefitted by the training program emanating from the Coady International Institute.

A great Canadian educationist, Dr. N. A. M. MacKenzie, former president of the University of British Columbia and a former president of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, has described the St. F. X. program as "in some respects the most outstanding educational contribution Canada has made to the world."

The Coady International Institute was founded in 1959 in response to demands for a training program, for students from developing countries, which would draw upon the experience of the Antigonish Movement and the Extension Department's community programs. It is a self-contained operation, within the University structure, and has its own residential and training facilities on the University campus at Antigonish. Thus, while students are given a program of studies specifically related to the needs of developing societies, the cultural, recreational and instructional facilities of the University are available to them.

Three courses are offered in 1971-72:

- a) an eight-month course in Social Leadership;
- b) an eight-month course in Social Development; and
- c) Summer Programs in
 - i) Community Development
 - ii) Credit Union Training
 - iii) Latin American Development.

Social Leadership Course

The course in Social Leadership is intended for students with experience in development. It is designed to meet the needs of those who are engaged in development projects, especially at the village or grass-roots level. It is suitable also for junior government officers in departments concerned with cooperatives, community development, agricultural extension and adult education.

Qualifications for admission are: a) secondary or high school completion to the standard, for example, of Cambridge Overseas Certificate; b) specialized or vocational training, e.g., teacher's education; c) two years' or more experience in development projects; and d) working knowledge of the English language.

Social Development Course

The Course in Social Development is intended for more senior students with greater experience in development. It is designed to meet the needs of teachers, clergy, adult educators, community leaders and social welfare workers; government officers with responsibilities in cooperatives, community development or agricultural extension; and others who have a participatory or supervisory role in development.

Qualifications for admission are: a) a recognized University degree; b) two years' or more experience in development work; and c) a working knowledge of the English language. In individual cases, consideration will be given to background qualifications, in lieu of a degree, as a condition of admission.

Summer Programs

a) Community Development

A seven-week program in social development will be offered in the summer of 1971. It is intended for students who have had experience with developing peoples or who are to be assigned to development projects. It is an intensive program and is designed to meet the need of teachers, clergy, government employees, and others involved in development work.

b) Credit Union Training

The National Association of Canadian Credit Unions, in cooperation with the Canadian International Development Agency, will offer a course in credit union principles and methods at the Institute in the summer of 1971. Instruction will be provided by NACCU. The course, which is intended for students from developing countries, will be given from late June to mid-August.

c) Latin American Development

A nine-week program in social development for students from Central and South America will be offered in 1971 in cooperation with the Canadian International Development Agency. The emphasis will be on adult education and cooperatives. The language of instruction will be Spanish and all instructors will have had direct experience in development work in Latin America. The program is intended for middle-level and senior officers in Government and private development projects.

Patrons

Since its foundation, the Institute has been generously assisted by grants and contributions from a number of agencies and private donors. Failing this assistance, its work could not have been carried on. During the academic year 1970-71, assistance was made available through the cooperation of the Canadian International Development Agency, Misereor of West Germany, the Windsor Foundation, the Canadian Catholic Organization for Development and Peace, the Donner Foundation, the International Aid Societies (Millions for Millions) of Calgary and Edmonton, the United Church of Canada, the Canadian Hunger Foundation, the Catholic Women's League, the Knights of Columbus, and other private agencies and individuals.

Dates

Dates for the programs offered in 1971-72 are:

- a) Social Leadership Course: September 17, 1971 to May 1972
- b) Social Development Course: September 17, 1971 to May 1972
- c) Summer programs:
 - i) Community Development: June 25 to August 13, 1971
 - ii) Credit Union Training: June 25 to August 13, 1971
 - iii) Latin American Development: June 25 to August 27, 1971

Admission

Application for admission, or requests for further information, should be made to:

Registrar
Coady International Institute
St. Francis Xavier University
Antigonish, Nova Scotia, Canada.

Final dates for making application are:

- a) Social Leadership Course: June 30, 1971
- b) Social Development Course: June 30, 1971
- c) Summer Programs: May 15, 1971.

PROGRAM OUTLINE

Second Term

Group A

Community Development II	30
Project Planning	30
Seminars	15

Group B

Agricultural Cooperatives	30
Consumer Education	15
Cooperative Accounting	15
Cooperative Management	30
Credit Cooperatives	30
Economic Development	30
International Cooperation for Development	15
Nutrition	15
Public Health	15
Rural Modernization II	30
Social Welfare Problems II	30
Group C	
Field Study	75
Leadership Project	45

Social Leadership Course

The subjects listed for the First Term will be taken by all students in the Social Leadership Course.

In the Second Term, students will take all subjects listed under Group A and Group C. They will select, in consultation with staff, subjects from Group B which are appropriate to their interest and future employment.

A minimum work load in the Second Term will be 15 periods (i.e., class-contact hours) per week, excluding subjects listed under Group C.

SUBJECTS

PERIODS

First Term

Approaches to Learning	18
Adult Learning	22
Antigonish Movement	15
Community Development I	30
Cooperatives	35
Fundamentals of Economics	30
General Accounting	40
Leadership Techniques	20
Management Principles and Practice	25
Rural Modernization I	30
Social Development	20
Social Welfare Problems I	30

Social Development Course

The subjects listed for the First Term will be taken by all students in the Social Development Course.

In the Second Term, students will take all subjects listed under Group A and Group C. They may select subjects relevant to their interest from Group B. In individual cases, a student may be permitted to follow a course offered in a University Department.

A minimum work load for students in the Social Development Course, excluding subjects listed under Group C, will be 12 periods (i.e., class-contact hours) per week.

SUBJECTS	PERIODS
First Term	
Adult Education	30
Behavioral Studies	30
Community Planning and Development	30
Cooperative Organizations I	30
Economic Development	30
Human Resources in Development	30
Research Methods	30
Second Term	
Group A	
Antigonish Development Program	15
Program Planning	30
Social Communication	20
Seminars	15

Group B	
Agricultural Cooperatives	30
Consumer Education	15
Cooperative Accounting	15
Cooperative Management	30
Cooperative Organizations II	30
Credit Cooperatives	30
International Cooperation for Development	15
Nutrition	15
Public Health	15
Rural Modernization II	30
Social Welfare Problems II	30
Group C	
Field Study	75
Development Project	45

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

D. HUGH GILLIS, Ph.D.
RAY J. CAMERON, B.A.
YOUNGHE CHINNEC, M.L.S.
C. K. CLORGE VICKS

Director
Rector
Librarian
Registrar

INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF

AMIT, H. R., B.A. (Ceylon)
GILLIS, D. Hugh, Ph.D. (London)
LAIDLAW, Alexander F., Ed.D. (Toronto)
LOTZ, James R., M.Sc. (McGill)
QUENNEC, Alfred G., M.S. (Illinois State)
RILEY, J. Norman, M.B.A. (British Columbia)

Visiting Lecturer
Professor
Professor
Asst. Professor
Lecturer
Asst. Professor

UNIVERSITY LECTURERS AT THE INSTITUTE

GUPTA, S. D., M.S.N. (Delhi)
MACDONALD, Donald V., Ph.D. (Cotevent)
MACLELLAN, Rev. Vincent, M.A. (Notre Dame)
MACNEIL, St. Catherine, Ph.D. (Minnesota)
MACNEIL, Teresa, Ph.D. (Wisconsin)
PLUTA, Leonard, Ph.D. (Queen's)
RODGERS, Rev. Gerard, M.A. (Michigan State)
SCHWAB, Robert, M.A. (Queen's)
WOLPIN, Moses D., Ph.D. (Columbia)

Lecturer in Nursing Education
Professor of Education
Assoc. Professor of English
Prof. of Home Economics
Assoc. Prof. of Adult Education
Asst. Prof. of Economics
Extension Department
Lecturer in Political Science
Asst. Prof. of Political Science

SUMMER PROGRAM INSTRUCTORS, 1971

CABEZAS, Rev. Antonio, S.J., Ph.D.
COLON-TORRES, Ramon, M.S., LL.D.
ECHEVERRIA, Rev. J. L., S.J., Ph.L.
GARZA, Emilio, B.A.
HARLEY, Rev. Pius, B.A.
LEMOYAN, Kevin, M.S.
MACDONALD, Alexander A., Ph.D.
MACNEIL, John A., M.A.
MICHAEL, Sr. Marie, B.L.S., M.S.W.
MORRIS, Rev. Eugene, B.A.
MURPHY, Edward, M.S.
PUERTA, Ricardo, M.S.
WOODBRIDGE, Gordon

Coordinator of Latin American Program
Coordinator of Credit Union Program
Coordinator of Social Development Program
Coordinator of Credit Union Program

also:
Dr. GILLIS
Mr. LOTZ
Mr. RILEY

Coordinator of Summer Programs

On leave of absence, 1971 - 72.

where they come from . . .

The Coady International Institute of St. Francis Xavier University has trained social leadership students from 86 countries around the world. The countries represented were:

Afghanistan	Guyana	Pakistan (E & W)
Antigua	Holland	Panama
Australia	Honduras	Paraguay
Austria	Hong Kong	Peru
Bahamas	India	Philippines
Barbados	Indonesia	Portugal
Belgium	Iran	Puerto Rico
Bolivia	Iraq	Rhodesia
Botswana	Ireland	St. Kitt's
Brazil	Jamaica	St. Lucia
Br. Honduras	Japan	St. Vincent
Cameroon	Kenya	Senegal
Canada	Korea	Sierra Leone
Caroline Is.	Lesotho	Singapore
Ceylon	Liberia	South Africa
Chile	Malaysia	Spain
Columbia	Malaya	Sudan
Costa Rica	Subah	Swaziland
Cuba	Sarawak	Switzerland
Dominica	Malawi	Taiwan
Dominican Rep.	Malla	Tanzania
Ecuador	Mauritius	Thailand
El Salvador	Mexico	Trinidad & Tobago
England	Montserrat	Uganda
Ethiopia	Mozambique	United Arab Rep.
Gambia	Nepal	U. S. A.
Germany	New Guinea	Uruguay
Ghana	Nicaragua	Venezuela
Grenada	Nigeria	Zambia
Guatemala		Zululand

APPENDIX L

11 Upper Grosvenor Street London W1X 9PA telephone 01-499 5991 telegrams Interallia London

Your ref

July 22, 1971

Our ref ICA.1/20, D3.1

Mr. S. RAHMAN
Graduate Student
School of Public Administration
Carleton University
OTTAWA 1, Ontario

C a n a d a

Dear Mr. Rahman,

1. I write with reference to your letter of June 28 in which you have referred to the insufficiency of the ICA Development Fund and invite my personal opinion on your suggestion that assisting countries should channel to the Development Fund at least 5% of their total allocations for technical assistance through their national member organisations in the ICA.

2. Requirements for assistance in developing countries are vast and resources are very limited. Over the course of years, there is in evidence an arrangement whereby government finance is being increasingly married to cooperative expertise. Such, for example, is the case in Sweden, the UK, and we are currently discussing with our Canadian member organisations the possibility of a survey in West Africa with the ultimate objective of setting up a bilingual training centre. This project is still in a very preliminary stage and I would not advise that you should mention this at this stage in your thesis. It is a little difficult for me to comment on the figure of 5% since I am not aware of the basis on which you have arrived at this figure. Of course, if this arrangement could be worked out, it would add considerable support to the cooperative movements in the developing countries.

ICA.1/20, D3.1

July 22, 1971

Mr. S. RAHMAN
Carleton University
OTTAWA

3. May I also say that besides the size of contribution, it is also extremely important that assistance is provided in a coordinated fashion and in projects which have the potential of a multiplier effect. That way, even limited assistance could have a desired impact and, of course, if the resources could be increased, the cooperative movement would be able to play a very important role in the United Nations Second Development Decade.
4. For your information and interest, I am sending you under separate cover copy of our brochure on the Cooperative Development Decade which we have produced recently.
5. I would be most interested in learning about the conclusions of your thesis and wish you every success in your work.

Yours sincerely,

p.p. S.K. Saxena
N. Chaudhary

S. K. SAXENA
DIRECTOR

Letter dictated by Dr. Saxena and signed in his absence

APPENDIX M

1. Social Leadership

Training Institution: Coady Institute, St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish, N.S.
Length of Course: 8 months from September
Maximum Enrollment: 40
Description of Course: Co-operation, Economics, Sociology, Accounting, Rural Development, Nutrition and Hygiene are studied with related subjects. Field trips are organized as well. This is an excellent course for full-time cooperative employees.

2. Community Development

Training Institution: Coady Institute, St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish N.S.
Length of Course: 7 weeks during the summer
Maximum Enrollment: 30
Description of Course: An intensive seven-week course in the Antigonish Movement, Co-operatives, Credit Unions, Adult Education and extension methods.

3. Credit Unions

Training Institution: Coady Institute, St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish, N.S.
Length of Course: 7 weeks during the summer
Maximum Enrollment: 30
Description of Course: A concentrated course in all phases of credit union activities, also accounting, budgeting and financial institutions. This course is for officers and employees of credit unions.

4. Fish Co-operatives

Training Institution: Memorial University and College of Fisheries, St. John's, Nfld.
Length of Course: 15 weeks during the summer
Maximum Enrollment: 20
Description of Course: Community Leadership, Co-operative Organization and Techniques of fishing and fish handling and storage are covered. Field trips to plants are organized as well as two days on a training ship to see how equipment is used.

5. Co-operative Education

Training Institution: Western Coop. College
Length of Course: 14 weeks during the fall
Maximum Enrollment: 20
Description of Course: Educational methods and techniques, and communication related to the promotion of the Co-operative movement are the main features of this course. Students are also exposed to additional subjects such as merchandizing, management and supervision of co-operatives.

6. Agricultural Marketing

Training Institution: Western Coop. College and University of Saskatchewan in Saskatoon
Length of Course: 15 weeks during the summer
Maximum Enrollment: 20
Description of Course: General managerial training in co-operatives with specialized attention to marketing operations.

7. Education cooperative et animation sociale

Training Institution: Université de Sherbrooke,
Sherbrooke, Quebec

Length of Course: 14 weeks during the summer

Maximum Enrollment: 25

Description of Course: Social and Economic aspects of
co-operatives, also history and
doctrine, Adult Education, Legis-
lation, Marketing and Communica-
tion. Practical attachments
are included in this program.

APPENDIX N

CO-OPERATIVE STATISTICS

1. CREDIT UNION COURSE - COADY INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>COST</u>	<u>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</u>	<u>COUNTRIES REPRESENTED</u>
1970	\$14,483.00	29	Barbasos(2), Br. Honduras (3), Botswana (2), Ceylon, Ghana (3), Guyana (2), Indonesia, Jamaica, Kenya, Korea, Lesotho (4), Manila, Philippines, St. Lucia, Swaziland, Tanzania (2), Uganda (2).
1969	9,888.20	7	British Honduras (2), Ghana, Lesotho, Philippines, Singapore, Swaziland (4), Uganda (2), West Indies (4), Zamiba.

2. CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION COURSE - WESTERN CO-OP COLLEGE

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>COST</u>	<u>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</u>	<u>COUNTRIES REPRESENTED</u>
1970	\$32,625.00	17	Canada, Botswana, Guyana (3), Indonesia, Jamaica, Korea, Malaysia, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, West Indies.
1969	27,263.05	21	Ghana (2), Guyana (3), India (3), Kenya, Lesotho, Philippines (3), Singapore, Swaziland, Uganda (3), West Indies, Zambia (2).
1968	8,723.00	10	Ceylon, Guyana, India (2), Thailand, Uganda (3), West Indies, Zambia.

3. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT - COADY INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE

YEAR	COST	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	COUNTRIES REPRESENTED
1970	\$13,225.00	13	Ghana, Grenada, Guyana, Hong Kong, Korea, Lesotho (2), Pakistan, Rhodesia, Swaziland (2), Tanzania, Uganda.
1969	13,225.00	18	Botswana, Guyana, Indonesia, Jamaica, Kenya (2), St. Vincent, Swaziland (7), Trinidad, Zambia (2), Lesotho.
1968	22,205.00	17	Barbados (2), Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Nigeria (3), St. Kitts, St. Lucia, Tanzania (2), Thailand (2), Uganda (2), Zambia.

4. SOCIAL LEADERSHIP - COADY INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE

YEAR	COST	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	COUNTRIES REPRESENTED
1970	\$99,051.00	31	British Honduras (2), Ghana (2), Guyana, Hong Kong, India (3), Indonesia (2), Jamaica, Kenya, Lesotho (4), Malaysia (3), Nigeria (2), Pakistan, Philippines (2), St. Lucia, Swaziland (2), Tanzania (2), Uganda.
1969	108,636.80	34	Cameroon (3), Dominica, Ghana, Grenada, Guyana (2), Indonesia (3), Kenya (4), Korea, Lesotho (3), Malaysia, Malta, Nigeria (2), Rhodesia, Thailand (2), Uganda (4), W. Cameroon (4).

5. FISHERIES CO-OPERATIVES - MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY AND
COLLEGE OF FISHERIES

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>COST</u>	<u>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</u>	<u>COUNTRIES REPRESENTED</u>
1970	?	15	Br. Honduras (3), Canada, India, Indonesia, Korea, Philippines (2), Malaysia, Pakistan (4), Tanzania.
1969	\$33,046.00	12	Br. Honduras, Barbados, Ceylon (2), Guyana, India, Indonesia, Philippines, St. Vincent, Uganda, Zambia (2).
1968	20,904.00	15	Details not available

6. AGRICULTURAL MARKETING - WESTERN CO-OPERATIVE COLLEGE

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>COST</u>	<u>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</u>	<u>COUNTRIES REPRESENTED</u>
1970	\$13,600.00	17	Botswana, Br. Honduras, Guyana, India (3), Indonesia (2), Lesotho, Pakistan, Philippines (2), Swaziland, Tanzania (2), Uganda, West Indies.
1969	21,742.00	17	Botswana, Br. Honduras, Guyana, India (2), Indonesia (2), Lesotho, Pakistan, Philippines (2), Swaziland, Tanzania (2), Uganda, West Indies, Jamaica.

APPENDIX O

CARLETON UNIVERSITY

OTTAWA 1, CANADA

DEPARTMENT OF
POLITICAL SCIENCE

S. Rahman
Graduate Student
School of Public Administration
Carleton University
Ottawa 1, Ontario, Canada.

Dear Mr. Barbing,

I am a Pakistani student at Carleton, sponsored by the Canadian International Development Agency. In partial fulfilment of my M.A course I am doing a thesis on the Co-op movement in Canada. Part of my thesis would relate to the work of the co-operative movement in the developing countries. The Desjardins Co-operative Movement would also figure prominently.

In this connection, I would like to know the contribution made so far by the Desjardins Co-operative Institute by way of providing training facilities to the less-developed countries. A country-wise break-up of the trainees, including the duration, course of study, method of recruitment, sponsorship etc. would be highly useful for my purpose. Any special problems and your comments thereon would be immensely useful. I would be particularly interested to have your opinion as to why, if I am right, your Institute has not been as widely known overseas as the Coady International which is only three years older than yours. I understand that your medium of teaching is French. In that case would you please be good enough to provide me with answers to the following questions:

a) In its relationship with the developing world, does the Desjardins Co-operative Institute cater only to francophone countries ?

b) Do you welcome trainees whose mother tongue is not French from developing countries such as those in South and South-East Asia ? If not, why not ?

I would be glad if you kindly send me an early reply.

With best regards,

Yours Sincerely,

(S. RAHMAN.) 28/6/71

To

Mr. G . Barbing,
Director, the Desjardins Co-operative Institute,
Levis, Quebec, Canada.

DESJARDINS

Levis, July 7th, 1971

Mr. S. Rahman,
Graduate Student,
School of Public Administration,
Carleton University,
Ottawa 1, Ontario.

Mr. Rahman,

I am glad that you undertook to write a thesis on the Co-op Movement in Canada.

In yours of 28-6-71, you are interested in knowing many opinions about subjects that I find hard to deal with in such a letter of my own and even if you are in a hurry to find your answers, I would like better you to come here to see us and have a talk about that. For the moment I would tell you that L'ICD is not so well known as Coady Institute abroad because we are an adult education center dealing most of the time with people not pertaining to the Cooperative Movement. In fact, the cooperative action is only one of the matter we work on at L'ICD and moreover only 25% of our customers are coming annually from cooperative organizations.

Coady Institute is specialized with cooperative questions and we are not. We are interested in training people in "animation", group work, communication, audio-visual aids, management development programs, etc. In the last seven years, we have provided about 150 people from French Africa, Asia and some from Latin America with training sessions going from one week to four months and in these cooperation was only one subject dealt with. Besides we gave preparation to about 300 young French-Canadian teachers and alike going to work abroad for two-year contracts.

Our usual language is French and we think that it is in this language that we are at our best to work with others; it is not only a matter of language but also a question of mentality: in fact we are French-Canadians and we think that it is better for us and others to act mostly in this field. Sometimes we work with English or Spanish speaking people and we like to do so but we feel that it is not what we are looked after for.

2/

I hope that these information will be useful to you and
I wish you come to L'ICD if you need more.

Yours truly,

MARCEL LANDRY
Educational director

ML/fp
G-71

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