

**COURSE  
GUIDE****CRD 403  
COMPARATIVE COOPERATIVE**

**Course Team:** Lawal, K .A A. Ph.D (Course Writers/Developer) –  
National Open University of Nigeria  
Abdullahi Taiwo Olabisi  
Nnamdi Azikwe University, Awka

Ass. Prof Dr. Francis Nwankwo (Course Editor) –  
Nnamdi Azikwe University, Awka.

Lawal, K A. A. Ph.D (Head of Department) –  
Department of Entrepreneurship - NOUN  
Faculty of Management Science

Dr. Ishola T.O (Dean) –  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
NOUN



National Open University of Nigeria

**Headquarters**

University Village  
Plot 91 Cadastral Zone  
Nnamdi Azikiwe Expressway  
Jabi, Abuja.

Lagos Office  
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way  
Victoria Island, Lagos

e-mail: [centralinfo@noun.edu.ng](mailto:centralinfo@noun.edu.ng)

URL: [www.noun.edu.ng](http://www.noun.edu.ng)

Published by:  
National Open University of Nigeria

ISBN:

Printed: 2017

All Rights Reserved

<b>CONTENTS</b>	<b>PAGE</b>
Introduction .....	iv
What the Student Will Learn In This Course .....	iv
Course Aims.....	iv
Course Objectives .....	iv
Working Through the Course .....	v
Study Units .....	v
Textbooks/References .....	v
Assessment .....	vi
Tutor - Marked Assignment .....	vi
Assignment .....	vi
Final Examination and Grading .....	vii
Summary .....	vii

## INTRODUCTION

**CRD 403: Comparative Cooperative** consists of fifteen (15) units divided into two modules which provide basic knowledge for the learners about Comparative Cooperative. The course spreads through topics such as: Cooperative, the scope of Comparative Cooperative, historical development of Comparative Cooperative, approaches to the study of Comparative Cooperative, the Future of Comparative Cooperative, Japanese Cooperative, the System of Cooperative in Brazil, Cooperative in England, Cooperative in France, the system of Cooperative in Jamaica, Cooperative system in Nigeria and Cooperative system and Cooperative in Afghanistan.

## WHAT THE STUDENT WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE

This course is out to teach you about things you should expect from reading this material. Taking the learners through the concept of Cooperative will enhance their knowledge about cooperative practice. Exposing the students to the scope of Comparative Cooperative will afford the students the opportunity to understand that the subject is an interdisciplinary subject. In the same vein, the knowledge of historical development of Comparative Cooperative will assist the students to have a better understanding of the subject. Exposing the learners to approaches to the study of Comparative Cooperative will afford them the opportunity to know the various methods which can be used to study the discipline. The knowledge of the future of Comparative Cooperative will give the learners broader knowledge about the subject. Also, exposing the students to other country cooperative systems such as Japanese education, the system of cooperative in Brazil, cooperative in England, cooperative in America cooperative in France, the System of cooperative in Jamaica, cooperative system in Nigeria and Tanzania and cooperative in Afghanistan will afford the students the opportunity to understand what is going on in the area of cooperative in other countries of the world. This will also help them to be in the position to compare and contrast the practices of cooperative in Nigeria and other countries of the world.

## COURSE AIMS

This course intends to provide an opportunity for the learners to understand better the practices of cooperative not only in their country but also other countries of the world.

## COURSE OBJECTIVES

Specifically, this course sets to achieve the objectives below:

- explain the meaning of cooperative
- identify the other area or field of study from where comparative cooperative draws its ideas
- discuss the historical development of comparative cooperative
- mention the approaches to the study of Comparative Cooperative
- discuss the future of Comparative cooperative. Discuss other country cooperative systems in: such as: Japan, Brazil, England, France, America, Jamaica, Nigeria, Tanzania and Afghanistan.

## **WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE**

This course expects you to spend a lot of time to read it. You need to spend more time to study the contents of the material so as to be able to justify the effort that has been put into its development in order to make it readable. You are hereby advised to attend the tutorial sessions where you will meet with your mates for the purpose of comparing knowledge gained from the material.

## **STUDY UNITS**

Each unit of each of the course has introduction, objectives, content, conclusion, summary, tutor marked assignment, recommended textbooks and answer kit to the tutor marked assignment.

## **TEXTBOOKS/REFERENCES**

Adeyinka, A.A. (1994): Popular Topics in Comparative Education for Nigerian Tertiary Education Students, Ilorin, Success Education Services.

Birchall, Johnston. (1997) The International Cooperative Movement. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.

Daniel, H (2006), Dictionary of Management, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed. Reference for Business.

David, A. S. (1998). Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS), Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Epetimehin, F.M, (2006). Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives, ICReTI Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.

Fafunwa, A.B. (1982) Education in Africa. A Comparative Survey, London, George Allen and Unwin.

Fred, E (2006), Introduction to Co-operatives Course Material on COP 101 National Open University of Nigeria, pp1-6.

Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999). Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990 Lanham, MD:

Lawal, B.O. (2004). Comparative Education, Osogbo, Swift Publishers Nig. Ltd.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) Nigeria & International Cooperation COP216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A and Abdullah., T. O. (2016). Understanding Comparative Cooperative, in Press.

Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P King1 (March 2007) Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, Agrekon, Vol 46, No 1.

## **ASSESSMENT**

This course has two components of assessment: the tutor-marked assignment (TMA) as well as the end of course examination.

### **TUTOR - MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

The tutor marked assignment is the continuous assessment component of your course. It carries 30 percent of the total score. Each unit has a Tutor Marked.

### **ASSIGNMENT**

You are going to be given some Tutor-Marked Assignments to attempt. Three out of these must be attempted before you will be allowed to sit for the end of course examination. The Tutor - Marked Assignment will be given to you by your facilitator and they must be returned after you have attempted them.

## **END OF COURSE EXAMINATION**

Examination concludes the assessment for the course, it accounts for about 60 percent of the whole course, you will be told about the time for the examination.

## **SUMMARY**

This course provides you information about Comparative Cooperative as a discipline. In addition, the following topics were also discussed in the course. Cooperative, the Scope of Comparative Cooperative, Historical Development of Comparative Cooperative, Approaches to the Study of Comparative cooperative, the Future of Comparative Cooperative, Sweden cooperative System, the System of Cooperative in Norway, Cooperative in England, Cooperative in America, Cooperative in Denmark, the System of Cooperative in Indian , Cooperative in Africa - Nigeria and finally, the Role International Cooperative (ICA) and other notable organization and association.






**MAIN  
CONTENT**

<b>CONTENTS</b>		<b>PAGE</b>
<b>MODULE 1.....</b>		<b>1</b>
Unit 1	Meaning of Cooperative.....	1
Unit 2	Scope of Comparative Cooperative.....	6
Unit 3	Historical Development of Comparative Cooperative...	10
Unit 4	Approaches to the Study of Comparative Cooperative.....	18
Unit 5	Factors for Sustain the Learning of Comparative Cooperative	25
<b>MODULE 2.....</b>		<b>29</b>
Unit 1	The Development of Cooperatives in Europe.....	29
Unit 2	Importance of Agricultural Cooperatives in Britain, Demark, Norway and Sweden.....	36
Unit 3	Success of Consumers Cooperative Movement in Britain...	47
Unit 4	The Pattern of Development of Cooperatives In Asia...	53
Unit 5	History of Agricultural Cooperative in U.S.A (AMERICA)..	56
<b>MODULE 3.....</b>		<b>69</b>
Unit 1	The development of Cooperatives in AFRICA-NIGERIA..	69
Unit 2	Modern and traditional pattern of cooperation in Nigeria...	74
Unit 3	The Structure of the Cooperative Movement in Nigeria...	79
Unit 4	History, Objectives and the Importance of the International Cooperative Alliance.....	84
Unit 5	The role of International Agency for Cooperative Development (ICD), World Council of Credit Unions – WOCCU and IFAP International Federation of Agricultural Producers, International fund for Agricultural development (IFAD).....	89



## **MODULE 1**

Unit 1	Meaning of Cooperative
Unit 2	Scope of Comparative Cooperative
Unit 3	Historical Development of Comparative Cooperative
Unit 4	Approaches to the Study of Comparative Cooperative
Unit 5	Factors for Sustain the Learning of Comparative Cooperative

### **UNIT 1 MEANING OF COOPERATIVE**

#### **CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objective
3.0	Main Content
	3.1 Cooperative
	3.2 The Meaning of Comparative Cooperative
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

Cooperative and comparative cooperative as concepts can be given different interpretation. The reason is that different people from different angles will see them from different perspectives. In other words, there can be as many definitions to the concepts of Cooperative and Comparative Cooperative.

#### **2.0 OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- provide an acceptable definition to Cooperative
- explain the concept of Comparative Cooperative.

#### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

##### **3.1 Cooperative**

Cooperatives exist in all organizations or economic system irrespective of the nature of the organizations and the economic system practices

throughout the universe. It operates in public as well as private firms and planned economy as well as free enterprise economy.

Cooperative is very difficult to pin to a particular definition, because the concept may be perceived from different angles. The concept of cooperative and cooperation will be used interchangeably and this has been traced to two Latin words. The term co-operation is derived from a Latin word “co-operari” where the word (CO) means “with” and (OPERARI) means “to work”. Thus co-operation means ‘working together’ so those who want to work together with some common economic objectives can form a society which is termed “Co-operative Society”. It is a voluntary association of persons who work together to promote their economic interest. It works on the principle of self-help as well as mutual help. The main objective is to provide support to the members. Nobody joins a cooperative society to earn profit. People come forward as a group, pool their individual resources, utilize them in the possible manner, and derive some common benefit out of it.

In 1981, Roy defined Co-operative as a business voluntarily organized, operating at cost, owned and capitalized, controlled, democratically by member-patrons who are the users and share risk and benefits according to their participation in the society. (Lambert, 1963) described Co-operative as an enterprise formed and directed by an association of users applying within itself the rule of democracy and directly intended to serve both its members and community as a whole. (Calvert, 1959) viewed it as a form of organization where members voluntarily associate together as human beings on the basis of equality for the promotion of economic needs. Basic to all these viewpoints is the issue that Co-operative is based on the values of self-help, self responsibility, democracy and equality and that co-operative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others.

Reeves opined in 2003 that the best way of pushing back the limit of economic problems of scarcity is by working together. This is because more can be accomplished when people coordinate their efforts with each other and take concerns and talents of other into considerations. (Olesin, 2007) described the idea of cooperation to be that ‘what everybody saves is pooled and members can take loans either to buy households items, vehicles, lands, houses or do business, but there is a bond that the borrowers must benefit from the same pool’.

Cooperatives tend highlight the underlying but centrally important issues of an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and, control, power and interests together with the mechanisms and techniques

aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise.

### **3.2 The Meaning of Comparative Cooperative**

Naturally, human beings are in the habit of making comparison of the things that are around them particularly when such things exist in different places. This may be done as a result of man's desire to know the relationship existing between, or among the things being compared. Man may also involve himself in this kind of a business when he wants to choose between two things before him. The idea of comparison is not peculiar to the people in the business of cooperative alone but comparison can take place wherever we have two or more things at the same time either for the purpose of having a better understanding of the relationship existing between them or for the purpose of having a better choice.

Like other concepts, comparative cooperative is a concept that attracts varied interpretations or definitions. In other words, there are as many definitions as there are many Cooperative Comparativists. Lawal, (2013) gives the following definitions for the concept. (a). A study of how the development of cooperative in the past, across the ages and continents, has influenced the development of cooperative in particular countries. (b). A study of how the philosophy, objectives and aims, policy and practice of cooperative in other countries influence the general development, policy and practice of education in a particular country. (c). A field of study dealing with the comparison of current educational theory and practice in different countries for the purpose of broadening and deepening understanding of cooperative problems beyond the boundaries of one's own country, (d). A study of the cooperative systems of two or more countries, and of the management and administrative machineries set up to implement or to control the implementation of policies at various levels of cooperative unions and two or more Coop systems. From the above definitions, the study of Comparative Cooperative allows the person involved to have a better understanding of the system of cooperative outside his own country.

Emejulu, 2015 in his opinion in class interaction on the concept of comparative cooperative, defines the subject as a systematic method of investigation cooperatives societies relating to two or more countries which have analytic rather than descriptive implications involves in exploring institutions and cross national boundaries, such as the cooperative marketing roles and behavior of inter-non-governmental organization, cooperative enterprises and union.

According to Lawal and Oludimu (2010), Comparative cooperative studies may involve describing, analyzing comparing and contracting different cooperative programmes and practices within a society, state, region and two or more countries.

Lawal, (2009), posits that most studies of cooperative studies have focused on the institutions involved with autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and other forms of cooperative regulations. Adopting a comparative approach to cooperative study requires not only insights from several discipline but also knowledge of different national context.

#### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

In modern cooperative organizations development comparism occur in (order/other to cater for activities such as welfare of the member/workers, job security, cooperative insurance, interpreting the cooperative laws governing society, members and patronage managing the organization-union relations, trade disputes and role of parties involved in comparative comparatives.The unit above discussed different definitions of comparative cooperative.

#### **5.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about: the Meaning of Cooperative and Comparative Cooperative.

#### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Define the term Comparative Cooperative

#### **7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING**

Daniel, H (2006), Dictionary of Management, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. **Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business.

David, A. S. (1998). Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS), Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Epetimehin, F.M, (2006). Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives, ICReTI Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.

Fred, E (2006), Introduction to Co-operatives Course Material on COP 101National Open University of Nigeria, pp1-6.

- Lawal, K. A. A and Oludimu, O. L (2011), Management Theory, Practices and Focus, Asogun Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp 130-139.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen. A .A (2012) Nigeria & International Cooperation COP 216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.
- Roy, E. P. (1981), Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.

## **UNIT 2 SCOPE OF COMPARATIVE COOPERATIVE**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 The Scope of Comparative Cooperative
  - 3.2 The Purpose of Comparative Cooperative
  - 3.3 Other Reasons for Studying Comparative Cooperative include:
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

Exposing students to the scope of comparative cooperative will afford the students the opportunity to have an idea of other disciplines from where comparative cooperative draws ideas or points.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain the scope of comparative cooperative.
- discuss the purpose of comparative cooperative
- explain the reasons for studying comparative cooperative.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 The Scope of Comparative Cooperative**

The term "scope" according to Longman dictionary of contemporary English could mean: (a). The area within the limit of a question, subject, action etc. (b). Space or chance for actions or thought. From the above, scope of comparative cooperative means the area or areas covered by the discipline. The scope of the subject also connotes the various subjects or disciplines from where Comparative cooperative draws its information directly or indirectly. A critical look at the various definitions of the discipline no doubt reveals that Comparative Cooperative is an interdisciplinary subject since it relies on other subjects to be able to accomplish its objectives. As an interdisciplinary subject, its scope covers the historical development of education right from the Roman as well as the Greek civilization. It also includes the



historical development of non-formal cooperative in any country of study. The discipline has its scope extended to the purpose or purposes of cooperative systems of the countries being studied, an investigation into the similarities as well as differences existing in the cooperative practices of the countries under investigation. However, subjects from where Comparative Cooperative draws its contents include the following:

(a). Economics (b). Business studies (c). Sociology Education (d). Psychology (e). Finance (f). Political science (g). Management (h). Statistics and Mathematics (j). The International relations. above explanation clearly shows that the subject is not independent of other subjects; it is a discipline that relates to other subjects for the accomplishment of its aims and objectives. It may be reasonably concluded that the interdisciplinary nature of the subject has contributed to the wideness of the discipline.

### **3.2 The Purpose of Comparative Cooperative**

Comparative cooperative like other disciplines being offered in the education institutions is not a purposeless subject. In other words, the subject has some goals which it aims at achieving. While giving the purpose of comparative cooperative, Hans (1992) concludes that: The analytical study of these factors from historical perspective and the comparison of attempted solution of resultant problems are the main purpose of comparative cooperative.

It can be concluded from the above that comparative cooperative tries to compare cooperative system, problems as well as the solutions applied to such problems with a view to helping one's cooperative practices. The purpose of Comparative Cooperative was given by Mallinson (1975) when he noted that: To become familiar with what is being done in some countries ... and why it is done, is a necessary part of the training of all students of cooperative issues of the day. Only in that way will they be properly fitted to study and understand their own systems and plan intelligently for the future which given the basic socio-economic cultural changes that have taken place with such astonishing throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, is going to be one where we are thrown into ever closer contact with other peoples and other cultures.

From the above, it is evident that the study of Comparative Cooperative assists the learners to understand their cooperative systems better. In his own contribution to the purpose of comparative cooperative, Marc - Antoine Jullien de Paris (1817) cited in Hans (1992) notes that: The purpose of Comparative coop is to perfect national systems with

modifications and socio-economic changes which the circumstances and local conditions would demand.

Like other Cooperative Comparativists, the purpose given above is a pointer to the fact that the study of Comparative coop assists in the flexibility of coop systems of one's country. The need for comparative cooperative studies arises from the fact that attainment of cooperative organizational goals is largely influenced by the type, style, structures, sizes, growth and development of relationships that exist between the individuals members and the society for instance, issue such as basics needs. Socio-economic needs, security, productivity and some per amount important for conductive organizational and economy prerequisite for productivity achievement.

Also, the purpose of Comparative cooperative is to discover the underlying principles which govern the development of all national cooperative systems.

### **3.2.3 Other Reasons for Studying Comparative Cooperative include:**

- (a). To assist in the understanding of one's educational institutions as well as cooperative practices.
- (b). To assist in the understanding of the factors that are responsible for various cooperative growth and changes.
- (c). To educate the members and non-members on the procedure through which cooperative activities issues and changes occur in community and society.
- (d). To contribute not only to the cooperative development of the society but also to the general development of the society.
- (e). To serve as an academic discipline.
- (f). To assist in solving one's socio-economic problems
- (g). To open one's eyes to the cooperative philosophies, theories and practices of other countries.
- (h). To assist both the members and non-members of discipline in gathering reliable information concerning cooperative system.
- (i). To assist in the Promotion of international relationship.
- (j). To contribute to the formulation of a country's cooperative systems.

## **4.0 CONCLUSION**

Comparative cooperative is an interdisciplinary course as it borrows ideas from other subjects. As a course of study, it has reasons for being taught and being learnt by the individual who have interests.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about the scope of comparative cooperative, the purpose of comparative cooperative and other reasons for studying comparative cooperative.

## 6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Mention five reasons for studying comparative cooperative.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Birchall, Johnston. (1997). *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.

David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. **Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business.

Epetimehin, F.M, (2006). *Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives*, ICReTI Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.

Fred, E (2006), *Introduction to Co-operatives Course Material on COP 101* National Open University of Nigeria, pp1-6.

Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999). *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990* Lanham, MD:

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2012) *Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.

Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P Kingl (*March 2007*) *Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, Agrekon, Vol 46, No 1.*

## **UNIT 3      HISTORICAL                  DEVELOPMENT                  OF COMPARATIVE COOPERATIVE**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Historical development of comparative cooperative
  - 3.2 Phases in the Development of Comparative Cooperative
  - 3.3 Ancient Egyptian Era between (3100 to 1150 BC)
    - 3.3.1 Babylonian Era
    - 3.3.2 The Early Greek Era between 3000 to 325 B.C
    - 3.3.3 Ancient Chinese Associations 200 B.C
    - 3.3.4 The Roman Era, 510 B.C to 475 A.D
    - 3.3.5 The Early Christian Era, 1-313 A.D
    - 3.3.6 The Rise of Islam 600-1490 A.D
    - 3.3.7 The Middle Age, 500-1400.A.D
    - 3.3.8 Renaissance (recovery) Period 1400-1750 A.D
    - 3.3.9 The industrial Revolution 1750-1944 A.D
    - 3.3.10 The ATOMIC and SPACE AGE
  - 3.4 Factors influence the comparative cooperative practice of any country:
  - 3.5 Factors responsible for increased interest in the study of Comparative Cooperative
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The historical development of comparative cooperative can be divided into stages. They are stage development of comparative cooperative.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the historical development of comparative cooperative,
- mention and explain factors influence the comparative cooperative practice of any country,
- itemise and explain factors responsible for increased interest in the study of Comparative cooperative.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 Historical Development of Comparative Cooperative**

Comparative Cooperative was not really Comparative but descriptive as the people were mostly concerned with the description of cooperative systems of each country without necessarily comparing one cooperative systems with another. The origin and growth of cooperation are as old as human race. Co-operatives started as an urban consumer retail enterprise but later spread to rural areas amongst farmers. During the latter part of the nineteenth century, the concept engulfed several parts of Europe and North America. Early in the twentieth century, the cooperative movement spread to Indian and gradually to other Asian and African countries, mainly courtesy of the colonial administrators. Presently, the cooperative form of business organization is an international movement. Although some associate it's with socialist or communist country. (Roy, 1980).

However, the 19th Century witnessed an increased interest in the study of Comparative cooperative as cooperative started to be studied in a Comparative form. As a matter of fact, what can be regarded as serious studies in the field of Comparative cooperative could be traced to the early 19th century after the Napoleonic wars. Since there was no war among the Europeans, there was peace among them and they needed something that could enhance their interaction with one another. Therefore, a consideration was given to the study of comparative education as a strong channel through which the youths of various European countries could be more unified. To this end, various individual scholars, researchers in different discipline travelled to different part of the world and on their return, they write and published their findings on socio-economic, human wants and basic necessities, welfare infrastructures and institutions in the countries visited such as Great Britain, France, Switzerland, Italy Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Germany, Canada, Korea Japan, as well as Holland.

#### **3.2 Phases in the Development of Comparative Cooperative**

The phases in the historical development of Comparative cooperative can be divided into eleven namely: (a) Ancient Egyptian Era between (3100 to 1150 BC) (b) Babylonian Era (c) The Early Greek Era between 3000 to 325 B.C (d) Ancient Chinese Associations 200 B.C (e) The Roman Era, 510 B.C to 475 A.D. (f ) The Early Christian Era, 1-313 A.D (g) The Rise of Islam 600-1490 A.D (h) The Middle Age, 500-1400.A.D (i) Renaissance (recovery) Period 1400-1750 A.D (j) The industrial Revolution 1750-1944 A.D (k) The ATOMIC and SPACE AGE.

### **3.3 Ancient Egyptian Era between (3100 To 1150 B.C)**

Roy (1981), and Lawal and Oludimu (2011), are of the same opinion and observation that the evolution and growth of cooperation can be traced down to **Ancient Egyptian Era between (3100 to 1150 B.C)** as the main period of development. The cooperative has evolved from a religion-oriented institution to a more formalized business-oriented organization serving economic rather than spiritual needs. The nature of development was craftsmen and artisan associations.

#### **3.3.1 Babylonian Era 510 B.C to 475 A.D**

Roy (1981) noted that between 3000 to 540 BC, some agricultural lease had cooperative features history and documents indicating that the tenants farmers in cooperatives kept strict account of their enterprises instead of hiring themselves out to large estate owners. They were enabled by law to achieve economic freedom and independence. Also the prevalence of credit transaction among the ancient Babylonians doubtless led to the creation of loan societies to assist the small farmers and craftsmen who sought to protect the poor and weak against the injustices that were ramped among the powerful rich.

#### **3.3.2 The Early Greek Era between 3000 to 325 B.C**

This era was created for cult of the dead buried in accordance with the rituals of their religion and assured its members of a burial place decent for funeral and aimed at promotion of mutual assistance. The religion and cultural association known as ‘‘Orglonen’’ and ‘‘Thiasi’’ burial benefit societies. The services are to assist members traveling with care and information, to aid the poor to temporarily impoverished and permitted to operate in freedom and safety as observed by Henderson (1969) and Roy (1981).

#### **3.3.3 Ancient Chinese Associations 200 B.C**

The nature of development was loan and credit association during the Hon DYNASTY before the Christian era, when PONG KOONG, A RICH and influential Chinese, instituted the first money-lending society bearing cooperative features. Roy (1981), enumerated the characteristic features as:

1. A limited society, all members contributed equal amounts.
2. A system of fines for non- payment of contribution of the fund.
3. Competitive bids for loans.
4. Equal division of profits.

5. Payment of dues, borrowed sum in installments and interest at stated intervals.

### **3.3.4 The Roman Era, 510 B.C to 475 A.D**

The nature of development was craftsmen's and burials benefits. The cooperative craftsmen organization called "Collegia" which appeared as early as the beginning of old Roman history. Henderson(1969) and Roy (1981), noted that the history credits the legendary king Numa Pompilius that established eight trade colleges such as carpenters, coppersmiths dyers, fullers, goldsmiths, flute players, shoemakers and potmakers they possessed no legal facilities for settling question regarding production, price and labour relations They were suppressed by the Roman ruler and later restored during Julies Ceasar regime.

### **3.3.5 The Early Christian Era, 1-313 A.D**

The nature of development was Artisan societies with burial benefits. Henderson (1969), Degler (1970) and Roy (1981) were of the same opinion that the birth of Jesus Christ constituted significant event in the world history. The Roman industry consisted of craftsmen and plantation agriculture known as *latifindal* were dominant. The peasant proprietors surrender their land to wealthy landlord in return for the right to remain on the land as tenants although rental payment had to be made to the landlords. While agriculture cooperative had no basis upon which develop and expand, the cooperative features existed was that of burial cooperatives for funerals expenses of members paid from funds obtained by common subscriptions.

### **3.3.6 The Rise of Islam 600-1490 A.D**

Lawal (2013), posited that the nature of development stressed on cooperation as part of faith based on the Holy Quran and Sunnah (practice) of prophet Muhammed (S.A.W). He was dissatisfied with conducts of trade and other business in and around Mecca. Muhammed (S.A.W) received supernatural instructions which embodied in the Quran Part of Quran emphasize the significance relative of cooperation, profit sharing based on capital contributed, no or zero interest, justice and equality distribution of wealth/income for the mere sake of wealth as a matter of faith. Also the Quran as a (constitution) keeps giving new guidance, knowledge and perspective to people at different times and in different geographical locations this comes in the form of 'AYAT' a word that is often translated as verses, but that also means signs, which implies that the Quran is a books of signs, evidences of the Creator for the people who reflect. When GOD (ALLAH) ordered Muslims to form a group or an organization, He specified the purposes of the group or an

organization, which were inviting towards goods enjoining what is right and forbidding evil has mentioned in the (Quran: 3:104). The cooperative was also looked upon as a unifying institution to better the economic, social and political conditions in the community. The essence of Islamic teaching certainly lent strong support to the cooperative idea. In addition, Islam established a real sense of collectiveness and community among companions of Muhammad, who were like one body that felt pain whenever one of its members suffered. Cooperation is needed among people, teams, department and countries in order to help improve the living conditions of their citizens in enhancing through training, value, caring and sharing to sacrificing humility, respect, and trust prevailing that foster teamwork and collective rewards to achieved success.

### **3.3.7 The Middle Age, 500-1400.A.D**

The Guilds developed and originated from Roman industrial colleges when Swiss dairymen were reported to have made cheese cooperative and anticipated the modern consumer cooperatives. The objective of guilds was to secure the positions of members craftsmen price, hours of labour and quality of output were carefully prescribed guilds afforded a center of social activities and maintained common funds which were drawn upon to pay funeral expenses of their members allowances to those physically incapacitated and grants to widows for a period of two years as observed by Henderson, (1969) and Roy (1981).

### **3.3.8 Renaissance (recovery) Period 1400-1750 A.D**

Roy (1981), The nature of development was joint stock companies. The commercial revolution was an integral feature of the joint stock companies developed because of the need for large sum of capital for voyages of exploration and colonization. The joint stock received a charter from the king which fixed responsibility, stated rights and obligations for the protection of stock and profit in proportion of the capital contributed. The type of cooperative ventures was the mutual fire insurance companies.

### **3.3.9 The industrial Revolution 1750-1944 A.D**

The nature of development was technological advance, agricultural and communication improvement, development of capitalism and emergence of the modern factory that lead to increase in production and mechanization, increase consumption and improved living standards and lowered price. The factory system led to exploitation of workers, creation of social problems and abandonment of agriculture, economic cycle of inflation and deflation, unemployment, conflict and more



violent and frequent of industrial accidents. Based on all the issues raised two school of thought emerged concerning the best way to solve problems and canvassing their views on industrial revolution. The first group comprises of Karl Marx, Friedrich Engels and others while the second group are Rochdale, Friedrich Raiffeisen and others. The mutual fire associations, Mercantilism was demolished, capitalism evolved and became modified to PENEY CAPITALISTS (1769) A. D. with the weavers organizing a consumer cooperative then ROCHDALE SOCIETY in 1844 A. D. tagged modern era of cooperative that began also with consumer cooperative farm and credit cooperative where early development to the rise of RAIFFEISEN credit societies in 1860 A.D that developed consumer credit unions.

### **3.3.10 The ATOMIC and SPACE AGE**

In 1945 to present day know as second century of cooperative began much more significant throughout the continent. Since then cooperative had spread all over the globe. This is more competitive due to climate change, natural disasters such as floods drought, hurricanes, forest fires, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, extreme heat, storms, tsunamis, landslide, famine, outbreaks e.t.c are events that happen outside the control of man. They have devastating impacts on major economic activities and human lives and general environmental change. There is need for an institution and a group at all levels to develop programmes and policies, adjustment towards natural occurrences and the present situation and implication to sensitize their members and general public towards cooperation and moderating the consequences.

### **3.4 Factors Influence the Comparative Cooperative Practice of any Country**

The following as the factors that can influence the comparative cooperative practice of any country:

- (a). National character
- (b). Geographical space
- (c). Culture
- (d). Sciences
- (e). Philosophy
- (f). Economic life and politics
- (g). Religion
- (h). History
- (i). Foreign influences and
- (j). The development of pedagogies

### **3.5 Factors Responsible for Increased Interest in the Study of Comparative Cooperative**

The following are the other factors responsible for increased interest in the study of Comparative Cooperative:

- (a). The emergence of newly independent states and developing countries who wanted a good cooperative system as soon as possible.
- (b). The greater frequency of travel to attend conferences, seminars as well as workshops abroad.
- (c). The improvement in the modern means of transport as well as communication.
- (d). The awareness of scientific and technological achievements in the advanced Britain American and Australia.
- (e). The socio-economic and political problems facing other countries.

### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

Cooperation among the people involved in the study of the subject as well as the general development of Comparative Cooperative. The treatment of the historical development of comparative cooperative will enhance the students' understanding of the discipline.

### **5.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about the historical development of comparative cooperative as well as the phases involved in it.

### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Highlight the phases involved in the development of comparative education. Discuss only four of the phases.
2. List factors influence the comparative cooperative practice of any country.
3. Mention and explain factors responsible for increased interest in the study of Comparative cooperative.

### **7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

- Birchall, Johnston. (1997). *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.
- David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

- Epetimehin, F.M, (2006). Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives, ICRReTI Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Fred, E (2006), Introduction to Co-operatives Course Material on COP 101 National Open University of Nigeria, pp1-6.
- Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds. (1999). *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990* Lanham, MD.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen A .A (2012) Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216, 101 National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.
- Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P King1 (*March 2007*) Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, Agrekon, Vol. 46, No 1.

## **UNIT 4    APPROACHES    TO    THE    STUDY    OF COMPARATIVE COOPERATIVE**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Approaches to the Study of Comparative Cooperative
  - 3.2 Area Study Approach
  - 3.3 Case Study Approach
    - 3.3.1 Comparative Approach
    - 3.3.2 Descriptive Approach
    - 3.3.3 The Field Study Approach
  - 3.4 Gastronomic Approach
  - 3.5 Historical Approach
  - 3.6 Integrated Approach
  - 3.7 International Approach
  - 3.8 The Scientific Approach
  - 3.9 The Philosophical Approach
  - 3.10 Thematic or Problem Approach
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

In the last unit the discussion is on the historical development of comparative cooperative, explain factors influence the comparative cooperative practice of any country and highlight factors responsible for increased interest in the study of Comparative cooperative. However this unit shall focus on approaches that can be used to study comparative cooperative.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to mention and discuss some of the approaches to the study of comparative cooperative.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 Approaches to the Study of Comparative Cooperative**

There are many approaches that can be used to study comparative cooperative. They include:

1. Area study approach,
2. Case Study Approach,
3. Comparative Approach,
4. Descriptive Approach,
5. Field Study Approach,
6. Gastronomic Approach,
7. Historical Approach,
8. Integrated Approach,
9. International Approach,
10. Scientific Approach,
11. Philosophical Approach,
12. Thematic or Problem Approach.

### 3.2 Area Study Approach

The world area here could refer to a village, a town or country depending on the cooperative comparativist who wants to carry out the study. Under this approach, the cooperative comparativist will engage himself in the cooperative practices of only one country, if it is a country that he has chosen. The investigator is going to involve himself in several activities as a result of which he is going to arrive at a body of generalizations on the cooperative system he is studying. The study under this approach is always based on geographical, linguistic or racial boundaries. However, the following stages in the area study approach:

- (a) **Descriptive Stage** - At this stage, an cooperative Comparativist can make a description of his own cooperative system or activities as well as practices. The researcher has to start by reading extensively. He will start by reviewing the available literature on the cooperative system of the country being studied. To enable the investigator have on the spot assessment, he can personally visit the country whose cooperative structure is studying.
- (b) **Interpretation Stage** - At this stage of the study, the investigator will now collate and analyse the data gathered from various sources to enable him do justice to the cooperative structure and system of the area being studied.
- (c) **Juxtaposition Stage** - At this stage of the study, the investigator will put side by side the result obtained from the interpretation stage with the cooperative structure and system of his own country.
- (d) **Comparative Stage** - At this stage of the investigation, the researcher will objectively compare and contrast the cooperative practices of the country being studied with that of his own. It is at this stage of the study that whatever hypotheses

that might have been formulated by the researcher that will be rejected or accepted.

### **3.3 Case Study Approach**

In this approach, an cooperative comparativist from Nigeria can go to Malaysia to study the primary cooperative Level or non interest type of cooperative of the country. His report (is believed) will be very comprehensive for his readers to understand. If it is possible for the researcher, he can take all the cooperative systems and practice of the country and compare such cooperative system and practice with his own cooperative structure and system. The problem with this approach is that as a human being, the investigator may not be totally objective in his report.

#### **3.3.1 Comparative Approach**

In this approach, the reader must not be made to do the comparison of various cooperative practices by himself, rather, the comparison and conclusion have to be done by the investigator himself. Data on the cooperative practices to be compared must have been gathered and reviewed. In addition, hypotheses should have also been formulated to assist in the gathering of data. Then, the cooperative practices of the country under study will be put side by side with the cooperative practices of another country slated for comparison. The next stage after Juxtaposition is the comparison of the cooperative practices of the countries that have been put side by side. It is at stage of comparison that the hypotheses that had been formulated earlier on will be rejected or accepted.

#### **3.3.2 Descriptive Approach**

Here, the investigator will have to describe everything he finds on ground. Such things to be described could include: Number of cooperative society, members enrolment, number of loan repayment, and number of members who received loan as well as the number of members who have access to credit. However, the approach is not very popular among the modern cooperative comparativists.

#### **3.3.3 The Field Study Approach**

This approach is not new in the area of the subject. On this approach, Alabi and Oyelade (1998) observed that: Visitation of foreign countries whether for the purpose of commerce, conversation curiosity or conflict, goes back to ancient history, travellers in all historical periods must have brought back facts and impression

concerning the cultures of the other countries they had visited, included in their reports must have been comments relating to the young and their upbringing. They may also have made some remarks regarding the similarities and differences in the ways of educating members and general public. Some, indeed, may have arrived at conclusions involving the expression of value judgments.

In using this approach for studying comparative cooperative there are stages involve:

1. Preparatory stage
2. Investigatory and analytical stage as well as,
3. Evaluatory and Comparative stage.

**Preparatory Stage:** This is the stage in which the investigator or researcher will have to prepare him or herself very well before travelling to his country of interest. He has to be familiar with the country he wants to visit by reading very extensively about the country.

**Investigatory and Analytical Stage** At this stage, the researcher will have to formulate some hypotheses on the cooperative matters or issues or practices of the country he wants to study. The formulation of these hypotheses will give him a focus on what to look for.

**Evaluatory Comparative Stage** At this stage, the investigator after coming back from his travel to the foreign country, will now examine the practices of cooperative of the country he has visited in relation to the cooperative activities and practices of his own country with a view to establishing the similarities as well as the differences existing in the cooperative activities and practices of the two countries it is also at this stage that the hypotheses earlier on formulated will either be rejected or accepted. The field study approach unlike area study approach, concerns itself with the study of the cooperative systems of many countries at the same time. It also involves visiting the foreign countries of interest to enable the investigator make an objective comparison between the foreign cooperative practices and that of his country.

### **3.4 Gastronomic Approach**

This is a method whereby both the diets as well as the eating habit of the people in a particular country are related to the practices of their cooperative society, the approach is not very popular among the modern cooperative comparativists.

### **3.5 Historical Approach**

Under this approach, an investigator will only take a village, town or country for the examination of its cooperative historical development right from the first day when cooperative was introduced into the place and the time of study. This approach will enable the researcher to identify the factors that are responsible for the current cooperative system of the country being studied. However, the problem with this approach is that greater emphasis is always placed on the past.

### **3.6 Integrated Approach**

This is an approach in which other disciplines such as history, philosophy, geography; economics, anthropology and statistics are integrated in to the study of Comparative cooperative because of their usefulness. As it has already been stated, it is not possible for Comparative cooperative as a discipline to stand on its own as it has to draw from other subjects which include the disciplines mentioned above.

### **3.7 International Approach**

This is an approach whereby all the variations existing from one area to another within the same country are taken into consideration while comparing the system of cooperative of a foreign country with one's cooperative system.

### **3.8 The Scientific Approach**

This is an approach in which the study of comparative cooperative is carried out empirically by formulating hypotheses, defining the important concepts, setting out the variables as well as the conditions for establishing the validity of the hypotheses formulated. Since in any scientific research, data collection its interpretation with the help of statistics of analysis are very important,. These must not also be lacking in the study of Comparative cooperative to enhance the quality and credibility of whatever may be the result of the investigation.

### **3.9 The Philosophical Approach**

A Russian Philosopher by name Serguis Hessen was the first man to apply philosophical approach to the study of Comparative. when he published his book in 1928 which he titled "Kritische Vergleichung des Schulwesens der Anderen Kuturstaaten". In the book, he chose four main philosophical problems. He analysed the underlying principles and later followed it by giving a critical account of modern legislation in



many countries. Kosemani (1995) believes that philosophical approach is a step forward to solve the problems in the national character approach. According to him, there are two major problems involved in the application of philosophical approach to the study of comparative. The problems are: (a) Difference in emphasis as a result of which it may be difficult to use the same criterion (national ideology) for the comparison. (b) There are many countries without clear cut national ideologies. (c) From the above, it could be deduced that with philosophical approach, hypotheses could be formulated, be tested and could also be empirically validated for better explanation of cooperative practices of various countries.

### **3.10 Thematic or Problem Approach**

Here, the investigator will first of all identify a particular cooperative problem in his own country. Then, he will begin to look for another country that has the same problem. The researcher will also study the cooperative problem of another country in relation to their culture. The researcher will not only study the cooperative problem of another country but he will also examine the solution applied to such problem by the affected country. From this, he will think of how he will be able to solve their own cooperative problem as well. It should be noted that Culture, economic, Socio Political factors vary from one country to another as a result of which cooperative problems and solutions may not necessarily be the same.

## **4.0 CONCLUSION**

The knowledge of different approaches to the study of comparative cooperative will help the learners, reader, instructors and researcher in better understanding the discipline and dissemination of right information.

## **5.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit, you have learnt about different approaches to the study of comparative cooperative.

## **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

Mention two approaches to the study of comparative cooperative and discuss one of them.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Birchall, Johnston. (1997). *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.
- David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. *Encyclopedia of Business*, 2nd ed. Reference for Business.
- Epetimehin, F. M, (2006). *Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives*, ICReti Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Fred, E (2006), *Introduction to Co-operatives Course Material on COP 101* National Open University of Nigeria, pp1-6.
- Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999). *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990* Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P King1 (March 2007) *Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems*, Agrekon, Vol. 46, No 1.
- Lawal B.O. (2004) *Comparative Education*, Osogbo, Swift Publishers Nig Ltd.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) *Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.

## **UNIT 5      FACTORS FOR SUSTAIN THE LEARNING OF COMPARATIVE COOPERATIVE**

### **CONTENTS**

- 10    Introduction
- 2.0   Objective
- 3.0   Main Content
  - 3.1   The Future of Comparative cooperative
  - 3.2   The Qualities of a Good Cooperative Comparativist
  - 3.3   Objectivity
    - 3.3.1   Having Interest
    - 3.3.2   Visiting other Countries
    - 3.3.3   Having Good Qualification
- 4.0   Conclusion
- 5.0   Summary
- 6.0   Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0   References and Further Readings

### **1.0    INTRODUCTION**

There are certain factors that can sustain the learning and acquisition of knowledge of comparative cooperative as a discipline. Also, there are certain qualities to be possessed by anybody who is disseminating knowledge comparative cooperative.

### **2.0    OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to identify and discuss factors that can sustain the learning and acquisition of knowledge of comparative cooperative as well as the qualities to be possessed by the instructors of Comparative Cooperative.

### **3.0    MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1    The Future of Comparative Cooperative**

Comparative cooperative to have its status enhanced, the following suggestions have to be taken into consideration.

- (a)    It should be possible to establish through Comparative cooperative, cooperative principles, ideas theories and models that will give predictive power.
- (b)    The research techniques being used by the Economics, Agriculturist, Sociologist, Psychologists and Philosophers among others should be integrated into the approaches to the

study of comparative cooperative even though their data may not necessarily be the same thing for the purpose of building up a theory.

- (c) Highly qualified and experienced people from different geographical areas should be involved in the study of Comparative cooperative studies.
- (d) A comparative cooperative research should be carried out before conclusion and recommendations on cooperative policies.
- (e) Cooperative Comparativists should extend their cooperation to the philosophers, sociologists, historians, economics, Agricultural scientists, statisticians as well as political scientists even though they work in different fields, their contributions differently when integrated together build up the body of Comparative cooperative information.
- (f) Efforts should be made to classify educational courses at various levels as well as define the important terminologies in Comparative cooperative.
- (g) Efforts should be made to encourage applied research in the study of Comparative cooperative.
- (h) In comparative cooperative research, philanthropists, national governments as well as international agencies should assist financially and finally:
- (i) The people involved in the formulation of cooperative policies should work hand in hand with the cooperative comparativists for a better and workable cooperative formulation.

### **3.2 The Qualities of a Good Educational Comparativist**

As in any other discipline, there are certain qualities expected of anybody that wants to venture into the study of foreign educational theories and practice.

Such qualities include the following:

- (a) Objectivity
- (b) Readiness to visit foreign places
- (c) Interest in reading cooperative books widely and fastly
- (d) Good qualification in the subject.

### **3.3 Objectivity**

The first quality of a good cooperative comparativist is objectivity. This means that the person researching into other people's cooperative theories and practices will not be biased against them regardless of their population, race, size, and complexion. It is what is found on the ground about their cooperative theories and practices that will be reported and nothing more.

### **3.3.1 Having Interest**

Also, a very good cooperative comparativist should have special interest in reading books on forcing cooperative systems. Not only within his society but outside his country. He must not limit his reading to only the books on his country's cooperative systems.

### **3.3.2 Visiting other Countries**

Anybody willing to engage in the study of international cooperative or cooperation theories and practices should not always stay at home relying on information gathered from books alone. He should go beyond this by visiting the place whose cooperative principles, theories and practices he is studying. If this is done, the objective report of the study will be enhanced as he will be in the position to know which of the information already gathered is correct about the educational theories and practices of the place being studied. He must not be an arm-chair researcher.

### **3.3.3 Having Good Qualification**

Good qualification in Comparative cooperative or related subject is very important for anybody who wants to engage in the teaching of Comparative cooperative. Having a good qualification will not only enhance the quality of such a teacher but will also enhance his personality.

## **4.0 CONCLUSION**

In the unit above, you have learnt the following:

- (a) The future of Comparative cooperative
- (b) Qualities expected of a good cooperative comparativist.

## **5.0 SUMMARY**

The unit discusses the factors that can sustain the learning and acquisition comparative cooperative knowledge, as well as the qualities which any teacher of comparative cooperative is expected to possess.

## **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Mention and discuss any two qualities expected of an instructors of comparative cooperative.

## **7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

Lawal (2004) Comparative Education. Osogbo, Swift Publishers Nig. Ltd.

Lawal Kamaldeen .A .A (2012) Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.

Lawal Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria

Lawal Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.

## MODULE 2

Unit 1	The Development of Cooperatives in Europe
Unit 2	Importance of Agricultural Cooperatives in Britain, Demark, Norway and Sweden
Unit 3	Success of Consumers Cooperative Movement in Britain
Unit 4	The Pattern of Development of Cooperatives In Asia,
Unit 5	History of Agricultural Cooperative In U.S.A (AMERICA)

### UNIT 1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVES IN EUROPE

#### CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	The pattern of development of Cooperatives in Europe: BRITAIN
3.2	Nature of cooperative in Denmark
3.3	Nature of cooperative in Norway
3.4	Nature of cooperative in Sweden
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0	References and Further Reading

#### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

There is need for the reader to understand the pattern of cooperative development in Europeans country concern for the plight of the people. What led to this pathetic situation was that played an influential role in the cooperative movement. The effort of cooperative members and significant role of cooperatives union played in the national economy.

#### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the pattern of cooperative development in Britain
- discuss the pattern of cooperative development in Denmark
- discuss the pattern of cooperative development in Norway and Sweden.

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 Nature of Cooperative in Britian

Co-operation began in Britain as a result of the Industrial Revolution which occurred from 18<sup>th</sup> to 19<sup>th</sup> century. The revolution rendered many people jobless because machines replaced man in carry out many tasks. All farmlands were bought over by the rich and noble men therefore only the rich people could afford farming, especially on a large scale. There was no room for small farm holding at all

The prevailing unemployment led to widespread poverty and destitution. The common-man had no house to live, and had no clothes to wear because everything was owned by the capitalists.

The suffering was so terrible that people had to moving from place to place, jumping from one job or trade to another before they could feed their families. However, the rich were becoming richer and the poor poorer. Yet the government of the day showed little concern for the plight of the people. What led to this pathetic situation was that:

1. Most of the workers were retrenched and machines were used to produce goods en-masse.
2. Those employed were not allowed to do much work so as not to pay them good wages. Those who were not satisfied were ordered to resign.
3. There was terrible inflation; hence the worker's wages was not enough to feed him.
4. All labour unions were banned so they could not protest against the hardship.
5. Basic Social amenities were not provided by the government Workers lived in squalid conditions without good water. There was serious overcrowding as the house were small, poorly ventilated and lack essential facilities like toilets and bathrooms. Children too were compelled to work otherwise they could not eat. They were overworked and underfed.

The hardship forced the workers to devise an avenue of protesting their condition to the government. Since labour unions had been banned all workers in Northern and Southern Britain started coming together in groups with officers in Manchester and Birmingham. The workers groups did not relent their effort to demand for emancipation and recognition from government. Their effort yield fruit with the Friendly Societies Act of 1783 and the Industrial and Provident Societies Act of 1852. Through their leaders several other laws were made by the government to alleviate the condition of workers.



Amidst the hardship and crises emerged heroes who struggled for the betterment of the common people. Notable among them were Robert Owen and Dr. William King.

### **3.2 Nature of Cooperative in Denmark**

The pattern of Danish cooperative movement will be an illustrative model used worldwide. As the assessment of agricultural cooperatives, the broad experience, the origins of the Danish cooperative movement are linked to rural population that had learned about democracy and democratic responsibility at the folk high schools. These products of the folk high schools were active in the liberal party of opposition and in the development of the cooperative movement and their local experience consequently helped them in the larger political associations of the liberal opposition (Jensen; 1975). The educational reformer, N.F.S. Grundtvig, played an influential role in this movement. Parallel to this by-product of the constitutional battle, agricultural cooperatives also evolved as a response to the agricultural depression, in particular the dramatic change in the grain prices, in Denmark, and countries that served as outlets for Danish agricultural produce, such as the Great Britain. Unlike in the Great Britain, a Danish farmer was the owner of his land, and no assistance was given to him to cover for the losses, he was left to his own mercy. The Danish cooperative movement was a means of economical organization under leadership of consumer- or producer-controlled corporations, where each individual member owned a part of the corporation. The type of organization was especially used in the farming industry and in consumer organizations in Denmark from the 1790s to the 1960s. The members of the corporations sought to share the economic stress of producing or buying goods, and divided the eventual end of the year financial surplus amongst them. The type of ownership rules varied greatly between individual corporations, as some divided the financial risk equally, while others gave more power to the most financially involved individuals.

In many villages, farmers were either forced or strongly encouraged to tear down their homes and rebuild them in the middle of their new fields with the intention that this would give them easier access to every part of the field, enabling them to utilize the land more effectively. These events are known as the agricultural reforms or the parcellation, and were instigated at the initiative of the Danish Crown to raise production. For the next century, a standard village would be composed of a series of farms, many located a distance from each other, each family working for itself producing grain and raising a few animals. Having no alternative, the Danish farmer opted for cooperation. In addition, Denmark lacked the comparative advantage, for the production of milk and rearing of pigs. By grouping, farmers pooled their selling power, so

that on the market one farmer could not be played off against the other. This bottom-up approach in the evolution of Danish cooperatives illustrates that the cooperative movement was not started by a circle of philanthropists, or landlords for the purpose of benefiting the practical farmer. The group of farmers that promulgated the cooperative idea was a dominant one in the sense that it owned  $\frac{3}{4}$  or 75 percent of all arable land. It was also a well-to-do group in terms of per capita income (Henriksen; 1999, p. 59). The first cooperative was the dairy cooperative in Hjedding, established in 1882, established on the initiative of the farmers, financed by the farmers and managed by the farmers (Christensen; 1983, p. 103). Farmers were jointly responsible for any debts that might be incurred, and profits were divided among the members proportionally to the amount of milk each of them delivered.

Before the war in 1864, Northern Schleswig had a population density pretty much the same as the rest of the country; in 1920 it had virtually the same population as in 1860, while the population density of the rest of Denmark had doubled. Here the Danish government forced through an acquisition of large German farms; splitting them up into smaller units, that was effectively a way to try to ensure that Danes did not leave the poorly populated and poorly industrialized province.

After the Second War of Schleswig in 1864, two new movements hit Denmark. One was a successful attempt to reclaim moors in central and western Jutland for farming; mostly sandy land abandoned in the 14th century as a result of the Black Plague, but in many cases good for potatoes. This movement was initiated by *Hedeselskabet* (the Heath Association).

Denmark saw a second redistribution of land, which effectively meant the creation of a number of small-scale farms. The top stratum in a village was the priest and schoolmaster, then came the big landowners. Next level of society was the craftsmen who normally owned a bit of land as well. The bottom of society was formed by landless people.

The land acquired from the manors was paid for in cash by the government, and was used not to increase the existing farms in size, but to create new ones. The impact was most prominent in Southern Jutland (Northern Schleswig) which had been reunited with Denmark in 1920.

**NOTE:** See The Influence and Importance of Cooperative in Denmark in Next Unit 7.

### 3.3 Nature of Cooperative in Sweden

The first Swedish farm cooperative was formed in 1850. County agricultural societies and grange associations spawned local farmers' cooperatives which purchased farm inputs and marketed members' crops. However one of the biggest obstacles these cooperatives faced was that no legislation applicable to cooperative associations existed - they were governed by legislation for joint-stock companies. The government adopted legislation concerning cooperatives in 1895 (Ibid; 1997). As a result, cooperatives could form associations.

Co-operation in Sweden have been so successful that the country is fast becoming the Mecca of the Co-operative worldwide this is because Co-operative was introduced for the furtherance of the interest of the Swedish people and everybody was to participate through the contribution of their labour or the notable success was possible through the application of Principles.

**Co-operative forbundet** was established 1899 as the organization of the Swedish Consumers Co-operative. Through it many societies grew up to take part in the government of Sweden.

Between 1900-1914, the organisation protected co-operative union and the public from monopoly of essential goods and money.

Cooperative Forbundet conducts study groups by correspondence whereby people learn without a formal teacher. It also publishes a weekly magazine known as VIL for youths and study groups. It publishes many books on Co-operatives economics and international affairs. It has successfully led some Insurance Societies to insure co-operative members against fire and life.

The Co-operative Movement of Sweden is so organized today that manufacturing and distribution of essential goods are under its control. Members are given continuous education while auditing of books and records are effectively carried out. Sweden's Co-operative School is established in Oslo.

### 3.4 Nature of Cooperative in Norway

The Co-operative Movement in Norway was force to be reckoned with in the International Co-operative Community. There are several areas of co-operative operations but we shall consider housing and agriculture.

### **Agric co-operatives**

Agricultural Co-operatives gained rapid popularity in Norway. Its successful development was due to co-operative adult education across the country-side during the last century when Norwegian farmers were enlightened to fight ignorance and prejudice.

Several Agricultural Co-operatives spring up all over Norway and they were very successful. They all came together to form an apex organisation known as Federation of Agricultural Co-operative Associations. This federation comprises the following: National Purchasing Association; Meat Producers and breeders Association; Eggs producers Association; Milk Producers Association; and Rural Agricultural Credit Society.

### **Housing co-operatives**

When there was an acute housing problems in the Norwegian, capital city of Oslo and in other large towns, the health of the people was first deteriorating. This led to the formation of a Co-operative Building Society in 1929, known as Oslo Boligog Sparelag that is Housing and Savings Society; with the aim of providing its members with decent homes at affordable prices several other Co-operative Societies sprang up in Norway and affected every sector of the population.

## **4.0 CONCLUSION**

In this unit, we have learnt the pattern and nature of cooperative in European countries such as Britain, Denmark, Norway and Sweden and their contributions to the other parts of the world to the development of cooperative.

## **5.0 SUMMARY**

The contributions and perspective of European countries such as Britain, Denmark, Norway and Sweden and their guiding principle for cooperative development, as it can be deduced above that each country developed on existing idea or view. The ideological perspectives of notable scholars of cooperative enhance the understanding about the concept of cooperative, motives for establishing at different stages of development.

## **6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Discuss various perspectives of European countries such as:

Britain, Denmark, Norway and Sweden on cooperative.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Birchall, Johnston. (1997), *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.

Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. **Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business.

Epetimehin, F.M, (2006). *Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives*, ICReTI Publishing House, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999) *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield,

Lawal, K. A. A. and Oludimu, O. L (2011), *Management Theory, Practices and Focus*, Asogun, Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2012) *Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.

Roy, E. P. (1981), *Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management*, Interstate, Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.

"The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*. (2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . *Review of International Co-operation*, quarterly.

Cooperatives benefits

<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/encyclopedia/Con-cos/Cooperatives.html#ixzz1fl8lCHrv>

## **UNIT 2      IMPORTANCE      OF      AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVES IN BRITAIN, DENMARK, NORWAY AND SWEDEN**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 The Importance of Agricultural cooperatives in Britain
  - 3.2 Early history Denmark cooperative movement
  - 3.3 Cooperative production in Denmark
    - 3.3.1 Influence of cooperative in Denmark
    - 3.3.2 Sweden
  - 3.4 The important role plays by cooperative association are as follow
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

Agricultural cooperatives are considered to be important social and economic units aimed at developing agriculture. These organizations are expected to play a very important role in dissolving the rural society problems and improve the future development in agricultural production and to stabilize balance between imports and exports. The importance of the small agricultural cooperatives united to form central economic units to increase their incomes and effectiveness cannot be overemphasized.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the importance of agricultural cooperative in Britain, Denmark and Sweden.
- understand the significant role play by agricultural cooperative in Britain, Denmark and Sweden.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 Importance of Agricultural cooperatives in Britain**

The development of cooperatives over time has been shaped by many factors and influences. Scholars and researchers in cooperative studies

group these into three main types (all interrelated): (1) economic conditions (caused by war, depression, technology, government economic policy, etc.); (2) farmer organizations (including quality of their leadership, their motivation and enthusiasm to promote cooperatives, power to influence public policy, etc.); and (3) public policy (as determined by government interest, legislative initiative, and judicial interpretation).

The planning of agriculture development activate the coordination and cooperation among the roles of both agricultural cooperatives and other organizations in the villages to enhance their importance roles, abilities and the organizational effectiveness in the agricultural and rural development in support of commercial farmers. They aimed at removing farmers from designated areas and consolidating the homelands, were supplemented by other measures to support commercial farmers to provide subsidized loans to commercial farmers, the Cooperatives Societies to secure input supply and output marketing services and to control the marketing of agricultural products. Agricultural cooperatives emerged and thrived in this environment. (Piesse *et al.*, 2003). The involvement in co-operatives in British colonies was far greater and more direct than in the Dominions. It was channelled through specially created Departments of Co-operation or Co-operative Branches within their Departments of Agriculture. Colonial co-operative development emerged partly in response to Britain's recognition that she needed to add development agency functions to her more traditional imperial objectives of security and supporting trade. The shift occurred for a number of reasons. One was the view of Colonial Secretary Joseph Chamberlain (1836-1914) that just as British country estates to be profitable needed to make all their parts productive so, too, did the British Empire. Contrary to popularly held beliefs British colonies were often a drain on the British exchequer as distinct from British companies. To become more productive colonies required improvements in their agriculture, veterinary services, transport, communication and education systems and it was thought that co-operatives could play an additional role. Another reason for the shift in policy was a need to prevent economic stagnation or decline and head off the social unrest they could spark. Loss of her American colonies in the 18th century lay deep in Britain's psyche and was reawakened by the near loss of much of India during the Mutiny in 1857. After it, recurring famines and rural poverty 19 and indebtedness threatened India's stability and co-operatives became part of a strategy to counter them.

The few agricultural co-operatives that formed in the late 19th century suffered unfavourable patterns of trade. Farmers also comprised a quite different sector of British society from the growing working classes and were slower to form co-operatives than had been the case in Ireland and

Denmark. Those in Ireland were spearheaded by Sir Horace Plunkett (1854-1932) and included primary societies as well as support organisations such as the Irish Agricultural Organisation Society established in 1894.

English, Scottish and Welsh versions were later established on this model.

In 1919 Plunkett created the Plunkett Foundation which became an international organisation for the promotion of agricultural co-operatives. In 1924, in conjunction with the Empire Exhibition at Wembley in north London the Foundation organised an Empire wide conference of agricultural co-operatives. Sir Daniel Hall from the Ministry of Agriculture but also Chairman of the Plunkett Foundation explained to delegates why British agricultural co-operatives had developed less strongly than their counterparts in other parts of the British Empire. One reason was that “the typical British farmer is a capitalist upon a comparatively large scale.” Another stemmed from the fact that unlike farmers elsewhere in the British Empire British farmers were not a “single-man or family-unit farmer” for whom “co-operation can do more, and can do that much more quickly.” Instead British agriculture comprised comparatively large-scale farmers who formed “a fairly efficient economic unit.” A further reason why British farmers were not more enthusiastic about co-operatives was that they did not focus to the same degree on exports as farmers elsewhere in the British Empire. Moreover, their home market was long established and clearly structured and provided an “organised and efficient trade service for both sale and purchase.”

This statement illustrates how British agricultural co-operatives differed from those **elsewhere in the British Empire and also that their roots were not those of consumer cooperatives.**

However, cooperative among labour, farmers and members of the societies through the formation to solved the problems and issues prevailing in Britain.

The agricultural cooperative play the following role in Britain:-

- Providing goods and services at minimal cost. This is selling at prices a little above purchase price.
- Elimination of middle men, especially those who are not performing any economic functions. Most them exploit and hold the public to ransom. offer protection to those who are economically weak in terms of doing business.
- Reducing unemployment that led to poverty and destitution



- Provision of shelter and clothes to wear for common man and basic social amenities
- Provision of means of transportation and other auxiliary to trade.
- Solve the problem of inflations
- Each member understands one another more and can resolve issues amicably
- Emancipation and recognition from government through the joint effort of their leaders law were made by the government to alleviate the condition of workers and union regain the power.

By contrast, government. Her first Co-operative legislation, the Co-operative Credit Societies Act, India, was passed in 1904.

India and Southern Africa were strategically important. The late 19th century saw growing competition between Western European Empires and the Russian and the Ottoman Empires. In Southern Africa Britain fought two Boer Wars. After the second ended in 1902 agriculture needed revitalising and co-operatives were believed to be able to help.

### **3.2 Early History of Denmark Cooperative Movement**

About 90% of all farming soil in Denmark was cooperative from 1300, as the Black Death depopulated the rural parts of the country. Then, the inhabitants of a Danish village would work together, forming *Lands by fællesskaber* (village communes). To distribute land fairly between farmers, the land was normally distributed between all farmers in a village with each of them owning a strip of land on every field. Re-allocation of land took place if the size of the individual families changed strongly. In this system, it was virtually impossible to only work individually, since the plots of land might have the full length of the field, but only be a few meters wide. A second characteristic was that all farms were located close together and near the church, with the result that fields far from the village were often poorly utilized.

The change in the enclosure movement which aimed to reunite fields and award them to one owner only. Any farmer would normally be awarded a coherent piece of land and perhaps an additional piece of forest between 1750 and 1800.

### **3.3 Cooperative Production in Denmark**

This change in production resulted in a need for dairies and slaughterhouses. The only way to pay for such massive investments was for a large group of farmers to share the cost and risk between them, thus creating the cooperative dairies and slaughterhouses. The new situation implied that farmers would buy cheap grain from Russia and

feed it to their livestock, selling milk, butter, eggs and meat for a much higher price. This movement also resulted in the creation of both the *Danish Bacon* and *Danish Lurpak Butter* brands.

The combination of the Cooperative Movement and the switch away from the production of grain resulted in a great increase in wealth for the average Danish farmer and it became very important in the way Danish farmers perceived themselves. The system was also attempted in other places where Danes settled, for example in the Danish communities in the United States. Before World War I, Denmark gained a foothold on the Russian market, and the Russian Revolution of 1917 cost Danish industry dearly. Attempts to construct cooperative dairies in Russia played a large role in this policy, and a few were actually built there. The Russian Revolution destroyed this work, but new attempts were made in the Baltic States during the Interwar period. Attempts to export the system to Poland were considered in the Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs to boost the exports of Danish machinery. Attempts to export this system were often linked with attempts to export the Danish system of secondary education for farmers.

### **3.3.1 Influence of cooperative in Denmark**

Cooperatives were governed in a democratic way, usually each member had one vote, irrespective of the number of cows he possessed. Farmers, members of the cooperative, elected the board of directors who appointed the dairy manager, usually a specialist in the field. Local cooperatives were free to join into a central federation, which aimed at developing the industry by expositions, conferences and collection of material. In the 1950s, a joint stock company was formed out of a series of dairies, uniting into two rivals *Mejeriselskaberne Danmark* and *Kløver* who later merged to found MD Foods (now Arla Foods) which controls almost all of the Danish milk market. The Danish Crown meat processing company also owes its existence to the cooperative movement.

#### **Co-operative Shops**

The cooperative movement also resulted in a series of co-op stores known as *Brugsen*, which were under the administration of the The Danish Consumers Co-operative Society. The stores kept a large share of the Danish consumer goods market. In January 2002, Coop shop merged with retail chains from Coop Norden.

## Wind Mills

The cooperative ownership model for wind mills was developed in Denmark. The first is for smaller wind mills and secondly for wind farms. One of the biggest cooperatively owned windfarms are at Middelgrunden in Copenhagen and at the Samsø Island.

## Communities

In the late 70's and early 80's Collective lifestyle, including cooperative production was very popular. Some of these collectives still exist like Svanholm, which was started in 1978. Freetown Christiania was established in 1971. People living in these communities are often environment conscious, and join the Danish Ecovillage Network.

## Co-housing

Living in co-housing groups with a common ground and common house is relatively common in Denmark. The common house is used for common eatings, common washing machines, meetings and fests. There are 3 types of co-housing groups:

- One type, where the flats/houses are built by a national housing association and people are renting the flats. E.g., Lejerbo has 37,000 apartments. In English this type of housing often referred as social co-housing.
- Another where people are owning the flats/houses and the land and the loan together. In Danish they are called "andelsbolig", and
- Third type, where people own the common house and the land together, but they own their own family houses.

In essence, cooperatives provided market access to a small farmer, who on his own had a negligible bargaining position and who otherwise, would not be able to market his produce. Consequently, the upswing of cooperatives contributed to the development of small holdings.

Direct advantages of cooperative operation included, (i) economies of scale on transportation, (ii) quality packaging, and (iii) regular dispatch of a uniform quality and quantity that can only be achieved through large-scale organisation. Perfect packing was an absolute necessity in preserving the excellence of butter.

Other benefits included regular weekly financial settlement from the dairy. The farmers also received a share in the profits of distribution and thus pocketed profit that would otherwise go to the middlemen. The

constitution of the dairy cooperative stipulates that members must for a fixed period, originally up to ten years, recently only few years; bring all their milk, except what they needed for household use, to the cooperative dairy. Heavy fines were imposed for infraction of this rule. Strict rules were laid down relating to proper feeding of the cows, sanitary milking, etc. (Christensen; 1983). This attempt at creating cooperative dairying was an immediate success since better quality butter was produced. With this approach, it became possible to standardise output, and in turn demand higher prices. Technical improvements that upgraded both the quantity and the quality of the butter were introduced. Soon the cooperative dairy butter surpassed the celebrated 'Estate Butter' for which Denmark had been famous and the cooperative movement spread to other sectors (Haagard; 1911).

The farmers awakened to the scientific possibilities of dairy production and of cattle breeding. Among the economies was the skimmed milk, saved for feeding hogs, which consequently stimulated the bacon industry, and thus brought about the opening of cooperative slaughterhouses. This in turn led to the building of cooperative slaughterhouses and pork packing societies. The first cooperative abattoir was formed in 1887. The cooperative slaughterhouses were organised in similar pattern as the cooperative dairies. Members enter into an agreement to bring all of their hogs to the cooperative slaughterhouse, even though they are offered higher prices elsewhere.

A slaughterhouse or bacon factory on cooperative lines has following advantages:

(i) The commission paid to dealers is saved, (ii) the difficulties experienced by existing slaughterhouses in disposing of the offal become reduced when the co-operators became interested in its utilisation, (iii) the co-operators would share between them all the profit. The cooperative movement also has a characteristic history in the cooperative egg export society. Price of eggs shows great fluctuation. The temptation to hold back eggs in autumn before selling and shipping them was therefore very great, and to this temptation many of those who handled the eggs in Denmark in the 19<sup>th</sup> century i.e. 1880s and 1890s of the century succumbed. As Denmark exported a significant portion of eggs to Great Britain, there were many middlemen between the hen and the English consumer. The farmers, or rather the farmer's wives, gradually learnt to increase their profit by holding back the eggs one or more weeks during the latter half of the year. The hucksters who collected eggs from the farmers were equally clever, and the merchants, who bought from the hucksters or had their own collectors, likewise tried to improve their position by the same short sighted policy. The result was that more and more Danish eggs arrived in England in a bad

condition. The means of detecting stale eggs were less developed in those days, and thus serious complaints from large English importers were received by the Royal Agricultural Society of Denmark in 1889. The Society tried to influence the farmers and local buyers of eggs by means of reports in the agricultural and local daily papers, explaining how dishonest it was to sell stale and kept eggs as fresh, however without an impact. The merchants and shippers were also in difficulty, as if they refused to pay farmers for eggs manifestly kept or even partly spoiled, farmers would sell to competitors, and they would not receive any eggs themselves, neither fresh nor bad. The price for eggs, as delivered by the farmers, had therefore to be fixed so as to allow for incurred losses. Fresh eggs were, therefore, during about one-half of the year quoted considerably below their real value. Local societies emerged as a response to this unsatisfactory state, the members of which bound themselves to deliver their eggs weekly and never to send any stale eggs. This was a step in the right direction, but had only a local application, and did not influence the trade and export of eggs as a whole. In 1894 an attempt was made by the Agricultural Society of Horsens to get the egg producers all over Jutland to combine to form one large society for the improvement of the egg trade. The society was formed, but failed to secure the necessary support. The same result followed similar attempts at other places.

In order to get egg-producers interested in the egg trade, it was not enough to ask them to improve the quality of eggs sold to dealers. It was necessary to go the whole length, to do away with the hucksters and agents who travelled the country districts to collect eggs, and to form a society not only for collecting, but also for trading in and exporting eggs. A system of marking eggs was proposed by which it could be seen at once from which producer any egg had been delivered. Society with branches all over the country began operations in April 1895. Each branch has its distinctive number, and each member has his number with his branch. Before the eggs are delivered to the collector for the branch, each egg is marked by means of a rubber stamp with the number of the member and the number of the branch, and those two numbers prove the origin of the egg, so that when a "spotted" or stale egg is delivered it can be at once be seen who is the offender. At the packing and exporting warehouse the trademark of the society is stamped on each approved egg next to the two numbers. As a result, Danish eggs re-entered the English market and the export of Danish eggs during the first three years of the society's activity has increased sevenfold. Based on the success of cooperatives, the Danish farmers soon found it necessary to carry cooperation a step further, for example to control the distribution of their produce in England, which was the chief market for many Danish agricultural products. Danish farmers formed a cooperative export association. As cooperation was not confined only to the selling of farm

products and buying of merchandise and farm supplies, the improvement societies emerged, such as, cooperative fertilizer plants and canning factories. Another example was the maintenance of cow and swine improvement and breeding societies and seed-testing organisations (Haggard; 1911). The breeding of cattle, horses, swine and sheep was promoted by cooperative societies. The central societies aim was to improve breeding of farm animals by keeping accounting systems of the quantity of milk produced per cow, its content of butter fat, as well as the relative cost of maintenance. The first central society was established in 1895. Almost every need of the farmer was supplied through one or more organisations of this kind. In addition, there were societies for accident insurance against hail and other storms, and for the insurance of livestock as was observed by *Ortmann & King(2007)*.

### 3.3.2 Sweden

One third of the Marshall Aid went to agriculture. Without having to adjust for joint-stock company laws. Following the adoption of the new law, several producer cooperatives were created. By the 1930's, the combination of the Great Depression and crop surpluses resulted in an agricultural crisis as prices hit all time lows. The government interceded with a number of measures that constituted the root of Sweden's agricultural policies. In 1947 it was decided by the government that crop and food prices would be fixed.

The cooperatives gained strength under Sweden's protective agricultural policies that stimulated both agriculture and cooperation. Currently, there are about 50 agricultural cooperatives in Sweden, mainly focusing on marketing, meat processing, farming and forestry. The rules on market competition in Sweden are laid out in the Swedish Competition Act (SCA). When the SCA was first enforced it contained no exemption rules for cooperatives (Ibid; 1997). New rules regarding cooperatives came into force in 1994. The SCA provides exemption for cooperative associations as long as they abide by the following rules and the cooperative has the legal form of an association. Most cooperatives in Sweden abide by the following cooperative principles:

- Equal payments for cooperative costs (e.g. distance neutrality),
- One member, one vote, equal prices for member products.
- To enter a cooperative, farmers must meet the quality and environmental requirements of the cooperative and pay a modest fee.
- To leave the cooperative, the farmer must give a written notice in advance (1-6 months) and then he receives his entire equity (with no interest) within a few months if he is retiring, or after a few years if he still farms (Ibid; 1997).

### **3.4 The Important Role Plays by Cooperative Association are as Follow:**

1. The association protected the cooperation union and the public from monopoly of essential goods and money.
2. It also assists people to learn without a formal teacher.
3. It assists in publication of weekly magazine, books on cooperative economics and International affairs.
4. The agricultural cooperative import basic foodstuffs rather than to produce them.

### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

It can be observed that much discussion on Denmark agricultural cooperative due to available information and the significant lesson derived from the cooperative associations while little discussion on Britain and Sweden

### **5.0 SUMMARY**

Now that we have known the importance of agricultural cooperative in Britain, Denmark and Sweden and understand the significant role play by agricultural cooperative in Britain, Denmark and Sweden and also be able to recognize areas difference and similarity. We shall now go to next unit on success of consumers' cooperative movement in Britain.

### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Compare and contrast the importance of agricultural cooperative in Britain, Denmark and Sweden.
2. Discuss the significant role play by agricultural cooperative in Britain, Denmark and Sweden.

### **7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

(2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . Review of International Co-operation, quarterly.

Birchall, Johnston. (1997), *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.

Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990 Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P Kingl (March 2007) *Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems*, Agrekon, Vol. 46, No 1.

Daniel, H (2006), Dictionary of Management, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi.

David, A. S. (1998). Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS), Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

**Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business,

Epetimehin, F.M, (2006). Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives, ICReTI Publishing house, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999) Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer.

Cooperatives-benefits

<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/encyclopedia/Con-cos/Cooperatives.html#ixzz1fl8lCHrv>

"[http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Danish\\_cooperative\\_movement&oldid=460377693](http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Danish_cooperative_movement&oldid=460377693)" The page was last modified on 13 November 2011 at 02:13. Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org)

Lawal, K. A. A. and Oludimu, O. L (2011), Management Theory, Practices and Focus, Asogun, Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) Nigeria & International Cooperation COP216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.

Roy, E. P. (1981), Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.

"The Co-operative Information Superhighway." International Cooperative Alliance (ICA).



## **UNIT 3      SUCCESS OF CONSUMERS COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN BRITAIN**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 The Consumer Co-Operative
  - 3.2 The Effective Establishment of Consumer Societies
  - 3.3 The Factors that Led to Success of Consumers Cooperative Movement in Britain
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References and Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

In Britain the ideas of co-operatives assist imperial development agency functions came from influential figures rather than from the formal Co-operative Movement. Notable among these individuals was Earl Grey, who befriended British consumer co-operation but was also a staunch advocate of producer co-operation.

British consumer co-operatives were developed within the British Empire, particularly in its colonies and state-sponsored with varying degrees of government involvement. British consumer co-operation received no government support or sanction and operated within the nation's tax regime.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the effect of establishing consumer cooperative in Britain
- discuss the factors that led to pattern of cooperative development in Denmark

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 The Consumer Co-Operative**

In an early history of the ICA Gide distinguished co-operatives from other economic and political theories. "The programme of the consumers' societies admits capitalism to a certain extent as they are

societies with shares, and as they demand from the members contributions to capital and pay an interest and it does not admit the expropriation, properly so called of the possessing class or at least it desires a different expropriation from that which would be brought about by the play of free competition if some day the co-operative enterprises show themselves superior to capitalist enterprises and get rid of them by their successful development. But these are not the characteristics of collectivist expropriation and, above all, there is this difference, that the essential article of the Socialist programme, which is class conflict, cannot be included in the co-operative programme for the obvious reason that the consumer does not represent any class; he has neither difference of class nor difference of sex; everybody is a consumer... everybody, Socialist or otherwise, has the right of admission to the association and that is a feature which suffices to give the co-operative movement its right of autonomy.”

Despite convoluted wording this is a defining statement. Not only did it distinguish cooperative from capitalist economics but also from other political creeds. It also reflected the triumph of consumer theory of co-operation over producer co-operation.

Gide's theories heralded a consumer co-operative literature. Notable works included is the book by Frenchman Ernst Poisson (1882-1942) *Republique Co-operative*, the works by Swede Anders Oerne (1881-1956) including his *Co-operative Ideals and Problems*, and those by American J. P. Warbasse (1866-1957), whose writings included *What is Co-operation?* All assumed the superiority of consumer co-operation. The developed between the proponents of producer and consumer co-operation are those supporting the former were led by Edward Vansittart Neale who was in a pivotal position as General Secretary of the Co-operative Union.

In more agrarian economies, including many parts of the British Empire, consumer cooperation had a far more chequered history. We now turn to consider the kinds of cooperative which emerged in the British Empire.

British consumer co-operatives had benefited from Britain lying at the centre of the “largest empire in the history of the world, comprising nearly a quarter of the land mass of the earth and a quarter of its population.” British consumer co-operatives drew raw materials from her Empire and elsewhere which she then manufactured and exported throughout the world, justifying the epithet “workshop of the world”. These processes helped to increase British levels of employment and consumption which in turn underpinned the growing consumer co-operative movement. Conversely they tended to inhibit agricultural co-operative development. Britain now found it cheaper to import basic

foodstuffs rather than to produce them. It has been observed that: Dominating the entire structure were British production, British commerce and British financial services, and, it might be added British economic ideology, as free markets and free trade came to be perceived as the wave of the future by enlightened opinion throughout the ‘civilised world’.

British consumer co-operatives benefited from imperial patterns of trade. Co-operative greengrocers could justifiably show the “horn of plenty” overflowing with fruit, much of it imported on their paper bags, they also differed from those of early producer or workers’ societies which we now turn to consider and which shared their Owenite roots with retail societies.

**British producer societies endorsed** Owen’s dislike of profit if it led to the exploitation of labour; also his belief that labour, as a factor of production should receive a just price. They also had more complex ideological roots. They took much from Owen but added ideas from French utopian socialists such as Fourier and Louis Blanc who along with Owen denounced competitive and capitalist industry. Blanc advocated self-governing workshops that would be organised into self-governing industries. These ideas influenced the Christian Socialists but particularly J.M. Ludlow who persuaded his fellow Christian Socialists to form the Society for the Promotion of Working Men’s Associations to encourage the development of democratic workers’ productive associations or societies. Their members would elect officers and executive power initially in the hands of a manager would eventually be transferred to the members.

Retail societies shared these ideals when they spoke of “surplus” rather than profit and for many years rewarded their employees with a dividend on wages: this meant that if these workers were also members of their local society they received what became known as a “double dividend”. Even so, many co-operators including the Christian Socialists saw producer co-operatives as being the best way of giving worker/members the true rewards of their labour.

### **3.2 The Effective Establishment of Consumer Societies**

**One reason** was that they were likely to be smaller-scale and needed to limit the number of their worker/members to what the business could support. Another was that they tended to appear in crafts whose markets were changing or declining and in any event lacked the homogeneity of retail societies’ markets: this may help to explain why they failed to develop a formula for success inherent in the Rochdale practices.

“The Society has for some time past determined to discourage advances of money to bodies of working-men about to start in association unless they have first shown some signs of preparedness for the change from their old life, and have subscribed some funds of their own working-men in general are not fit for association. They come into it with the idea that it is to fill their pockets and lighten their work at once, and that every man in an association is to be his own master.

### **3.3 The Factors that Led to Success of Consumers Cooperative Movement in Britain**

The factors that led to success of consumers cooperative movement in Britain are as follow:

- 1) The established research institute by Plunkett Foundation in 1919 which became an important charting co-operative development in the British Empire, exchanging co-operative experiences particularly among agricultural movements, and advising governments on appropriate co-operative legislation.
- 2) The British Empire, illustrate the effectiveness of the communications networks.
- 3) The registration, included the promotion, supervision and auditing of co-operatives through Writings of the more notable registrars provide good eye-witness accounts of this kind of co-operative development.
- 4) Establishment of a national credit bank for consumer cooperatives.
- 5) Increased use of highly technical personnel as managers and employees.
- 6) Increased use of auxiliary departments in cooperatives (particularly in regional) for servicing their main enterprises. Examples include auditing, traffic management, membership education, testing and laboratory services and marketing research.

### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

In this unit, we have learn the success of consumer cooperatives in Britain and contributing factors of notable scholars towards the development of cooperative and the ideological struggle been positive effect on cooperative development. Although we gone through the different and similarities in previous unit.

### **5.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit we studied the success of consumer cooperatives in Britain and contributing factors of notable scholars towards the development of

cooperative and the ideological struggle been positive effect on cooperative development.

## 6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss consumer cooperative in Britain, the challenges and the factors that led to the success of the societies.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Birchall, Johnston. (1997) *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.

David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi.

**Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business

Epetimehin, F. M, (2006). *Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives*, ICReti Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.

Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds. (1999) *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990* Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P King1(March 2007)*Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, Agrekon, Vol. 46, No 1*

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) *Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material On WEB in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A and Abdullah, T. O (2016). *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.

Roy, E. P. (1981), *Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management*, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.

Oludimu, O. L. and Adedoyin, S. F (1996).*Running a more successful cooperative*, Triumph Book Publishers, Ijebu Ode, Nigeria.

Umehali, E. E. (2008), Rural Development and Management, Course Material on MPA769 National Open University of Nigeria, pp36-44.

"The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*.

(2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . *Review of International Co-operation*, quarterly.

Cooperatives - benefits

<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/encyclopedia/Concos/Cooperatives.html#ixzz1fl8lCHrv>

"[http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Danish\\_cooperative\\_movement&oldid=460377693](http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Danish_cooperative_movement&oldid=460377693)" The page was last modified on 13 November 2011 at 02:13. Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org)

## **UNIT 4 THE PATTERN OF DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVES IN ASIA**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 The pattern of development of Cooperatives in ASIA-INDIAN
  - 3.2 INDIAN Enterprise
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

There is need for the reader to understand the pattern of cooperative development in Asia-India concern for the plight of the people. What led to this pathetic economic situation was that played an influential role in the cooperative movement. The effort of cooperative members and significant role of cooperatives union played in the national economy.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the pattern of cooperative development in India
- discuss the India enterprise and some of their economic problems.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 Asia- Indian**

**Co-operation started** in India as a result of untold suffering which the money-lenders inflicted upon the general populace between 1860 and 1880. The poverty was so common-place that almost seventy five percent (75%) of India's population was starved of all essentials of living; though their main occupation was farming, yet they could not feed well. All the farm produce were under the control of the rich twenty-five percent (25%) of the total population. These few people were 'stinking' rich while others were put in abject poverty. They usually gave usury to the poor farmers at a very high rate of interest.

Whenever they borrowed money from their lenders, the farmers would use their farm inputs as collateral security. But during the harvest these money-lenders would take the farm produce by force in place of the usury given to the poor farmers, thus these farmers were completely enslaved by their creditors. As the money-lenders were becoming richer, so the farmers were becoming poorer. The indebtedness of these farmers was growing at an alarming rate, to the extent that they could not do otherwise, but rather serving the money-lenders. The following were the causes of their indebtedness:

- (i) The farmers did not have any savings, instead they relied on the money-lenders for day-to-day borrowing.
- (ii) Their debt was so much that they had to pass it to their children.
- (iii) Being poor, they were mainly subsistence-farmers and often fell victim to the vagaries of the weather which affected their farm output or yield.
- (iv) The farmers were too extravagant especially in marriages and funeral ceremonies. This may be a cultural factor but it became a general habit among the farmers.
- (v) They did not have sufficient lands for farming and housing.
- (vi) The rich landowners and landlords were exploiting the poor masses.

### **3.2 Indian Enterprises**

Data on Indian cooperatives are not adequate, yet many associations are known to exist. The Office of Indian Affairs in the U.S. Department of the Interior is responsible for a credit program for Indian cooperatives. This office cooperates with these associations, primarily marketing ones. Other federal departments and agencies active in assistance to Indians Rural Indians make loans with the Farmers Home Administrations.

The Indian is an important member of society. In the United States, there are approximately 800,000 Indians, and they own more than 50 million acres of land, although a substantial part is not fertile land.

Although there are a large number of them and they have land, most Indians suffer economically.

Some of their economic problems are:

1. The need for more education training opportunities to enable them to compete in the job market for skilled and professional work.
2. Lack of productive land to provide an adequate livestock in farming or ranching.



3. Scarcity of industry nearby.
4. Under utilization of land for potential income-producing purposes such as development of recreation attraction leasing for urban development. Industrial enterprises and lumbering as an industry.

Indians have few alternatives as to when and where to shop and what to buy. They can shop either at the reservation trading post or at independent stores just outside the reservation. Neither choice offers an optimal array of produce alternatives and both the frequently distant from the Indian's home.

Indian consumers are, in essence, rural consumers, for 70 percent of all Indians reside in rural areas. Thus, Indians share with rural consumers the problems of lack of transportation, inadequate health facilities and absence of consumer services.

Indian cooperatives are located in different part of the states and engage in making and marketing arts and crafts, in marketing livestock and other produce and in purchasing farm supplies and consumer goods.

#### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

The cooperative development in Asia case study of India concern for the plight of the people that is the masses what led to the pathetic economic problems and the influential role in the cooperative unions to be understand. The effort of cooperative members and significant role of cooperatives union played in the national economy.

#### **5.0 SUMMARY**

This unit as focus on cooperative development in Asia-India concern for the plight of the people. What led to this pathetic situation was that played an influential role in the cooperative movement. The effort of cooperative members and significant role of cooperatives union played in the India economy.

#### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Discuss the India enterprise and some of their economic problems that led to formation of cooperative.

#### **7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

Birchall, Johnston. (1997), *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.

- David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac- print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi.
- Epetimehin, F. M, (2006). *Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives*, ICRReTI Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999) *Consumers Against Capitalism? Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2012) *Nigeria & International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.
- Roy, E. P. (1981), *Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management*, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.
- "The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*.
- (2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . *Review of International Cooperation*, quarterly.
- Cooperatives- benefits  
<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/encyclopedia/Con-cos/Cooperatives.html#ixzz1fl8lCHrv>

## **UNIT 5 HISTORY OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVE IN U.S.A (AMERICA)**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Evolution of Cooperatives in the United States
  - 3.2 Post Civil War to World War I, Effect on Agricultural Cooperation in U.S.A
  - 3.3 Post World War 1 to the 'New Deal' (1933) Effect on Agricultural Cooperative in U.S.A
  - 3.4 Post World War II to the Present Effect on Cooperative in America
  - 3.5 Agricultural Cooperatives in the United States of America
  - 3.6 Trend in Agricultural Cooperatives Large Scale Cooperatives
  - 3.7 Agricultural Credit Cooperatives/Corporations (ACC)
  - 3.8 Agricultural Service Cooperatives
  - 3.9 The cooperatives idea in USA
    - 3.9.1 Fishery Cooperatives Limited Resources Agricultural Cooperatives
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The colonists, upon arriving in America, attempted some forms of communal or collective farming. Within a short period of time, these attempts were abandoned in favour of private cultivation and ownership of what was produced. However, this did not restrain the colonists from erecting defences from Indian attacks and from assisting each other in numerous undertakings, such as in land clearing harvesting, barn raising and in many other joint activities. Since about 1988 two phenomena have been occurring in the organization of agricultural cooperatives in the US: (1) the restructuring and consolidation of conventional cooperatives and (2) the emergence of new generation cooperatives (NGCs) (Cook, 1995). NGCs retain many of the characteristics of conventional cooperatives, but they focus on value-added activities. Member capital contributions are linked to product delivery (marketing) rights which attain value and can be transferred, and membership is closed or restricted. These developments suggest that cooperative strategies are becoming more offensive in nature. Cropp (2002)

contends that cooperatives in the US have matured to become a significant force in agriculture, and play an increasing role in influencing national agricultural policies.

## **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain history of America agricultural cooperative
- understand major incident of America agricultural cooperative

## **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

### **3.1 Evolution of Cooperatives in the United States**

In 1752, Benjamin Franklin became perhaps the first American cooperater with the organization of a mutual insurance cooperative called the Philadelphia Contributionship for the Insurance of Houses from Loss by Fire.

In 1785, the cooperative buying and selling of livestock began in Pennsylvania.

In 1794, cordwainers in Baltimore, Maryland, organized a co-op boot and shoe factory which was the forerunner of what are now called 'workers' productive cooperative.

In 1803, the first formal farmers' marketing cooperative was organized in Ohio.

About 1810, two dairy cooperatives were formed which are thought to be the first formal farmers' associations organized in the United States. One cooperative was located at Goshen, Connecticut, and the other at South Trenton, New Jersey. Following these, many different commodity cooperatives were organized throughout the Northeastern States, Cotton Belt, Upper Mississippi Valley and Far West. They were mutual benefit enterprises operating without the advantage of special legislation. While many were short-lived, a few are still in existence. The first mutual savings banks in the United State were organized in 1816, in Boston and Philadelphia, by community leaders who sought to provide a safe repository and an interest-paying one for the small savings of the wage earner. At that time, most commercial banks did not accept savings deposits, and no other type of thrift institution existed.

In 1820, in Ohio, cooperative livestock shipping associations and farmers' mutual insurance groups were organized.

In 1857, a co-operative wheat elevator was organized in Dane County, Wisconsin. Later, co-operative grain elevators were to become a significant facet of farm cooperation in the United States.

As early as 1847, mutual irrigation associations were formed in Utah and California. By 1860, there were 83 such associations in those two states. In 1863, a fertilizer buying cooperative was organized in Riverhead, New York, and in 1881 a fruit marketing cooperative formed in New Jersey.

### **3.2 Post Civil War to World War I, Effect on Agricultural Cooperation in U.S.A**

After the Civil War, consumer prices rose rapidly. This encouraged the formation of several hundred consumer cooperatives in the Middle West and Northeast, but by 1870 most of them had been disbanded. The business decline and unemployment during that period hurt consumer cooperatives.

In 1871, the Chicago Printers Co-operative Association served some of the economic needs of several small printers. In 1877, a group of New York City druggists pooled some of their drugs orders to reduce costs, cooperatives are considered to have been the first businessmen's cooperatives in the United States.

Between 1880 and 1890, scattered cooperatives for marketing farm products were organized. Some of them are still in existence. A few examples include: co-op elevators established at Watson, Minnesota in 1886; Marcus, Iowa, in 1887 and at Rockwell, Iowa, in 1889; fruit marketing cooperatives in California, Florida, New Jersey and New York; livestock marketing cooperatives in the Middle East; a wool growers' cooperative in Indiana; a tobacco growers' cooperative in New England and a co-op cotton gin in Texas. By 1890, there were about 1,000 active farmer cooperatives. Over 700 of these were handling dairy products; about 100m grain; and about 100, fruits and vegetables. The development of credit unions began in 1906 in Manchester, New Hampshire, with the organization of a credit union with Roman Catholic parishioners. Alphonse Desjardins of Quebec helped organize the first credit union in the United State. Massachusetts passed the first credit union act in 1909.

### **3.3 Post World War 1 to the 'New Deal' (1933) Effect on Agricultural Cooperative in U.S.A**

The development of farmer cooperatives during this period fits logically into four areas.

1. Reorganizations and consolidation of local cooperatives.
2. Organization and expansion of regional cooperatives.
3. Formation of state-wide and national organizations.
4. Structure meeting of the needs of members.

With the arrival of Franklin Roosevelt and the “New Deal” in 1933, federal legislation with regards to cooperatives became abundant. For example, the Rural Electrification Act was passed in 1936 to aid rural areas in obtaining electricity cooperatively. A federal credit union act was passed which permitted the Federal Chartering of credit unions. Provisions for short-term agricultural credit on a co-operative basis were enacted into law in 1933. The federal government enabled farmers to procure short-term credit cooperatively government themselves were provided a co-operative banking system. The Marketing Agreements Act of 1937 enabled farmers to vote-in marketing orders aimed at facilitating the marketing milk, fruits and vegetables, among other commodities.

In one significant aspect, the “New Deal” did not foster cooperatives. This was in acreage allotments and price support programs. Whereas the Hoover Administration had relied heavily upon the Federal Farm Board and large-scale commodity co-operative “New Deal” rejected this approach. It moved more in the area of direct federal intervention in acreage, output, marketing and price controls over agriculture. In retrospect, this was perhaps a fatal mistake. This federal government might have been better off and society might have been better served if less federal intervention had occurred and greater reliance had been placed on farmers’ purchasing marketing and servicing associations. Of course, this question will never be settled, and opinions differ on the probable results.

### **3.4 Post World War II to the Present Effect on Cooperative in America**

Between 1945 and 1955, farmer cooperatives in the United State showed only moderate growth. Reasons for this included:

- (1) Inflationary times made for “easy” and “cheap” money;
- (2) Farm prices rose faster than costs, and thus net incomes were good;
- (3) Growth of federal support programs lessened the need for farmer cooperation;
- (4) Migratory shifts in farm population caused re-arrangement of rural society, making co-op organization difficult; and
- (5) More vocal antagonism against farmer cooperatives arose, especially on the income tax issue.

Since 1955, farmer cooperatives have demonstrated a better rate of growth. The co-operative idea re-established itself as costs rose faster than prices, government programs became disillusioning, and new farmer leadership emerged. According to the Farmer Cooperative Service, the values of co-op marketing have increased at a faster rate than those of agricultural marketing of all farmers. The values of farmers' acquisitions of supplies and equipment through cooperatives have also increased at a faster rate than expenditures for supplies and equipment of all farmers.

Perhaps the most significant co-op development since World War II has been the organization of retailer-owned wholesale cooperatives such as co-op food, hardware, drug and lumber retailers. This development holds great potential for the future.

### **3.5 Agricultural Cooperatives in the United States of America**

US have been designed especially for the incorporation of agricultural cooperatives.

No other type of cooperative has as good a legal basis for chartering as does the farmer cooperative. Much credit in this respect is due to the U.S. Department of Agriculture, various farm organizations, co-op councils and others who provided the leadership in getting adequate and uniform farm co-op statute in all 50 states.

States do differ in at least one respect with regard to voting provisions in farm cooperative statutes. Some 19 states permit voting on other than a one-man, one-vote basis. California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Carolina, Vermont and Washington.

Farmer cooperative contribute to the material and spiritual prosperity of agriculture as well as to the total national economy. Farmer cooperatives, both large and small, are simply organizations of individual farmers which carry on essential functions needed by our farmers and by our society as a whole. Farmer cooperatives enjoy no special privileges or favours denied by law to any other group or organization which may elect to accept the same restrictions that are self imposed by the members of cooperatives.

There are some 26,000 agricultural cooperatives of all types in the United State. These types consist of agricultural bargaining, credit, marketing, service, supply, fire mutual, fishery and Indian cooperatives, among others, that are agricultural oriented.

The American Agricultural Marketing Association (AAMA) was incorporated in January 1960 under the Illinois Cooperative law. AAMA serves as the national coordinating and information agency for some 45 States Farm Bureaus marketing association. Membership dues and services fees are the sources of funds for this organization. AAMA was set up to help state affiliates carry out marketing programs and develop new ones to meet the many changes occurring in agricultural marketing although bargaining has been given the most attention. Marketing cooperatives in the United State serve over two of every three farmers in the United States who market produce through some cooperative.

Agricultural marketing cooperatives are organized for the collective marketing of members' produce. They market a growing share of the value of all farm products in the United States.

These marketing cooperatives range in size from small local organization to powerful centralized or federated groups which have sales representatives in numerous domestic and foreign markets and handle considerable portions of the respective agricultural produce. Many marketing cooperatives engage in processing of commodities produced by the members, such as freezing and canning, butter-making and other forms of processing. Many have developed great volume and strength, both domestic and foreign.

The number of agricultural marketing cooperatives has declined as many associations have merged and smaller ones liquidated. With the decrease in the number of farmers in the United States, co-op memberships also have declined. However, it is believed that the proportion of all farmers belonging to marketing cooperatives has increased. Despite the declines in co-operative numbers and in membership, co-operative marketing business volume has increased steadily year by year. Dairy products account for roughly one-third of total co-operative marketing. Next in importance are the marketing's of grain and soybeans, followed by livestock and livestock products. Other important co-operative marketing are nuts, fruits and vegetables, cotton and cotton products, poultry products, sugar products, rice and tobacco. Marketing cooperatives are becoming more vertically integrated by increasing their ownership and control of facilities beyond the first-buyer level. Many of them are moving to the retail store level by consumer packaging and product branding and promotion. Greater use of mass media in advertising is also underway.

In earlier years, farmers were satisfied with organizing local handling, processing and marketing association. With the advent of urbanization, better and more rapid transit, broadening markets extending internationally and more rapid communication processes, the thrust of modern Marketing Corporation is to integrate vertically additional steps



in the marketing distribution process. This thrust may tend to require large and more heavily capitalized marketing association.

### **3.6 Trend in Agricultural Cooperatives Large Scale Cooperatives**

There are nine farmers' cooperatives in the United States, each with sales volume about \$200 million dollars annually. These are (with headquarters office). Associated Milk Producers, Inc. (Texas); Land O' Lakes Inc. (Minnesota); Farmland Industries, Inc. (Missouri); Agway, Inc. (New York); Gold Kist, Inc. (Georgia); Dairylea Cooperative, Inc. (New York); Farmers Union Central Exchange, Inc. (Minnesota); Midland Cooperative (Minnesota) and CF Industries (Illinois). Most of these are both supply and marketing cooperatives.

A Farmer Cooperative Service study of co-operatives business growth reported the following:

1. The great majority of cooperative businesses are small – 40 percent did less than one-half million dollars of business annually, 22 percent did between one-half million dollars and \$1million and 31 percent did \$1million to \$5million annually. Only 7 percent, or 386 associations, did more than \$5 million of business a year.
2. Total marketing and supply sales of the 10 largest cooperatives were only 13 percent of total sales of the 10 largest for-profit businesses. Cooperatives' net margins, assets and net worth were only 4 to 6 percent of those for the other firms.
3. Actual growth of the four largest cooperatives in each of 11 selected categories was appreciably less during the past 20 years than the growth of the four largest for-profit firms. The profit businesses, for example, had 7 times greater sales, 22 times greater net assets, 25 times more net worth and 18 times greater net margins than the cooperatives during this period.

A comparison of cooperative trends with total related business in the agricultural economy, as well as the Gross National Product, indicates:

1. Cooperatives are continuing to make favourable growth in relation to similar sectors of the agribusiness economy. Both cooperatives and the agribusiness economy, however, have been increasing at a decreasing rate during the past 5 years.
2. Cooperative growth, like trends in farm cash receipts and expenditures, lags behind the growth of the economy as a whole (GNP).

Generally speaking, farmer cooperatives are still rather small business undertakings compared with firms they buy from and sell. With the trend to fewer but larger farms, higher capitalization and more exacting market requirements, it is easy to see why cooperation in agriculture will expand. Number-wise, farmer cooperatives may not expand greatly, but volume-wise their gains should be significant. Much, of course, will depend on the federal government's farm policies. If a more centralized and paternalistic federal government evolves, cooperation will be less in favour. If the federal government should lessen its involvement in agriculture, cooperation will take up much of the slack. The choice is up to the farmers themselves and the citizenry through their elected representatives. There are many phases in agriculture which need additional co-operative organizations, such as:

- a) Farm and home chemicals;
- b) Forestry;
- c) Machinery and equipment;
- d) Foreign trade;
- e) Farm product utilization;
- f) Rural recreational facilities;
- g) Farm custom services; and
- h) Contract bargaining.

This is not to underestimate the economic need for more cooperation in the traditional areas of agricultural supplies, production, marketing and services. Farmer cooperatives especially are concerned with foreign trade expansion. Rice, feed grains, fruits, vegetables, cotton, wheat, broilers and many other commodities have a large stake in foreign trade. Efforts on a co-operative basis to expand trade in the future should prove rewarding.

At the same time, cooperative buying in foreign markets will be important. Many retailers consumer stores and farm supply cooperatives will need to purchase foreign-made good cooperatively in order to retain competitive here at home. Farm supply cooperatives, for example, have found that imported steel products are considerably cheaper than domestic steel products. Since it is the cooperatives' job to provide their farm customers with economical supply, they often use imported products. Trading arrangements with foreign cooperatives might also be helpful. U.S. cooperatives need to federate into larger foreign trade co-op groups to achieve economies of size and market power necessary in the realm of foreign trade whether for marketing or purchasing.

### **3.7 Agricultural Credit Cooperatives/ Corporations (ACC)**

Agricultural credit cooperatives in the United State consist of federal land bank associations, rural credit unions, production credit association, banks for cooperatives and agricultural credit corporations.

Agricultural Credit Corporation, statutes are infrequent because farmers can adequately organize, under federal law, in a production credit associations and credit unions to supply their short-term credit needs.

Cooperatives agricultural credit corporations are found in cotton, livestock, poultry and fruit and vegetable enterprises, among others. These credit cooperatives take the notes pledged then as collateral for monies loaned to farmers and discount these notes with the Federal Intermediate Credit Banks. In this manner, short-term funds flow more freely to farmers and aid them in financing crop and livestock products. However, agricultural credit corporation laws are useful state statutes because, in the future, credit needs of farmers will become more acute and agricultural credit corporations will become more important. This is especially true in the case of vertical integration and contract farming.

### **3.8 Agricultural Service Cooperatives**

Included in agricultural service cooperatives are artificial breeding and dairy herd improvement associations; irrigation and grazing associations; and trucking, storing, machinery, freezing and other servicing organizations.

As farming becomes more specialized and in need of greater services, both for input and output, it appears that cooperatives could help fill some of these needs. For example, leasing by cooperatives to farmers of expensive, specialized machinery might be feasible as well as the customized performance by cooperatives of specialized tasks which could reduce farmers' costs compared with doing these tasks individually.

### **3.9 The cooperatives idea in USA**

The idea for a cooperative may originate from several sources, among which are:

1. Experience of other cooperatives;
2. Suggestions from co-operative specialists; Trade sources, including journals.
3. Individuals in the community proposing a cooperative as a solution to some existing problems;

4. Community and/or area surveys dealing with economic development or other management or marketing problems;
5. Addresses by co-operative specialists or co-op leaders on the possibilities of cooperation;
6. Essay contests and other educational activities dealing with cooperatives; and
7. Organizational efforts of larger cooperatives, especially regional associations wishing to extend operational in a virgin area.

### **3.9.1 Fishery Cooperatives Limited Resources Agricultural Cooperatives**

Cooperatives influence the marketing of a far greater proportion of the catch. In many instances, they become the “yardstick” for marketing organization in their segment of the industry. Other firms must meet their competition and trade on the same terms in order to stay in business. This also holds in reverse. Cooperatives must do as good a marketing job as other businesses in order for cooperatives to survive.

Low income, limited resources persons in rural farm and rural non-farm areas are engaged in many types of cooperatives efforts. Usually, they are more apt to organize cooperatives dealing with vegetable and feeder pig marketing arts and crafts; farm supplies; self-help housing; farm machinery and fishing boat partnerships, among others.

## **4.0 CONCLUSION**

The trends in co-operative development have become noticeable in the United State since World War II to the present day Cooperatives, particularly regional, controlling more and more functions in the marketing system. Marketing cooperatives are processing farm products more completely and are carrying them nearer to the final consumer. Purchasing cooperatives are going into manufacturing and are carrying their activities nearer to the source of raw materials. Also, cooperatives are expanding ‘run one nation to another, otherwise known as multinational co-operatives. Also increase emphasis on farmers’ bargaining cooperatives to enable farm groups to bargain more effectively with larger nonfarm buying firms recognitions given cooperatives by small business men. In earlier days, these men opposed cooperatives and regarded them as a threat. In recent years, they have come to see cooperatives as a bulwark against their possible liquidation and bankruptcy.

Increase activity toward mergers to reduce the number of small cooperatives and to expand coordination among cooperatives.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, the efforts increased to modernize plants and equipment and to upgrade managerial performance of directors, management and employees of cooperatives. Increased attention paid by cooperatives to foreign trade and to the organization of cooperatives in underdevelopment nations and increased attention to co-op member involvement, participation and control over their cooperatives including redemption of their equities in a more timely fashion. More active involvement by cooperatives in the political process as the scope of government regulation and monitoring increased.

## 6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the evolution and historical analysis of USA agricultural cooperative.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Birchall, Johnston. (1997) *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp

David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria

Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. **Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business Epetimehin, F. M, (2006). *Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives*, ICRéTI Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria

Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds. (1999) *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990* Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P King1(March 2007)*Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, Agrekon, Vol. 46, No 1*

Roy, E. P. (1981), *Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management*, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.

Oludimu, O. L. and Adedoyin, S .F (1996).*Running a more successful cooperative*, Triumph Book Publishers, Ijebu Ode, Nigeria.

The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*.

(2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org). *Review of International Cooperation*, quarterly.

Cooperatives-benefits

<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/encyclopedia/Con-cos/Cooperatives.html#ixzz1f18lCHrv>"[http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Danish\\_cooperative\\_movement&oldid=460377693](http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Danish_cooperative_movement&oldid=460377693)"

The page was last modified on 13 November 2011 at 02:13. Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) .

## MODULE 3

Unit 1	The development of Cooperatives in AFRICA-NIGERIA
Unit 2	Modern and traditional pattern of cooperation in Nigeria
Unit 3	The Structure of the cooperative movement in Nigeria
Unit 4	History, objectives and the importance of the international cooperative alliance
Unit 5	The role of International Agency for Cooperative Development (ICD), World Council of Credit Unions - WOCCU and IFAP – International Federation of Agricultural Producers, International fund for Agricultural development (IFAD)

### UNIT 1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVES IN AFRICA-NIGERIA

#### CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	The Pattern of Development of Cooperatives in AFRICA-NIGERIA
3.2	The Reasons for Joining
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

#### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

There is need for the reader to understand the pattern of cooperative development in Africa-Nigeria an influential role in the cooperative movement. The effort of cooperative members and significant role of cooperatives union played in the national economy.

#### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the pattern of cooperative development in
- discuss the reasons for formation and joining cooperatives societies.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 The Pattern of Development of Cooperatives in Africa-Nigeria**

The African Confederation of Co-operative Savings and Credit Association was founded on 12<sup>th</sup> September, 1968. The establishment of ACCOSCA was a result of several meetings and deliberations of directors of Co-operatives in certain African states who were determined to spread Co-operation throughout the continent. They saw Co-operative Societies as the best alternative to improve the economy of every African, especially the poor masses. They purposed to encourage savings which the individual can be utilize to obtain credit facilities to set up small scale businesses.

Nigeria was one of the countries that founded ACCOSCA. Other countries include Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda, Gambia and Mauritius Island.

In October 1970, this association (ACCOSCA) became a member of the World Council of Credit Unions (WOCCU). Since the formation of this Association, Co-operative Credit Societies have been increasing rapid in all the member-countries. This could be traced to the series of seminars and trainings being given on Co-operatives all over Africa.

Co-operation in Nigeria started as far back as 1907. Notable among the earliest co operative societies was Agege Planters Union (A.P.U), made up of cocoa producers. About four hundred (400) cocoa farmers came together to ensure that cocoa was the major farm produce earning foreign exchange for Nigeria. When this union was not immediately recognized by the government, they did not relent on their efforts. There were still other farmers union existing elsewhere.

#### **3.2 The Reasons for Joining**

The reasons for joining together were:

- To pool resources together so that they could purchase inputs of production at reduced prices and passing the benefits to their members.
- To exchange ideas by sharing experience on how they could produce the best quality cocoa.
- To collectively fight for government recognition this was slow in coming. The Ibadan farmers recognized the need to join the already existing association of Agege Planters Union (APU) and



the Egba Farmers Union. They sought for inclusion in the association and were admitted.

The Colonial masters, with the formulation and enactment of cooperative legislation in 1935 based on the report of Mr. F.F. Strickland's stated that cooperative will thrive in Nigeria. When the government realized the significance of Co-operatives, Mr. C.F. Strickland it commissioned submitted in 1955, titled "The Introduction of Co-operative Societies in Nigeria" where he strongly advocated the introduction and development of Co-operatives. He also proposed and actually drafted the relevant Ordinance and Regulations. Later the government saw the need to promote savings habit among the low-income people. With another report which Mr. Strickland submitted in 1936, Co-operative Thrift and Credit Societies (C.T.C.S) were formed and it spread all over Eastern and Western Nigeria. Adeyeye and Ditto (1980).

Moreso, the enactment of the ordinance saw more rapid development of Co-operative since the enabling framework has been provided. Even though some of the early Co-operatives collapsed for a number of reasons, the mistakes having been learnt a lot more was formed especially after Nigeria's independence 1960. The effort of the colonial government in spreading Co-operatives was effective. From independence to the present, concerted efforts are being made to bring Co-operatives to every community. As more state are created so also Co-operatives are brought nearer to the grass roots.

Among the people we contributed to the Co-operative Movement especially in Western Nigeria were (Sir) J. T. Caxton Idowu, Samuel Aboluwodi, Chief Akinpelu Obisesan, S. O. Abatan, Pastor E. T Latunde and C. A. O. Makanjuola, all of blessed memory. They fought relentless to spread the gospel of Co-operation in the West during their life-time. Though they are late, yet their footprints remain indelible in the sands of Nigeria Co-operatives.

Since the inception of Co-operatives in Nigeria, government had been playing prominent and laudable roles in its development and spread. The initial achievement of the government on Co-operatives was the promulgation Co-operative Laws and the Co-operative Regulations which followed on the 6<sup>th</sup> February, 1936. In 1937, Gbedun Co-operative Produce Marketing Society became the first Co-operative Society to be the first Registrar of Co-operative Societies in Nigeria.

After these developments, several Co-operative Societies and Union were formed and registered by the government through the Western Ministry of Trade, Industry and Co-operative.

The Nigeria Co-operative Societies Association (NCSA) which comprises all Co-operative Societies in Nigeria later became Co-operative Societies Association (CSA). It is upon these solid foundation and achievement that Co-operative Societies in the country are building up till today. And all indications point to a brighter future for Co-operatives in Nigeria.

As each new state will also create a department in an appropriate ministry and saddle such department with Co-operatives matters. Departments for Co-operative development were created in the appropriate ministries and this helped in the promotion of Co-operatives in all parts of Nigeria. The Co-operative Federation of Nigeria was formed in 1945 and formally registered in 1967. It is the national apex organization which represents the entire co-operative movement in Nigeria. All state Co-operative Federation of Nigerian Co-operatives at the International level and it promotes supports and advises co-operatives nationally.

Co-operative has spread all over Nigeria but they are more prominent in the western parts of the country with various types. Many of the co-operative organizations and establishment have grown very big and their roles in the nation's economic development cannot be over-emphasized.

#### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

The historical and evolutionary analysis of cooperative movement from Europe, Asia, America, and African will serve as guide in understanding the significant role of cooperative in the growth and development of a nation while the next unit will illustrate further on the importance of cooperatives in America, its constraint and achievement.

#### **5.0 SUMMARY**

The organized knowledge and broad experienced gather from various nations will assist in addressed the drawback or hindrance of cooperative in various countries and integrate ones countries that will enhance in development and establishment of national cooperation based on historical fact.

#### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Discuss the pattern of cooperative development in Discuss the reasons for formation and joining cooperatives societies.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

David, A. S. (1998). Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS), Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Daniel, H (2006), Dictionary of Management, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi.

**Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business.

Epetimehin, F. M, (2006). Understanding the Dynamics of Cooperatives, ICReti Publishing house Ibadan, Nigeria.

Lawal, K. A. A. and Oludimu, O. L (2011), Management Theory, Practices and Focus, Asogun Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) Nigeria & International Cooperation COP216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.

Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.

Oludimu, O. L. and Adedoyin, S.F(1996).Running a more successful cooperative, Triumph, Book Publishers, Ijebu Ode, Nigeria.

Umebali, E. E. (2008), Rural Development and Management, Course Material on MPA769, National Open University of Nigeria, pp36-44.

"The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*.

(2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . *Review of International Co-operation*, quarterly.

Cooperatives-benefits

<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/encyclopedia/Con-cos/Cooperatives.html#ixzz1fl8lCHrv>.

## **UNIT 2      MODERN AND TRADITIONAL PATTERN OF COOPERATION IN NIGERIA**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Modern and traditional pattern of cooperation in Nigeria
  - 3.2 Comparing formal cooperative with self-help organizations and area of similarities between them
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The Modern cooperative was developed from the traditional cooperative forms of cooperative. The cooperative actions of modern cooperative are based on voluntary agreements by the individual actions. The voluntarism is the main tenet of modern acts of cooperative. The rules and modes of actions of working together is different from one instance to another. The Traditional cooperative on the other hands, the examples are mutual assistance which combines customary arrangement for securing assistance from neighbours on the occasions and events such as birth celebrations, death/funeral ceremonies and assistance to the injured or sick.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the Modern and traditional pattern of cooperation in Nigeria
- compare the formal cooperative with self-help organizations and area of similarities between them.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 Modern and Traditional Pattern of Cooperation in Nigeria**

Traditional cooperative refers only to the historical cooperatives models such as the Rochdale Equitalbe pioneer, which is the first cooperative organisation in the world and established in 1844 in England. The

members of the traditional cooperatives usually make explicit demand for particular services and management must comply with the decision to execute only. The more advanced forms of traditional cooperative was demonstrated in savings and lending, joint possession of land. They did not leave life's risks and emergence to chances these were common in Nigeria such as the 'ESUSU' in the Yorubaland and 'ADASHI' in Ibo land just to mention few. They developed various patterns of mutual assistance, reduce them to custom and handed them as tradition and as a legacy from past through formal and informal education. It should be noted that various names were ascribed to traditional cooperative such as traditional cooperative institution, common initiative group (CIP), Self help organization. Traditionally, many cooperatives were involved in three main areas of business:

- (1) The purchase and sale of agricultural inputs and equipment; the purchase, storage and subsequent sale of agricultural commodities; and (3) transport services (Piesse *et al.*, 2003).
- (2) Traditionally, the organization of the co-operation movement is in tiers this will be discuss in the unit, It should be stressed that it is not mandatory for co-operatives to follow the traditional structure. Circumstances in a particular country or region might dictate a different structure whatever the manner or level of organization the basic aim of the co-operation movement is to improve the economic welfare of the members.

### **3.2 Comparing Formal Cooperative with Self-Help Organizations and Area of Similarities between Them**

Fred (2006), comparing formal cooperative with self-help organizations and area of similarities between them, noted the following differences.

A Cooperative society is a business entity. As such the management concepts, techniques and principles are applied which may not be emphasized in a self-help organization.

The Co-operatives are owned by members. The capital invested in the business is for members who have taken the risks of investment. There is no such risk in self-help organizations.

The co-operative is controlled by members by taking major decisions affecting the business. Members delegate whoever carries out activities in the co-operative. The committee members or what is sometimes called board of directors are elected by the general members and delegated to manage the business. All these may not be applicable in a self-help organization. An opinion leader in a self-help organizations

may be taking major decisions that a project needs to be executed without much consultation.

Cooperative is voluntary; the decision to join in co-operative is freely made by the individual. Members who so desire are also free to withdraw as long as they fulfill all agreements to the business. This is not applicable in a self-help organisation.

Members accept risks and benefits. They buy shares in the co-operative and expect to get benefits if the co-operative succeeds; but if it fails they lose their investments; there is no such investments and risk in self-help organization.

A co-operative is a long-term concern that is it outlives its founding fathers. That is why the sustainability in co-operative is higher than that of self-help organization, some of which operates on ad-hoc basis.

There are definite rules and regulations governing co-operatives as spelt in the co-operatives Decree of 1993, the co-operative laws of the various states of the Federation and by laws of each co-operative organization. But many self-help organization. But many self-help organizations are based on rules that are simple and are not necessarily reduced to contractual agreements. They fit into the normal behaviours of the community. They are capable of being modified depending on the changing circumstances and environment, which may result with the development of the group or community.

The process of registration of a co-operative is more rigorous than that of self-help organisation.

### **Areas of similarities between co-operative and self-help organisation**

Having looked at some areas of differences between formal co-operative and self-help organization, let us briefly see their areas of similarities.

Individuals that form a co-operative share identical interest(s) or goal(s). The same can be said of self-help organization. It is the pursuit of such identical purpose that brings them together.

Roles exist in both self-help organization and formal co-operation. Members must play these roles. The proper execution of these roles will enhance the attainment of objectives.

Values are also shared by group members. These values are general agreement emphasized as positive or negative, that is, the “dos” and “don’ts” which are reflected in the constitution.

Communication exists in the groups. This includes communication between one individual and the other as well as between one individual and the organization.

Members of both organizations may enjoy a common identity. The identity separates members of an organization from other organizations. Such identity include: recognized names, and identical or peculiar mode of dressing among others.

#### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

In this unit, we have learn the Nigeria cooperatives contributions of different views on the Modern and traditional pattern of cooperation in Nigeria. Comparing the formal cooperative with self-help organizations and area of similarities between them and drew up various schemes for the cooperative movement for organising large-size societies and provision of State partnership and assistance. During 1960s, further efforts were made to consolidate the cooperative societies by their re-organisation. Consequently, and increased in societies based on positive effect on cooperative development for better living.

#### **5.0 SUMMARY**

The light of Co-operation is spreading so fast in all cities and villages to the extent that new Credit Unions/Societies are springing up on daily basis. The unions are now in thousands, with several affiliated societies. Indeed, the rate of their increase attests to the fact that Co-operative Societies offer a lot of benefits to their members. Recently in the Western Nigeria revealed that many business enterprises would have collapsed without the aid of Co-operative Credit Societies.

Therefore any of the Co-operative Union could be visited to enable us see part of their contributions to the support ability of our economy.

#### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

Discuss the Modern and traditional pattern of cooperation in Nigeria. Compare formal cooperative with self-help organizations and area of similarities between them.

#### **7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

David, A. S. (1998). Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS), Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.

- Daniel, H (2006), Dictionary of Management, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi.
- Lawal, K. A .A and Oludimu, O. L (2011), Management Theory, Practices and Focus, Asogun Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2012) Nigeria & International Cooperation COP 216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.
- Roy, E. P. (1981), Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.
- Oludimu, O. L. and Adedoyin, S.F (1996).Running a more successful cooperative, Triumph Book Publishers, Ijebu Ode, Nigeria.
- Umehali, E. E. (2008), Rural Development and Management, Course Material on MPA 769 National Open University of Nigeria, pp36-44.



## **UNIT 3 THE STRUCTURE OF THE COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN NIGERIA**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Structure of the cooperative movement in Nigeria
  - 3.2 Primary Cooperative Societies
  - 3.3 Secondary Cooperative Societies
  - 3.4 Tertiary Level
  - 3.5 Apex Cooperative Organization
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The organization of the co-operation movement is in tiers, which form a pyramid shaped structure. At the bottom of the structure are primary co-operative societies whose membership consists of individuals. The primary societies serve their members directly. Their size may vary from small village societies to large societies serving several villages. The range of business of primary societies also varies from single purpose co-operative societies engaging in, for example retail trading, to multiple purpose combining, for instance retailing and product marketing. Primary societies form the foundation of the co-operative movement; success of the movement invariable hinges on grass root support.

The next tier in the pyramid consists of “co-operative unions” also known as “secondary societies”. These operate on the same basis as primary societies except that their membership is limited to primary societies. Through these associations primary societies they would not afford. For example, primary retail societies could combine to form a wholesales co-operative societies’ association which serves the member primary societies. Secondary societies may further to form a union at a regional or province level. For example, wholesale co-operative associations in a particular province could combine to form a provincial wholesale co-operative union, federation: the “apex union” composed of the union (*Co-operative Societies Act, 1982*) at the international level, co-operative are united under one umbrella of the International Co-operative Alliance (ICA).

## **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- understand Structure of the cooperative movement in Nigeria

## **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

### **3.1 Structure of the Cooperative Movement in Nigeria**

The organizational structure of cooperation is a four-tier system with the mother union at the apex and primary societies at the base (Oshuntogun 1971).

When considering the structure of cooperative societies in Nigeria, we would mention primary, secondary and Apex Nigeria, we would mention primary, secondary and Apex Organization or Tertiary societies. Let's explain these one by one. It consists of the following in an ascending hierarchical order.

### **3.2 Primary Cooperative Societies**

Membership is made up of people who share similar aims hopes and aspirations. Members pay strong allegiances to the society. The primary level is more effective because member-patrons participate fully in the activities of the society. The society operates at the grass root level, e.g. villages, quarters and towns. Examples are Cooperative Consumer Society (CCS), Cooperative Thrift and Credit Society (CTCS), etc.

Moreso, Members of Primary Societies are individuals or (natural persons). Such individuals decide to become members in the organization voluntarily. They appear in two forms. One form is a situation whereby the individual members already has his/her individual enterprise or business and the cooperative society is formed to serve as “service organization” to the members so that each member will use the service gained from the society to expand his/her business. Example of such benefits includes giving loans, advice and supplying farm input to members.

The other form is a situation whereby the members collectively or jointly run a business enterprise and the benefits derived from this is for the members in general or as a group. Example of this could be found when members of a society engage in collective farming. Examples of Primary cooperative Societies are Farmers Cooperative societies. Consumer Cooperative societies, Cooperative thrift and Credit Societies

.e.t.c. For Primary Societies to be able to carry out above-mentioned functions, they must be financed by their members.

### **3.3 Secondary Cooperative Societies**

This consists of an affiliation of primary societies (union level) which operates at local government level, cities e.t.c. The union renders services to primary societies as primary societies render service to individuals. Such services that are rendered to primary societies include giving advice, loans, grants, keeping the books and records of primary. Examples are Cooperative Produce and Marketing Union (CPMU) Cooperative thrift and credit union (CTCU). Members of Secondary Cooperative Societies are corporate bodies or primary cooperative societies. When Primary societies join together, they become an association which may affiliate to a secondary society or a union. The union renders services to primary Societies as primary Societies render services to individuals. Such services that are rendered to primary societies by secondary ones include among others, giving advice loans, grants, keeping the books and records of primary societies affiliated to them. The service also includes processing, selling of the agricultural products sent to them by these affiliated organizations. They also source for funds for the affiliated societies. As mentioned in the case of primary societies, affiliates of secondary societies must financially support their secondary or union.

### **3.4 Tertiary Level**

The tertiary is known as league of unions which operates at the state level. All the unions are the members of the state league e.g. League of Cooperative Thrift and Credit Union (LCTUC); League of Cooperative Fishermen Union (LCFU). The league assist the cooperative fishermen union in the interpretation of laws and policies and in solving their general problems. Secondary Societies or Unions form Tertiary Cooperative Societies. Areas where Tertiary societies can be useful to Secondary Societies include promotion of education, representing the affiliates nationally and internationally, linking with the government, sourcing scholarships for Cooperators that belong to their affiliated Societies. Other areas include arranging workshops, seminars for Managers/Secretaries Auditing the books and records of Secondary and Primary Societies, etc.

### **3.5 Apex Cooperative Organization**

An Apex Organization is formed to render better services to Secondary Societies receives its membership and power from the affiliated unions which makes its membership to be the smallest compared with the

unions and the primary societies. Its main objective is to further increase the bargaining power and strength. There are three types of Apex Organizations. The first type is the national apex Organization. Examples of this are the Cooperative Federation of Nigeria (CFN), and National Association of Cooperative Credit Union of Nigeria (NACCUN). The second type is the regional Apex Organization. Examples of this are Cooperative Supply Association (CSA), Association of Nigerian Cooperative Exporters (ANCE). The third type is the State Apex Cooperative Organizations. Examples are State Cooperative federations like Oyo State Cooperative Federation, Federation of Osun State Cooperatives, Katsina State Cooperative Federation e.t.c. Examples of Apex Organisations are the Association of Nigeria Cooperative Exporter (ANCE) and the cooperative Supply Association (CSA) are examples of regional cooperative organizations, Nigeria Agricultural and Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB), Cooperative Federation of Nigeria (CFN) are example of national cooperative organization while the International Cooperative Association (ICA) is an example of international cooperative organization.

#### **4.0 CONCLUSION**

It should be stressed that it is not mandatory for co-operatives to follow the traditional structure. Circumstances in a particular country or region might dictate a different structure whatever the manner or level of organization the basic aim of the co-operation movement is to improve the economic welfare of the members.

#### **5.0 SUMMARY**

In this unit, we have discussed the considering the structure of cooperative societies in Nigeria, we would mention primary, secondary and Apex Nigeria, we would mention primary, secondary and Apex Organization or Tertiary societies. Let's explain these one by one.

#### **6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT**

1. Discuss the Structure of the cooperative movement in Nigeria.

#### **7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS**

Fred, E (2006), Introduction to Co-operatives Course Material on COP 101 National Open University of Nigeria, pp1-6.

Lawal, K. A. A. and Oludimu, O. L (2011), Management Theory, Practices and Focus, Asogun Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp m

- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) Nigeria& International Cooperation COP 216, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2013) Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa, In Oluyombo, O. O.; Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) Understanding Comparative Cooperative in Press.
- Roy, E. P. (1981), Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.
- Umehali, E. E. (2008), Rural Development and Management, Course Material on MPA769 National Open University of Nigeria, pp36-44.

## **UNIT 4 HISTORY, OBJECTIVES AND THE IMPORTANCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL COOPERATIVE ALLIANCE**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Brief about ICA
  - 3.2 Aims of the International Co-operative Alliance
  - 3.3 Objectives of I.C.A.
  - 3.4 What does ICA do?
  - 3.5 Work of the Alliance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The International Co-operative Alliance was founded in 1895. Is an independent, largest non-governmental organization that unites, represents and serves co-operatives worldwide. it ICA members are national and international co-operative organisations in all sectors of activity including agriculture, banking, fisheries, health, housing, industry, insurance, tourism and consumer co-operatives.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- understand the importance of the international cooperative alliance (ICA).

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 Brief about ICA**

Currently, ICA has 267 member organisations from 97 countries, representing approximately 1 billion individuals worldwide. The Governance refers to how powers are distributed and exercised by different groups. It is concerned with the practices and procedures used by an organisation to ensure that it can meet its objectives. The ICA considers that this Code of Governance is an essential feature in a

modern and transparent co-operative organisation. The supreme government authority is the Congress or affiliated association held every three years. The constitution ensures fair presentation of members and democratic control.

### **3.2 Aims of the International Co-operative Alliance**

According to the I.C.A. monthly journal – Review of I.C.A. to 1960-70 Series, ‘The International Co-operative Alliance in continuation of the work of the Rochdale Equitable Pioneers, seeks to promote a non-profit system of production and trade, organized in the interests of the whole community and based upon voluntary and mutual self-help’

### **3.3 Objectives of I.C.A.**

- 1) To be the universal representative of Co-operative Organization of all types which observe I.C.A. principles.
- 2) To promote co-operation in all countries.
- 3) To propagate Co-operative Principles and Methods throughout the world.
- 4) To safeguard the interest of the Co-operative Movement in all its forms.
- 5) To foster good relations between Co-operative Organizations of all types naturally and internationally.
- 6) To work for the establishment of lasting people and security.

### **3.4 What does ICA do?**

ICA's priorities and activities centre on promoting and defending the Co-operative Identity, ensuring that co-operative enterprise is a recognised form of enterprise that is able to compete in the marketplace.

- ICA raises awareness about co-operatives
- It helps individuals, government authorities and regional and international institutions understand the co-operative model of enterprise
- ICA is the voice of the co-operative movement
- ICA ensures that the right policy environment exists to enable co-operatives to grow and prosper. It helps its members in their lobbying for new legislation and more appropriate administrative procedures that respect the co-operative model, its principles and values
- It provides political support as well as technical expertise to enable co-operatives to compete on a level playing field

- ICA provides its members with key information, best practice and contacts through its publications for the sharing of information
- It organises meetings and workshops to address key issues affecting co-operatives and allows discussion among co-operators from around the world
- ICA facilitates contacts between co-operatives for trading purposes and intelligence sharing in a wide range of areas.
- ICA provides technical assistance to co-operatives through its **development programme**
- ICA promotes capacity-building and financial support, it facilitates job creation and supports poverty reduction and microfinance programmes around the world.

### 3.5 Work of the Alliance

- 1) **Providing information:** A statistics section is concerned with compiling data from member Co-operatives while an economics section studies trends and developments affecting the Co-operative Movement.
- 2) **Literature:** A library has been built up and is ever-growing consisting of book, journals, reports, photographs and newspapers etc.
- 3) **Promoting International Understanding:** Every year, an international summer school is held in different countries thus promoting fellowship and understanding.
- 4) **Publications:** The I.C.A. has many publications the most significant of which is the Review of International Co-operation. A monthly journal published in English, French and German.
- 5) **Wholesale Services:** As Co-operative Marketing Organization develop into whole-sale operations; consumer associations may be compelled to establish an international wholesale society or International purchasing organization for particular commodities e.g. petroleum, banking, Insurance and Housing. The International Co-operative Alliance's office is at 15, Route de Morillons, 1218 Grand-Sacconnex Geneva, Switzerland.

### 4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have learnt about the ICA Strategic Plan represents a global vision of the 'one ICA', including planning for the central and regional offices as well as the sectoral organisations for the period 2009-2012. It includes commonly agreed strategic objectives, key result areas, outcomes and indicators, as well as the strategic initiatives as defined by reach component of the ICA.



## 5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has considered ICA as a means of positive change and accelerating cooperative development it has discussed the aims, objectives work and planning programmed of ICA.

## 6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Enumerate the aims and objective of ICA.
2. What does ICA do?

## 7.0 REFERENCES AND FURTHER READING

- Birchall, Johnston. (1997), *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.
- David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. **Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Cooperative Business.
- G.F Ortmann & R.P King1(*March 2007*)*Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, Agrekon, Vol 46, No 1.*
- Lawal, K. A. A and Oludimu, O. L (2011), *Management Theory, Practices and Focus*, Asogun Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp m
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A (2012) *Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.
- Roy, E. P. (1981), *Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management*, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.
- Oludimu, O. L. and Adedoyin, S. F (1996).*Running a more successful cooperative*, Triumph Book Publishers, Ijebu Ode, Nigeria.

Umebali, E.E.(2008), Rural Development and Management, Course Material on MPA769 National Open University of Nigeria, pp36-44.

"The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*. (2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . *Review of International Co-operation*, quarterly. Cooperatives - benefits

## **UNIT 5 THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL AGENCY FOR COOPERATIVE DEVELOPMENT (ICD), WORLD COUNCIL OF CREDIT UNIONS - WOCCU AND IFAP – INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCERS, INTERNATIONAL FUND FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT (IFAD)**

### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 The International Agency for Cooperative Development (IACD)
  - 3.2 World Council of Credit Unions (WOCCU)
  - 3.3 International Federation of Agricultural Producers (IFAP)
  - 3.4 International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References and Further Reading

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The role of different international cooperative organization in promoting sustainable development around the world to empower people through reliable, affordable and access to high quality of basic needs and want proven their worth as source of assistance during crisis and recognition regardless of challenges posed by the operating environment. The understanding of operations and activities of international agency involved will assist in promoting cooperation among nations and exposure.

### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the role of IACD, WOCCU and IFAP/IFAD
- understand major role played by each organization and
- understand the main purpose of their establishment.

### **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

#### **3.1 The International Agency for Cooperative Development (IACD)**

The International Agency for Cooperative Development (IACD) comprises of different cooperative agency such as ICA, WOCCU, ILO's, IFAP, FAO, mention just few of them performing similar role and activities towards the growth and development of cooperative and peace movement locally and internationally between developed and developing countries. The role played by these agency towards integrating economy development and eradication of poverty thereby assisting the government through the provision of basic and social amenities. The IACD is an independent non-governmental association which unites, represents and serves co-operatives worldwide. Its members are national and international co-operative organisations in all sectors of activity including agriculture, banking, credit and saving, industry, insurances, fisheries, housing, tourism and consumer co-operatives. <http://www.prensacooperativa.com.ar/cgi-bin/Simbolos.asp>.

#### **3.2 World Council of Credit Unions (WOCCU) Insight on the Global Credit Union Movement**

The World Council of Credit Unions (WOCCU) Is the global trade association and development agency for credit unions. Is the only organization representing credit unions in developed and developing countries on a global scale. WOCCU promotes the sustainable development of credit unions and other financial cooperatives around the world to empower people through access to high quality and affordable financial services. WOCCU advocates on behalf of the global credit union system before international organizations and works with national governments to improve legislation and regulation. Its technical assistance programs introduce new tools and technologies to strengthen credit unions' financial performance and increase their outreach. WOCCU is funded by member dues, government agency and foundation grants and annual gifts to WOCCU's Worldwide Foundation for Credit Unions. World Council of Credit Unions and its subsidiaries are headquartered in Madison, USA. WOCCU also has a permanent office in Washington, D.C., and program offices worldwide. In New York, at a time when many national economies are facing financial instability, cooperative enterprises have proven their worth as sources of assistance during the crisis and recognition of cooperatives' value. Worldwide, 49,000 credit unions in 97 countries serve 184 million people. In 2009, WOCCU's technical assistance programs reached 5.9 million people in 13 countries.

## Policy & Advocacy

WOCCU actively monitors and participates in the policy development of international organizations to ensure credit union interests are represented while global standards are formed. It has published a number of resources on drafting effective legislation, including *Model Law for Credit Unions*, *Model Regulations for Credit Unions* and a technical guide to *Credit Union Regulation and Supervision*. WOCCU also provides consulting for its member associations undergoing change in cooperative or financial sector regulation.

In 2007, WOCCU established the International Credit Union Regulators' Network to build capacity among supervisors and help shape effective standards for credit unions. The group meets annually to discuss current global regulatory issues and to undertake research on specific topics related to the oversight of financial cooperatives.

## Financial inclusion

WOCCU was founded on the belief that all people have the right to affordable, reliable and accessible financial services. Its technical assistance programs have provided millions of poor and low-income people access to the array of financial services they need through credit unions, regardless of challenges posed by the operating environment. WOCCU works with credit unions, their trade associations and regulators to drive **savings mobilization** and **regulatory development** while creating **integrated business networks**. Its team of financial experts' works with local leaders to develop tailored products and services geared toward microfinance, rural finance and Islamic finance. Unlike many microfinance technical assistance providers that focus exclusively on credit, WOCCU's approach emphasizes the mobilization of member savings as the primary source of financing. This savings-based approach allows credit unions to reach greater scale in financial service provision and instills a level of financial discipline that ensures long-term sustainability. Since 1971, WOCCU has implemented more than 275 technical assistance programs to build safe and sound financial cooperatives in 71 countries throughout the world.

## Products & Services

WOCCU Services Group (WSG) invests in the development of credit union products and services offered through local service organizations that are jointly owned by individual credit unions, their associations and WSG. Under the "Entura" brand, credit unions are able to offer members shared branching, domestic and international remittances and cell phone banking services as well as additional access points through automatic

teller machines (ATMs), point-of-sale (POS) devices at area businesses and personal digital assistants (PDAs) used by credit union staff during member visits. Entura pools credit union interests and negotiates on behalf of the international network to secure competitive rates. Credit unions that otherwise may not be able to afford such products and services gain market access through Entura, and credit union members benefit from additional services at market price. WOCCU has created a number of web-based and locally installed financial tools including its flagship PEARLS monitoring system, a set of financial ratios or indicators that help standardize terminology among institutions. The tools offer management guidance for credit unions and other savings institutions and can serve as supervisory tools for regulators.

### **Annual report**

With the 2010 Annual Report, WOCCU celebrate the strong foundation upon which World Council has been built over the past 40 years that has enabled them to stand strong in the face of this year's numerous challenges and empower credit unions worldwide to do the same. WOCCU introduced new tools and technologies to strengthen credit unions' financial performance and increase their rural outreach capacity.

### **Member services**

WOCCU advocates for credit union-appropriate legislation and regulation with governments worldwide and provides consulting services for regulatory system development and legislative reform on behalf of its members. WOCCU also tracks international credit union statistics, publishes the biannual *Credit Union World* magazine, sponsors International Credit Union Day<sup>®</sup> each October and hosts annual regional technical conferences and the World Credit Union Conference. Some WOCCU members participate in WOCCU's International Partnerships Program, which pairs credit union associations, leagues and credit unions with an overseas counterpart to exchange operational, outreach and advocacy expertise. WOCCU represents the interests of its members in nearly 60 countries. *Francisco Santos*, 2 April 2003

### **3.3 International Federation of Agricultural Producers (IFAP)**

IFAP was established in 1946 an organization that advocated on the international level member farm organizations. The organization was liquidated by the French Tribunal de Grande Instance in a judgments made on 4th November 2010, to proceed with the liquidation of IFAP after an economic and political crisis. IFAP represented over 600

million farm families grouped in 120 national organizations in 79 countries. It was a global network in which farmers from industrialized and developing countries exchanged concerns and set common priorities to advocate farmers' interests at the International level, and had General Consultative Status with the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations. Source: From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

### **3.4 International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)**

International fund for Agricultural development (IFAD) was established in 1977 by United Nations specialized Agency as an international financial Institution from the outcome of the 1974 World food conference. The conference was organized in respond to food crisis of the early 1970s that primarily affected the Rural Areas of Sub Saharan countries of Africa also the outcome of the conference was to established IFAD immediately to finance agric development projects in the developing countries.

IFAD mission is to enable poor rural people to overcome poverty.

IFAD works with the poor rural people, Government, Donors Non government organizations and many other partners to overcome poverty. It focuses on country's specific solutions which can involved increasing poor people access to financial to services market technology, land , and other natural resources.

## **4.0 CONCLUSION**

In this unit, we have learnt about the role of different international cooperative organization in promoting sustainable development around the world to empower people through reliable, affordable and access to high quality of basic needs and want proven their worth as source of assistance during crisis and recognition regardless of challenges posed by the operating environment.

## **5.0 SUMMARY**

The understanding of operations and activities of international agency involved will assist in promoting cooperation among nations and exposure for the cooperative movement for organising large-size societies and provision of State partnership and assistance.

## 6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the operations and activities of international agency involved in promoting cooperation among nations and exposure.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Birchall, Johnston. (1997), *The International Cooperative Movement*. Manchester, UK: University of Manchester Press, pp.
- David, A. S. (1998). *Essential Information on Cooperative Credit Societies (CTCS/CICS)*, Dac-print Publishers, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Daniel, H (2006), *Dictionary of Management*, Academic (India) Publishers. New Delhi. **Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.** Reference for Business.
- Furlough, Ellen, and Carl Strikwerda, eds (1999) *Consumers Against Capitalism?: Consumer Cooperation in Europe, North America, and Japan, 1840-1990* Lanham, MD:
- Lawal, K. A. A and Oludimu, O. L (2011), *Management Theory, Practices and Focus*, Asogun Published, Ibadan, Nigeria, pp.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2012) *Nigeria& International Cooperation COP216*, NOUN Course Material on WEB in Press.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A.A (2013) *Cooperative Development in Europe, America and Africa*, In Oluyombo, O. O.; *Cooperative and Microfinance Revolution*, Soma Published, Lagos, Nigeria.
- Lawal, Kamaldeen .A .A and Abdullah, T. O (2016) *Understanding Comparative Cooperative* in Press.
- Roy, E. P. (1981), *Cooperative: Development, Principles and Management*, Interstate Printers and Publishers, INC.USA pp1-110.
- Oludimu, O. L. and Adedoyin, S. F (1996). *Running a more successful cooperative*, Triumph Book Publishers, Ijebu Ode, Nigeria.
- "The Co-operative Information Superhighway." *International Cooperative Alliance (ICA)*.



(2011) Available from [www.coop.org](http://www.coop.org) . *Review of International Co-operation*, quarterly. Cooperatives - benefits.

Rowman & Littlefield, G.F Ortmann & R.P King1(*March 2007*)Agricultural Cooperatives I: History, Theory and Problems, *Agrekon*, Vol 46, No 1.