All Roads Lead to Rome:  
Canada, the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and the Rise of NGOs, 1960-1980

by

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A thesis
presented to the University of Waterloo
in fulfilment of the
thesis requirement for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
History

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2007

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Author’s Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.
Abstract

The United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization’s Freedom From Hunger Campaign was a world wide campaign to raise awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition and possible solutions to that problem. The Campaign was launched in 1960, and brought UN Agencies, governments, NGOs, private industry, and a variety of groups and individuals together in cooperation and common cause. FAO Director-General B.R. Sen used FFHC to modernize the work of international development and to help transform FAO from a technical organization into a development agency. FFHC pioneered the kinds of relationships among governments, governmental organizations, NGOs, and other organizations and agencies taken for granted today.

Canada was one of more than 100 countries to form a national FFH committee, and support for the Campaign in Canada was strong. Conditions in Canada in the 1960s favoured the kind of Campaign Sen envisioned, and the ideas underpinning FFHC resonated with an emerging Canadian nationalism in that period. The impact of FFHC can be identified in the development efforts of government, Canadian NGOs, private industries, and a variety of organizations. Significantly, the reorganization of Canada’s aid program and institutions reflected closely developments at FAO and FFHC. Participation in FFHC had important, lasting effects in Canada, and Canada made one of the strongest contributions to the Campaign.
Acknowledgements

I owe a debt of gratitude to many individuals and organizations. First, I thank the Department of History at the University of Waterloo. I have received much in terms of encouragement and support by all of the staff and faculty, and my experience at UW has been a positive one. I thank also the University of Waterloo Graduate Studies Office, particularly Penny Pudifin, Dianna MacFarlane, and Elaine Garner; your support has been invaluable.

This research depended heavily on records held by the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization. The staff at the David Lubin Memorial Library and the FAO Archives in Rome were very warm and skilful in their assistance. Thank you in particular to Chief Librarian Jane Wu (a Canadian!) and Patricia Merrikin; you were both very welcoming and your skill in navigating records at FAO is beyond comparison. Thank you also to Michelle Bergerre and Ricardo Munoz; we never met, but I understand you were very helpful. To Yolanda Gonzalo Balsima, Head of FAO Archives, and Chief Archivist Giuliano Fregoli, I owe you a great debt. Thank you for making room for Kristine and I in your offices, for your knowledge, and for your kind attention in support of this research. Merci and grazi to Phoba Dinka Maurice and Nicola Salvi for your good humour, your precious advice as we encountered the mysteries of Roman society, and for not minding our monopolization of your photocopier.

I thank also the staff at the Library and Archives Canada; the archivists have always been very friendly and helpful – even in the face of silly questions. I extend a special thank you to the good folks at the Canadian Hunger Foundation – particularly Cynthia Farrell and Tony Breuer. I appreciate your interest in this project and I thank you for your warm hospitality. I look forward to seeing what is in the rest of those boxes.

To Charles H. Weitz, thank you. Your wisdom, your insight, your incredible memory of people and events, your humour, your personal encouragement, and your friendship have meant a great deal to me. To Hans Dall and Victoria Bawtree I am also indebted; without you this research would be diminished, and I have enjoyed our discussions and correspondences very much. Thanks also to Walter Simons who submitted his own personal documents to the stormy seas of the international postal system – thank you Walter for this and for your keen recollections and advice.

To Dr. Irene Sage I owe a special debt. Thank you Irene for sharing this research with me, and thank you for going to Rome and excavating the FFHC tomb. Dr. Ken McLaughlin, I appreciate the strength of your support for me over the last ‘few’ years, and it was on your advice that I decided to pursue a PhD. To Dr. John English, I express my deepest thanks and sincere appreciation for the years of guidance and mentorship. Your advice has always been frank, and has invariably helped me improve as a historian and as a person.
Finally, I would like to thank my family. To my parents, Noelle and Gary, who have always assumed that their children can achieve any thing, I am eternally grateful. To my sister Rebecca, thanks for putting up with me on those research trips to Ottawa. To my sister Mary, thanks for being polite enough to let me finish my dissertation first. To my partner Kristine I owe the greatest debt of all. Kristine, you have always been a staunch ally, enthusiastic supporter, and a loving partner. Without you this dissertation would not have been possible.
For Kristine
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>Administrative Coordinating Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>American Medical Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Appropriate Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>C+1</td>
<td>Canada Plus One Project</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFFHC</td>
<td>Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHF</td>
<td>Canadian Hunger Foundation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIBC</td>
<td>Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce</td>
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<tr>
<td>CICC</td>
<td>Canadian Council for International Cooperation</td>
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<td>CIDA</td>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIDP</td>
<td>Centennial International Development Program</td>
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<td>CIFT</td>
<td>Canadian Institute of Food Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFTRI</td>
<td>Central Food Technological Research Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CUSO</td>
<td>Canadian University Service Overseas</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEEP</td>
<td>Development Education Exchange Papers</td>
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<tr>
<td>EAO</td>
<td>External Aid Office</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECOSOC</td>
<td>United Nations Economic and Social Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>EEC</td>
<td>European Economic Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>ETAP</td>
<td>Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>FFHC</td>
<td>Freedom From Hunger Campaign</td>
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<tr>
<td>FFHC/AD</td>
<td>Freedom From Hunger Campaign/Action for Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>FFHC/FAO</td>
<td>Freedom From Hunger Campaign Secretariat, Rome</td>
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<td>FFHY</td>
<td>Freedom From Hunger Year</td>
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<tr>
<td>GATT</td>
<td>General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<tr>
<td>IAEA</td>
<td>International Atomic Energy Association</td>
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<td>IBRD</td>
<td>International Bank of Reconstruction and Development</td>
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<td>ICP</td>
<td>Industry Cooperative Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICS</td>
<td>Indian Civil Service</td>
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<td>ICY</td>
<td>International Cooperation Year</td>
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<td>IDRC</td>
<td>International Development and Resource Centre</td>
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<td>IFC</td>
<td>International Finance Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>INGO</td>
<td>International Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>IWP</td>
<td>Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>LDC</td>
<td>Less Developed Country</td>
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<tr>
<td>MF</td>
<td>Massey-Fergusson</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTU</td>
<td>Mobile Training Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>NNGO</td>
<td>National Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>OAS</td>
<td>Organization of American States</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>OXFAM</td>
<td>Oxford Committee for Famine Relief</td>
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<td>PPP</td>
<td>Public Private Partnership</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUNFED</td>
<td>Special United Nations Aid Fund for Economic Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>Transnational Corporation</td>
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<tr>
<td>UAR</td>
<td>United Arab Republic</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCTAD</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNKRA</td>
<td>United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNRRA</td>
<td>United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNWFC</td>
<td>United Nations World Food Conference</td>
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<td>UNWRA</td>
<td>United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees</td>
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<tr>
<td>UPU</td>
<td>Universal Postal Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>WAY</td>
<td>World Assembly of Youth</td>
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<td>WFB</td>
<td>World Fellowship of Buddhists</td>
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<td>WFC</td>
<td>World Food Congress</td>
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<td>WFC-1</td>
<td>First World Food Congress</td>
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<td>World Jewish Congress</td>
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<td>WMO</td>
<td>World Meteorological Association</td>
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<td>WUS</td>
<td>World University Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>WUSC</td>
<td>World University Service of Canada</td>
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<tr>
<td>YWA</td>
<td>Young World Assembly</td>
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<tr>
<td>YWDP</td>
<td>Young World Development Project</td>
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All Roads Lead to Rome:
Canada, the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and the Rise of NGOs, 1960-1980

One man’s hunger is every man’s hunger – one man’s freedom from hunger is neither a free nor a secure freedom until all men are free from hunger.

John Donne

Introduction: Freedom From Hunger

The story of the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization’s (FAO) Freedom From Hunger Campaign (FFHC) is one of reform, innovation, and urgency. FFHC was the brainchild of FAO Director-General B.R. Sen who perceived in the late 1950s that the problem of hunger and malnutrition was much more vast and urgent than anyone had imagined. He further understood that FAO and its member countries were unprepared to combat that problem. Sen believed that only a sustained, global effort had a hope of solving the problem of hunger and malnutrition and created FFHC to encourage and support such a movement. The Campaign had three components: research, information/education, and action.¹ These components supported the most basic function

¹These were also known as the three ‘legs’ or ‘fronts’ of the Campaign. The Report of the World Food Congress offers a good description of the three “fronts” of FFHC: The Information and Education front: to promote better knowledge and understanding of the problem of hunger and malnutrition, to create a general awareness of the magnitude and complexity of the problems involved, and to enlist through appropriate studies and public information media world wide support for the objectives of the Campaign. The Research front: to intensify the search for solutions to problems of agricultural development in individual countries and regions, and through applied research to provide a sound basis for national programs of agricultural and economic development, and for planning specific projects to supplement and intensify existing programs. The Action front: to develop specific projects in individual countries to speed up agricultural production, and to increase the purchasing power of the groups most seriously in need of more and better food. FAO, Report of the World Food Congress, Washington, D.C, 4 to 18 June 1963 (Rome: FAO, 1963), 5.
of the Campaign: to serve as a publicity and information tool to raise awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition in order to stimulate action.²

The Campaign was an essential precursor to the modern international development movement. FFHC was designed to engender a greater degree of cooperation by actors in international development, particularly in bringing non-governmental organizations (NGOs)³ into greater cooperation and partnership with governments and UN Agencies. Prior to the launch of FFHC in 1960, there were only a handful of NGOs working in cooperation with FAO and other UN Agencies, and the level of coordination among them was low. The Freedom From Hunger Campaign created a situation in which cooperation and information sharing was not only common, but viewed as essential in the fight against hunger and malnutrition. Significantly, Sen also used FFHC as a tool to help transform FAO from a technical organization into a development agency. In the context of the Green Revolution⁴ and a growing movement toward humanitarian internationalism⁵ in the world, and a well established, global network of which the centre was FAO, FFHC was well positioned to achieve its objective.⁶

For Canada, the story of FFHC is one of ideas, action, and nationalism. An examination of FFHC in Canada provides insight into the Canadian experience with

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³ In the late 1950s and early 1960s, FAO referred to international non-governmental organizations as “INGOs,” and national non-governmental organizations were alternately referred to as “NNGOs” and “NGOs.” By the mid-1960s, “NGO” was generally used at FAO to describe both national and international non-governmental organizations.
⁴ The Green Revolution refers to the sweeping advances in agricultural and biological science in the 1960s; these advances included the development of high-yield, specialized seeds and crops.
⁵ In this dissertation, ‘humanitarian internationalism’ refers to the belief that wealthy nations had an obligation to assist their less fortunate counterparts in other parts of the world, and that this would contribute to the overall well being of humanity.
⁶ To raise awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition in the world and possible solutions to that problem.
international development assistance and in to the development of Canadian cultural and national identity in the 1960s and 1970s. Through FFHC, Canadian officials, business and organization leaders, professionals, and private citizens were brought together in unprecedented levels of cooperation. Together, they were a part of a global network and at the root of a worldwide movement, and their cooperation was a founding model for official and voluntary aid policies and activities in Canada. The informational and promotional efforts of FFHC were an important source of information on the social and economic condition of humanity for Canadians.

After the Second World War, Canada entered a phase of prolonged cultural and political transformation. A part of this process was a growing movement toward what political scientist Cranford Pratt called “humanitarian internationalism.” Canada was instrumental in the creation of the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization, was a founding member of the Colombo Plan for Cooperative Economic Development in South and South East Asia, and Canada was involved in a host of Commonwealth and United Nations development initiatives. As a percentage of GDP, aid contributions rose steadily from 0.08% in 1949/50 to a peak of 0.53% in 1974/75, and by the 1960s Canada operated official development assistance (ODA) programs in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean. Public support of ODA remained modest until the 1960s, but throughout the 1960s and 1970s Canadians became increasingly supportive of

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7 Pratt described this as “an acceptance that the citizens and governments of the industrialized world have ethical responsibilities towards those beyond their borders who are suffering and who live in abject poverty.” Cranford Pratt, “Middle Power Internationalism and Global Poverty,” in Cranford Pratt ed., Middle Power Internationalism: The North South Dimension (Kingston: McGill-Queen’s University Press, 1990), 5.

government aid, and tens of thousands of individual Canadians were involved in a wide variety of development activities at home and abroad.

In Canada, a community of individuals working in the field of international development moved among Government Agencies and Departments, organizations such as the Canadian Hunger Foundation (CHF), the Canadian Council for International Cooperation (CCIC), the Canadian University Service Overseas (CUSO), other development NGOs, and agro-allied and other food related industries. This situation was highly conducive to a cross-contamination of ideas, and the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee (CFFHC), which later became the Canadian Hunger Foundation (CHF)\(^9\), provided an important link for the communication of ideas between CFFHC/CHF and the international FFHC. Moreover, Canada’s close relationship to FAO allowed for a similar transfer of ideas. Director-General Sen used FFHC to pioneer cooperation with NGOs, private industry, and youth, and by 1966 FAO had well developed programs in coordination with these groups. After 1967, Canada expanded and reorganized its aid programs and institutions, and implemented its own NGO and industry programs. By the late 1960s Canadian private industries had been directly involved in international development efforts in Canada and overseas for a decade.\(^10\)

Furthermore, FFHC became popularly well known in Canada. International events such as the First World Food Congress and the Young World Assembly were well known in Canada; Canadians undertook numerous publicity and action projects,\(^11\) and the many of

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\(^9\) The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee operated from 1961 to 1965, and in 1964 the Canadian Hunger Foundation was created to continue the work of CFFHC. It continues to operate today.

\(^10\) A prominent example is Massey-Fergusson of Canada which cooperated directly with FAO and with Canadian Government Departments and NGOs as early as 1962.

\(^11\) Miles for Millions (sometimes referred to as Walks for Development), Share-a-Loaf Coin Cards, and Write off Hunger are good examples of this.
the development education materials used in Canadian schools and libraries were
produced by CHF and FAO. Public support for international development, supported by
the Centennial International Development Programme (CIDP), had coalesced around
Canada’s Centennial Celebrations and Expo ’67, and Canadians increasingly believed
that national security was best achieved through international development and peace-
keeping.12

Throughout the 1960s, a number of Government officials had direct association
with CHF and FFHC. Notable among these were Lester Pearson and Mitchell Sharp.
Pearson had a close history with FAO, and he personally endorsed FFHC and attended
Campaign meetings and events.13 Mitchell Sharp was the inaugural Chair of the
Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee, and though he stepped down as
Chair after he became Minister of Trade and Commerce in 1963, he maintained close
contact with the CFFHC/CHF for over three decades.14 Ministers of government
departments, usually from the Department of Agriculture and Department External
Affairs, either sat on the CHF board or cooperated directly with the Committee on
Development Projects. A number of individuals associated with the Campaign were
consulted or employed by the new Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)
and later the International Development Research Centre (IDRC).15 The influence of

12 See David R. Morrison Aid and Ebb Tide: A History of CIDA and Canadian Development Assistance
(Waterloo: Wilfrid Laurier University Press, 1998), 1-3. See also “The Way to Peace: Views of 1,000
Canadians” in The Globe and Mail (Friday, 13 November, 1963), 7.
13 In addition to personal contacts with Campaign organizers and officials in Canada and at FAO, Pearson
launched a Hunger Week in support of the First World Food Congress, cooperated personally with youth
and youth organizations in relation to the Young World Mobilization Appeal, the Young World Assembly,
and the Canadian Young World Food and Development Project, and he gave a keynote address at the
Second World Food Congress.
14 Sharp was Honorary Chair of the Canadian Hunger Foundation at the time of his death in 2004.
15 CIDA and IDRC were founded in 1968 and 1970 respectively. A notable example of an individual
associated with FFHC becoming involved in CIDA and IDRC is former CHF Chair Joseph Hulse. Hulse
CHF and FFHC on federal government officials in the Department of Agriculture and at CIDA and IDRC diminished in the 1970s as Canadian agencies and officials became more experienced and more powerful, and as the Campaign moved from a focus on publicity to a focus on action. However, in the Second Development Decade and beyond, CHF and FFHC continued to play important roles in Canadian development efforts, was a pioneer in the development of what became known as appropriate technology, and was an important part of broader efforts in development education.

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign had a profound impact on Canada. Canadians were sympathetic to the ideas underpinning the Campaign, and public support for voluntary and official aid rose in the latter half of the 1960s and early 1970s.16 Moreover, at the time of the Campaign, Canada was experiencing the rise of a new kind of nationalism, and some of the ideas underpinning FFHC became bound to that nationalism.17 As Brian K. Murphy noted, Canada had a well developed voluntary sector of which international NGOs were only a small part.18 FFHC in Canada served to unify a broad but disparate voluntary movement in Canada, and contributed directly to a proliferation of Canadian NGOs and a corresponding increase in the number of ‘voluntary’ overseas projects.19 The influence of FFHC was evident in public discussion

had been Director of Research at Maple Leaf Mills during his term as Chair of CHF, and in 1967 was appointed head of the Food Science and Technology Branch at FAO. He returned to Canada as an Advisor in food technology to the President of CIDA, Maurice Strong, and in 1971 became Vice-President of Research Programs at IDRC.

16 Morrison, 2.

17 Examples include the belief that the problem of hunger and malnutrition was a direct threat to international security, the idea that peoples across the world could work together to solve these kinds of problems, and that solutions lay in intellectual and scientific advancement.


19 As we will see in Chapters Five and Six, some voluntary projects received Government support. Support came in the form of direct financial assistance, in administrative and logistical support, and in the loan or gift of equipment and other supplies.
on international development, in the practices of NGOs and private industry, in educational curricula, and in official policy. The contributions of Canada to the campaign were significant, and through FFHC Canada’s contributions to international development were enhanced.

**The Significance of FFHC**

Despite its significance, there have been no major comprehensive studies of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign either internationally or in Canada. Internationally, the Campaign was at the foundation of the modern international development movement, and pioneered the kind of partnerships between government, UN Agencies, and NGOs taken for granted today. In Canada, FFHC was central to an understanding of the problem of hunger and malnutrition, and through FFHC Canadian government, NGOs, private industries, individuals, and groups of all kinds were mobilized. The Campaign was unique in its ability to connect with a very broad swath of people and organizations in Canada and around the world. The influence of FFHC on Canada is impossible to ignore.

This dissertation explores the origins and intellectual foundations upon which the Freedom From Hunger Campaign was built, emphasising its innovative character and its global scope. The dissertation also details the reciprocal impacts between the FFHC and Canada and highlights the Canadian experience as part of a larger movement. In doing so, it makes a contribution to the relatively thin historiography of Canadian development efforts in the 1960s and 1970s.
The literature on Canadian international development assistance tends to focus on ‘official’ policy and the objectives of the government or government officials formulating that policy. In 1966 Keith Spicer’s *A Samaritan State? External Aid in Canada’s Foreign Policy* offered a comprehensive study of Canada’s aid policy. Spicer explored the development of Canada’s official aid regime in its first decade and a half and noted that official aid policy was a driven by “trilogy of aims” which blended humanitarian, political, and economic good. Spicer looked closely at the influence of humanitarianism on Canadian aid policy; he concluded that:

Philanthropy is plainly no more than a fickle and confused policy stimulant, derived exclusively from the personal conscience. It is not an objective of government. Love for mankind is a virtue of the human heart, an emotion which can stir only individuals – never bureaucracies or institutions. Governments exist only to promote the public good; and, as a result, they must act purely in the selfish interest of the state they serve. Altruism as foreign policy is a misnomer, even if sometimes the fruits of policy are incidentally beneficial to foreigners. To talk of humanitarian “aims” in Canadian foreign policy is, in fact, to confuse policy with the ethics of those moulding it, to mix objectives with personal motives.

In his thorough study of the Canadian International Development Agency, *Aid and Ebb Tide: A History of CIDA and Canadian Development Assistance*, David Morrison also cited the “trilogy of aims” as motives for official aid, and, like Spicer, provided an analysis of official aid policy and development activities relating to the work of

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21 Ibid., 11.
government.22 The focus on official policy is not surprising; the vast majority of Canadian aid in the post-war era was delivered by government, and government aid efforts are easily measured. Cranford Pratt looked at the factors which drove popular support for external aid and which influenced the personal motivations of policy makers. Pratt described a “humane internationalism”, sometimes referred to as “humanitarian internationalism”, in which Canadians felt a responsibility for the welfare of those beyond their borders.23

A number of studies address Canada’s experience with ‘food aid’ and the relation of Canadian agricultural exports to foreign policy. As Mark Charlton noted in The Making of Canadian Food Aid Policy, it is impossible to separate agricultural exports from Canadian foreign policy. In the 1950s and 1960s Canada and the United States controlled between 60 and 70% of the world’s wheat exports, and both countries faced problems of agricultural surplus disposal.24 The result was strong Canadian support for emergency food relief efforts, such as the World Food Programme. John Shaw noted that an important formative period for Canadian food aid policies was during the so called

‘world food crisis’ of the early 1970s and after the 1974 UN World Food Conference.\textsuperscript{25} The 1960s and 1970s were an important periods for the development of non-governmental organizations in Canada and abroad. In \textit{Global Community: The Role of International Organizations in the Making of the Contemporary World}, Akira Iriye described a situation in the post-war years which favoured a proliferation of NGOs.\textsuperscript{26} As Iriye and others have noted, in Canada and elsewhere, NGOs reached new levels of sophistication and influence in the 1970s, and in this period were recognized actors in the Canadian political system.\textsuperscript{27} It is sometimes difficult to generalize about the role of NGOs in the work of international development; as Leon Gordenker and Thomas Weiss noted, NGOs are bound to a complex set of circumstances and are highly heterogeneous in nature.\textsuperscript{28} Elizabeth Riddell-Dixon observed in \textit{The Domestic Mosaic} that, in addition to the variety of NGOs operating in Canada (and internationally), the interests of NGOs are as heterogeneous as their nature.\textsuperscript{29} In \textit{Canada and the Beijing Conference on Women}, Riddell-Dixon explored complex set of circumstances surrounding NGO interactions with, and influences on, Canadian policy development.\textsuperscript{30} Here we see a situation in which NGOs and government officials were partnered within a larger process, and where

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{25} John Shaw, “Reassessing Food Aid’s Roles for Food Security & Structural Adjustment” in John Shaw and Edward Clay, eds. (\textit{World Food Aid: Experiences of Recipients and Donors}. Rome: World Food Programme, 1993), 156.
\item \textsuperscript{26} Akira Iriye, \textit{Global Community: The Role of International Organizations in the Making of the Contemporary World} (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002), 8-10. See also Brian K. Murphy, “Canadian NGOs and the Politics of Participation” in Jamie Swift and Brian Tomlinson eds., \textit{Conflicts of Interest: Canada and the Third World} (Toronto: Between the Lines, 1991), 161-211.
\item \textsuperscript{28} Leon Gordenker and Thomas G. Weiss, “NGO Participation in the International Policy Process” in Gordenker, Leon, and Thomas G. Weiss, eds. \textit{NGOs, the UN, and Global Governance}. (London: Lynne Rienner, 1996), 209.
\item \textsuperscript{29} Elizabeth Riddell-Dixon, \textit{The Domestic Mosaic: Domestic Groups and Canadian Foreign Policy} (Toronto: Canadian Institute of International Affairs, 1985), 65-67.
\item \textsuperscript{30} Elizabeth Riddell-Dixon, \textit{Canada and the Beijing Conference on Women: Governmental Politics and NGO Participation} (Toronto: UBC, 2001).
\end{itemize}
each of these parties understood that cooperation at Beijing was itself a part of a long-term engagement between the governmental and voluntary sectors.

Taken together, these studies describe a situation which favoured a proliferation in the number of NGOs and a corresponding rise in their influence. David Lumsdaine opened *Moral Vision in International Politics* with the question: “Is constructive Change in the international system possible?” His answer is ‘yes,’ and his sentiment is echoed in many of the works cited above. In Canada and elsewhere, NGOs emerged in the 1960s and 1970s as a permanent feature of the international community. This dissertation explores one of the ways in which the emergence of NGOs was brought about.

**Overview**

This dissertation is written in two parts. The first addresses the origins, nature, and activities of the international Freedom From Hunger Campaign. The second, a case study, describes the expression of the Campaign in Canada. The focus is on the years between the launch of FFHC in 1960 until the end of its second decade. This was a formative period for Canada and for international development generally, and the bulk of the work of the Campaign was undertaken in this period. The first three chapters explore the conditions which gave rise to the Campaign, the broad level of support for this kind of an effort, and some of the central mechanisms by which the Campaign message was

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32 Major Campaign activities had ended by the end of the 1970s, and the Campaign was officially shut down in the early 1980s. Some of elements of the Campaign, such as the *Ideas and Action Bulletin*, survived at FAO until 1989. Some initiatives originating in FFHC became independent entities, some of which survive, and a number of the national committees continue to operate.
disseminated and discussed. The final three chapters compose the argument that conditions in Canada favoured the kind of Campaign Sen envisioned, that the ideas underpinning the Campaign resonated with an emerging Canadian nationalism and cultural identity. Canadians’ growing sense of place in the world resulted in a broad level of support for FFHC and a high degree of sensitivity to its influence. The influence of the Campaign can be identified in Canadian voluntary efforts and in public policy, and the Government of Canada (largely through CIDA) continues to maintain a relationship with the Canadian Hunger Foundation.33

Part One: the Freedom From Hunger Campaign

We begin with an examination of FAO Director-General B.R. Sen’s inspiration for the Campaign and the steps he took to get it underway. Sen arrived at FAO in 1956 with the idea for a world campaign against hunger already in his mind. He believed that the key to a successful fight against hunger and malnutrition lay in bringing non-governmental organizations, governments, and UN Agencies into close cooperation. By the time of the Campaign launch on 1 July, 1960, Sen had already achieved success in fostering the kind of cooperation he had hoped for; representatives from the groups and agencies listed above worked with each other to develop a design and mandate for Sen’s campaign, and cooperated in its launch and operation.

This chapter traces the development of Sen’s idea, noting that even at this early stage, the Director-General viewed the Campaign as a means to modernize international development and to transform FAO from a technical organization into a development

33 After 2004, the Canadian Hunger Foundation changed its name to CHF: Partners in Rural Development.
agency. Sen understood that FAO itself could not solve the problem of hunger and malnutrition, but it could act as a catalyst and focal point for action and discussion. He perceived a growing movement toward activism and what Cranford Pratt called ‘humanitarian internationalism’\(^\text{34}\) in the world, and he capitalized on that movement.

The Director-General’s leadership was critical to the success of the Campaign. Sen came to FAO from the vast bureaucracy of the Indian Civil Service (ICS) and experience as an ambassador for India, and from these experiences he gained a deep understanding of institutional bureaucracy and of international diplomacy. He used FFHC to break down barriers within FAO and between FAO and outside partners. Sen put FAO and its member nations to work collecting data for the *Third World Food Survey* and the Basic Studies – a process which required a new level of communication among FAO departments, and between FAO and governments. Moreover, Sen understood that as information became available and the face of the hunger problem was revealed, people and institutions would be moved to action. The Director-General kept the FFHC Secretariat within his own personal offices, he mentioned the Campaign in virtually every public appearance he made, and he raised the issue regularly in his personal contacts.

Sen took very specific steps to get the Campaign underway: he secured the support of governments at ECOSOC and FAO Council, he brought NGOs, governments and FAO together to plan, and by the time of the Campaign launch, initiatives such as the *Third World Food Survey* and the Basic Studies were already underway. From its earliest

\(^{34}\) This movement is also described as “internationalism” or “humane internationalism”. See Akira Iriye, *Global Community: the Role of International Organizations in the Making of the Contemporary World* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002), 9; and Olav Stokke, “Determinants of Aid Policies: Introduction” in *Western Middle Powers and Global Poverty: The Determinants of the Aid Policies of Canada, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden*, Olav Stokke ed. (Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies and the Norwegian Institute of International Affairs, 1989), 10.
origins the Campaign required a broad level of cooperation, and was forward looking in character. Because FFHC reached a very broad audience and was as receptive to ideas as it was pioneering of them, the Campaign both supported, and was carried forward by the movement Sen had identified.

Chapter Two describes FFHC as a world-wide movement. The Campaign enjoyed the participation of FAO and other UN Specialized Agencies, governments, NGOs, private industry, individuals, and religious, youth, and other groups. Participation at the launch of the Campaign consisted largely of FAO, UN Specialized Agencies, NGOs, and a handful of national committees, but it would broaden steadily throughout the decade. The Campaign culminated in the First World Food Congress in 1963, which brought together the Campaign participants to review the world food situation and develop possible lines of action. The Congress was a turning point in the work of international development and in many ways represents the beginning of the modern development era.35

Sen had correctly perceived that support for a world campaign against hunger was broadly based and growing. FAO, governments, and NGOs were critical to the organization and operation of the Campaign, but its backbone was the national committees. It was here that the vast bulk of the work of FFHC was undertaken, and it was in national committees that many of the diverse Campaign participants cooperated in an on-going process. The FFHC Secretariat in Rome was the centre of the Campaign and

35 After this point we see a rise in the number of development NGOs and international agencies, geometric increases in the amount of data on the economic and social conditions of the world’s populations, and a significant rise in aid allocations by developed countries. This period also witnessed nationalist and independence movements throughout Africa and Asia, and the UN and its Specialized Agencies swelled with new members. This period was characterized by an unprecedented level of cooperation in the work of international development, and a modernization of aid practices.
its international voice. FFHC/FAO was a main point of contact for Campaign participants, and it this secretariat that coordinated and advertised the campaign around the world. At its peak the Campaign claimed more than 100 national committees in developed and developing countries, and the enthusiasm and heterogeneity of their participation was a primary reason for the success of FFHC.

A key goal of the Campaign was to increase the profile of NGOs in the work of international development. A heterogeneous approach also prevailed amongst this group, and here we see the mobilization of substantial material and financial resources in support of the Campaign and its objectives. Sen used FFHC to speak directly to hundreds of NGOs, and through them he reached the tens of thousands of NGOs not directly connected to FAO. FFHC enjoyed the participation and support of all of the major religions and of organizations related to them. FFHC objectives were consistent with the ideas underpinning religious doctrine, and, particularly in the case of the Catholic Church, support for the Campaign was enthusiastic despite some ideological conflicts with the practices endorsed by FAO and FFHC.36

Youth emerged in the 1960s as a voice in international development, and FFHC and FAO helped give rise to that voice. Sen was deliberate in his attempts to cooperate with and support youth in development, and under the auspices of FFHC, organized the Young World Appeal and the Young World Assembly. WAY and the Assembly allowed youth to speak directly to officials at the highest levels of FAO and its member governments. In this way FFHC helped identify youth as a group, and after this point, youth rallied together to lobby and successfully influence international events such as the

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36 FAO endorsed family planning practices, including (especially) the use of birth control in developing countries. The Catholic Church objected officially to this position, but working relations with FAO and FFHC remained close.
Second World Food Congress and the 1974 United Nations World Food Conference. Sen was inspired by an existing youth movement, and did his best to facilitate and coordinate that movement. Prominent and influential individuals of all kinds supported and participated in the Campaign, and Campaign organizers in Rome and in the national committees placed a high priority on their support.

The FFHC Secretariat had one main objective: to advertise and educate the world on the problem of hunger and malnutrition and possible solutions to that problem. Chapter Three looks at several of the ways in which FFHC/FAO accomplished this task. Among the most important functions of FFHC/FAO was the production of informational and education materials. Some materials produced by FFHC/FAO were designed to foster communication and information sharing among Campaign participants. FFHC/FAO also produced materials designed for consumption by a general audience. Priorities in this area were on advertising the basic message of the Campaign, and on producing informational and educational materials. As the centre of a world wide Campaign, FFHC/FAO was able to reach all corners of the world, and material produced or packaged in Rome was reproduced and distributed by Campaign partners. Campaign material was incorporated into the educational and publicity efforts of individual national committees and other participants, and by means of FFHC materials, ideas, and information flowed among and between Campaign partners.

The First and Second World Food Congresses brought people together to plan for action. The First World Food Congress (WFC-1) was an important turning point in international development. The Congress was held in Washington D.C. in 1963, and brought together more than 1200 participants from UN Agencies, governments, NGOs,
organizations, and private individuals to review the world food situation, discuss the problem of hunger and malnutrition, and develop possible lines of action. Participants attended at the personal invitation of the Director-General, and though many were invited because of affiliation to a government or institution, each individual attended in their own personal capacities and did not represent the interests of their government or institution. Together, the publicity materials and the Campaign events gave a face to FFHC. Through these initiatives FFHC was able to reach a global audience, and that audience was able to make itself heard.

Participation in the Campaign was broad, and FFHC became the site for cooperation by groups and individuals from all parts of the social and political spectrum. Chapter Four examines the role of private industry and youth in the Campaign. These two groups were both enthusiastic in their support of the Campaign, and FFHC was a site where they were brought together in close and unprecedented cooperation. This chapter will examine FAO’s efforts to reach out to youth and industry, and the resulting contributions of these groups to FFHC and international development. A look at this intersection also provides a fascinating view of Canadian society in this period as it allows a discussion of the role of FFHC in Canada which is not limited to the activities of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee/Canadian Hunger Foundation. A closer examination of the national FFHC committee in Canada is undertaken in Chapters Five and Six.

Director-General Sen actively sought to “piggy back” on the growing youth movements of the 1960s.37 He believed that involving youth in positive action in international development would ameliorate the potential for disruptive behaviour.

Under the auspices of FFHC, FAO launched the Young World Mobilization Appeal (YWA) in 1965, and FFHC supported youth in an assortment of development projects and at international events. In Canada, preparatory conferences were held prior to the YWA, World Assembly of Youth (WAY), and the Second World Food Congress, and in 1966-1967 FFHC/FAO cooperated with Massey-Fergusson of Canada in the Canadian Young World Food and Development Project. Linkages with youth for FAO and for Canada continued in the Second Development Decade.

For FAO, youth in developed and developing countries were a growing influence; in Canada, youth groups were increasingly sophisticated in their development practices in their ability to lobby government and other organizations. FFHC also attracted the interest of agro-allied and other food industries. FFHC/FAO partnership with industry took the form of cooperative efforts like those listed above, and under the umbrella of FFHC Sen created formal programs to coordinate a broader level of industry participation. Based on the recommendation of Commission IV of the First World Food Congress, and under the auspices of FFHC, Sen launched the Cooperative Programme of Agro-Allied Industries and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, commonly known as the FAO Industry Cooperative Programme or ICP. Programs such as ICP recognized that trans-national corporations and large agro-allied industries were profit driven and exploitative in character, and were designed to improve that situation. Through ICP, Sen was able to harness the managerial ability, technical know-how, scientific experience, and capital resources of the leading industries

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38 This kind of cooperation was rampant at the national level, and the following two chapters will discuss that situation in Canada.
39 ICP was not properly a part of FFHC and operated according to its own methods and objectives. It is included in this discussion because of its importance for Canada, and because it represents the kind of innovation FFHC was designed to inspire.
in Europe and North America. Governments in developing countries were able to look to programs like ICP to improve their relations with these industries.  

**Part Two: FFHC in Canada**

Part Two of this study looks at Canada as a site for the expression of FFHC at a national level. These chapters compose the argument that conditions in Canada favoured the kind of campaign Sen envisioned, that the ideas underpinning the Campaign resonated with an emerging Canadian nationalism and cultural identity, and that these circumstances resulted in a broad level of support for FFHC and a high degree of sensitivity to its influence. Canada also made important contributions to the international FFHC, and Canada was the site of a number of important innovations with global implications. Support for international development and for FFHC coalesced around Canada’s Centennial Celebrations and Expo ’67. FFHC was a point of convergence for interest in international development and the development of an outward looking, humanitarian nationalism in Canada. As a result, the influence of the Campaign can be identified in popular attitudes, in educational efforts, in the work of NGOs and private industries, and in official policy.

Chapter Five explores the development of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee/Canadian Hunger Foundation in the First Development Decade. Canada was one of 45 nations which came together in Quebec City in 1945 to set up the United

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41 It was at Expo ’67 the French President Charles de Gaulle made his famous remark: "Vive Montréal...Vive le Québec...Vive le Québec Libre!" As we see in the first chapters of this study, de Gaulle was a strong supporter of FFHC.
Nations Food and Agricultural Organization, and Canadian involvement in official
development assistance (ODA) began in earnest in 1950 with the inception of the
Colombo Plan for Economic Development in South and South East Asia. By the 1960s,
however, conditions were changing and both official and popular interest in aid reached
new heights. At this time, FFHC was launched, and a Canadian national FFH committee
was formed. From its outset, the Canadian committee was one of the strongest of all the
FFH committees, and CHF was an important, innovative presence in Canadian
development efforts. In the 1960s CHF was an important coordinating mechanism for
government and a number of development NGOs, and CHF was a pioneer in the
development of what would become known as Appropriate Technology (AT). The
Canadian Hunger Foundation was directly associated with a variety of influential
individuals, including policy makers such as Lester Pearson and Mitchell Sharp, industry
leaders such as Albert A. Thornbrough (Massey-Fergusson Canada) and George McIvor
(Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce), and a host of others. Leading Canadian
companies directly supported CHF, and in some cases, the number of individual
companies supporting a CHF initiative or project numbered in the hundreds.

The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee/Canadian Hunger Foundation
enjoyed early and broad support. Canadian support for FFHC originated in Canada’s
support of Sen’s proposals for a world campaign against hunger to ECOSOC and FAO
Council in 1958 and 1959, and the government of Canada initiated and supported the
development of a Canadian committee.42 Representatives from the Department of
Agriculture, NGOs, private industry, and religious and voluntary organizations attended

42 The Government of Canada loaned CFFHC some personnel and the use of the offices of the department
of Agriculture, and provided direct capital assistance until 1963.
the earliest organizational meetings. By 1960, more than fifty voluntary organizations offered financial and other kinds of support, and the Canadian committee undertook involvement in a major project to develop a food technology training centre in Mysore India. CHF grew in the context of a proliferation of Canadian non-governmental and voluntary organizations; like the Campaign itself, it capitalized on existing movements and trends, and contributed to their proliferation. Two major successes of CHF in the 1960s were the Canada-Mysore Project, and the Canada+One Project. These efforts focussed on eliminating food wastage, and were early examples of the practice of appropriate technology. Canada-Mysore and Canada+One had positive, lasting effects on developing countries, and they had a significant influence on the direction the Foundation would take in its second decade.43

The final chapter of this study looks at a second decade of FFHC in Canada and discusses the implications of a profound shift in FFHC priorities under its new Director-General, Addeke H. Boerma. Changes at FAO were accompanied by changes in Canada’s official aid program, and FFHC and CHF encountered a new set of circumstances. CHF’s response to evolving circumstances in the late 1960s and early 1970s was to shift its focus away from its role as a servicing agency to other NGOs and toward more direct involvement in overseas projects. The changes at FFHC/FAO are important to this discussion because they remind us that the work of CHF in Canada was conducted in the context of a global network of which the centre was in Rome.

At the same moment that FAO was reorienting itself, Canada undertook a thorough review and reorganization of aid policy and the institutions which delivered aid.

43 The Food Technology Training Centre at Mysore continues to operate today and is a major research and training institute.
For FAO, changes in the late 1960s continued a process of reform initiated by Director-General Sen, and for Canada, expansion and reorganization followed an earlier expansion of programs under the Diefenbaker government. This chapter includes a comparison of the reforms undertaken by Sen at FAO and those undertaken by Maurice Strong and the Department of External Affairs in the late 1960s. The approaches to reform were quite different, but the objectives were similar. At FAO, Director-General Sen had wanted to improve FAO and move FAO forward as a development agency. In Canada, Strong wanted to modernize and expand institutions that were not suited to the conditions of the 1970s. In Canada and at FAO, the proliferation of information on the social and economic conditions of humanity and the development of modern development practices precipitated and necessitated change.

The Canadian Hunger Foundation responded to these changing circumstances by incorporating itself in 1971 as a charitable organization under the Canada Corporations Act; this allowed the organization to undertake more direct involvement in overseas projects. CHF adopted the principles and guidelines of the new Freedom From Hunger Campaign/Action for Development (FFHC/AD), and continued to do the work of the Campaign in Canada. However, CHF became increasingly dependent on the newly

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44 Beginning in 1958, the Government of John Diefenbaker developed and implemented expanded programs of economic and technical assistance in Francophone Africa, South-East Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean.

45 Later, Boerma wanted to implement his own changes at FAO, notably, he wanted to introduce his Five Areas of Concentration. These were: extending the use of high-yield cereals; closing the protein gap; eliminating waste; mobilizing more effectively human resources; and promoting foreign exchange earnings and savings in developing countries.

minted Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and less so on FAO in project work.

Meanwhile, CHF was growing more independent in character. In the 1970s, CHF became a leader in the field of appropriate technology, and developed the *Appropriate Technology Handbook* – a document which very quickly was in high demand around the world. An increased emphasis on projects was accompanied by expanded development education efforts. CHF was pioneering in its efforts to educate populations in developed and developing countries, and CHF continued to be a primary source of information on the social and economic condition of humanity. Materials produced by CHF, or those produced by FAO and disseminated through CHF, were an important source for Canadian development education efforts. CHF experiences in AT led to the “Tools for Development” project, through which CHF applied the concept of Appropriate Technology to a wide variety of action projects.

The two-part approach to this study is necessary in order to accurately describe the Canadian experience with FFHC. Part one provides an overview of some of the key aspects of the Campaign in order that the Canadian experience with FFHC can be understood in terms of a global movement and a world wide network. Part two is then able to describe the expression of FFHC in Canada and a case study of one of the most successful FFHC national operations. This discussion focuses on key aspects of the Campaign and the most significant ways in which it affected on Canada. The result is that this dissertation is able to describe a situation in broad and specific terms. The case study, therefore, illuminates the broader purposes of FFHC as well as its operational ambit.
Chapter One: BR Sen and the Making of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign

It is necessary from time to time to lift our sights from our immediate preoccupations to the more distant horizons of our basic objectives, to check our directions and to make new shifts in our course if necessary.

BR Sen

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign was the brainchild of FAO Director-General BR Sen; it was his vision and ability which inspired and sustained the Campaign, and it was under his leadership that FAO repositioned itself for a massive assault on the problem of hunger and malnutrition in the world. This chapter, accordingly, examines Sen and his work to develop and initiate a world campaign against hunger and malnutrition known as the Freedom From Hunger Campaign (FFHC). FFHC was developed in the context of a period of review and renewal at the UN and FAO, and Sen was able to take advantage of this environment to create a new role for FAO and to change the way international development assistance was conceived and undertaken in the broader development community. When Sen arrived at FAO in 1956 he understood that FAO and the world were ill-equipped to solve the problem of hunger and malnutrition, and he further understood that as population increased the problem would become much worse. Sen used FFHC to draw FAO and other UN Agencies, governments, NGOs, industry, religious organizations, and individuals together in a common effort to combat hunger. Sen believed that such an effort, properly nurtured, could create an environment where development efforts were self-sustaining and where real, lasting solutions could be found.  

47 In this chapter we see how Sen brought together those partners which formed the core of the Campaign, and how he worked with them

between 1957 and 1960 to organize and develop a program for FFHC. In this way Sen established early momentum, and at the time of the launch of FFHC on 1 July, 1960 already had in place an established network of participants and a detailed program for Campaign activities until 1965.

Part One of this chapter will look at the various reviews undertaken by ECOSOC and FAO, and will track the development of Sen’s ideas as they moved from a Freedom From Hunger Year into a larger Freedom From Hunger Campaign. Here we see Sen engage in a review of FAO’s mandate and activities and begin a process of renewal designed to make FAO a more modern and effective organization. At the same moment, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) was conducting a review of the UN and the Specialized Agencies in pursuit of goals similar to those of Sen. The ideas and issues which emerged as these reviews were conducted affected Sen as he worked to develop his world campaign against hunger. In this chapter we can see that specific problems cited in the FAO and ECOSOC reviews, such as the need for an integrated approach to economic development, were addressed by Sen in FFHC. Both the underlying approach of the Campaign and specific programs can be directly related to issues outlined in the ECOSOC and FAO reviews.

Part Two of this chapter will outline the initial steps taken by Sen and FAO to get the Campaign underway. The steps were conducted more or less simultaneously; the order in which they are addressed in this chapter serves the purpose of the broader narrative rather than strictly chronological considerations. Here we will examine each of the activities initiated by Sen, beginning with those central to FAO and then moving outward to the Specialized Agencies, to non-governmental organizations (most of the
NGOs accredited to FAO at this time were international in character), and finally to governments and national committees. All of these activities continued after the campaign was officially launched, but this chapter will only track events prior to the launch of the Campaign on 1 July, 1960; subsequent chapters will continue discussion on those subjects.\(^{48}\) The importance of these events is that they are evidence of Sen’s vision and ability, and they reveal a high level of receptivity to the idea of a world campaign against hunger and a willingness for various organizations, institutions and agencies to work together. Sen’s initiative was a historic and early attempt by a UN based organization to mobilize the growing strength of non-governmental organizations to multiply the networks attached to the international organizations.

Sen understood that FAO was incapable of fulfilling its mandate unless the organization changed its strategy. The change that Sen pursued at FAO was designed to make the organization more activist in nature and less academic in focus. He did not believe that FAO could solve the problem of hunger and malnutrition alone, but he did believe that FAO could bring the world together, and the world then could find solutions. In the years following the Second World War, it became evident that reconstruction and development were possible, and at the same time the world saw the problem of hunger and malnutrition persist and even worsen. When Sen arrived at FAO the organization and its related bodies were looking for new ideas and approaches to problems of which the level of complexity and seriousness was becoming increasingly apparent. In Sen’s experience inside FAO, at ECOSOC, the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC), and with other organizations, we see an environment where innovation and

\(^{48}\) Areas of particular interest are the continuing activities of NGOs, governments, and national committees as the campaign moves forward though the 1960s and 1970s.
experimentation were welcomed, but where innovation was tempered with pragmatism and caution.

**BR Sen and FAO**

Binay Ranjan Sen was born in India in 1900, the fifth in a family of nine children. Sen received a B.A. in English Language and Literature with honours from the Scottish Churches College in Calcutta and an M.A. in the same subject from the University of Calcutta; Sen graduated with a PhD from Oxford with history and economics as his main subjects. Sen entered the Indian Civil Service (ICS) where he enjoyed a distinguished career in several capacities including District Sessions Judge; Assistant Magistrate; District Officer for Noakhali, Maldah, and Minapore (respectively); Revenue Secretary to the Government of Bengal; and Director-General of Food for India. Sen was Director-General of Food for India from 1943-1946. The post was created following the Bengal famine of 1942-43. In this position he was responsible for providing food for roughly one fifth of the world’s population. The Bengal famine followed years of increasing civil unrest in India, and the total crop failures in Bengal and other regions exacerbated the already harsh conditions of the War. The famine affected hundreds of millions of people; estimates of the number of fatalities range from 1.5 million to 4 million. Sen later described the situation as a holocaust, and while he understood that the special conditions of drought and war were the primary causes of the crisis, he understood also that there was “a general failure on the part of the administration to deal with the situation.”

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experience created in Sen an enduring sense of urgency and an intimate understanding of
the devastation caused by hunger.

After 1947, Sen became, successively, the Indian Ambassador to Italy, Yugoslavia, the United States, Mexico, and Japan. In 1956 Sen was instructed to proceed to Rome to stand for election for Director-General of FAO; his election in September 1956 was the first instance of an individual from a developing country holding a position as head of a UN Agency.\(^{50}\) Sen’s experience growing up in India and his later work in the ICS profoundly influenced his work at FAO and contributed to the development of his idea for a world campaign against hunger.\(^{51}\) His vision and strength of character made the campaign a reality.

Nineteen hundred and fifty-nine was a decisive year for FAO. Under the leadership of Director-General Sen\(^{52}\), FAO reviewed its achievements and mandate, and poised itself for a larger, sustained attack on the problem of hunger and malnutrition. In 1957, FAO commissioned Dr. Hernán Santa Cruz, FAO Consultant on Social Welfare Activities and leader of the Chilean delegation to the United Nations, to conduct an internal review of FAO’s purpose and achievements.\(^{53}\) The report, entitled *FAO’s Role in Rural Welfare*, did several important things. First, it recognized that the social welfare

\(^{50}\)Ibid., 5-125.
\(^{51}\) Ibid., 48.
\(^{52}\) Sen was first elected to the office of Director-General of FAO in September, 1956; his term ending in December, 1959. His second term was from December, 1959 to January, 1964, and his third term was from January 1964 to December 1967. His predecessor was P. Cardon of the United States, and his successor was A.H. Boerma of the Netherlands.
\(^{53}\) The original proposal for the Report had been the striking of three teams of experts headed by an “outstanding individual” who would investigate FAO internal operations and in its impact on rural welfare. The Director-General decided, in light of the Ninth Session FAO Conference recommendations and Resolution (32/57) authorizing “a team of experts” and because of the need to keep expenditures low on a project that was considered a luxury, to appoint Dr. Hernán Santa Cruz of Chile to conduct the review. Hernán Santa Cruz, *FAO’s Role in Rural Welfare* (Rome: Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, 1959).
of any individual was, after the adoption of the *Charter of the United Nations*, a matter of international law. Second, it pointed out that the UN Specialized Agencies, such as FAO, the World Health Organization (WHO), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), were strictly mandated to guarantee the welfare of any individual.\footnote{Dr. Santa Cruz points out that the constitutions of these agencies are bound to the UN Charter which states that among the principles of the Charter is the need “to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character.” Ibid., 19.} Third, it “strikingly [brought] into focus FAO’s over-all role in the wider perspective of human want and [was an] international declaration aimed at its alleviation.”\footnote{Ibid., vi.} The Santa Cruz Report was the key document for the reforms Sen undertook at FAO and its recommendations formed the basis for the development of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign.

In many ways *FAO’s Role in Rural Welfare* reiterated or clarified ideas Sen had brought with him to FAO in 1956. The Director-General carried with him both a distrust of governments and an understanding of large bureaucracies. His distrust was, first, of the ability of governments to be innovative or constructive, and, secondly, of their politically based motivations. In his time at FAO, Sen did his utmost to ensure that the organization was free from any political influence,\footnote{Sen believed that FAO should be protected “at all costs, against incursion of politics not consistent with its basic role.” BR Sen, *Towards a Newer World*, 134.} and he worked to develop apolitical mechanisms for international cooperation in the fight against hunger and malnutrition. However, separation of politics from FAO and its work did not mean a separation of FAO from involvement with governments. Sen understood that the elimination of hunger and malnutrition would require strong partnerships among governments, international agencies, non-governmental organizations, and the people of the world. Sen used FAO to
bring together these partners in new and effective ways. The Santa Cruz Report suggested that FAO should be at the centre of an “international co-operation system for maintaining the peace and security of the world and creating conditions for progress and development essential thereto has one main objective: the human being, his self respect, dignity and material and spiritual welfare.” Sen agreed with the Report in that an improved role for FAO and a more effective fight against hunger were matters of international law as required by the UN Charter and the Constitution of FAO.

When Sen came to FAO in 1956 he faced a very serious morale problem amongst the staff, and he knew that FAO did not possess the tools required to undertake the kind of task it faced. The morale problem was easily solved, but realistic solutions to the hunger problem were less easily found. When he came to FAO as Director-General, Sen already had the idea for a world campaign against hunger in his mind. The inspiration for the Campaign had come in part from his observations of the Hot Springs and Quebec Conferences during the war years, from his personal interaction with individuals such as former US President Herbert Hoover, author Margaret Mitchell, and UNICEF head

57 Santa Cruz, 155.
58 Santa Cruz concluded that “This system recognizes as one of its fundamental bases the principle of collective security, by agreement, of all countries to raise the level of living of all human beings within a wider concept of freedom. This concept is clearly stated in the United Nations Charter and the Constitutions of the Specialized Agencies, among them FAO. Mandatory provisions, expressly stated, in harmony with one another and inspired by these principles, commit these agencies to work to raise the level of living and ensure conditions leading to progress and the well being of men and women throughout the world. It is therefore obvious that any policy of the agencies charged with the responsibility in this regard which overlooks the main goals mentioned is betraying the philosophy underlying their creation and violating the spirit and the letter of their constitutions. Further, the FAO, according to its Constitution, has been vested by the peoples with the task of “raising the levels of nutrition and standards of the peoples” and “bettering the conditions of rural populations (Chapter 2, Section II).” Ibid., 155-156.
59 Sen believed that his experience in the ICS enabled him to understand staff problems and their solutions. In addition to applying “well-established principles of a healthy administration” (engaging with staff members at all levels, establishing communication and unity, encouraging free exchange) Sen believed that all staff members “should be given a feeling of participation in the great mission FAO was entrusted with.” Moreover, Sen earned the loyalty of his staff by ensuring a high degree of transparency in FAO operations, keeping all staff informed of FAO activities, and by protecting the wellbeing and the interests of all FAO staff members. Sen, Towards a Newer World, 131-133.
60 Ibid., 138.
Maurice Pape, and, above all, from his experience as India’s Director-General of Food during the Second World War. Moreover, because of the circumstances of his own upbringing, Sen had been exposed to the stark realities of hunger all his life. The result for Sen was a vision of a campaign which would contribute to the sense of mission at FAO, which would form the basis for a world wide effort in the fight against hunger, and which would help transform FAO from a largely technical organization interested only in better cows and fatter pigs into a development agency.

The 1958 session of ECOSOC unanimously approved that the Council undertake an overall appraisal of the United Nations and Specialized Agencies. The review, known as the Forward Appraisal, undertook an overall appraisal of the activities of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. The Council believed that such an appraisal would contribute to the effectiveness of the UN and Specialized Agencies, and would help governments as they formed policies in relation to these organizations. The Forward Appraisal called attention to Article 55 of the UN Charter which refers to “the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations”, and it emphasized the fundamental interrelatedness of world agricultural, economic, and social systems and noted the lack of an integrated approach by various agencies, organizations, and governments. The Appraisal outlined

61 Ibid., 137-138.
63 ECOSOC was “recommended to action” in regard to a review of the UN and the Specialized Agencies by the General Assembly with Resolution 1094 (XI). The Forward Appraisal was adopted by ECOSOC Resolution 694 D (XXVI) and by FAO Resolution 33/57.
64 The Forward Appraisal is sometimes referred to in FAO documents as the Consolidated Report, though this term properly refers to an FAO report commenting on the Forward Appraisal.
66 Ibid., 2-3.
the problems of development and the roles and responsibilities of the Specialized Agencies in relation to these problems. It noted areas of deficiency and either proposed solutions or called for them. Moreover, the Appraisal had the backing of the UN Administrative Coordination Committee which was working to develop more harmonious and effective relations among the UN and the Specialized Agencies. The Forward Appraisal also called for a separation of development efforts from political influence, and therefore of the separation of the UN and its Specialized Agencies from political influence.67

The call for an integrated approach by the Forward Appraisal was criticized by some because its recommendations might threaten the autonomy of the Specialized Agencies and undermine the powers of the ACC.68 Other criticisms suggested that the Appraisal place stronger emphasis on the importance of agriculture to less developed countries.69 The criticisms were minor, and the recommendations were generally endorsed by the UN Secretary-General and the executive Heads of the Specialized Agencies. *FAO’s Role in Rural Welfare* and the Forward Appraisal were accompanied by the Director-General’s report, *The State of Food and Agriculture 1959*, and his supplementary review *Recent Developments in the World Food and Agricultural System*, which called for an integrated approach to agricultural, economic, and social development and which were endorsed by ECOSOC and the Council of FAO. Together, these appraisals and reports suggested that there was a lack of coordination among development related agencies and governments; their recommendations guided FAO as it

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67 Ibid., 101.
repositioned itself for a more effective effort as the Organization moved into the First UN Development Decade.

**A Freedom From Hunger Year**

By the summer of 1958 Sen’s ideas for a world wide campaign against hunger were beginning to take shape, and he had already taken action to support new directions for FAO. Sen’s proposals were still in development as late as 1959, but already he had commissioned the Santa Cruz review in 1957, and in the same period had solicited ideas and advice from a number of individuals regarding ‘a world wide campaign against hunger.’ Moreover, as we will see below and in the following chapters, Sen’s ideas were founded on the principles of Roosevelt’s “Four Freedoms Address” to the US Congress in 1941, the Hot Springs Conference on Food and Agriculture in 1943, and an FAO mandate that guaranteed freedom from want. Sen did not wait for the Santa Cruz Report before he moved forward on the development of a campaign; by the spring of 1958 he had struck an ‘Ad Hoc Committee for a Free the World From Hunger Year’ in preparation for his second biannual FAO conference, had begun work toward a third World Food Survey, and had initiated the formation of national FFH committees and contact with NGOs and other organizations. In 1958 Dr. Mordecai Ezekiel, Economics

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70 Resolution 32/57 of the Ninth Session of the FAO Conference in 1957 authorized the Director-General to “establish a team of experts to undertake a review of FAO’s activities in promoting the welfare of rural populations and to make recommendations for their improvement.” For primarily financial reasons, the team of experts was replaced by the services of one consultant (Santa Cruz). Santa Cruz, v.

71 The Chairman of the First Session of the Founding Conference of FAO at Quebec in 1945, Lester B. Pearson, noted that FAO “sets out with so bold an aim as that of helping developing nations achieve freedom from want.” P. Lamartine Yates, *So Bold An Aim* (Rome, FAO, 1955), 53.
Head at FAO, was employed by Sen to oversee the implementation and development of the ‘campaign’, and Sen made vague, preliminary proposals to ECOSOC on the subject.

As early as July 1958 Sen’s ideas had clarified to the point that he knew that the nature of the campaign would be promotional in character and global in scope. He was looking to the successful International Geophysical Year (IGY) of 1957-1958 as a model, and was concerned that an FFH Year should not overlap the FAO International Seed Campaign which had been approved by the 1957 Conference. In a statement to ECOSOC on 10 July, 1958, Sen recalled the success of the IGY and noted that it was an example where world-wide cooperation produced results beyond the capability of any single agency. The ‘Free the World From Hunger Year’ would adopt similar characteristics of the IGY in that it required the coordination of a wide variety of individuals and organizations and required a period of several years build up, but its objectives would be:

(1) to attract world wide attention to the problem of continued hunger and malnutrition in many countries, in the midst of world plenty and food surpluses; (2) to focus attention on the specific actions and programs needed to speed up solutions to the problem; (3) to secure cooperation and participation of all relevant international agencies, all governments, and all

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72 Dr. Ezekiel was directly associated with the Campaign until 1961, and was a key figure in the development of the World Food Programme (WFP). Ezekiel oversaw the organization of the Campaign and worked closely with the interim coordinator (Roger Savary) to define Campaign objectives, bring partners together, and to organize the launch of the Campaign. Sen, *Towards a Newer World*. 132.

73 BR Sen. “Director-General’s Proposal for a “Free-the-World-From-Hunger” Year” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B-067 (Box 2), 27 October, 1958), 1.

74 The International Geophysical Year involved cooperation and international and national levels by government organizations, and UN agencies. The goals of the IGY were to observe geophysical phenomena and to secure data from all parts of the world; to conduct this effort on a coordinated basis by fields, and in space and time, so that results could be collated in a meaningful manner. A “Draft Project for a Free the World From Hunger Year”, on which Sen based his statement to ECOSOC on July 19, 1958, noted that the IGY was not the first ‘year’ of this sort, but had been preceded by two “International Polar Years” in 1882-1883 and in 1922-1923. The draft proposal also noted that the ‘year’ would be the culmination of a build up of several years (the IGY took 4 years) and required careful planning and cooperation; FFHC would necessarily require a similar period. The proposal also noted that UNESCO contributed heavily to the effort. FAO. “Draft: Project for a “Free the World From Hunger Year”” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, FFHC Background 1958, July 10, 1958), 2.
related private, professional, general purpose and other non-governmental organizations, national and international, in the effort; (4) to achieve a degree of enthusiasm and participation which will result in more effective national and international actions in dealing with the problems and thus achieve much more rapid rates of progress in food production and consumption and in general economic development, especially in areas and countries where food consumption is still too low; (5) in the process, to establish a higher level of mutually profitable world trade between developed and underdeveloped regions, and help raise the prosperity of both to higher levels.\textsuperscript{75}

The initial proposal suggested that, at the end of the “Year” of the Campaign, efforts be made to summarize results and conclusions, and to develop integrated programs of action at provincial, national, and international levels.\textsuperscript{76} It was clear to Sen even at this early stage that the problems of poverty and hunger could not be solved by any single campaign; instead, FFHY would stimulate a larger, sustained level of activity. He suggested that “the main aim of the campaign should be to heighten alertness and awareness in the world today and thus improve the foundations for effective and accelerated action.”\textsuperscript{77} He cautioned against the temptation to rely on facile slogans and superficial appeals which might not address the root of the problem, and he warned against over-simplifications noting that the situation was extremely vast and complex.\textsuperscript{78}

Sen understood that there was an immediate need for action and his inspiration to face the problem was both personal and profound,\textsuperscript{79} but beyond a vague idea he still had no real plan of action. In his address to ECOSOC in July, 1958, Sen proposed that FAO

\textsuperscript{75} BR Sen. “Extract from the Statement by Mr. BR Sen, Director-General of FAO, to the Economic and Social Council, 10 July, 1958.” (FFHC Background 1958, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15), 1.
\textsuperscript{76} Draft: Project for a “Free the World From Hunger Year”, 4.
\textsuperscript{77} Extract from the Statement by Mr. BR Sen, 10 July 1958, 3-4.
\textsuperscript{78} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{79} Sen, \textit{Towards a Newer World}, 123. Sen and others at FAO and the UN were aware that crop failures in the Far East, Africa, and Latin America had exacerbated the hunger problem quite drastically, and that food production levels in other developing countries were far below the level required from sustainability. Draft: Project for a “Free the World From Hunger Year”, 1.
take several initial steps before the program would be launched to the public; he suggested that FAO initiate:

(a) Detailed studies by FAO of the Year’s program in each sector of the Organization’s work; (b) Preliminary discussions among corporate bodies, international and national, to secure their interest and readiness to cooperate; (c) Public announcement of the general program, and of the follow-up efforts to be made, including securing authorization of necessary action funds from Governing Bodies of Agencies; and (d) Statements of adherence and cooperation by the sponsoring agencies, and establishment of inter-agency committee or board to plan the concerted program.\(^80\)

However, in the days before his statement to ECOSOC, Sen was still unclear as to what his proposal would look like. Results from discussions at the Program and Planning Board (PPB) indicated two possibilities for a “Freedom From Hunger Year”:

(1) A Freedom from Hunger Year to be organized and sponsored primarily by FAO with its specific focus upon food production and distribution, consumption and nutrition. Such a campaign might well receive cooperation from WHO concerning the health aspects and from UN on population aspects. But still the main activity will have to be under the initiative and control of FAO. This alternative has the advantage of a clear focus upon a problem of fundamental human need, and could be organized at various levels of intensity and scope depending on the resources available.

(2) A Freedom from Want campaign in which all UN agencies must cooperate and which in order to be successful would have to be a large-scale and concerted effort of most UN agencies probably requiring at least three years preparation. The [dis]advantage of this alternative would be that it would not have such a clearly defined focus and that the positive aspects of the campaign would have to deal with all the issues of economic development from the technical, economic, social, and political aspects.\(^81\)

\(^{80}\) These initial steps closely resembled those approved by FAO in 1959 which are listed in the “Initial Steps” section later in this chapter. Extract from the Statement by Mr. BR Sen, 10 July 1958, 3.

\(^{81}\) Ranier Schickele, “Comments on Discussion at PPB on “Freedom From Hunger Year”” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, FFHC Ad Hoc Committee, July 3, 1958), 1.
The PPB recommended that either option draw heavily upon the participation of non-governmental agencies and associations — a feature which would become a primary characteristic of FFHC. By the time of his statement to ECOSOC, Sen drew on elements of both of these options for his proposal.

Resolution No. 4/29 of the Twenty-Ninth ECOSOC Session in 1959 established an Ad Hoc committee of member governments to study a ‘freedom from hunger year.’ The Campaign was referred to by two names for a period in late 1958 and 1959; these were ‘Freedom from Hunger Year’ and ‘Freedom from Hunger Campaign,’ though by spring 1959 the former had given way to the latter. Sen had originally conceived of the ‘year’ as being 1963, the 20th anniversary of the Hot Springs Conference, which, like the IGY, required a period of build up. Sen agreed with the Ad Hoc Committee which suggested that the Year culminate in a world food congress that would summarize and conclude, and which would organize future efforts. Eventually the concept of a year following a period of build-up was replaced with the idea of a campaign beginning in 1960, culminating in 1963, and concluding in 1965. A primary reason for this change was that Sen believed that because the problem of hunger and malnutrition was so vast in scale and so complex that a single year would be insufficient to bring solutions any

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82 Ibid.
83 FN Fitz Gerald. "“Free-the-World-From-Hunger” Campaign Committee." (FAO: RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, FFHC Ad Hoc Committee, 11 February, 1959), 1. Though the Committee was officially struck on February 11, 1959, an “ad hoc council committee on freedom from hunger campaign” had been meeting as early as January 1959. M. Ezekiel. “First draft of paper for ad hoc committee consideration” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 B15, 27 January, 1959).
85 Ibid.
and the concept of an FAO-sponsored world food congress for that year was retained, as was the idea that the Campaign should be promotional in character and that it should be designed to foster greater action in the effort to combat the problem of hunger and malnutrition. The final proposal called for a five year campaign (1960-1965), culminating in a world food congress in 1963, which would bring together NGOs, governments, and industry in common effort and lasting partnerships.

Before Sen brought his proposal for a Freedom from Hunger Campaign to FAO or ECOSOC he subjected it to continuous review at the Ad Hoc Committee level, and required a final value assessment. Sen officially proposed FFHC to FAO in July 1959, but as late as April of that year the value of the Campaign was still being determined. An Ad Hoc Committee report in April 1960 weighed the strengths and weaknesses of the proposed campaign. The report noted that “the fortunate choice of words to give meaning to the Campaign...the switch-over from ‘Free the World From Hunger Year’ to the ‘Freedom From Hunger’ Campaign label, has on the whole increased the emotional appeal.” Second, the report noted that Dr. Sen enjoyed significant personal prestige, and the quality of his speeches on the subject of FFHC was very high and delivery of the FFHC message was therefore very effective. Third, the report noted that the Campaign

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88 As early as October, 1958, Sen was considering 1963, the anniversary of the Hot Springs Conference, for the ‘year’ of the Campaign. Item 16 of the Revised Provisional Agenda for the 29th Session of ECOSOC (October, 1958) indicated that Sen believed the FFHY could take place no earlier than 1963. Sen also understood that the success of the project required the support of, and coordination with, other UN agencies; for this reason Sen put the proposal before the UN Administrative Coordinating Committee (ACC) as early as possible. ECOSOC, “Director-General’s Proposal for a “Free-the World-From-Hunger-Year”” (27 October, 1958), 1.
represented a “new approach to the problem of international cooperation for the benefit of under-developed countries.”  

91 The greatest weakness was described as a lack of precision in aims and approaches; other problems included a lack of the means of action, over-optimistic assumptions on the initiative of INGOs, lack of educational material to start the Campaign, and lack of basic resources in FAO.  

92 The conclusion of this assessment was that the weaknesses outweighed the strengths of the Campaign, and that it would take a great deal of effort and creativity to make it a success. The report recommended two lines of action as top priorities: the preparation of fundamental educational material for national campaign managers, and the establishment of national campaign committees.  

93 These recommendations came as no surprise. As we will see below, as early as 1958 Campaign organizers were already moving to develop informational and educational materials and to instigate the formation of national FFH committees. 

A Freedom From Hunger Campaign

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign  

94 originated as a proposal by FAO Director-General BR Sen to ECOSOC in July, 1958 for a Free the World From Hunger

91 Ibid.
92 Ibid., 1-3.
93 Ibid., 3.
94 After 1971 the Freedom From Hunger Campaign was also known as ‘Freedom From Hunger Campaign/Action For Development’ or FFHC/AD.
In his opening statement to the Ad Hoc Committee of Council on Free the World From Hunger Year, Sen recalled that

> it is mainly [because the problem of hunger and malnutrition is growing and efforts to combat it are insufficient] that I proposed the launching of a world-wide campaign to focus attention on all aspects of the problem. As I view it, there should be two main aspects of the Free the World From Hunger campaign, namely, the informational and publicity aspect and the action aspect.

By the time it was launched in 1960, the Campaign had in fact have three aspects, or legs, which were research, information/education, and action. However, in 1958-59 Sen’s proposals for the Campaign remained modest, and he viewed FFHC as a means to raise public awareness and stimulate action at both the grassroots level and in the activities of NGOs.

The modesty of Sen’s initial proposals was countered by his emphasis on the seriousness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition and by the degree of enthusiasm the proposals for the Campaign received in the international community. In his statement to the Ad Hoc Committee, Sen stressed the fact that despite major advances in science and technology, the hunger problem was getting worse and was being compounded by a world population explosion. This theme and his promotion of FFHC itself were mentioned in virtually all of Sen’s major addresses in his time as Director-General and

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96 The Ad Hoc Committee consisted of eight countries who worked with the Director-General in accordance with established UN/FAO procedures. FAO. “Cable Address for BR Sen, Director-General FAO”. (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, FFHC Ad Hoc Committee, December 9, 1958). The member countries of the Ad Hoc Committee were: the United Arab Republic, the Union of South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States, Brazil, France, India, Iran, and the Netherlands. M. Ezekiel. “Letter to Member Countries” (FAO, RG 12, B0-67 B15, Sec 4, FFHC Ad Hoc Committee, 18 November, 1958), 1.
98 The development of the action and information/education aspects would help transform the FAO from a purely technical organization into an activist organization. See “Introduction”, 1.
99 Sen predicted a world population of 6 billion by the end of the 20th century. Ibid., 1.
after. Sen was encouraged by the reception that FFHC received – especially in developing countries, and Sen’s proposals received a warm welcome at the FAO Council.

Because the Director-General had a profound distrust of governments and their ability to get things done, he wanted to bring together NGOs, governments, industry, and individuals together in partnerships in order to achieve real results. From the beginning Sen knew that the key to success was the participation of non-governmental organizations. He believed NGOs were already crucial to the delivery of development assistance programs in developing countries and were experienced in fundraising, identifying areas of need, and organizing responses to those problems. However, NGOs had little voice in the international community and Sen understood that through cooperation with other partners NGOs could play a much more significant role. He knew that, like NGOs, governments formed a key component in the Campaign, and it was through governments that Sen expected to form and nurture national FFHC committees.

Sen’s inspiration for the Campaign resulted in part from his awareness of the “paradoxical situation” wherein developed countries were able to produce food surpluses, while low productivity and low purchasing power prevented less developed countries

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101 FAO. “Tenth Session, Rome, 3, October 1959; Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B067 B15, Background papers 1960/61, 6 August, 1959), 1.
103 Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 6 October, 2005.
104 Ibid.
from meeting their own basic needs. He believed a radical change in the situation of underdeveloped countries could be brought about, but that this would require a world movement for a “frontal attack on the problems of widespread hunger and malnourishment” and that the Campaign would mean, as Santa Cruz had argued, “a rededication of FAO to the basic principles of its charter.” Sen was clear in his view that leadership in any kind of a global effort had to come from FAO. FAO member governments agreed with this assessment and the direction, policies, and overall control of the Campaign rested on decisions taken at the 1959 FAO conference. The Freedom From Hunger Campaign was adopted by FAO with Resolution 13/59 on October 27, 1959. The Resolution authorized

an international ‘Freedom From Hunger Campaign’ extending from 1960 through 1965, under the leadership and general coordination of FAO and with invitations to participate, as appropriate and approved by FAO, to (i) member countries of FAO; (ii) member countries of the United Nations and United Nations specialized agencies, and the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), and these agencies themselves; (iii) international non-governmental organizations that have established consultative relationships with FAO, the United Nations or other specialized agencies; (iv) religious groups; and (v) individuals and private organizations within the member countries specified in (i) and (ii) above.

Sen opened the 1959 FAO Conference with the words of the poet John Donne:

“One man’s hunger is every man’s hunger – one man’s freedom from hunger is

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106 Ibid., 3.
107 Dr. Ezekiel’s hand notation of a draft speech by Sen for the Ad Hoc Committee, where Sen called for FAO leadership in coordination of UN and other agencies in a global campaign against hunger, explicitly disagrees with Sen’s view and he questions Sen’s assertion that there was “general agreement”. Ezekiel points to the UN responsibility for the Mekong scheme for comparison. M. Ezekiel. “Draft: for meeting of ad hoc Council Committee on freedom from hunger campaign.” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 B15, FFHC Ad Hoc Committee, January 26, 1959), 1-2.
108 FAO Resolution No. 13/59.
neither a free nor secure freedom until all men are free from hunger.”109 These words became the mantra of the Campaign, and Sen saw his vision for a global campaign against hunger realized.

**Initial Steps in Developing the Campaign**

Organization and action to get a campaign moving began very early in Sen’s tenure as Director-General. In July 1958, an FAO proposal for a world campaign against hunger listed both the objectives of the Campaign and the initial steps such an effort would require.110 The objectives were very similar to those he had outlined at ECOSOC, but this document included suggestions for positive action in the development of the Campaign. The report suggested that:

(a) FAO…make much more detailed studies of what the Year’s program would include, in each sector of the Organization’s work…
(b) Preliminary discussions among the cooperating bodies, international and/or national, to secure their interest and readiness to cooperate.
(c) Public announcement of the general program, and of the follow up efforts to be made, including securing authorization of necessary action and funds of Governing Bodies of Agencies.
(d) Statements of adherence and cooperation by the sponsoring agencies, and establishment of an inter-agency committee or board to plan the concerted program.111

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110 The objectives listed in the proposal were: “(1) to attract world-wide attention to the problem of continuing hunger and malnutrition in many countries, in the midst of world plenty and food surpluses; (2) to focus attention on specific actions and programs needed to speed up solutions to the problem; (3) to secure cooperation and participation of all relevant international agencies, all governments, and all related private, professional, general purpose and other non-governmental organizations, national and international, in the effort; (4) to achieve a degree of enthusiasm and participation which will result in more effective national and international actions in dealing with the problems and thus achieve much more rapid progress in food production and consumption and in general economic development, especially in areas and countries where food consumption is still too low; (5) in the process, to establish a higher level of mutually profitable world trade between developed and underdeveloped regions, and help raise the prosperity of both.” FAO, “Draft: Project for a Free the World From Hunger Year” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, FFHC Background Papers, 16 July, 1958), 1.
111 Ibid., 3.
The proposal also included “immediate steps” to follow those listed above; these
addressed the practical issues faced by any new initiative in a large bureaucracy.
They included:

(1) preliminary consultations with cooperating bodies and governments;
(2) launching the idea at an appropriate forum...(3) securing legislative
authority of respective governing bodies to carry the operation forward,
 together with authorization of any necessary funds needed for this
purpose; and (4) setting up the inter-agency planning committee for the
project.\(^{112}\)

Together, these ‘steps’ reveal the initiation of a broadly-based movement
designed to draw together parties in a unique and unprecedented way. As we will
see below, Sen moved to lay the foundation for a campaign as early and as
thoroughly as possible. The Informal Group for Freedom From Hunger Year and
then the Working Group and Ad hoc Committees of Council were meeting
regularly by 1958, and the major initiatives, such as developing the *Third World*
*Food Survey*, securing cooperation of UN Agencies and NGOs, and inviting
governments to form national committees, were already taking shape. Approval
by FAO and ECOSOC did not come until the autumn of 1959, and the official
launch of FFHC was not until 1 July, 1960. By the time of the Campaign launch,
the most important components of FFHC were already established.

The proposed first steps closely resembled the actions that FAO actually
took to develop and initiate FFHC. By 1959, the central activities anticipating
FFHC included the launching of a third World Food Survey, securing the

\(^{112}\) Ibid., 7. These ‘steps’ were significantly more developed than those Sen had discussed at ECOSOC only
a few days earlier. FAO, “Extract From the Statement by Mr. BR Sen, Director-General of FAO, to the
Economic and Social Council, Geneva, 10 July, 1958” (FAO, Sec 4, RG 12 B-067 B15, FFHC Background
cooperation of other UN Agencies and NGOs, and cooperating with governments to form national FFHC committees. At this time (June, 1959), preliminary time schedules for the Campaign which outlined activities for FAO from 1960 through 1965 were in development. The result was that in 1960 FFHC began operation with a high degree of organization and significant momentum already behind it. Because these activities were more or less simultaneous a chronological examination is impossible, Part Two of this chapter will examine each of the activities beginning with those central to FAO, and then moving outward to the Specialized Agencies, then to non-governmental organizations (most of the NGOs accredited to FAO at this time were international in character), and finally to governments and national committees.

**The Third World Food Survey**

Any broad campaign against hunger required an understanding of where and why hunger existed. Until 1963 the best sources for information on the state of hunger and agriculture in the world were the First and Second World Food Surveys. The First World Food Survey (WFS-1) in 1946 relied primarily on pre-war figures and the work of Sir John Boyd Orr, inaugural Director-General of FAO (1945-1948), conducted for the British Home Office in the 1930s. The result was that WFS-1 was a very general document, but it was a necessary first

step for the newly minted FAO. The Second World Food Survey (WFS-2) in 1952 looked more closely at the post-war situation, and looked forward toward solutions in a way WFS-1 had not, but WFS-2 was still more the product of educated guesswork than of scientific scrutiny. The Third World Food Survey\(^{115}\) (WFS-3) in 1963 was based on much more reliable information and more advanced scientific methods than its predecessors; it was in fact the first accurate documentation of the state of food and agriculture in the world ever compiled. WFS-3 established the first accurate numbers for the population(s) of the world and revealed for the first time the actual state of the hungry and malnourished peoples. Moreover, WFS-3 revealed that hunger and malnutrition represented a much bigger problem than anyone had guessed, and the evidence collected for the Survey suggested it was about to get much worse.

Like the First and Second Surveys, WFS-3 was critical to FAO’s work, and Sen was instrumental in moving the idea forward. He realized very early on that “one of the first questions that would be asked [in relation to FFHC] would be the extent of hunger and malnutrition in the world at the present time.”\(^{116}\) In September, 1958, Sen therefore initiated a Working Group on a ‘free the world from hunger year’ which met to discuss the contents of a third world food survey. It was agreed by the Working Group that WFS-3 would follow its predecessors as a “detached and factual” accounting of the food consumption situation with the

\(^{115}\) The Third World Food Survey (WFS-3) in 1963 was conducted under the auspices of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign; where the first two Surveys were strictly FAO publications, and though WFS-3 began simply as an FAO document, the cover of the final document (1963) bore the symbol for FFHC and the name of the Campaign in large red letters, included “Basic Study No. 11” in large type, and “Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations” was reduced to a small, non-descript line at the bottom. More will be said in following chapters on the nature of FFHC publicity, but the importance here is that this document was intended for use by the public as well as by FAO and other agencies or organizations.

\(^{116}\) Sen, *Towards a Newer World*, 140.
intention that it compose the basis for further studies.\textsuperscript{117} FAO officials intended that WFS-3 differ from its predecessors in that it not have as its main object the projection of food supplies needed to meet nutritional targets at some distant date. Instead, it reviewed the nutritional information of countries, discussed production and consumption patterns, and suggested practical steps to deal with deficiencies.\textsuperscript{118} Sen believed FFHC made WFS-3 imperative; there were observed differences in caloric intake and requirements in different regions of the world, and new statistical information was available. Despite the early recommendations of the Working Group, WFS-3 provided estimates for future need, but did so based on much more reliable and scientific information than had its predecessors. Most importantly, WFS-3 provided the basis for the formulation of policies at the national and international levels, and it was cited repeatedly by world leaders in their appeals for support for FFHC.\textsuperscript{119}

WFS-3 was the beginning of a larger and more sustained quest for information at FAO. The Survey began with the collection of all information available at FAO headquarters and the composition of a report based on that information. On the basis of that document, further research was undertaken to fill in gaps in knowledge and to address arising issues.\textsuperscript{120} Like the previous Surveys, WFS-3 was intended as a starting point. As we will see below, under the auspices of FFHC, FAO undertook a number of Basic Studies\textsuperscript{121} and inspired and

\textsuperscript{117} Present were Dr. W.R. Aykroyd, P.G.H. Barter, and P.L. Sherman. FAO. (RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 B15, FFHC Background 1958, 10 September, 1958).

\textsuperscript{118} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{119} Sen, \textit{Towards a Newer World}, 141.


\textsuperscript{121} There were 23 Basic Studies in the Freedom From Hunger Series.
supported numerous other research projects. At the Inter-Divisional Working Party for a Free the World from Hunger Year, it was agreed that WFS-3 “could serve as an important, if not the principal, basis for stimulating interest and thinking” on a world wide campaign against hunger. More importantly, the Working Group felt that such a study would necessarily dig much deeper than the previous two, and that this would necessitate the participation of many countries – thus involving them in country preparations for the ‘year’. In a broader sense, WFS-3 reflected the growing stress on socio-economic data in policy making that developed in the 1950s.

On the basis of data from 70 countries whose people made up approximately 90% of the world’s population, the First World Food survey disclosed the main gaps in consumption and nutrition and called attention to possible solutions for closing those gaps. The Survey was not scientifically conducted; instead it relied largely on existing data – the accuracy of which varied from country to country. As Figure 1 illustrates, WFS-1 concluded that for over half of the world’s population, retail level food supplied less than 2,250 calories per caput daily. Food supplies of more than 2,750 calories per caput daily were available for less than a third of the world population, and for the remaining one sixth of the world population caloric intake levels were between the previous two figures.

123 Ibid.
125 Ibid.
Figure 1: First World Food Survey (Calories per caput\textsuperscript{126} daily / World Population)

The Second World Food Survey employed more detailed information and new scientific techniques, such as a newly devised caloric-requirement scale. As we see in Figure 2, the Second World Food Survey took a similar approach to its predecessor. WFS-2 concluded that retail level food supplies were insufficient to furnish an average of 2,200 calories daily for 59% of the world’s population. For 28% of the population, an average of over 2,700 calories daily was available. 13% of the population lay between these levels.\textsuperscript{127} Corresponding prewar figures had been 39, 30, and 31% - showing that five years after the War the average calorie supply per person was below prewar levels.

Figure 2: Second World Food Survey (Calories per caput daily / World Population)

\textsuperscript{126} Per capita.
The Third World Food Survey covered three periods: prewar (1934-1938), postwar (1948-1952), and recent (1957-1959). The Survey was based on data for over 80 countries representing 95% of the world’s population and relied on more scientific methods than had been available for either of the previous Surveys. There were eight main conclusions of the WFS-3:

1. world food levels were marginally above prewar levels and progress after the war had been limited to developed regions;
2. at least 20% of the populations of less developed areas was undernourished;
3. there was a small but distinct improvement in the quality of diets in developed areas; in less developed areas quality of diet had barely regained prewar levels;
4. 60% of the households in less developed areas had diets inadequate in nutritional quality;
5. 10 to 15% of the world’s population were undernourished and half suffered from hunger or malnutrition or both;
6. by 1975 world food supplies would have to be increased by 35% to maintain current unsatisfactory levels;
7. less developed areas needed to increase food supplies by at least 2% per annum in order to meet these needs; the aim should be the increase of the aggregate national income of less developed countries by 5% per annum;
8. the world’s total food supply would have to be trebled by the year 2000 in order to provide a reasonably adequate level of nutrition.

For less developed areas food supplies needed to be quadrupled and the supplies of animal products increased six times. In combination with the Basic Studies, the Third World Food Survey became a primary source of reference for FFHC and other development efforts.

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129 Ibid., 8-10.
The Basic Studies

In addition to the Third World Food Survey, Sen initiated a series of ‘basic studies’ on various aspects of agriculture and development to support the research and information/education aspects of the Campaign. These were conducted by the FAO and other UN Agencies and were complemented by national studies. The Basic Studies became a major component in FAO’s efforts to better inform the public on the subject of hunger and malnutrition.

Specifically, the Basic Studies were to assist non-governmental and other organizations cooperating in the Campaign [who are] giving a good part of their time and energy to encouraging the individual citizens who are members of those organizations to study this subject and reach conclusions for themselves, both as to what the situation is and what can be done about it.

Early plans called for FAO preparation of a series of background handbooks each of which would state “simply and clearly” the facts of an important aspect of the Campaign in “brief but authoritative language.” Initial proposals called for eight studies to be completed in 1962 and made available in English, French, and Spanish. Discussions on the need for basic studies can be traced to the earliest stages of Campaign development, though the questions to be answered and the theme areas did not emerge until 1959. The spring of 1960 saw the idea for the

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130 The Third World Food Survey was included as Basic Study #11.
131 FAO. “Freedom From Hunger Campaign: Use of FAO Basic Studies” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B-067 B15 (Box 3), No File Label), 1.
132 Ibid.
Studies take some more concrete shape.\textsuperscript{134} Eight studies were completed in advance of the World Food Congress in 1963, but there were eventually a total of twenty-three studies, and the series was completed by 1970.\textsuperscript{135}

The Basic Studies did more than provide information; Sen used them as a tool to reform and improve FAO, and, as Santa Cruz suggested, help rededicate FAO to the principles of its charter. The Basic Studies were intended to “put the work of the Organization as a whole on the right course.”\textsuperscript{136} Moreover, the Basic Studies were used to break down barriers inside FAO and between various UN Agencies where communication and collaboration were at a minimum.\textsuperscript{137} Sen knew that success depended upon the passage of information; he needed to establish both an accurate picture of human food needs and a culture of information sharing among governments, UN Agencies, and other organizations.

As we will see in more detail in the following chapters, the Basic Studies showed that economic development, or underdevelopment, had to be viewed in the

\textsuperscript{134} FAO was suggesting subjects for papers by other UN Agencies including WHO (Nutrition and Health), UNESCO (Needs for trained manpower in Economic development; Magnitude of Training efforts), UN (Population and Food Supplies), the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) (Weather and Food), and the ILO (People’s Organizations and FFHC) M. Ezekiel. “Special temporary assignment for background papers on FFHC.” (FAO, RG12 B 0-67 B15, Background papers FFHC, 9 May, 1960), 1-2.


\textsuperscript{136} Sen, \textit{Towards a Newer World}, 142.

context of general world economic activity. Even before they were complete, research for the Studies was indicating that the world was facing an unprecedented rate of population growth and that this development would massively compound the hunger problem. The studies emphasized the importance of agriculture to world economic stability; Sen recalled later that as a result of the Studies, the farmer emerged as the key figure in any scheme of economic or social development.\textsuperscript{138}

**Cooperation with other UN Agencies**

In late 1958 and 1959 the Informal Group on a Free-the-World-From-Hunger campaign\textsuperscript{139} advised the Ad Hoc Committee that a successful campaign depended on the cooperation of other UN Agencies. At the centre of the effort, of course, would be FAO which would supply the latest scientific information and aid developing countries in acquiring knowledge of modern agricultural methods, provide a forum for international discussion of national agricultural policies, and be responsible for agricultural statistics such as the World Census of Agriculture. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which was concerned with the “general development of science”, would help alleviate the shortage of qualified personnel by raising the level of education and supply of ‘manpower’. UNESCO was also well positioned to contribute to educational development in a number of other areas. The United

\textsuperscript{138} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{139} This was the first body to begin formal discussion on a world campaign against hunger. Members were: Dr. Sen, Dr. Wright, Mr. Boerma, Mr. Pawley, and Mr. Dey.
Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF) was already actively involved with FAO and the World Health Organization (WHO) in improving the nutrition of mothers and children and in improving milk supplies to mothers. WHO worked in relation to the improvement of health and the prevention of disease and therefore was directly involved in consumptive and dietary concerns of human beings.

FAO was already cooperating fully with the UN in efforts such as the Mediterranean Development Project,140 and was interested in further developing relations - especially in industrial and technical activities141 with an emphasis on systems in developing countries.142 The Working Group looked to the International Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) for support in financing and economic development, and to the International Labour Organization (ILO) for support in areas of social security, labour conditions, and unemployment insurance. Cooperation was sought from other “international agencies and regional groupings” such as the Colombo Plan, the Organization of American States (OAS), the European Consultative Assembly and its related special bodies, the European Economic Community (EEC), the British Commonwealth, the Arab League, the United States Foreign Aid Program, as well

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140 In his statement to ECOSOC on 10 July, 1959, Sen recalled the success of the Mediterranean Development Project and used it as an example in support of FFHC. He outlined the Mediterranean Development Project and suggested it was reflective of the new FAO approach to development. The MDP focussed on ‘favoured areas’, where conditions were not the worst, and invested in these regions – counting on stability, and then would expand efforts gradually into more underdeveloped regions. He noted that it was a “selective approach”; the use of these “propulsive regions” would “lessen the strain and improve the effectiveness of the process. Once spontaneous growth has been launched, the poorer, less-promising areas might be tackled with greater hope of success.” BR Sen. “Statement by Mr. BR Sen, Director-General of FAO, to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, Geneva, 10 July, 1959” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B0-67 B15 (Box 3), FFHC Major Documents, 10 July, 1959), 7-8.

141 The United Nations Technical Assistance Administration is noted in particular. Ibid.

142 FAO. “Draft: Project for a Free the World From Hunger Year”, 5-6.
as other unspecified national or bilateral technical assistance activities.\textsuperscript{143} During Sen’s address to ECOSOC in 1959, the executive heads of the ILO, UNESCO, WHO, the International Atomic Energy Association (IAEA), the International Bank of Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the Universal Postal Union (UPU), and the World Meteorological organization (WMO) expressed their willingness to cooperate within the limits of their staff and financial resources and subject to the decisions of their governing bodies.\textsuperscript{144}

The support of Specialized Agencies expressed at ECOSOC belied some hesitation by some of the Agencies invited to participate in the Campaign. Reporting to the Director-General after a series of consultations with heads and senior administrators of the Specialized Agencies, Dr. Ezekiel noted reluctance by some of these individuals. The major concern was that budgetary matters had not been fully thought through by FAO, and it was helpful for the survival of FFHC that it was Ezekiel (Economics Head at FAO) who heard these concerns. Interestingly, Ezekiel noted that little budgetary provision for the completion of work for FFHC had been made by any of the agencies.\textsuperscript{145} Despite some initial reluctance by some officials, the strong support of ECOSOC, the ACC, and governments encouraged the participation of all of the Specialized Agencies.

\textsuperscript{143} Ibid., 7.
\textsuperscript{144} FAO. “Excerpt from the Twenty-Third Report of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination to the Economic and Social Council” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B0-67 B15, FFHC – ECOSOC, 1959), 1.
\textsuperscript{145} Ezekiel noted as an extreme case that UNESCO expressed a desire to disengage from the Campaign except where they would support the publication of handbooks. UNESCO argued that it had no concern for economic development and that this “was solely in the competence of the FAO or the UN!” M. Ezekiel. “FFHC responsibilities of cooperating international organizations” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, Background Papers FFHC, 5 October, 1960), 1.
Non-Governmental Organizations

Ultimately, the success of the Campaign depended on the participation of non-governmental organizations. Here lay the central innovation of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. One of Sen’s main concerns was that FAO foster NGO cooperation with governments, other organizations, and with each other to encourage development efforts outside the purview of FAO and that these efforts be self-sustaining.146 NGOs already enjoyed relations and partnerships with some international agencies such as FAO, and these relationships were further strengthened, but FAO (Dr. Sen) organized NGOs into a new framework for international development of which they (NGOs) became a central component.

The Working Group of NGOs for a Free the World From Hunger Year initially proposed the involvement of a handful of NGOs, but anticipated (correctly) the involvement of many more.147 By the time of the approval of FFHC at ECOSOC and FAO in 1958 and 1959, FAO anticipated UN Agencies would assist in securing the cooperation of NGOs in the educational efforts and in the advising of governments in the planning, research, or action programs.148 NGOs cooperating in the Campaign would be drawn from those already accredited149 to FAO or other UN Agencies or those specifically approved by the

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146 Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
147 Specifically noted by the Working Group were: the World Federation of United Nations Associations, the International Federation of Agricultural Producers, the International Union of Nutritional Sciences, the Union of International Associations, the international Cooperative Alliance, and the International Chamber of Commerce. Ibid., 7.
149 Those agencies which had existing relationships with FAO or other UN Agencies and did not require special approval by Council or the Director-General.
Director-General in consultation with the Special Campaign Committee of the Council. The Council proposed an Advisory Committee composed of representatives of major cooperating non-governmental organizations which would support the Director-General in conducting the Campaign, and who would discuss among themselves methods for achieving Campaign objectives.

At the invitation of the Director-General, 23 international non-governmental organizations sent representatives to Rome in January 1960 to discuss NGO participation in FFHC. Sen told an Ad Hoc Advisory Committee drawn from the attending NGOs that FFHC could only be successful if non-governmental organizations gave their full support in achieving Campaign objectives, particularly in arousing world-wide public opinion on the problem of hunger and malnourishment, and if they helped initiate and support positive measures to find solutions to the problem. Sen’s idea was innovative in that it did not bring partners together under an FAO or UN umbrella; instead, Sen used FFHC to move interest, action, and activity in fighting the hunger problem into

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150 Ibid.
151 NGOs represented at this meeting were: the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions; World Young Women’s Christian Association; Catholic International Union for Social Services, the International Conference of Catholic Charities; Union International des Sciences Biologique; Commission International du Genie Rural; the International Federation of Agricultural Producers; the International Confederation of Technical Agriculturalists; the World Federation of United Nations Associations; Confederation Européene de l’Agriculture; Associated Country Women of the World; the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom; the Committee of Churches on International Affairs; the World Council of Churches; the League of Red Cross Societies; the World Assembly of Youth; the World Veterinary Association; the World Federation of Trade Unions; the International Council of Women; Union Mondiale des Organisations Feminines Catholique; the International Cooperative Alliance; Movement Internationale de la Jounesse Agricole et Rurale Catholique; International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions; the International Federation of Business and Professional Women; the International Dairy Federation; and the International Landworkers Federation. FAO. “List of Representatives Who Attended the NGO Meeting on 18/1/60.” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B0-67 B15, Ad Hoc – Papers FFHC), 1-3.
the broader global community.\textsuperscript{153} Sen, using the language of the resolution, invited NGOs
to participate in the Advisory Committee of non-governmental organizations, which shall on request consult with the Director General and with representatives of other cooperating international organizations concerning plans for the Campaign and the activities of non-governmental organizations in assisting in the Campaign, at the same time providing an opportunity for the organizations represented to consult with one another.\textsuperscript{154}

The Ad Hoc Committee\textsuperscript{155} accepted Sen’s invitation and agreed to hold a conference of international non-governmental organizations no later than spring 1960.\textsuperscript{156} The main areas of NGO participation as defined by Sen and the Ad Hoc Committee (information and education; research projects and international assistance; national action programs, and fund raising/making use of funds raised) were in fact the main areas of NGO activity throughout the first phase of the Campaign, and the first three areas resembled closely the three ‘legs’ (research, information/education, and action) of the Campaign.

\textsuperscript{153} This idea caused some friction between the FFHC Secretariat and some departments at FAO, particularly Information and Finance; Directors-General Boerma and Saouma were also less enthusiastic about moving control of development issues out of FAO. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview by Author, 5-6 October, 2005.

\textsuperscript{154} On 3 October, 1959, FAO Resolution C59/15 was approved at the 10th Session of the FAO Conference in 1959. Ibid., 1-2.

\textsuperscript{155} The Ad Hoc Advisory Committee of NGOs consisted of a Chairman, Mr. John Metzler of the Commission of the Churches of International Affairs (including the World Council of Churches and International Missions Council), and a drafting committee including: Robert Hewlett, of the International federation of Agricultural Producers; Mrs. CJ van Beekhoff van Selms, President of the Associated Country Women of the World; Mr. F. Casadio, representing the World Federation of United Nations Associations and the Union of International Associations; and Dr. Pennacchi, representing the League of Red Cross Societies. Ibid., 2-3.

\textsuperscript{156} The Ad Hoc Committee developed a provisional agenda in which main items were time and place of the conference, the nature of the Campaign, participation of NGOs, arrangements for cooperation among NGOs, and the composition of the Advisory Committee. Ibid., 2-5.
Governments and National FFHC Committees

The success of the Campaign depended on the participation of NGOs, but the heart of the Campaign was the national committees. Sen believed there was value in bringing NGOs closer to international collaborative and cooperative efforts (as he did later on with industry), but he knew that governments already worked closely with FAO, the UN, and other Agencies. Moreover, like the UN, FAO is the manifestation of member governments’ willingness to work together in common cause. Reactions to his proposals had been positive; Sen had evidence from the FAO regional conferences in 1958 that FAO member governments, especially in the developing world, were highly receptive to his ideas, and, more importantly, had expressed a willingness to participate in the Campaign.

At the behest of the Director-General, FAO Conference Doc. C 59/21 invited “the attention of member governments to the way the needs of the campaign and FAO’s regular activities over the next five years have been brought into common focus.”\[157\] Though many countries had already initiated the formation of national committees, follow-up letters to individual governments in 1960 outlined the need for governments to form national campaign committees and invited individual government contributions to the Campaign Trust Fund which had been set up after its approval at the 1959 FAO Conference.\[158\] Sen

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158 M. Ezekiel. “Work Done Since the Conference in Line with the Conference Resolutions on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B 0-67 B15, FFHC Ad Hoc Committee, 24 February, 1960), 1. The formal invitation to individual governments by Dr. Sen to form national campaign committees noted “that action is already underway in certain Member Nations for the establishment of national Campaign
himself was very active in ensuring that individual governments received information and support from FAO, and he emphasized the responsibility of governments in this area. Sen envisioned national committees which were supported by, but were independent of, national governments; it would be at the discretion of each participating country as to the nature of the relationship between the government and the FFHC committee. However, his suggestions were clear on the matter. He noted to ministers that

while it is, of course, for each nation to determine what kind of committee is best suited to local conditions, having regard in particular to the existence of National FAO Committees, I hope that such a body would not only include representatives of government departments which have a part to play in promoting and coordinating the Campaign, but also representatives of appropriate national organizations, namely those that could give effective assistance in carrying out informal and educational activities, fund raising or developing action programs.

I would personally think it advisable that, within each committee, executive responsibilities be entrusted to a governing board composed of a few distinguished personalities who, because of their special achievements and experience, would be in a position to give guidance and inspiration to the Committee. I also hope that that the Heads of State will be good enough to give their moral support to the Campaign and consent to serve as honorary Presidents.\textsuperscript{159}

Sen was also clear in his ideas on the responsibilities of the national committees themselves. Responsibilities for national committees fell into three categories: informal and educational, fund raising, and ensuring national participation in the Campaign.\textsuperscript{160}

Sen appealed directly to heads of state for support in the Campaign, reminding them that it was the membership of FAO which had approved a

\textsuperscript{159} BR Sen, Letter to Ministers, January 1960, 1-2.
\textsuperscript{160} Ibid., 2.
“Freedom From Hunger Campaign” extending from 1960 to 1965. Here Sen emphasized the need for both the moral support and patronage of heads of state. Sen’s letters to governments and their leaders, and a memorandum titled “Principles and Methods Governing the Freedom From Hunger Campaign,” pointed to the need for financial contributions from individuals and organizations, but it stated that leadership in this area would have to come from governments if the Campaign was to get off the ground. Sen received the support he sought.

He later attributed the warm reception to FFHC to the universal appeal of the hunger problem; he wrote that “Nothing touches the conscious of man as much as hunger. It brings into man’s immediate consciousness the social injustices and

161 BR Sen. Letter to Prime Minister Nehru of India. (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B)-67 B15, Government and Governmental Organizations, 18 May, 1960), 1-2. This letter indicates that it is “similar” to those sent to other heads of state.

162 Ibid.

163 By the end of 1961, FFHC had received donations from 27 countries, 7 commercial firms, and 16 agencies, institutions or other donors totalling US$1,223,740. The donor countries were: Austria ($10,000); Australia ($17,869); Burma ($924); Canada ($23,161); Ceylon ($1,999); Chad ($407); Denmark ($15,045); France ($74,952); Finland ($4,664); Germany, Federal Republic of ($110,714); Ghana ($33,604); Honduras ($500); India ($41,999); Ireland ($10,000); Israel ($1,000); Lebanon ($5,791); Luxembourg ($2,002); Malaya ($3,269); Netherlands ($20,000); New Zealand ($4,213); Nigeria ($14,002); Norway ($4,901); Pakistan ($10,500); Sudan ($2,000); Sweden ($29,950); Switzerland ($11,598); and the United Kingdom ($56,007). The commercial firms were: Machine Agricole Industriale Pieralise ($808); Shell International Chemical Company Ltd. ($2,801); Japanese Ammonium Sulphate Export Company ($20,000); Société Ciba ($5,017); Fabricantes Españoles de Superfosfato ($5,600); Consolidated Mining and Smelting Co. of Canada Ltd. ($5,000); and Olin Mathieson Chemical Corporation New York ($5,000). The agencies, institutions and other donors were: the German Protestant Bishops ($99,734); German Catholic Bishops ($104,720); Centre d’Etude de l’Azote ($107,000); International Potash Institute ($30,000); Foundation for International Potash Research ($15,000); the Sulphur Institute ($17,500); National Association of Chemical Industries, Milan ($4,140); International Superphosphate Manufacturers Association, London ($50, 406); Fertilizer Development Council, Israel ($1,000); Netherland Organization for International Aid ($110,023); Evangelical Churches in Germany ($100,000); Lutheran World Federation ($1,000); International Federation of Margarine Associations ($4,144); Sales of Publications ($2,791); Various donors ($5,985). Figures in US dollars. FAO. “Report of the External Auditor to the Conference of the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations on the Accounts of the Regular Program for Financial Period 1960-61 ended 31 December 1961” (FAO, BU 2/1 (1960) (RG 8-FFHC1340), Budget Files From International Coordinator’s Office, 1961), 44-46.
inequalities, the divisions between man and man that encrust social structures everywhere.\textsuperscript{164}

Sen did not mistake enthusiasm for guarantees of action, nor did he expect uniformity in participation. As noted above, the Director-General repeatedly reminded governments of their responsibilities. A letter to participating governments reminded them that FAO Conference Resolution 13/59 emphasized that the objectives of the Campaign can only be reached if the less developed countries carry out the effective and useful action projects to that end, and that the formulation of vigorous prosecution by them of such projects will increase the support for the Campaign in the more highly developed countries.\textsuperscript{165}

Sen provided potential contributor governments with examples of the kinds of action projects requiring support and pledged FAO to assist with the provision of other information. However, he was explicit in his assertion to government leaders that “It should be understood…that internationally assisted projects form only part of the Campaign and that each country will be expected to develop its own program of action”.\textsuperscript{166} The emphasis on action by individual countries grew in part from the nature of FAO, which expresses the will of its members, in part from Sen’s view that the Campaign should be heterogeneous in its approach, and in part from the realization that FAO could not, and should not, dictate methods or solutions to development problems.

\textsuperscript{164} Sen, \textit{Towards a Newer World}, 144.
\textsuperscript{165} BR Sen. FFHC/G-2 (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B0-67 B15, Correspondence with Governments, 1 July, 1960), 1.
\textsuperscript{166} Ibid., 2.
Accompanying Sen’s letter to Ministers in January 1960 was the “Principles and Methods” document noted above.\textsuperscript{167} This document outlined some details of the responsibilities of parties involved in FFHC and was a guiding document for the Campaign. In this document FAO described its own role as one of leader and coordinator. In a strict sense, this meant that applications for external assistance would be put before the Director-General, who would analyze them from the standpoint of “practical implementation” and then bring these to the attention of those nations and organizations wishing to assist.\textsuperscript{168} In a broader sense, it meant that FAO would recommend projects, provide guidance in technical assistance to bilateral programs, and would offer direct assistance at the request of individual governments. FAO would also make available, and provide guidance to, all available documents relating to action or research projects and would facilitate the passage of other information, and it would support development education programs. Finally, FAO would consult with other UN Agencies and coordinate cooperation with them.\textsuperscript{169}

\textbf{Conclusion}

When the Freedom from Hunger Campaign was launched on 1 July 1960 it had already achieved a partial success. It had brought the UN and its Specialized Agencies, NGOs, governments, and individuals together in the

\textsuperscript{167} FAO. “Principles and Methods Governing the Freedom-From-Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG12, Sec, 4, B0-67 B15 (Box 2), FFHC / Ford-FFHC, January, 1960).
\textsuperscript{168} Ibid., 3.
\textsuperscript{169} Ibid., 3, 5.
organization and implementation of a world campaign against hunger. It soon added industry, religious and youth organizations, and a growing number of countries to that list.\textsuperscript{170} For Sen, much of the success lay in bringing parties together; he understood that solutions to the hunger problem would be long in coming, and that the role of the FAO would evolve continually. The willingness of the various participants to come together, especially where UN Agencies and governments welcomed NGOs as senior partners in development, signalled a fundamental change in the way international development assistance was conceived of and carried out.

In this chapter we have seen the vision of BR Sen reflected in actions and policies at FAO in that late 1950s. Sen acted to stimulate change long before his ideas on a world campaign against hunger had clarified, and it was this early action which allowed a sophisticated, integrated approach to be developed and adopted. As we will see in the following chapters, this early action also laid the foundation for a campaign which was much more successful than anyone had anticipated, and it invented partnerships which today are taken for granted. However, Sen should not be granted all the credit as there were many other individuals from a variety of organizations and representing differing interests who made key contributions to the development in the Campaign. Nevertheless, it was Sen who perceived both the vastness of the problem and the opportunity to address it.

Sen’s inspiration and personal commitment to the Campaign were crucial, but his ideas met a receptive audience, and in many ways the Campaign was a

\textsuperscript{170} Not all countries participating in FFHC were members of FAO or of the UN.
product of its environment. UN and FAO membership was swelling with new member states, many of which were underdeveloped or faced serious development problems, and advances in communication and science appeared to offer new possibilities. Moreover, FFHC would be FAO’s contribution to the first UN Development Decade and Sen’s proposals were developed with that end in mind. In the most basic sense, FFHC was developed in response to a very real and very urgent need; the problem of hunger and malnutrition in the world was so vast that only a global effort of the kind Sen envisioned could have a hope of finding solutions. It was Sen, however, whose unique ability and personal quality came into focus at a time in post-war history where organizations such as FAO were capable of change and where modern knowledge and resources could be harnessed in ways never possible before.
Chapter Two: A World-Wide Campaign

Throughout the world groups are saying: “...we have heard the appeal of the FFHC, we are convinced that the need is urgent and great and that resources are not sufficient to meet the overwhelming problems...we want to help...what can we do?”

BR Sen

Director-General Sen intended that the Freedom From Hunger Campaign act as a catalyst for a world-wide movement to combat the problem of hunger and malnutrition. This chapter will focus on the broad level of participation in the Campaign; it is here we see that the Freedom From Hunger Campaign became a large arena in which organizations, groups, and individuals of all kinds came together to work in cooperation and in common cause. FFHC was the brainchild of FAO Director-General BR Sen, but its success depended on a very broad level of cooperation. Sen had correctly perceived that the international community was ready to get behind a global campaign against hunger, and he understood that this readiness grew in part from a modern awareness of the realities of hunger and malnutrition and from the urgency of the problem. Moreover, Sen understood that a high level of enthusiasm would be short lived (his initial proposal for the Campaign was five years), and though the Campaign lasted well into the 1980s, he understood that in a short period lasting relationships could be forged and new solutions could be developed. The most important aspect of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign in the First Development Decade was its ability to bring together partners in a cooperative and common effort to combat the problem of hunger and malnutrition. The cooperative effort that emerged around the world in response to the experience of the
World Wars, to the crisis facing people in developing countries, and to the changing face of the international community provided the context for FFHC.

A sense of urgency which grew out of the calamity of the two World Wars, the rapid increase in population, and in the corresponding growth of poverty and starvation in the world permeated the First Development Decade. The purpose of FFHC in the First Development Decade was to take advantage of the spirit of cooperation among peoples, international institutions, governments, religious, non-governmental, and other organizations to create real and lasting linkages, increase communication, and develop partnerships, especially between developing and developed countries, and to help educate all of these stakeholders on all aspects of development. In ensuring a broad and sustained level of participation, the Campaign achieved most of its key goals. The idea that only a massive, cooperative effort could have a hope of combating hunger and malnutrition was the primary characteristic of the Campaign. In this chapter two themes emerge: the first is that support for the Campaign was often justified by the argument that peoples everywhere have a basic, moral responsibility to help those less fortunate than themselves; the second is that supporters of the Campaign stress fraternity of the human species. This kind of support for the Campaign emerged in a period in which self-interest was often cited as a justification for development assistance, and many FFHC participants did so in reference to the Campaign.

171 These were: raising awareness of the problem of hunger; focusing attention on specific actions and programs; speeding up solutions, inspiring cooperation among international agencies, NGOs, and governments; and achieving a high level of enthusiasm with the result of the development ongoing solutions to the problem of hunger and malnutrition. The only objective the Campaign did not achieve was that of developing a higher level of mutually profitable trade between developing and developed nations. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree. Interview, 4 October, 2005.
The first part of this chapter will look at the role of the FFHC/FAO Secretariat in Rome and at the role of the Advisory Councils of Governments and NGOs; these bodies were absolutely essential to the basic functioning of the machinery of the Campaign. The role of the national committees will be examined; key points here include the large numbers of national committees and the heterogeneity of both the approach and makeup of those committees. Like the national committees, NGOs participated in great numbers and were equally heterogeneous in their nature and approach. Religious organizations of all kinds supported the Campaign, and an interesting theme which emerges in this discussion is the similarity among religious groups in the moral and spiritual justifications for support of the Campaign. Finally, this chapter will look at the various other groups, organizations, and individuals who supported the Campaign.

Prior to the launch of the campaign on 1 July, 1960, Sen had secured the cooperation of UN Specialized Agencies, governments, NGOs, and national FFH committees, but these groups were relatively few in number – especially when compared with the level of participation achieved over the duration of the Campaign. The success of the first phase of the Campaign, and especially of the First World Food Congress in Washington in 1963, encouraged an increase in the participation of the kinds of organizations already involved and inspired the cooperation of major religious organizations, industrial partners, and a variety of other groups and individuals. These partners and participants in the Campaign each contributed in different ways and at different times. This chapter will deal with each of these separately and discuss each largely in the context of the whole of the Campaign Phase, or put another way, the period
between the launch of the Campaign and the Second World Food Congress (WFC-2) in 1970.

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign Secretariat

After Dr. Sen, the most important individual to the operation of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign was the International Coordinator (IC). From 1960 to 1971 this position was filled by Charles H. Weitz, in the 1970s the IC was Hans Dall, and in the 1980s this role was filled by Alberto Penâ Montenegro. The Campaign Secretariat was created within the offices of the Director-General and was subject to the Director-General’s direct orders. It was the responsibility of the International Coordinator to keep in touch with NGOs and other groups and undertake direct responsibility for their programmes. The activities of the IC were quite broad and the role changed in response to the developments of the Campaign. In 1971 Weitz became Head of the FAO Office at the United Nations, and the role was filled by Hans Dall. Weitz was IC largely during the tenure of Director-General Sen and during the Campaign phase of FFHC (1960s), and Dall was IC under the tenure of Director-General AH Boerma and

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172 In the developing stages of the Campaign (1958-1960) there had been an interim Coordinator, Roger Savary, from the International Federation of Agricultural Producers, whose work in organizing FFHC and coordinating efforts was critical to the successful launch of the Campaign.

173 Weitz had first met Dr. Sen in Turkey in 1958 when he was the UN Representative there, but at a later posting as UN Representative in Sri Lanka in the summer of 1960 Mr. Weitz received a telex inviting him to be the International Coordinator for the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. The offices of the FFHC were located in very close proximity to that of the FAO Director-General in order to facilitate the personal attention of the Director-General. Charles H Weitz, Interview, 4 November, 2004.; BR Sen, Towards a Newer World, 139.

174 B.R. Sen, Towards a Newer World, 139-140.

175 Mr. Dall’s association with FAO began when he became involved in student politics during his time at Danish National University; he was Secretary-General of the International Student Conference headquartered in Holland, was a participant in the Young World Assembly, was General Secretary, World University Services; and was Vice-Chairman of Governing Board, International Council of Voluntary Agencies, Geneva. Hans Dall, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
then Edouard Saouma and during the Development Agency phase of FFHC (1970s). Dall became an FAO Country Representative in 1980 and was replaced by Penã Montenegro who worked as IC in the final years of the Campaign and in a diminished capacity compared to that of his predecessors.

The leadership and strength of character of the IC were critical to the success of the Campaign. Weitz is best described in a recent letter by former FFHC staff member Kjeld Juul,\(^{176}\) who wrote that Weitz was “a dynamic, outstandingly competent and hardworking chief, extremely hospitable, a true friend of his friends, with a moral high standard and a temperament which occasionally emitted sparks.”\(^{177}\) The small secretariat led by Weitz was initially composed of individuals drawn from various departments at FAO,\(^{178}\) and, because nothing like FFHC had been done before, FFHC/FAO had no clear mandate or methodology. Weitz described the FFHC staff in the early 1960s as “rag-tag and bob-tail” and attributed the eclectic nature and inexperience of the Campaign Secretariat as a key to its success. He described the situation faced by this group as one in which the FFHC Secretariat “was flying by the seat of its pants” and had to “make it up as [they] went along.”\(^{179}\) The first years of FFHC were characterized by a high level of innovation as the Secretariat developed methods and worked to implement the Campaign as Sen envisioned it. The Campaign and its Secretariat became increasingly sophisticated throughout the decade, and while there was continuity, the role and responsibilities of FFHC/FAO developed and expanded. The publicity and information aspects of FFHC will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Three, but it is important to

\(^{176}\) Juul was FFHC European Liaison Officer from 1963 to 1967.


\(^{178}\) The FFHC Secretariat never numbered more than 18 individuals.

\(^{179}\) Charles H. Weitz. Interview, 4 October, 2005.
note here that the publicity and information/development education mechanisms of FFHC were critical to ensuring a wide-spread and sustained level of participation. At FAO the ideas shaping the Campaign competed with outdated ‘colonial’ prejudices and methodologies which persevered in many individuals and departments.\textsuperscript{180} One of the primary goals of the Campaign was to break down outdated ideas held by development workers, farmers, government officials, and the general public. This was to a large degree the function of the publicity efforts.\textsuperscript{181}

At the time of the launch of the Campaign in July, 1960, the only documentation and publicity material relating strictly to the Campaign philosophy and objectives, were mimeographed copies of the Director-General’s speeches and printed action projects.\textsuperscript{182} By the end of 1960, however, FFHC was producing and distributing \textit{FFHC News}, the \textit{FAO Bulletin} and the \textit{Picture Sheet} (a resource for selecting promotional photographs) to national committees, NGOs and other organizations.\textsuperscript{183} The \textit{Ideas and Action Bulletin} began as a few sheets of mimeographed material and grew into a full magazine style publication with a global distribution.\textsuperscript{184} The FAO magazine \textit{Ceres} became increasingly sophisticated and FAO produced the Development Exchange Papers; national committees in many countries published their own material and in many cases they still do.\textsuperscript{185} As we

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{180} Charles H. Weitz, Victoria Bawtree, Hans Dall. Interview, 5 October, 2005.
\item \textsuperscript{181} Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{182} M. Moulik, acting Director, Public Information Services for FFHC noted the lack of directives in a memorandum on the FFH publicity program for 1961. M. Moulik, “FFHC Publicity Program for 1961” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC Public Relations, 5 December, 1960), 1.
\item \textsuperscript{183} FAO, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign, Meeting of Information and Education Officers of non-Governmental Organizations” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (box 3), FFHC – Misc., 12-15 December, 1960), 3.
\item \textsuperscript{184} \textit{Ideas and Action} was distributed to all FAO Offices, national campaign committees, various groups participating in the Campaign, and to other UN Agencies. At its peak, \textit{Ideas and Action} had a distribution of approximately 40,000. Victoria Bawtree, Interview. 6 October, 2005.
\item \textsuperscript{185} By 1970 national committees producing FFHC materials included: Australia, \textit{Hungerscope} (newsletter); Argentina, \textit{Informativo} (news sheets); Belgium, \textit{Demain le Monde} (magazine); Canada, \textit{Hunger} (magazine), and \textit{International Development} (news paper); Ceylon, \textit{Shramadana} (bulletin); Chile,
\end{itemize}
will see in Chapter Three, FFHC/FAO was involved in a variety of promotional activities including the 1963 FFHC Stamp issue and Freedom From Hunger Week, and after the First World Food Congress was increasingly involved in a number of FFHC conferences, the Young World Mobilization Appeal, and the Second World Food Congress.

The Government and NGO FFHC Advisory Committees

The backbone of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign were the national committees, but the formative stages of the Campaign depended on the FFHC Secretariat, and on the support of Governments and NGOs.\(^{186}\) The participation of governments and NGOs was critical to the development of the Campaign – particularly because NGOs and Governments cooperated with FAO as early as 1958 to develop the objectives and scope of Sen’s ‘global’ campaign against hunger.\(^{187}\) Official cooperation began in earnest in 1959 as FAO solicited and received support from these groups. Sen understood that it was essential that Governments and NGOs not only participate in the Campaign, but also cooperate with each other. Beginning 1959 and 1960 these groups cooperated with each other and with FAO to develop and launch the Campaign, and such cooperation forever

\(^{186}\) In the early 1960s, FFHC documents refer to international non-governmental organizations as INGOs and national non-governmental organizations as NGOs; this distinction is not always applied and it appears less frequently in FAO documentation after the First World Food Congress in 1963.

\(^{187}\) Sen had engaged in discussions with representatives of governments and NGOs as he developed his proposals. Governments officially supported Sen’s proposals to ECOSOC and FAO Council in 1958 and 1959, and FAO received numerous letters of support and suggestion from individual governments. Those NGOs ‘accredited’ to FAO were consulted and invited to participate, and NGOs not accredited to FAO or other UN Agencies attended meetings of the Ad Hoc Committee on Campaign objectives, and 23 NGOs were officially represented in 1959 on the Ad Hoc Advisory Committee of NGO’s [sic] on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. FAO, “Report of the Ad Hoc Advisory Committee of NGO’s [sic] on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, Ad Hoc Papers FFHC, 19 January, 1960), 1.
changed working relations between these groups. By the time of the launch of the Campaign on 1 July, 1960, working relations among FAO, UN Agencies, governments and NGOs had been cemented.

Sen told the Government Advisory Committee on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign in June 1961 that in its first year, FFHC had seen several important developments. The first was that the General Assembly had unanimously adopted a resolution urging all member countries and UN Specialized Agencies to support the Campaign and requesting that FAO complete and submit a report to ECOSOC on the best methods for moving the largest possible quantities of “goods” (food surpluses) to developing countries.\(^{188}\) The second was that there were areas of great development of FFHC in some countries; General de Gaulle and Prince Phillip had undertaken to be the chief patrons of FFHC in France and Great Britain respectively, and President John F. Kennedy had started a Food for Peace movement and had formed a National Council to support the aims of the Campaign\(^{189}\) (Sen and Kennedy both attended the first meeting of this committee).\(^{190}\) Third, Sen told the Committee that His Holiness Pope Paul IV had chosen the 70th anniversary of the publication of the Papal Encyclical “Rerum Novarum” for a major pronouncement on agriculture in which His Holiness drew attention to development problems and urged global cooperation and massive capital investment and technical assistance to help peoples climb out of what Pope Paul called “primary

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\(^{188}\) B.R. Sen, “Opening Address by the Director-General to the Government Advisory Committee on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign – Third Session,” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC-Misc, 19 June, 1961), Appendix 2, 1.

\(^{189}\) In the United States the Freedom From Hunger Foundation had formed in 1946 as a non-profit international development organization called Meals for Millions; in 1963 it officially served as the FAO’s Freedom From Hunger national committee in the United States.

\(^{190}\) B.R. Sen, “Opening Address by the Director-General to the Government Advisory Committee on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign – Third Session.”
The perception of a sluggishness in FFHC in the first years is not surprising because the approach was such a broad one. Sen and the FFHC Secretariat worked hard to combat that perception, and they believed that the best way to do that was to keep both the NGO and Government Advisory Committees fully apprised of any developments in the Campaign. The International Coordinator moved back and forth between the Government and NGO Advisory Committees updating each to the other’s activities and communicating where efforts might be the most effective. As Sen noted, it is difficult to see what was happening in the Campaign as a whole – particularly in the first several years. In this period the call for participation had just been issued, the Campaign was an entirely new idea, and though there was a very high number and wide variety of groups and organizations enthusiastic about participation, it took each of them time to hear about the project and more time to organize a response. Still, considerable progress occurred, and by June 1961 there were 18 national Freedom From Hunger Campaign

191 Ibid.
192 Ibid., 2-3.
193 Ibid., 2.
194 This is why the Campaign was designed to culminate in the First World Food Congress in 1963 – which was not to be a finale, but rather a time in which information was widely available and in a forum where all the players met one another in a cooperative environment.
Committees. At this time Government Advisory Committee for the Freedom From Hunger Campaign consisted of representatives of Australia, Brazil, Colombia, France, Germany, Ghana, India, Lebanon, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America.\(^\text{195}\) Charles Weitz told the Government Advisory Committee in 1960 that there was a strong public response to the Campaign and a willingness to participate – especially by NGOs and national committees. Of the 18 national committees, 11 were broadly based and included representatives of NGOs and other private organizations.\(^\text{196}\)

In late February 1961, Weitz reported to the NGO Advisory Committee\(^\text{197}\) on the progress made in various aspects of the FFH effort. The previous session of the same Advisory Committee had engaged in discussions of a very preliminary nature, and Campaign activities and participants had changed significantly in the intervening months.\(^\text{198}\) The review of Campaign activities included information/education efforts,

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\(^{197}\) Participants in the Advisory Committee represented the following non-governmental organizations: the Associated Country Women of the World (ACWW), the Commission of the Churches on International Affairs (CCIA), the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU), the International Conference of Catholic Charities (ICCC), the International Federation of Agricultural Producers (IFAP), the Islamic Congress, the World Assembly of Youth (WAY), the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), the World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU), the World Federation of United Nations Associations (WFUNA). Observers at the Second Session represented the Catholic International Union for Social Services, the International Centre of Biological Research, the International Centre for Technical and Practical Studies, the International Council of Catholic Men, the International Federation of Margarine Associations, the International Organization for Rural Development, the Lutheran World Federation, the Salvation Army, and the World Young Women’s Christian Association. FAO, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign Advisory Committee of Non-Governmental Organizations: List of Participants” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC – Misc., 27 February – 1 March, 1961), 1-2.

\(^{198}\) Key points of discussion at this Session included the nature of a publicity campaign, the need for the formation of national committees in developed and developing countries, the role to be played by various organizations (discussion focussed on the Peace Corps), guidelines for volunteerism, and administrative and financial arrangements for donors. FAO, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign, Meeting of Information and Education Officers of Non-Governmental Organizations” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), 12-15 December, 1960), 1-3.
fund raising, research and action projects, and the participation of national committees.\textsuperscript{199} Areas of interest after the review were the food surplus question, the financial situation of FFHC, and the World Food Congress.\textsuperscript{200} These were not new subjects, but their prominence in discussions at both the NGO and Government Advisory Committees after January 1961 indicates a break from an emphasis on organizational aspects of the Campaign and the beginning of an emphasis on action aspects. Weitz reported to the NGO Advisory Committee that a study had been undertaken by four FAO bodies, the Research Sub-Committee, the FAO Conference for Europe, the Government Advisory Committee, and the FAO Council.\textsuperscript{201} The two main areas of concern for FFHC at this time were encouraging the formation of national committees and the organization of the World Food Congress.\textsuperscript{202} It was the opinion of the International Coordinator that the three main areas of concern for the NGO Advisory Committee in 1961 included, firstly, ensuring that the Advisory Committee represented all NGOs and not merely the 11 presented at the Advisory Group; secondly, that NGOs were active in effective information and education areas; and thirdly, discussing the role of the NGO group at the World Food Congress.\textsuperscript{203}

At the meeting of the NGO Advisory Committee in February and March 1961 and at the meeting of the Government Advisory Committee in June 1961, the International Coordinator emphasized the fact that momentum in the Campaign was still building and

\textsuperscript{199} FAO, “Advisory Committee of Non-Governmental Organizations, Second Session” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 (Box 3), FFHC – Misc., 27 February, 1961), Annex 2, 1.
\textsuperscript{200} Ibid., 1-3.
\textsuperscript{201} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{202} Ibid., 2.
\textsuperscript{203} Ibid., 5.
that that momentum was designed to culminate at the World Food Congress in 1963.204

Shortly after this meeting, the Thirty-Fifth Session of the FAO Council acknowledged

that the Campaign had been slow to get underway, “largely because Nations needed time
to establish their national campaign committees and to wind up previous fund-raising
programs”, but noted that there was “definite evidence” of a gathering momentum.205

The Council agreed that “the stage was set for positive work, which should be
relentlessly pursued.”206 Moreover, the Council “noted with satisfaction” that many
national and international organizations “had at heart to do their utmost in promoting the
success of the Campaign and had undertaken to spearhead action.”207 The FFHC
Secretariat, primarily in the form of the Director-General and the International
Coordinator, worked continuously to keep all the major stakeholders (in the first year
these were UN Specialized Agencies, governments/national committees, and NGOs) well
informed on the activities of their partners and of the whole of the Campaign, and had
begun to identify to these parties emerging areas of need, potential roles for participants,
and emerging ideas and viewpoints.

Faced with such diverse actors, Charles Weitz’s job was not easy. In 1961 he
identified a lack of a continuous flow of information from national FFHC Committees to
FFHC/FAO, but this was attributed to a lack of adequate funding and facilities.208 A
second problem area was the need for increased funding for Campaign activities.209

204 FAO, “Opening Address by the Director-General to the Government Advisory Committee on the
Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC – Misc., 15 June, 1961), 1-
3.
205 FAO, “Thirty-Fifth Session: Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3),
206 Ibid., 2.
207 Ibid., 3.
208 Ibid., 3.
206 Ibid.
Other areas of concern were relatively minor, such as a lack of clarity when the Campaign name and slogans were translated into other languages. These problems, however, had largely been anticipated and most were viewed as typical for an effort such as FFHC. For NGOs, early progress was good, though there was a continued stress on the need for coordination and cooperation with governments, inter-governmental organizations such as WHO, UNESCO, UNICEF, and other NGOs – and on the need to define FFHC’s role and scope in any joint undertaking.\textsuperscript{210} There was early identification of a situation where developing countries presented a particular problem for NGOs because of the lack of local affiliates and trained technicians.\textsuperscript{211} At the FFHC Secretariat and at the NGO and Government Advisory Committees, there was a continued stress on the necessity of integrating all projects into a well thought out overall development scheme in order that unbalanced economic development be avoided. The initial response to FFHC by the Government and NGO Advisory Committees and from FAO Council, was one of enthusiasm and support.

\textbf{The National Committees}

The national committees were the backbone of the Campaign. Because individual national committees emerged at different times during the Campaign, especially in response to major initiatives (such as the launching of the Campaign, Freedom From Hunger Weeks, or the World Food Congresses), the activities of the committees varied as

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item 210 FAO, “Report of the Second Session of the Advisory Committee of Non-Governmental Organizations on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC – Misc., 27 February – 1 March, 1961), 3.
\item 211 Ibid., 3-4.
\end{itemize}
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widely as did the level of involvement. By the end of 1960 there were 18 national Freedom From Hunger Committees; at its peak the Campaign claimed over 100.\textsuperscript{212} FFHC national committees are remarkable both for their individual contributions to the Campaign and to particular development projects, and they attracted support from many important and influential individuals – including heads of state, religious leaders, and prominent community members. The national committees undertook the vast majority of the work of the Campaign, but governments were critical to their formation. Sen had correctly estimated that the enthusiasm of governments for the Campaign was related to the nature and cost of their contributions to it. In most cases, a national government initiated the formation of a committee, provided some initial logistical and administrative support, and provided some start-up financing. The FAO Representative in Honduras noted that “it is much easier to obtain the cooperation of the Government through a token contribution and a nomination of a national committee than to obtain cooperation in work.”\textsuperscript{213} Honduras had in fact been one of the first countries to make a donation to the Campaign, though it was a small one, and the Campaign was well received in that country at the highest levels as a direct result of this kind of pressure.\textsuperscript{214} In a minority of cases, all of them in developing countries, national committees were set up without the support of government.

\textsuperscript{212} The existing committees at the end of 1960 were Austria, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, France, Germany, Ghana, India, Lebanon, Pakistan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America.


\textsuperscript{214} M. Autret, Director of the Nutrition Division at FAO, noted to Charles H. Weitz that a report by Dr. Góngora on his visit to Honduras had found the Government of Honduras had expressed a high degree of “good will” toward FAO and its Campaign. The national committee had been founded by the President’s wife, Mrs. Alejandrina Bermudez Villeda Morales, the Minister of Natural resources, Mr. Lardizabal, and the FAO Country Representative, F.P. Keating. The success of this committee depended on the direct and continued involvement of these individuals. M. Autret. “Freedom From Hunger Campaign in Honduras” (FAO, FH 14/5, 22 May, 1962), 1.
The Campaign enjoyed the active participation of a number of countries which had not yet formed a national committee. As was seen in Chapter One, FFHC had by the end of 1961 received donations from 27 countries – a number greater than the total number of national committees at that time. These countries each had an FAO Country Representative working to promote the Campaign soon after its approval by the 1959 FAO Conference. The broadness of the Campaign made it difficult for any one party to perceive the wholeness of the FFHC effort, and this problem was compounded by the organizational nature of the Campaign’s first years. As noted above, the Campaign was designed to culminate in a World Food Congress in 1963 – a point which was then one of beginning where partnerships were in place and where ideas were formed and shared. National committees provided many of the participants in WFC-1 and WFC-2 by drawing on the ranks of their own membership, through their own networks, and through a variety of sponsorship programs. It was not until 1963 that the Campaign began to take shape as a visible ‘movement’ of the kind Sen had envisioned; that year saw the first observed Hunger Week, an FFHC Stamp Issue, and the First World Food Congress.

A typical letter to governments inviting participation in the Campaign prior to WFC-1 emphasized the breadth of the Campaign, the need for cooperation and local action, and the widespread support the Campaign received. A letter from Director-General Sen to governments in September 1961 read:

National FFHC Committees are now being established in many countries. Non-governmental organizations, private associations, religious groups, business, industry and others, are preparing plans to assist the

215 These were Austria, Australia, Burma, Canada, Ceylon, Chad, Denmark, France, Finland, the Federal Republic of Germany, Ghana, Honduras, India, Ireland, Israel, Lebanon, Luxembourg, Malaysia, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Sudan, Sweden, and Switzerland.
Freedom From Hunger Campaign. It is essential that FAO be equipped to advise and guide those who want and are ready to help, with positive, concrete suggestions as to the types and kinds of actions which will give expression to the fundamental aims of the Campaign.

Effective assistance depends upon local initiative and work. Whether these actions are broad national efforts, or local undertakings the impact of which is limited to the immediate area, it is essential that the work which is sponsored within FFHC be a part of a national development plan and an action for which the Government, at whatever level, offers its full support and cooperation.

Therefore, if FAO is to advise the many groups which are ready to aid in the objectives of the Campaign it must be sure that it is suggesting to them priority action of an important character which is being undertaken as a lasting part of the country’s development efforts. The important criterion is that the action is supported by national effort, and is part of the development plan which your country is undertaking.

I am asking FAO’s country representative to obtain only outlines of ideas at this stage. For some, we may immediately wish to request further information and for others additional data will not be required until a sponsor wishes to undertake definite negotiations in which case a plan of your operations will be drawn up for discussion with approval by your government.

We are convinced that there is an overwhelming willingness to help FAO’s Campaign and groups of all kinds and types are prepared to undertake action to help solve the world’s hunger problem in a positive and definite way. Therefore, I appeal to you to give this matter your most urgent and serious attention and, in cooperation with FAO’s Country Representative, prepare a series of proposals for which your government world accept assistance under the FFHC. Throughout the world groups are saying: “…we have heard the appeal of the FFHC, we are convinced that the need is urgent and great and that resources are not sufficient to meet the overwhelming problems…we want to help…what can we do?”

This is the time to say what is to be done and needs to be done, and I count on your full cooperation in this joint venture.216

In many cases, the response to the request for participation was met with immediate action. Responses from many governments indicated that Sen was correct in his

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216 BR Sen, Letter to Governments inviting participation in FFHC (FAO, FH 14/5, Brazil, 22 September, 1961), 1-2.
estimation that support for the Campaign was widespread. By the end of the decade, there were more than 100 national committees in developed and developing countries, and in addition to the FFHC/FAO relationship, the national committees each maintained a wide variety of partnerships with countless private industries, other NGOs, and their own governments.

An interesting characteristic of the national committees was that many were linked closely to former, sitting, and future world leaders. This support was often the result of continued pressure on governments by FAO Representatives and members of the national committees. The role of political leaders is unsurprising. It was Franklin Delano Roosevelt who had called the Hot Springs Conference in 1943, and the Campaign worked to secure one of the Four Freedoms he had outlined 1942. President Eisenhower gave a public address on FFHC on the day of the Campaign launch, and he made FFHC the subject of other public addresses including his Presidential Proclamation of Thanksgiving Day 1960 where he said

I urge my fellow Americans to assist in the Freedom-from-Hunger Campaign of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization. Our Government fully supports the objectives of this organization. But success of its campaign requires the active cooperation of generous citizens, and of public and private groups, in our country and around the world.  

President John F. Kennedy took a personal interest in the Campaign, and readily accepted Sen’s invitation for him to inaugurate the World Food Congress in 1963. Sen recalled in his autobiography Kennedy’s enthusiastic support, and noted in particular that Charles de Gaulle of France had made a very deep impression on him as an individual and in his

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218 BR Sen, Towards a Newer World, 144-145.
commitment to the Campaign. Sen also noted his personal discussions on the subject with Prime Minister Harold Macmillan of Great Britain, President Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan of India, Julius Nyerere of Tanganyika, Hans Lübke of Germany, Ferdinand Marcos of the Philippines, Pak Chung of South Korea, and King Bhumibol of Thailand. In Canada, Mitchell Sharp was the inaugural Chair of the Freedom From Hunger Committee (he was Honorary Chair of the Canadian Hunger Foundation at the time of his death in 2004), and former Prime Minister Lester Bowles Pearson gave a keynote address at the Second World Food Congress in 1970.

The leadership demonstrated by individuals such as Kennedy, de Gaulle, and Radhakrishnan encouraged the participation of other national leaders. Brazilian President Julio Quadros gave his support to the Campaign specifically because of the example set in France by de Gaulle, in India by President Radhakrishnan, in Iran by the Shahinsha, and in the United Kingdom by the Duke of Edinburgh. In many countries, France and India among notable examples, the Head of State was the Patron-in-Chief for the National FFH Committee, and senior government officials sat on the Committee’s board of Governors and often held executive positions with the Committee itself. France was cited early on as an example where the state supported the national committee financially,

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219 Sen noted that a speech given by the French Minister of Agriculture to the FAO Conference in 1961 revealed de Gaulle’s view that the fight against hunger was “the only battle worth fighting” and that this was the obligation of wealthy nations. Ibid., 145. Kennedy had called the fight against hunger the “great adventure of mankind” and reiterated the full support of the United States in the work of the FAO. John F. Kennedy, “Statement by John F. Kennedy to the Food For Peace Congress.” (FAO, Audio Recording, 28 June, 1961).
220 Ibid., 145-146.
222 In India the National FFH Committee had the President as the Patron-in-Chief, the Vice-President and Prime Minister as Patrons, Minister of Food and Agriculture as President, Minister of Agriculture as Executive President, and Minister of Community Development and Cooperation as Vice-President. Other members of the Committee included Deputy Ministers of Food and Agriculture, State Ministers of Agriculture, secretaries of other concerned Central Ministries, Members of Parliament, representatives of international organizations and representatives of rural people. RN Poduval, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign – Progress of Action Taken in India” (FAO, FH (SP) 14/5, India, 30 May, 1961), 2.
through the participation of members of Government, and the use of government resources to further Campaign objectives.\(^{223}\)

The number of national committees in 1961 remained limited, but their activities demonstrate that FFHC was moving at a vigorous pace. In Finland United Nations Day was used as the opening of the Campaign and as the platform for an appeal to the public to purchase meal tokens. The government donated US$4,655 to the Campaign, and through FFHC Finland forged new relationships and linkages with India.\(^{224}\) In other countries, such as Ireland and the Netherlands, FFHC committees were created under the responsibility of existing groups; in Ireland it was the Red Cross and in the Netherlands it was the Netherlands Organization for International Assistance.\(^{225}\) In Norway UN Day was used as the launch of the Campaign, and in cooperation with the Norwegian UN Association a broad media campaign was implemented and contacts were made with several NGOs and potential industrial partners. Some countries (Poland, Sweden, Greece) relied at first on existing FAO committees to perform the work of FFHC, often in collaboration with the local UN Association or other development oriented organizations. In Britain (there are separate committees for Northern Ireland and Scotland) FFHC was launched with a committee of 30 members on 1 June, 1961, and that committee set up an

\(^{223}\) BR Sen, “Opening Address by the Director-General to the Government Advisory Committee on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC – Misc., 15 June, 1961), 1-2. The French National Freedom From Hunger Committee (Comité Français pour la Campagne Mondiale contre la Faim – CFCMF) Committee of Patrons included de Gaulle, the Presidents of the Senate and the national Assembly, the President of the Economic and Social Council, the Archbishop of Paris, the Chief Rabbi for France and the Director of the Muslim Institute attached to the Paris Mosque. The Chairman of the CFCMF was His Excellency, Guillaume Geoges-Picot, Ambassador of France, and subcommittees were set up in each of the départomonts represented on the national committee and government services were made available to support CFCMF efforts. FAO, “Reports Presented by a Number of National Committees on Activities in Support of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-O67 (Box 3), FFHC – Misc., 10 November, 1961), 3.

\(^{224}\) Ibid., 2.

\(^{225}\) Ibid., 5, 6-7.
early focus on development education, publicity, and FFH projects. In India the National Committee enjoyed the patronage of President Radhakrishnan and the active participation of a number of senior government ministers – including the Minister of Food and Agriculture who was the inaugural President of the Committee. India also formed State FFH Campaign committees and in cooperation with FAO worked early on to develop a five year plan (to which the Government would contribute annually) and to identify and plan specific projects. In Pakistan a National Committee had been formed, though with markedly less participation from Government officials, and like its neighbour, was looking early on at specific areas of need.

In many countries interest in the Campaign was tempered by a lack of understanding of the nature of the Campaign and the role of the national committees. This was particularly true of developing countries, and in many of these countries FAO had to work harder to get FFHC off the ground. In India and Pakistan, early action was accompanied by a number of questions about the nature of the Campaign, its scope, and how the actual machinery of cooperation would work. As late as 1966 the International Coordinator found that the FFHC Committee in Ghana still required

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226 The British FFHC Committee was informally known as the “Pink Gin Knights” due to the choice of beverages at FFH planning meetings and informal discussions. Hans Dall and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.

227 Sushil Dey, FAO Director, Rural Institutions and Services Division suggested to the India and Pakistan Committees that the function of the national committees was: “(i) Undertake educational work to spread awareness of all facts of the problem in the comprehensive sense understood by the Campaign among all sections and groups of people. (ii) Assess gaps in present measures and efforts in the light of the comprehensive requirements of the Campaign. (iii) Stimulate drawing up of action programs to fill the gaps and coordinate such programs when prepared. (iv) Raise local funds and contributions to meet the costs of such programs to the maximum possible extent. (v) Determine the residual requirements for carrying out these programs which need to be met through outside assistance. (vi) Forward requests for such assistance through channels and in the manner already prescribed.” Sushil K. Dey, “The Freedom From Hunger Campaign in India and Pakistan” (FAO, FH (SP) 14/5, India, 19 February, 1962, 1-2.; Poduval, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign – Progress of Action Taken in India”, 4.

228 Ibid, 2-7.

229 Ibid, 2-7.
explanation on the nature of the Campaign and Campaign objectives.\textsuperscript{230} The situation was similar in a number of developing countries, and constant address of this situation was the function of the FFHC Secretariat in Rome and required ongoing personal effort by the FFHC International Coordinator and other members of the FFHC/FAO Secretariat.

Sen and the International Coordinator repeatedly stressed the need for continued and increased financial support by the national committees of ‘central campaign costs’.\textsuperscript{231} As we will see below, the same message was taken with regard to NGOs. It was important that FAO reiterate constantly that FFHC was not about raising money for FAO; rather, it was about education and stimulating action. While emphasizing the need for direct financial support of central Campaign costs, Sen suggested that there were other means through which national committees, organizations, or individuals could contribute. FAO suggested a variety of combinations in which FAO might receive funding to hire experts, fellowships might be provided by local institutions, or equipment could be made available.\textsuperscript{232} An FAO memorandum to the national committees of developed countries noted that

\begin{quote}
[t]here could be a number of permutations or combinations…there is no hard and fast rule as to how a project must be administered between FAO
\end{quote}

\textsuperscript{231} Central campaign costs included support for the production and distribution of publications and other media, support in circulating the basic studies, support for travel costs of non-FAO personnel, and support of individual projects administered by, or in partnership with, FAO. FAO also accepted donations from national committees and other “competent organizations” who wished to make a financial contribution only. The donor would deposit funds to the FFHC Trust Fund; FAO and a sponsor would sign an agreement outlining the nature of the undertaking and the responsibilities of FAO and of the sponsor, and the sponsor would be kept advised about the progress of the project or program. FAO also made provisions for the use of any unused funds and kept all donors advised of the status, uses, and potential uses for these funds. FAO, “Memorandum to National FFHC Committees of Developed Countries” (FAO, RG 12, FH, Governments and Governmental Organizations, Correspondence with Governments, 4 June, 1962), 1-6. The average Campaign Costs in the first three years of the Campaign were approximately US$1.5 million per annum. BR Sen, Letter to the Chairman, FFHC Committees in Developed Countries (FAO, RG 12, FH, Correspondence with Governments, 5 July, 1962), 2.
\textsuperscript{232} FAO, “Memorandum to National FFHC Committees of Developed Countries”, 2.
and sponsoring groups. We…are prepared to discuss any reasonable combination of methods in order to ensure that the work will be done.233

Because they faced greater problems, the advice to developing countries was more moderate. FAO was aware that the problems facing developing countries hindered their ability to respond to FFHC in the same way as developed countries; it was in fact the purpose of FFHC to follow a heterogeneous approach. A lack of resources, personnel, and funding tempered expectations. Sen advised the national committees of (some) developing countries that

I would feel that the funds put at the disposal of your committee, or raised by public subscription as I know many of you are doing, could best be utilized by concentrating on the production of campaign material in your language, in calling meetings of national and community leaders to discuss programs to support your national efforts, to support projects, and for other national purposes. However, this Campaign cannot be seen solely as a means for the developed countries to support activities to assist your country. Therefore, I would hope that your country, too, could make a contribution to the central costs of the campaign, even though this may only be a token sum.234

For some developing countries participation was slower or intermittent, and sometimes their participation ceased after some initial effort. Generally, however, participation in developing countries was lasting and often quite vigorous – Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committees exist in some developing (and developed) countries to this day.

Ethiopia, Gambia, Kenya, Sri Lanka, Nigeria, Zimbabwe each still claim FFHC Campaign Committees, and many FFHC committees exist in various forms and under many names.235 The continued participation of developed and developing countries into the 1970s and 1980s is demonstrative of the willingness of peoples and governments to

233 Ibid.
234 BR Sen, Letter to the Chairman, FFHC Committees in Developed Countries”, 3.
235 Examples include: in Canada, the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee became the Canadian Hunger Foundation (now CHF: Partners in Rural Development), in Germany FFHC became Hungerwelt, in Ireland FFHC became Gorta, and in Australia FFHC was absorbed by Oxfam.
work with FFHC. National committees were important in the communication of the message of FFHC to the public. In developing countries this meant access to resources and information, and in developed countries this meant increased public awareness and activism.

**NGOs**

One of the central goals of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign was to develop an increased profile for NGOs in the work of international development. As was the case with national committees and other partners in FFHC, the number of NGO participants rose steadily during the first phase of the Campaign. A heterogeneous approach was pursued with regard to NGOs, though there was a specific request by the Director-General that NGOs contribute 10-15% of the funds raised under the FFHC banner to central campaign costs.²³⁶ In 1962 Sen advised participating NGOs that governments had to that date provided roughly half of the $1.5 million annual FFHC budget.²³⁷ He further noted that NGOs were falling short of their responsibilities. He was direct in his appeal; in a letter to participating NGOs Sen wrote:

> I realize that your organizations do not possess large budgets. However, many do have strong national affiliates, and you can ask these affiliates to make their contributions to the national campaign committee in their countries for onforwarding to FAO, or on the other hand you can set up a special program to help collect funds in order that your organization can also share in the responsibility to help carry forward this great program. There would be no need, I believe, for me to suggest that there should be a quota which you should meet, but I would hope that each organization would, within the limits of its own financial responsibilities, consider its possibility in the light of the advice given by the

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²³⁶ B.R. Sen, Letter to NGOs (FAO, RG 12, FH, Governments and Governmental Organizations, Correspondence with Governments, 5 June, 1962), 1.
²³⁷ Ibid., 1-2.
NGO Advisory Committee and the action of the FAO Conference. I would also hope that those organizations commanding large membership and funds could be the most generous and could make substantial contributions to help the Campaign. Other organizations may find it possible to make only token contributions, but we would hope that over the course of the biennium we could count on NGOs to make some contribution to the central trust fund.  

Securing funding from NGOs required constant effort by the FFHC Secretariat, but the response of NGOs to the needs of the Campaign and to the problems of economic and social development during the First UN Development Decade was vigorous. Sen recalled to Commission I of the Fourteenth Session of the FAO Conference in 1967 that since the beginning of the Development Decade an increasing number of NGOs had moved away from a “short-term charity approach – emergency action for relief of acute need” to a program of investment in long-term development projects.  

Sen noted in particular that NGOs had shown a willingness to invest in infrastructure, training centres, and the provision of staff. Sen also noted that in 1966 the estimated volume of aid raised by NGO Campaign partners reached US$116 million; this is compared to a total volume of non-official aid in 1965 of US$400 million.

This study does not apply a narrow definition to NGOs because despite some early delineation between national non-governmental organizations and international non-governmental organizations by FAO (a distinction used with decreasing frequency by FFHC/FAO during the 1960s), the organization did not apply a narrow distinction as to which kinds of organizations qualified as NGOs and therefore for participation in the Campaign. In fact, quite the opposite was true. Some religious organizations were treated

238 Ibid., 3.
240 Ibid.
241 Ibid.
as NGOs or had their own NGO appendages or affiliates. The World Council of Churches is a good example, and some political organizations, such as the League of Arab States, were treated as NGOs. The purpose of the Campaign was to encourage partnerships, not to define them. With regard to relations with FAO and FAO-administered development projects, FFHC helped increase the profile and the responsibilities of NGOs.242 In *Global Community: the Role of International Organizations in the Making of the Contemporary World*, Akira Iriye noted that international nongovernmental organizations emerged against a background of growing internationalism and global consciousness, and they increased in number despite, and perhaps because of, the catastrophe of two World Wars.243 The growth of NGOs was also facilitated by the increased movement of goods and the generation of wealth; both of these allowed corporations, organizations, and individuals to invest in philanthropic enterprise.244 Dr. Sen used FFHC to speak directly to dozens, potentially hundreds, of international NGOs; through them the message of FFHC was meant to reach the tens of thousands of small NGOs not directly in contact with FAO. NGOs already had a history of working closely with international organizations and with governments,245 and

242 Charles H. Weitz recalled that before FFHC, at the FAO and UN Conferences, when NGO representatives took the floor, that was when all the delegates took the opportunity to go to the bathroom. Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 14 December, 2004.
243 Iriye argues that this is not surprising given the development of modern communication technology; the closer contact between peoples gave rise to conflict but also to “global consciousness”. Akira Iriye, *Global Community: the Role of International Organizations in the Making of the Contemporary World* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002, 10-13.
244 Iriye argues that without a flourishing economy in the early 20th century NGOs would have been slower to develop. Ibid., 12.
245 Ibid., 13.
Governments and international organizations had an unprecedented willingness to cooperate with each other.246

A key point of FFHC was that though Sen was able to take advantage of the economic and political framework provided by the United Nations and the post-war spirit of internationalism and cooperation, the Campaign was not designed to bring more actors and projects into a UN or FAO umbrella. Quite the opposite is true: FFHC was designed to encourage the flow of resources and efforts for economic development, period.247 Sen’s Campaign was criticized by some because it gave FAO less control over finances and other development resources. Sen’s successors may have had doubts about FFHC because of the broad approach. It is important to reiterate that FFHC was only a component in a complex set of conditions which facilitated a changing role for NGOs; FFHC was designed to build on an existing spirit of cooperation and change. As FFHC matured into the Second Development Decade, many of the national committees themselves became NGOs. The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee/Canadian Hunger Foundation is a good example, and many NGOs still cite FFHC as an important part of their history or development.248 That NGOs were of increasing importance to the work of economic and social development, especially in the 1970s, was viewed by FFHC/FAO as one of the great successes of the Campaign.

247 Directors-General Boerma and Saouma were less than enthusiastic about this aspect of FFHC. It is the opinion of members of the FFH Secretariat that Saouma shut down the Campaign for this reason.
248 A few examples are Oxfam Australia, Hungerwelt in Germany, Gorta in Ireland, CHF in Canada, and the Freedom From Hunger Foundation in the United States.
Religious Organizations

Not surprisingly, the Freedom From Hunger Campaign enjoyed the support of a variety of religious organizations. Buddhists, Christians, Hindus, Jews, Muslims, and a host of other faith based organizations offered their support to the Campaign and in many cases these organizations cooperated to organize and mobilize direct action. It is important to recognize that distinguishing a religious organization from an NGO is often difficult. Moreover, religious organizations have a long history as pioneers in economic and social development and have had a long history of working cooperatively with other bodies. The discussion here will focus on the influence of spiritual leadership in FFHC. Many religious leaders at the highest levels expressed their support for the Campaign, and through them the message of FFHC was communicated directly to millions of individuals. As was the case with other participants, and because there was no model for participation in the Campaign, religious participation was not uniform. Most of the major religious authorities released statements in support of the Campaign and its objectives, some issued directives for action, some undertook new development projects, and some composed and issued Freedom From Hunger prayers. It was common for representatives of religious organizations to sit on FFH national committees, and many religious organizations had established relationships with FAO and other development agencies. Most of the major religious organizations involved in FFHC shared a belief in charitable action, especially as it relates to the feeding of the hungry, and the ideas at the heart of FFHC resonated with their belief system. The key point for FFHC was that the Campaign

249 Many of the participating religious organizations issued an ‘all faiths prayer’ on the third Sunday March, 1963, in coordination with the issue of the stamp campaign and the World Food Congress, and as part of the ‘culmination’ of the Campaign.
provided a forum in which religious organizations cooperated with each other and with other organizations in a common cause.

As we saw earlier, the Catholic Church was an early and enthusiastic participant in FFHC. The Holy See maintained a permanent representative at FAO, and the physical proximity of the Vatican to FAO Headquarters in Rome encouraged close relations. Moreover, the Catholic Church maintained an effective global network, and in many regions the prevalence of the Catholic Church meant that the message of FFHC was directly communicated to millions of individuals. Leading Catholic thinkers such as Barbara Ward and Bishop Helder Camara of Brazil were closely associated with the Campaign, and the Catholic Church made significant intellectual contributions to the Campaign. At the World Food Congress in 1963, the Holy See suggested that

> It is within the sphere and competence of religious groups to engage in this effort, either as independent units or as one of the many existing community units. In all instances it is necessary to aim for and secure cooperation and coordination in a common effort.

> The hub of the wheel is the central purpose, the spokes are the different approaches, the rim is the spirit of cooperation and coordination.

> Given the peculiar and specific character of religious groups the approach and methodology will of necessity both agree with and differ from other social economic units.

> The religious units could well act as intellectual and spiritual guide-posts and stimulants. They could also employ their existing organizational setups to facilitate community action.

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250 Charles H. Weitz noted that for FAO, the Vatican “was right down the street.” Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005.

251 In Latin America, for example, the populations were almost entirely Catholic, and the influence of the Church over its parishioners was very strong. In many cases, FFHC committees in Latin America enjoyed the participation of senior Church officials and many of these committees were particularly active and effective. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.

252 Ibid.
In order to fulfill such functions it is of essential importance that religious groups become well grounded in the causes of hunger and in the possible remedies.  

The message of the Church at this time was very much that of FFHC/FAO, and though the goals of FFHC and of the Church in regards to human welfare were similar, the FFHC Secretariat had to work at encouraging participation and educating the Church to the methodology of FFHC.

Other Christian organizations such as the World Council of Churches, the Dutch Reform Church, the Church of England, and Orthodox Christians were prominent participants in the Campaign. The Patriarch of the Orthodox Copts, His Holiness, the Great Pope Kyrolles VI, Pope of Alexandria and Patriarch of the See of St. Mark, undertook several actions in support of the Campaign. These included FFHC items in Church publications, interviewing Dr. Sen and members of the FFHC Secretariat to gain a greater understanding of the Campaign, and the issue of a circular on FFHC to all the church priests in Cairo, all the Bishoprics in St. Mark’s Church in the UAR, the Sudan and Jerusalem; the priests included FFHC in one or more of their sermons.

The Islamic Congress undertook the task of stimulating the interest of all Islamic countries and circulated an appeal for support of the Campaign to heads of all Islamic countries and to the Presidents of all Islamic Societies. The appeal explained how Islam, in conjunction with all other religions, emphasized the fraternity of mankind and the

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253 L.G. Ligutti (Holy See), “The Role of Religious Groups and Their Institutions” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), FH 14/6, Catholic Support of Religious Groups Including Activities of Church Orgs., 4-8 June, 1963), 1.

254 Charles H. Weitz recalled that in order to influence the Vatican it was necessary to apply “steady drips of water” (to individuals such as Joe Vermillion, Head of the Pontifical Commission for Justice and Peace) in order to help them understand what it was FFHC was after. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree. Interview, 5 October, 2005.

255 Rev. Samuel, Bishop of Social and Public Services (Copts), Letter to Dr. AR Sidkey, FAO Regional Representative, FAO-UN, Cairo (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353) SP 14/6, Support of Religious Groups – Copts, 4 April, 1963).
“duty of mutual aid among those who have, and those who have not, the essentials of life” and that the object of the Campaign was partial fulfilment of this “divine commandment”. At the First World Food Congress Dr. M. Abdallah El-Arabi of the United Arab Republic echoed the statements on the role of religious organizations made by other representatives of religious groups, and noted that the Quran, like the texts of other religions, had at its heart a message of charity and of the obligation of the wealthy to help the poor. The Grand Imam, the Sheikh of Al-Azhar, issued repeated appeals for support of the Campaign; on the occasion of the second Freedom From Hunger Week in 1965 the Grand Imam pronounced that

The United Nations…with the expansion of its activities to organize an international Freedom From Hunger Campaign, the United Nations Organization serves a basic ideal of Islam in saving the world from the danger of hunger and the misery of deprivation and malnutrition. The Organization thus assists Islam to realize the greatest and most honourable of God’s bounties to humanity, namely, the two blessings of safety from fear and security from hunger. God Almighty has said, “Let them worship the God of this House, Who has fed them when hungry and safeguarded them from fear.” And when the United Nations Organization extends to religions its request of assistance in this noble cause, it shall find in Islam an inexhaustible source of this assistance, and shall realize that Islam has the adequate means to promote awareness in this battle against hunger in a way that envelops all time without being restricted to one week only. For Islam deals with this problem basically. It does not stop at curing the disease of want, but goes beyond that to prescribe to the human community the basic means of prevention from this sickness, in order to protect society from being exposed to the emaciation of disease or the exhaustion of illness. Islam prescribes that riches in the hand of the wealthy belong to God, the wealthy being appointed guardians responsible for its disposal, and that all people are God’s children, of whom the nearer to His heart are the more merciful towards his children. The wealthy has no bond with God to guarantee that he shall remain so.

256 FAO, “Islamic Congress” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/6, Support of Religious Groups – Islam, November 1960), 1.
Moreover, despite the lack of a formal, international organization, Islamic religious groups participated in FFHC in similar ways to their counterparts in other religions.259

In 1961 the World Jewish Congress (WJC) adopted the following resolution in Support of the Campaign:

The Executive of the World Jewish Congress welcomes the initiative of the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations in proclaiming the Freedom From Hunger Campaign.

Because of its humanitarian aspects as well as the contribution which it could make to the development of fraternal and co-operative relations among nations, the Executive of the World Jewish Congress attaches importance to this campaign and records its whole-hearted support of it.260

Dr. Maurice I. Perlzweig, the WJC’s Permanent Representative to the United Nations noted that “everyone who cherished the UN ideal of the dignity of the human person will feel under a solemn obligation to rally to its support”; he further noted that

As Jews whose people have endured and survived the miseries and deprivation of the ghettos and mellahs through all the vicissitudes of a long and troubled history, we feel under special obligation to come to the rescue of those who are in need. Above all, as the heirs and successors of the prophets and teachers who gave to mankind a new insight into the inalienable rights of the human personality, we have a special contribution to make.261

The World Union of Progressive Judaism supported and cooperated with FFHC,262 and the B’nai B’rith International Council adopted a resolution in support of the Campaign and appealed to all the Lodges to participate in FFHC, to cooperate with Local

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259 Unlike many other religious groups, Islam had no organized clergy and there were no churches for collecting or dispersing funds; therefore, Mosques could not perform a parallel function to most churches. However, other means, such as the use of Wakfs (bequeathed endowments) Ministries or Faith based Credit Boards to support Campaign efforts, and in Muslim countries a Muslim leader was always a member of the National FFHC Committee. M. Abdullah El-Araby, Letter to Charles H Weitz. (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/6, Support of Religious Groups – Islam, 4 October, 1965), 1-2.

260 The resolution was brought to the attention of all the affiliated organizations of the World Jewish Congress in 66 countries. World Jewish Congress, FFHC/NGO/62/WJC/1. (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/6, Support of Religious Groups – Judaism, 23 August, 1961), 6.


Committees and other organizations for the Campaign, and to inform their members as to the importance and the meaning of the Campaign.263

In a public message in 1965 Buddhist Acting Supreme Patriarch Somdetch Phra Buddhacharn connected the ideals and objectives of FFHC to Buddhist principles:

Through the powers of meritorious virtues – Metta Dhamma and Karuna Dhamma – which bring to mankind well-wishes and sympathy in the relief of distress, our world is unified. Besides this, ‘Dana’, or giving things that should be given, is one of the processes of virtue making.

If the matter be thoroughly studied, one would observe that our life is bound up with ‘Dana’ from the time of birth to the time of death. Paternal ‘Dana’ begins all. Right up to the present, mankind still likes to keep up the exchange of gifts. There is no end to it. Cooperation is also a form of ‘Dana’ which contributes to the community. It was Our Lord Buddha’s advice that ‘Dana’ should be practiced by everybody.264

The General Assembly of the World Fellowship of Buddhists (WFB) adopted resolutions in support of the Campaign; in 1966 a WFB resolution recognized that the “ideals and principles of the FFHC – self reliance, mutual aid, the promotion of people to people relations and the mobilization of all sectors of the human community in common endeavour, are in true consonance with the principles of Buddhist teaching.”265

These expressions of support for FFHC each emphasize moral obligation and the fraternity of humankind; moreover, these are the expression of religious leaders at the very highest levels. Religious bodies were instrumental in bringing the message of FFHC to millions of individuals in all parts of the world. Interestingly, though the support of religious groups for FFHC was secure, there were differences in viewpoint between FAO and its religious partners. The most prominent of these was the issue of family planning;

264 FAO, “Message of Somdetch Phra Buddhacharn, Acting Supreme Patriarch on the Occasion of the observance of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/6, Support of Religious Groups – Buddhism, 16 October, 1965), 1-2.
the Vatican was the most vocal in its opposition to FAO’s advocacy of family planning, yet FAO worked most closely and effectively with the Vatican in Rome and with its offices around the world. A second concern was that FAO was largely ‘Western’ organization and was prone to a Christian bias – a situation which might have adversely affected some development efforts. These concerns, however, were minor at the time, and the participation of religious groups in the Campaign was strong and sustained.

**Youth and Youth Organizations**

The Freedom from Hunger Campaign attracted the support of youth and youth organizations world wide. The First UN Development Decade coincided with an increased level of youth activism and youth involvement in international development. Like many other organizations and groups, youth involvement in FFHC occurred in the context of a greater level of activism and awareness of global issues. Youth involvement in international development in the early part of the Development Decade was tentative and disorganized. The level of organization among youth groups increased steadily throughout the 1960s and 1970s to the point where the voice of youth had a measurable and a direct impact on international development in many ways. Involvement in the Freedom From Hunger Campaign helped increase the profile of youth on the international stage, and it contributed to the process of international development in the short and the long term.

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266 Hans Dall recalled that the Vatican Regional Office in Asia was very successful in approaching Asian religions, such as the Hindus, and securing their cooperation. In many cases Asian religions brought their own youth groups into participation. Hans Dall, Interview by Author, 5 October, 2005.

267 Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
Youth had been involved in FFHC since its developmental phase in the late 1950s. The World Assembly of Youth (WAY) was represented on the NGO Ad Hoc Advisory Committee and then on the NGO Advisory Committee after the campaign launch in July 1960. WAY was the primary youth organization affiliated with the FAO and FFHC; this organization undertook to organize regional seminars on FFHC as early as 1961, was represented at the First and Second World Food Congresses, and through WAY World Youth Assemblies was an important voice on the international stage. FAO and FFHC were enthusiastic about youth involvement, and were impressed by WAY in particular because of their global scope and their apolitical nature.

Moreover, FAO and FFHC worked with WAY to develop and support the Young World Appeal and Young World Assembly in 1965. In a similar fashion to its work with NGOs, the voice of youth in the international development community was nurtured by FFHC/FAO; FFHC was of critical importance in providing youth and youth organizations an area of focus and a platform for activism.

The participation of youth in FFHC is best symbolized by the FAO/FFHC sponsored Young World Assembly and the Young World Appeal of 1965. Both reflected the increasing attention to the influence of youth in the 1960s, a decisive decade in the history of student politics. On 15 October, 1965 Director-General Sen opened the Young

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268 A Report on the NGO Advisory Committee on FFHC to WAY indicated the need for greater involvement by organizations such as WAY – especially in helping facilitate the greater movement of information from INGOs and national committees. WAY, “Report of the Second Session of the advisory Committee of Non-Governmental Organizations on the Freedom From Hunger Campaign.” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/7, World Assembly of Youth, 23 March, 1961), 1-2.

269 FAO, Memo re: Secretary-General of the World Assembly of Youth, Mr. Wiermark (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/7, World Assembly of Youth, 1961).

270 Hans Dall, International Coordinator of FFHC in the 1970s was in the 1960s the General Secretary of the World University Service, Vice-Chairman of Governing Board, International Council of Governing Agencies, and was a participant at the Young World Assembly. Mr. Dall recalled that in many ways FFHC “invented youth” because before FFHC gave youth a platform and included them in congresses, committees, and discussions they did not exist on the world stage. Hans Dall, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
World Assembly to launch the Young World Mobilization Appeal of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign with an expression of optimism:

This gathering is symbolic of a new spirit alive in the world today – to strive for a better world order in which men can live in peace and dignity. It is fitting that our current celebration of the 20th Anniversary of both the FAO and the United Nations should provide an opportunity for us to have the participation of young leaders like you from different parts of the world to express this new spirit abroad.271

The two day assembly included forty-four leaders and representatives of the young world and was held at the FAO Headquarters in Rome, Italy on October 15-16, 1965.272

272 The participants were: Ljubisa Adamovic (Yugoslavia), Economist, Institute for International Politics, Belgrade University; Benjamin A. Adigun (Nigeria), Statistician, Member of National FFHC Committee; Htun Aung (Burma), Assistant Secretary, International Union of Socialist Youth; Marie-Thérèse Basse (Senegal), Permanent Representative of Senegal to FAO; Jacques Beaumont (France), Vice-President, National FFHC Committee, Secretary-General, Cimade; Lino Bosio (Italy), President, FFHC Youth Commission; Secretary, Youth Section, Italian Worker’s catholic Association (ACLI); Nigel Calder (United Kingdom), Editor, “New Scientist,” London, and “the World in 1984”; Luca Cavatorta (Italy), Journalist, International Christian Union of Business Executives (UNIAPAC); member, FFHC Youth Commission; Angela Christian (Ghana), Second Secretary, Washington Embassy; Former Representative on Third (Social) Committee of United Nations General Assembly; Anne M. Costello (United Kingdom), Vice-Chairman, Cambridge University Campaign for World Development; Jamie Crispi (Cjile), Executive Secretary, FFHC Youth Commission; Treasurer, Chilean Students Federation; Hans Dall (Denmark), General Secretary, World University Services; Vice-Chairman of Governing Board, International Council of Voluntary Agencies, Geneva; Barrie Davenport (New Zealand), Long Distance Swimmer; National President, FFHC “Operation21”; Piet Dijkstra (Netherlands), Rural Secretary, World Assembly of Youth, Brussels; Bernadette Enreille (France), Guide Commissioner, Overseas Affairs; Gregorio M. Feliciano (Philippines), President, Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement; Vice-Chairman, FFHC Committee; Cedric Forster (Ceylon), Projects Officer, Youth Agricultural Settlement Scheme; Emile Gagnon (France), Scout and Guide Commissioner; member “1966 Committee”; Edward R Garvey (United States), Secretary-General, International Student Conference, Leiden; Many N Gichuru (Kenya), Acting Assistant Secretary, Ministry of Labour and Social Services; Asher Golan (Israel), Agronomist, overseas agricultural youth trainer; Gabriel Habib (Lebanon), Secretary-General, World Organization of Orthodox Youth Student Movements (Syndemos); Ecumenical Youth and Student Secretary for the Near east, World Student Christian Federation; Richard Harmston (Canada), secretary-General, International Student Movement for the United Nations (ISMUN), Geneva; Kurt Hawlicek (Austria), International secretary, Socialist youth of Austria; member, FFHC Committee; JW Jackson (Ireland – United Kingdom), Education Officer, Oxfam; Moussa Keita (Mali), High Commissioner for Youth and Sport; President, International Committee on Youth, UNESCO; James E Knott (United States), Director of Programs, World Veterans Federation, Paris; Raymond Kunene (South Africa), Patriot; British and European Representative of Chief Luthuli’s African National Congress; Louis Maniquet (Belgium), Secretary, National youth Council; Treasurer, Council of European National Youth Committees; Carlo Meintz (Luxembourg), President, FFHC Committee; Secretary, UNESCO National Commission; Director, National youth Service; Dom Moraes (India), Author and Poet; Epifanio Montoya (Columbia), President, National Youth Committee and FFHC Youth Commission; Jean d’Ormesson (France), Deputy Secretary-General, International council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies; Galdys Parentelli (Uruguay), Vice-President, International Movement of Catholic Agricultural and Rural Youth (MIJARC); BW Perera (Ceylon), Projects Officer, FFHC Youth.
Holiness Pope Paul VI received the participants in audience; he noted the particular responsibility faced by youth in the fight against hunger:

Young people of today, who are fortunate enough to live in a world in which technology is continually placing novel and wonderful facilities in the hands of man, it rests with you – for you are the future – to see that these facilities should be really used in the service of all mankind, so that the world of tomorrow may be different from that of today, a world where all men may be brothers, at peace with one another.273

The Assembly discussed issues such as the need for universal cooperation in the fight against hunger and malnutrition, the importance of development education (and of education in general), the importance of the voluntary service of young people, disarmament, aid and trade, and the outlook for the world in 1985. Hans Dall, a participant in the Young World Appeal and later International Coordinator for FFHC, recalled the importance of FAO to the “youth movement” in the 1960s. FAO concentrated on youth for good reason. By inviting youth into the discussion and processes of international development, FAO “helped invent youth” as an identifiable group, as a factor to be considered in international development, and as a movement.274 Moreover, the Young World Assembly produced a document, the Young World Manifesto, which is still relevant today.275 The Manifesto reads:

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Mobilization Committee; Thangam E Philip (India), Principal, Institute of Catering Technology and Applied Nutrition, Bombay; Odon Rafenoarisoa (Madagascar), President, FFHC Young World Mobilization Appeal; Glyn Roberts (United Kingdom), Former executive Secretary, Co-ordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service (UNESCO), Paris; Norma Saeb Camargo (Mexico), President, United Nations Student Association; Arlindo Sandri (Brazil), Former President, International Movement of Catholic Agricultural and Rural Youth; S Ifitikhar Shabbir (Pakistan), Secretary-General, Pakistan National Youth Council; Adel Taher (UAR), Oarsman; Under-Secretary of State Planning and Research, Ministry of Youth; Fortunato Tirelli (Italy), National secretary, 3P Clubs; Bhupat J Trivedi (India), Joint Secretary, Young Farmers’ Association. Representatives from FAO included BR Sen, Charles H. Weitz, Raymond Lloyd, Secretary-General, Young World Assembly; FFHC Special Projects Officer, and Marjorie Taylor, Assistant Secretary.

273 Ibid., 5.
274 Hans Dall, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
275 Ibid.
To all young people, everywhere, from the Young World Assembly meeting Rome.

Half of the world does not have enough to eat. Each year, as a result, many millions die young, as surely as if shot by the guns of a tyrant. Many more are maimed for life by hunger, in body or in spirit.

We say to you, this suffering must be stopped. When all of us, whether we live with it or far away in the rich, well fed countries, make up our minds to end this hunger, we can do it.

The earth is ruled mainly by people out of touch with the young world. They know that men starve and die in millions. But they think it more important to make guns, bombs, warships, rockets, to send us to fight one another, than to provide seeds and water, schools and hospitals, so that we might feed and serve one another.

Twenty years ago today, men of foresight set up the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, to lead the attack on hunger. Many eat better than they would have done without it. Yet, after 20 years, there are more hungry people than ever before. In another 20 years time, if we do not act, there will be yet more, famine will haunt many lands and we shall be fighting one another once again. We must prevent such an outcome through the mobilization of the young world.

Know your power and know what you must do.

If you live in a rich country, you have wealth to share. Tell your fellow countrymen about the hunger in other lands. Demand of your governments that much more of the nations’ wealth – very many billions of dollars’ worth – should go to world development.

If you live in a poor country, demand adequate food for your fellows. Do not turn your backs on the land and the people who provide food; instead, work with them for rural development. Plan with them, so that starting with what little they have, they themselves can develop in body and in spirit.

If you are educated in special knowledge and skills, do not accept the old priorities. Know that science and technology, that can send men into space, need only be released into the poor lands to work even greater miracles. See that your skills are used to help the needy.

If you are a young parent, resolve to end the suffering of children. Know too, how to plan the size of your family, so that the progress of all is not compromised.
Let us all make plain to the rulers that the division of the world into rich and poor must end and that we know that efforts equivalent to the many billions of dollars wasted on armaments are needed to develop the world. Let them know, too, that if political or financial systems prevent a just distribution of food and wealth, those systems must be replaced.

Above all we must show our willingness to work for world development, and demand that we be given the opportunity to do so. Mankind is one family in which each of us has the duty to help one another.

We who are meeting at the Young World Assembly have pledged ourselves to this struggle as countless other young people all over the world have done. Our generation has the power and the knowledge that no previous generation has ever had. With these we must create a world in which the human spirit is set free from hunger and want, for ever.

Done at Rome, 16 October, 1965.\(^{276}\)

In similar fashion to the declarations and directives of religious groups, the *Manifesto* appealed to a sense of responsibility among youth and to the fraternity of the human species. In addition to its sponsorship of the Young World Assembly, FAO/FFHC worked to support the implementation of the Young World Appeal so that it was more than simply a declaration.\(^{277}\)

FFHC/FAO maintained a professional youth officer,\(^{278}\) ran its own youth programs, and attended and participated in international youth conferences including those hosted by WAY, UNESCO, and numerous other youth organizations. The emphasis on the role of youth occurred in part because FFHC was conducted in the


\(^{277}\) FAO Developed an eight point action plan for implementing the appeal. Youth groups participating in FFHC were asked to: 1. identify resources and potential youth participants in country of operation. 2. Identify the most urgent development needs of a country and draw up a plan to address them. 3. Set up a body to run the Appeal. 4. Set up a ‘Youth for Development Fund’ to initiate and support action programs. 5. In developed countries, youth could employ resources of socially handicapped sectors of the population – such as “older people” including skilled retirees. 6. Youth Councils could apply pressure to their governments. 7. Youth Councils in developed and developing countries could try to influence educational curricula. 8. Youth Councils could motivate public opinion to “move with the times” and appeal for greater aid to developing countries. FAO, “Young World Mobilization Appeal: October 1965 – March 1966” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1353), SP 14/7, World Assembly of Youth, 1965), 1-4.

\(^{278}\) The first FFHC Youth Officer was Angus Archer (Canada).
context of a growing, global youth movement, and in part because FFHC relied on youth and youth groups for much of the ‘action’ aspect of the Campaign. FFHC/FAO’s leadership in this area encouraged NGOs, national committees, and private industry to look to youth as an important resource in development, and to support and nurture their efforts. As we will see in Chapter Four, a good example is Massey-Ferguson of Canada which supported a series of youth conferences to follow-up the Young World Assembly, culminating in a world meeting in Canada, and Massey-Fergusson made youth and development the theme of their pavilion at Canada’s Centenary celebrations at Expo ’67.279

**Support by Influential Individuals**

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign enjoyed the support of many prominent and influential individuals. It is impossible to discuss them all here, but there are several key individuals whose influence was truly international and was not limited by national, religious, or cultural strictures. The most prominent of these is Pope John XXIII, who was a close friend of the Campaign and of Dr. Sen. It is important to emphasize that Pope John XXIII, and his successor Pope Paul VI, had an influence that reached beyond their Congregations. John F. Kennedy was another such individual; his personal support for the Campaign had an impact that reached well beyond the official role of the US and beyond the work of the US national FFH Committee. His was a celebrity which was

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279 The role of Massey-Fergusson in FFHC and international development will be continued in Chapter 4. In Canada, Massey-Fergusson is a prominent example of how industry played a role in FFHC. MF also cooperated with the Canadian Hunger Foundation and FAO to organize the Young World Food and Development Project.
truly global, and his presence at the First World Food Congress helped raise the profile of
the event and of the Campaign. Royal figures in many countries, both those sitting as
heads of state and those who were not, added their support to the Campaign. In 1963,
Queen Elizabeth II used FFHC as the subject of her Christmas Address to the
Commonwealth:

Since my last message of Christmas greetings to you all, the world has witnessed
many great events and sweeping changes, but they are already part of the long
record of history.

Now, as ever, the important time for mankind is the future; the coming
years are full of hope and promise and their course can still be shaped by our will
and action.

The message of Christmas remains the same; but humanity can only
progress if we are all truly ambitious for what is good and honourable. We know
the reward is peace on earth, goodwill toward men, but we cannot win it without
determination and concerted effort.

One such concerted effort has been the Campaign to free the world from
hunger. I am very happy to know that the people of the Commonwealth have
responded so generously to this campaign.

Much has been achieved but there is still much to do and on this day of
reunions and festivities in the glow of Christmas, let us remember the many
undernourished people, young and old, scattered throughout the world.
All my family joins me in sending every one of you best wishes for Christmas and
may God's blessing be with you in the coming year. 280

Queen Juliana of the Netherlands was very active in her support of FFHC, and a number
of internationally renowned politicians and diplomats, such as Canada’s Lester Bowles
Pearson, were associated with the Campaign. The eminent actor Peter Ustinov narrated a
film, The Secret Hunger, produced by FAO and the National film Board of Canada,
which described the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. 281 In an early example of
“celebrity diplomacy,” there were number of individuals whose likeness was used in an
assortment of FAO and FFHC publicity materials; notable examples include Sophia

280 Queen Elizabeth the Second, “the Queen’s Christmas Broadcast, 1963” (Website,
http://www.royal.gov.uk/output/Page4615.asp, as viewed on March 31, 2005).
281 FAO and the National Film Board of Canada, The Secret Hunger (Ottawa : National Film Board of
Loren, Indira Gandhi, Coretta Scott-King, Olave Baden-Powell, Angela Christian, Michèle Morgan, Marie-Thérèse Basse, Atiya Inayatullah, Matsuyo Yamamoto, Mother Theresa, Kathleen Kenon, Iris Murdoch, Shirley Temple Black, Irene de Borbon de Parma, Margaret Mead, Jacqueline Auviol, and many others.

**Conclusion**

This chapter should not have a conclusion, but perhaps an epilogue. The most important point to make is that participation in the Campaign was so complete that even 20 years after the end of the Campaign, its work continues and its impact can be easily (if not accurately) measured. The official participants in the basic functioning of the Campaign are more or less easily counted, but they represent the top of an FFHC iceberg. From the participation of thousands of farmers in the FFHC Fertilizer Program to those individuals who participated in Walks for Development throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the reach of FFHC was very broad indeed. Moreover, FFHC represented an unprecedented effort at cooperation by countless peoples, groups, organizations, and nations across the globe. The level of cooperation that FFHC enjoyed was in part a product of the experience of global events such as World Wars and political and social realignment, and it was a response to the very real problem of hunger and malnutrition that the world was slowly becoming aware of. It is important to emphasize that FFHC was in many ways a result of cooperative efforts, not the cause of them. Sen had correctly perceived that the international community was ready to embrace a Campaign

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282 Walks for Development were held in many countries to raise awareness and finances for the Campaign or related causes. Participants often accepted pledges which were then donated to FFHC and other causes.
such as FFHC and understood that the need was great and the situation urgent. Many of
the participants were already doing the work of development, and modern
communication technologies and an increasing awareness of the interconnectedness of
the global community made the idea and the execution of FFHC possible. FFHC was a
product of this international environment and was successful because of the willingness
of many to work together.
Chapter Three: Information, Education, and Action

We have the means; we have the capacity to wipe hunger and poverty from the face of the earth in our lifetime. We need only the will.

John F. Kennedy

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign Secretariat in Rome had one basic task: to inform and educate the world on the nature of the problem of hunger and malnutrition and possible solutions to that problem.283 The bulk of the work of the Campaign itself was undertaken by the national committees and their partners, but the centre of the Campaign was in Rome. FFHC/FAO was active in its interaction with national committees and other partners, and it was from there that most of the information on the Campaign flowed. FFHC/FAO produced and disseminated information on the campaign and on development through a variety of media – both as a means to educate the public and for the purposes of inter-Campaign communication. FAO Conference Resolution 13/59 also called for the holding of a World Food Congress to assess and discuss the latest information and outline plans for action.284 These two areas represented the two primary public faces of the Campaign, and this chapter is therefore written in two parts. Part One deals with information and publicity efforts of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and Part Two with the First and Second World Food Congresses.

283 As noted in Chapter Two, the FFHC Secretariat consisted of no more than 18 individuals. FFHC Offices were within the Offices of the Director-General and subject to his direct orders. From here FFHC staff members coordinated Campaign efforts, collected and published information, and organized Campaign events.
284 There were two World Food Congresses as a part of FFHC. The FFHC Secretariat had little to do with the organization of the First Congress, but was heavily involved in the organization of the Second.
Part One of this Chapter will examine the information and education efforts at FFHC/FAO. These activities included the publication of a campaign bulletin, newspapers, magazines, the Development Education Exchange Papers (DEEP), and a variety of other media both for promotion of the Campaign and for development education purposes. FFHC/FAO also engaged in publicity campaigns such as the 1963 Freedom From Hunger Stamp Issue, which involved the issue of FFHC postage stamps by 153 countries, and the Food For All Coin Plan,\(^{285}\) for which more than 80 countries produced over 220 coins. These campaigns were designed to bring the FFHC message to as many people as possible by the simplest means possible. The FFHC Stamp Issue and the Coin Plan are important because of their global scale and far reaching impact; in addition to generating revenue and attracting the participation of new partners in development, each of these efforts produced millions of individual FFHC advertisements which reached all parts of the globe. More importantly, these initiatives were highly innovative and highly successful. They were also timed to coincide with other FFHC events, such as a Freedom From Hunger Week or a World Food Congress. Together, these activities demonstrate a high level of innovation on the part of FFHC/FAO backed by a sustained program of information, education and publicity.

Part Two of this chapter will examine the First and Second World Food Congresses. The Congresses are each significant in their own way, but they are alike because they brought together a broad range of participants from all parts of the world in an intellectual assessment of both the Campaign and of international development efforts in general. Until the World Food Conference in 1974, which was a response to the so-called “Food Crisis” on the 1970s, the Congresses represented the largest coming

\(^{285}\) The Coin Plan was moved out of FFHC in 1970 and became known as the FAO Coin Plan.
together of people to discuss the economic and social condition of humanity in history. In 1974 individuals participated as delegates or representatives of governments or organizations to whom they were accountable, whereas at the Congresses all participants were personally invited by the Director-General as individuals and in their own personal capacities, not as representatives of governments or organizations. It is an important distinction. The Second World Food Congress enjoyed the participation of a large number of youth; their presence and their impact on proceedings was the most salient feature of the Congress. The Congresses had an important influence on the 1974 UN World Food Conference, particularly in the presence of Youth Groups, NGOs and private industry at the Conference and in their unprecedented ability to influence decisions taken there.286

The FFHC/FAO efforts described in this chapter represent only a part of overall operations in Rome. The Campaign involved a complex set of administrative responsibilities, the ability to continually react and adapt to changing circumstances, and the personal commitment by the Director-General and FFHC/FAO staff members.287 The activities described in this chapter are important because they are moments when FFHC/FAO was at the very centre of unprecedented and truly global efforts to understand, discuss, and act against the problem of hunger and malnutrition. B.R. Sen had envisioned a world movement to fight hunger when he came to FAO in 1956; the activities described in this chapter, while representing only a fraction of the work of FFHC/FAO, are examples of how this vision was realized.

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286 In the Canadian case, youth participation had a direct and measurable influence on Canada’s position on development issues as expressed at the 1974 Conference.
287 The FFHC Secretariat never numbered more than 18 individuals.
Part One: Information and Education

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign Secretariat in Rome was the organizational centre of the Campaign and its international voice. FFHC/FAO did not dictate any instructions to national committees or other participants; instead, it was a point where the work of FAO, individual national committees, and other participants was reflected and shared. It was FFHC’s purpose to raise awareness of the hunger problem, and to promote that goal FFHC/FAO undertook publicity campaigns of several kinds. Part of this effort was focused on sharing information with and between the various participants in FFHC around the world, and part of which was focused on expressing and advertising the basic message of the Campaign.

FFHC was designed to stimulate action through increased awareness, access to information, and increased communication. FFHC/FAO published an assortment of documents in support of the Campaign in an effort to make basic information available to the development community and the general public. The published documents were directed internally to the Campaign, where they focused on inter-committee communication and general Campaign activities, and externally, where they focused on bringing information to the general public. In the former category we see publications such as the Freedom From Hunger News, which related Campaign activities in a newsletter format, and the Ideas and Action Bulletin, which was the major FFHC publication and which reported special Campaign activities and initiatives, specific initiatives by individual national Committees. It was the main ‘voice’ of the Campaign.288

In this category we can also place the various FAO publications which supported the

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288 Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
Campaign or were related to it, and those materials compiled in support of the World Food Congresses. In yet another category we can place public awareness efforts such as the Stamp Issue and the Coin Plan (which will be discussed below), direct contacts by FFHC/FAO staff and media outlets, and by other efforts in a variety of media – such as the FFHC film *The Silent Hunger* (1964). The Basic Studies and the *First World Food Survey* were complemented by a host of other informational booklets, statistical databases, studies, information papers, and other informational materials. In the 1960s FAO probably became for a brief time the first and most important source of information on all aspects of the economic and social condition of humanity and FFHC/FAO was responsible for disseminating much of that information. Decisions taken by FAO member nations at Council were based largely on materials produced by FAO, and for many countries national policy regarding official development assistance referred to FAO publications.

**FFHC Publications**

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign depended on a high degree of cooperation and information sharing, and nowhere was this more important than between the FFHC Secretariat in Rome and the national committees. From the very early stages of the Campaign, FFHC/FAO produced a number of information and educational materials relating to the Campaign.\(^{289}\) Simultaneously, FFHC supported the development of more technical documents such as the *Third World Food Survey* and the Basic Studies, and

\(^{289}\) Early examples include *Freedom From Hunger – Outline of a Campaign*, *The Basic Freedom*, *FFHC in Brief*, *National Action projects – A Selection*, *the FFHC News*, *FFHC Fact Sheets*, *the Man and Hunger Series*. Several of these were serial publications.
production of these kinds of materials continued and increased during the Campaign.

The basic mechanism for communication between the FFHC Secretariat, the national committees, and various other Campaign participants was the Ideas and Action Bulletin. Ideas and Action began in 1960 as a small Campaign bulletin designed primarily to inform FAO staff and national committees of the activities of the FFHC Secretariat in Rome and of the activities of the other national committees. The first editor was Raymond Lloyd, who developed several other initiatives including the Stamp Issue and Coin Plan. Lloyd was succeeded in 1963 by Victoria Bawtree, who remained editor until the publication was discontinued in 1987. The Ideas and Action Bulletin was published by the Office of the Coordinator and had an editorial staff of four.290

Beginning as a simple one to two page typed bulletin, Ideas and Action grew to a length of 20 pages, enjoyed a distribution of 40,000 copies world wide, and was published in three languages (English, French, and Spanish291). Content included highlights of FFHC, FAO, and other conferences, reports of the activities of FFHC/FAO and national committees, reports on FFHC development projects, educational materials and reports on educational initiatives, editorials, cartoons, and other materials the editors believed was relevant to the work of FFHC. FFHC/FAO also produced the Freedom From Hunger News which was launched in 1963 and continued until 1969; this publication contained mostly photographic material and was intended as a public relations device.292 FFH News enjoyed standard FAO distribution which meant that it

290 FAO had originally wanted to produce the bulletin through FAO’s Information Division, but after significant pressure from the International Coordinator, Charles Weitz, Ideas and Action was published within the FFHC Secretariat with the result that the only censor for this publication was the IC. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree. Interview, 4 October, 2006.
291 Several issues of Ideas and Action were also published in Arabic.
was seen by FAO staff, national FFHC and FAO committees, and by FAO member
governments. Like Ideas and Action, FFH News was issued by the Office of the
International Coordinator and was not subject to scrutiny by FAO’s Information Division.
In the early 1960s, FFHC published a Campaign magazine called Freedom From Hunger
which was soon moved out of FFHC/FAO and it became FAO’s magazine Ceres.
FFHC was associated with the internal FAO newsletter House News which was subtitled
“A roundup of news and comment for and by the Staff of the Food and Agriculture
Organization of the United Nations.” Though House News was not an FFHC publication,
it regularly featured FFHC staff and FFHC initiatives. For example, the June 1971 issue
featured a picture of FFHC staff, including Charles H. Weitz and Hans Dall participating
in a Walk for Development in Rome, and the issue included a lengthy description of the
Rome Walk before going on to summarize similar FFHC walks around the world.293
House News also devoted issues to specific topics such as the 1970 World Food Congress
and the 1974 UN World Food Conference. The World Food Conference issue included
extracts from the youth newspaper PAN (which was produced by voluntary organizations
at the World Food Conference), photographs of Conference participants, and lengthy
articles on Conference issues and proceedings.294

FAO and FFHC publications were complemented by similar efforts from the
national committees and cooperating NGOs. As was the case with the national
committees themselves, the publications produced by national committees did not follow
a set pattern and were not subject to direction from FFHC/FAO. FFHC/FAO, however,

293 House News 13.6 (June 1971), 5-10.
294 House News 16.12 (December, 1974).
regularly included descriptions of these publications in *Ideas and Action*. In 1964 *Ideas and Action* described the nature of these efforts:

It is encouraging to see the increasing number of bulletins and newsletters being produced on a regular basis by National Committees and cooperating NGOs. These contain information on FFHC activities which is certainly of interest to other Campaign partners. As the Campaign Development Bulletin [*Ideas and Action*] is primarily an administrative organ, its news is usually geared to some specific FFHC activity, and there are many items that it cannot report. Several Committees have already exchanged their bulletins even when they do not share a common language, such as Madagascar and the United Kingdom. This is an excellent way of increasing inter-committee cooperation…and it is hoped that it will become normal practice for other Campaign partners.295

For many of the national committees and cooperating NGOs, publications grew into sophisticated, professional magazines and journals with national and international distribution, and an increasing number of national committees published news sheets, bulletins, newspapers, and magazines.296 Many of these publications enjoyed significant longevity, and some continue to be published today, including Canada’s *Hunger and International Development*, and many have been renamed and reorganized as the national committees grew, changed, and merged with other organizations.

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295 At this time publications were produced in the following countries: Australia (monthly newsletter, Australian National Committee), Canada (monthly newsletter, Canadian FFHC Committee), Ceylon (quarterly bulletin, National Service Branch, Land Development Department), Denmark (bi-monthly bulletin, Danish National FAO Committee), France (bi-monthly bulletin, Comité français pour la CMCF), Ireland (monthly report, Irish FFHC Committee), Madagascar (quarterly report, Comité national malgache pour la CMCF), New Zealand (annual newsletter, CORSO), and the United Kingdom (monthly/bi-monthly newsletter, United Kingdom FFHC Committee). FFHC related materials were also produced by the following NGOs: Evangelical Churches, Germany (information bulletin), the Oxford Committee for Famine Relief, United Kingdom (quarterly bulletin, OXFAM), Secours Catholique, France (monthly newspaper). FAO, “FFHC publications brought out on a regular basis,” in *Ideas and Action* 5 (June, 1964), 11-12.

296 By 1970 several countries were publishing FFHC or development related magazines; these were Belgium (*Demain le Monde*), Canada (*Hunger, International Development*), Denmark (*Kontakt*), France (*Jeunes et Développement, Faim-Développement*), the Netherlands (*Hunger*). In the 1970s other national committees would also publish bulletins and newsletters, some of which also grew into magazines; these included Australia (*Hungerscope*), Argentina (*Informativo*), and Ceylon (*Shramadana*), Chile (*Informativo*).
In the 1970s FFHC/FAO set up the Development Education Exchange Service as a point of reference on available material and programs in development education from a variety of sources. The Development Education Exchange Papers (DEEP) were issued by the Development Education Exchange Service bimonthly and were published first in three, then later in five languages. DEEP was distributed on an exchange basis to more than 8000 institutions world wide. DEEP served a different purpose than Ideas and Action; where Ideas and Action discussed activities related directly to FFHC, DEEP drew from all areas of the development community and beyond and provided longer, more detailed discussions on topics more technical in nature. DEEP was developed in the context of a larger development education effort at FAO and elsewhere during the early 1970s. Part of this effort was designed to counter the negative stereotypes and misinformation that had resulted from a lack of concrete information. DEEP brought information which had normally been accessible to technical experts in a select few organizations to a larger group. In this way DEEP facilitated action in the field and helped alter perceptions of the hunger problem by providing up to date, detailed information on a variety of development related subjects.

The Stamp Issue and the Coin Plan

It is impossible to list the publicity efforts undertaken by the national committees throughout the 1960s and 1970s as these were very numerous and not all were reported to FFHC/FAO. However, examples include Walks for Development, gift coupon and

298 Charles, H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
voucher campaigns, educational materials, poster campaigns, photo contests, art exhibits, cultural activities of all kinds, and personal appeals by prominent individuals. The FFHC Secretariat and FAO undertook several international publicity campaigns, the most prominent of which are the Freedom From Hunger Stamp Issue and the Food For All Coin Plan. One of the largest and most innovative of the FFHC/FAO publicity efforts was the international FFHC stamp campaign in 1963. This effort was designed to coincide with and support the First World Food Congress and involved the issue of philatelic stamps by mints from across the world. The FFHC Stamp Issue (and later the Coin Plan) was organized by Raymond Lloyd and involved the issuing of stamps by 153 countries in 1963. The FFHC Stamp Issue asked that participating countries produce stamps which featured the Freedom From Hunger Campaign message and logo. These stamps were to be produced for philatelic purposes (use as postage) with the result that the effort produced millions of individual FFHC advertisements and generated significant revenue. FFHC/FAO asked that national mints and other stamp producers time the release of the stamps for 21 March 1963 to coincide with Freedom From Hunger Week (March 17-23, 1963). Charles Weitz recalled that while the mints of many countries were interested in the Stamp Issue, as were important international stamp dealers such as Robert Stolaf of New York, the most important was the British Royal Mint. After some persistent effort by Weitz, the Royal Mint agreed to issue Freedom From Hunger stamps; this was the first time that the Royal Mint issued any stamp for anything other than a strictly ‘Royal’ purpose. Once the British gave their support, dozens more

300 Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2006.
301 Ibid.
countries agreed to participate, including 51 Commonwealth countries. The sale of the stamps raised more than US$200,000, which enabled FFHC and FAO to organize a series of six regional and national farm broadcasting seminars in developing countries, and a portion of this fund was used in later publicity efforts. Figure 3 illustrates a few examples of Freedom From Hunger Stamps.

![Freedom From Hunger Stamps](image)

**Figure 3: Freedom From Hunger Stamps**
(Monaco, Hong Kong, Brunei, Cyprus)

After the Stamp Issue, Lloyd conceived and organized the FAO ‘Food for All Coin Plan,’ which ran from 1968 to 1970 before being moved out of FFHC. Part of the proceeds generated by the Stamp Issue were used to help FFHC/FAO organize the Coin

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302 Sen ordered Weitz and the regional FAO regional representative for Cairo to London to ensure British support for the Stamp Issue. Weitz recalled “stalking” the Head of the British Royal Mint for months; he recalled that “it got to the point where after every meeting there I was. Every time he looked up there I was. In the end he gave his support for the sole reason of getting rid of me! After that, the rest [of the Commonwealth countries] fell like dominos.” Weitz also recalled the high stakes that were involved in the Stamp Issue; Weitz was once approached by a Jordanian stamp official who attempted to bribe him in exchange for support of a particular firm. Weitz refused the bribe and the next day Weitz and Sen flew to Jordan to discuss the matter with representatives of the Jordanian government. Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 6 October, 2005.
Plan,\textsuperscript{303} but the motivation for both the stamp and Coin efforts was to gain attention.\textsuperscript{304} In 1968 ten countries participated in the Coin Plan; nine of these produced a single, high denomination coin bearing the Freedom From Hunger message or highlighting an aspect of agricultural production relative to their area.\textsuperscript{305} In 1968, nine more countries joined the effort, most producing coins with relatively high face value, but a significant step was taken by the Dominican Republic which produced a one centavo coin. Within ten years of the Food For All Coin Plan, more than eighty countries had produced more than 220 coins.

![Image of FAO Coins](image)

Figure 4: FAO Coins

As the Coin Plan evolved, a key change occurred in 1969. After the example set by the Dominican Republic in producing the one centavo coin, most of the subsequent coins produced under the Plan were of low denomination. Unlike stamps, coins enjoyed a long period of circulation and the didactic element of their use was spread amongst a much larger portion of the population. Especially in developing countries, many people would never see a postage stamp, whereas in all parts of the world most people would use low denomination coins. Like the stamps, the coins featured a wide variety of subject matter, many featuring aspects of agricultural production relative to their area, and all carried the

\textsuperscript{303} FFHC/FAO used a “revolving fund of US$30 000 of the funds generated by the Stamp Issue; the rest was used for individual projects. FAO, Report of the Council of FAO, Fifty-First Session, 7-22 October, 1968.

\textsuperscript{304} Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.

Freedom From Hunger and/or Food For All message.\(^{306}\) Another key difference in the stamp and coin efforts was that the Stamp Issue was a single worldwide event; the Coin Plan was continuously active between 1968 and 1980, and a Food For All coin was issued as recently as 1995.\(^{307}\) Based on the success of the Food For All Coin Plan, FAO began the issue of Ceres Medals which featured important religious and cultural figures of significance in the fight against hunger and poverty.\(^{308}\) Beginning with the Stamp Issue, these publicity efforts began FAO interest in the production of a wide variety of memorabilia. As noted above, though the Stamp Issue and the Coin Plan generated revenue, this was only used by FAO and FFHC/FAO to finance running costs of each program. The rest of the funds were directed back into individual development projects.\(^{309}\) The FFHC publicity efforts diminished in the late 1970s as the program slowed; but FFHC leadership and creativity in this area influenced FAO in a number of areas. More importantly, these efforts created a catalyst for fundraising and publicity in FFHC/FAO and in national FFHC committees.

**Part Two: The World Food Congresses**

**The First World Food Congress, 4-18 June, 1963**

The First World Food Congress was a fundamental turning point in the history of international development. It is here we see the largest voluntary gathering in history of individuals coming together as equals in a common effort to understand the scope of the

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\(^{306}\) After 1970, the Coin Plan was moved out of FFHC; after this point most coins carried only the Food For All message.

\(^{307}\) As recently as 1995, a “Food For All” Coin (denomination of 500 won) was issued by North Korea.

\(^{308}\) Individuals were represented on the medals as themselves, examples include Mother Theresa and Indira Gandhi, or individuals represented mythic or religious figures, examples include Sophia Loren as the Roman Goddess of Agriculture or French film star Michèle Morgan as a farm woman.

problem of hunger and malnutrition and to develop solutions to solve that problem. In support of the Congress, FAO amassed what was probably the greatest amount of information on the economic and social condition of humanity ever compiled. The Congress was convened in order that that information be considered and debated, and that future lines of action be drawn. The Congress was also designed to advertise the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, discuss and assess current development efforts, and to motivate action. The *Report of the World Food Congress* noted that the

Congress was convened in order to present to the governments and peoples of the world a true picture of the prevailing problems of hunger and malnutrition; to explain its expanding dimensions; and to reawaken among them the sense of urgency and anxiety which is essential if the problems are to be solved before they snowball into a menacing crisis.\(^{310}\)

Put another way, the “World Food Congress [was] a meeting of all those…concerned about the problems of hunger and malnutrition in the world and [who were] anxious to find a solution for them.”\(^{311}\) The 1300 participants at the Congress attended at the personal invitation of the Director-General, and each was invited to participate in their capacity as an individual and not as a representative of their respective organization or government. After the Congress we see an increase in cooperation amongst governments, agencies, NGOs, and private industry, an increase in aid dollars, and an increase in the total number of individual development projects. As the culmination of the Campaign described in FAO Resolution 13/59, the Congress looked forward.

Sen envisioned a Campaign which would continue beyond its original five year plan. By the time of the Congress it was clear that an enthusiastic Sen intended a renewed mandate for FFHC and that a Food Congress be held periodically to review the world

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\(^{311}\) FAO, “The World Food Congress: the Plan, the Purpose, the Procedure” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1387), SP 20/3, World F.C. – Agenda of the Congress, 1963), 1.
food situation.312 In support of this view, the Congress adopted a resolution recommending “the holding of a world food congress periodically, to review the world food situation in relation to population and over-all development.”313 The success of the First World Food Congress was sufficient to produce an extended mandate for FFHC, several concrete lines of action, and the expectation that further Congresses would follow.

Sen arrived at the Congress with the idea for an expansion of FFHC and corresponding, periodic Food Congresses fully developed in his mind. He understood that the Congress needed to be imbued with both a sense of enthusiasm and of urgency and that this environment would be conducive to useful discussion and the inspiration for concrete action. Sen requested that the four Commissions develop recommendations and outline possible lines of action; this they did, and Sen correctly anticipated that FAO inevitably take up many of these recommendations and that FFHC would be required to support and advertise these initiatives. After the Congress the number of national committees increased dramatically as did the participation of NGOs, private industry, and various other groups and organizations.314 In his address to the Congress, U Thant, Secretary-General of the United Nations, identified the objectives of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign with those of the Charter of the United Nations and with the goals of

312 Sen, Towards a Newer World, 154-159; Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
313 FAO, Report of the World Food Congress, 105. The Second World Food Congress was largely a product of this vision, and though it generally reflected Sen’s intention, it was subject also to the influence of Sen’s successor, Addeke H. Boerma and it did not review a World Food Survey. At the time of WFC-2 it was generally believed that there would be a third Congress, but Boerma was not as enthusiastic about the idea of periodic congresses as was his predecessor, and at the suggestion of the United States the UN (FAO) organized the First World Food Conference (UNWFC) in 1974 and the possibility of further Congresses was effectively terminated. The UN World Food Conference was the result of a request made by US Secretary of State Henry Kissinger. Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 4 November 2004.
314 Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
the UN Development Decade. The Secretary-General characterized the Congress as more than simply a culmination of FFHC; his comments placed the Congress and FFHC squarely in the middle of much larger efforts by the UN and its member governments. FFHC, therefore, is viewed (by Secretary-General U Thant) as the point where people were able to participate in global efforts and where a genuine people’s voice was able to make itself heard. The Secretary-General’s comments aside, Sen used the moment of the Congress for more than support of FFHC; he also used it as an opportunity to do that which he had been attempting to do since his tenure as FAO Director-General began. In the same way as he had used the Basic Studies as a vehicle for reform, Sen conceived of the Congress as “an opportunity for a rededication to this same great objective [solving the problem of hunger].” As early as 1961, preliminary objectives for the Congress included the development of “A World Policy for Freedom from Hunger which would in effect be a revision of the FAO Charter.”

Sen created an environment for the Congress which was imbued with a sense of urgency. He used FFHC to build momentum by coordinating the Congress with other significant FAO/FFHC activities such as the Special Assembly on Man’s Right to Freedom From Hunger (14 March, 1963), Freedom From Hunger Week (17-23 March, 1963) and the Freedom From Hunger Stamp Issue. Sen also linked the Conference to events outside the specific jurisdiction of FAO, notably the United Nations Conference

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316 Ibid., 5.
318 Freedom From Hunger Week was opened with the Special Assembly on Man’s Right to Freedom From Hunger which brought together twenty-eight of the worlds most prominent personalities, including several Nobel Prize winners, and was designed to bring “forceful analysis” to the problem of hunger. B.R. Sen, Towards a Newer World (Dublin: Tycooley, 1982), 150.
319 The Canadian FFHC Committee held a National Food Conference from 19-21 March, 1963 in Ottawa in coordination with Freedom From Hunger Week.
on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of the Less Developed Areas (Geneva, 4-20 February, 1963). Finally, Sen encouraged countries and organizations to hold their own congresses and conferences in preparation for the World Congress.\footnote{Most of the participating countries, including Canada, held meetings and conferences of varying description in preparation for WFC-1.}

The Congress was widely viewed as an important event in the fight against hunger. Some assessments were mixed, and there was disagreement on exactly how effective the Congress was. The \textit{New York Times} reported that

> The World Food Congress that assembled nearly a thousand delegates from more than a hundred nations in Washington has ended without quite meeting the challenge it faced or the hope it aroused...while it discussed numerous ideas and proposals, it did not develop a concrete action program, as some delegates had urged it to do...

> Nevertheless, the congress served a useful purpose by calling world wide attention to the perils of the population rise and the vastness and complexity of the problems it raises. It thereby helped to create the necessary international climate for political, economic and scientific programs… \footnote{“The War Against Hunger” in \textit{The New York Times} (21 June, 1963), 28.}

Another report noted the importance of the event and pointed to President John F. Kennedy as the leading figure in the war against hunger.\footnote{William M. Blair. “President Calls for a War Against Hunger” in \textit{The New York Times} (5 June, 1963), 3.} The United States was not the only country to view the congress according to its own national or ideological viewpoint. A special correspondent at the Congress for \textit{The Times} (of London) described the proceedings in this way:

> The World Food Congress…proved to be one of those pleasant if infrequent gatherings where the British were acknowledged as the heroes. There was no talk of neo-colonialism, no freedom fighter cornered your Correspondent to demand instant independence for some half forgotten colonial territory; instead, there were friendly greetings all round.

> Let it be said that Britain has made the largest contribution by far to the Freedom from Hunger campaign: many millions of pounds have
been collected and Lord Boyd Orr believes that the sum of £30m. will eventually be reached….Britons of all ages and conditions had found a just and worthy cause in the Freedom from Hunger campaign and the response was both magnificent and inevitable.

It is possible that the cause of helping hungry people to feed themselves struck a responsive chord in Britain because the Food and Agricultural organization had made it possible for people to contribute individually. This arrangement, conceived by the director of F.A.O., was not exactly welcomed by most governments. The experience of the United States suggests, however, the necessity of voluntary effort.

American generosity has long been a byword, but in this instance the response has been disappointing.323

Most criticisms of the Congress were focused on a perceived lack of action by FAO and Congress participants and most of these came from the United States. However, the US was the largest supporter of the events and contributed by far the most financial and administrative support. As we see from the Times report, this fact was often lost on other attendees at WFC-1.

The Commissions of the Congress

In 1961, FAO had formed an internal Working Group on the World Food Congress (Chaired by FAO Deputy Director-General Norman C. Wright), which had immediately begun discussion on an agenda.324 Sen understood that preparation for a congress of this kind normally took three or four years, but believed that the shorter lead up would contribute to the sense of urgency he hoped to achieve at the Congress. As we saw in Chapter One, Sen had already initiated the Third World Food Survey and the Basic Studies, and the Campaign itself was aimed at the Congress. The preparation required

was largely administrative and logistical, and this work was shared by the Government of the United States, the US Freedom From Hunger Foundation, and FAO.

In order to deal with the broadness of the subject matter, the Congress was divided into four Commissions: the Technical Commission (Commission I), the Economic and Social Commission (Commission II), the Education and research Commission (Commission III), and the Commission for Peoples’ Involvement and Group Action (Commission IV). There was also a Sub-Commission on Nutrition which dealt with individual items on the agenda. Commission I included four categories for discussion; these were the use and abuse of land and water,\textsuperscript{325} better farming and better yields,\textsuperscript{326} nutrition and human health,\textsuperscript{327} and the challenge of nutrition.\textsuperscript{328} Commission II included three categories for discussion; these were national development plans and agriculture,\textsuperscript{329} functions and forms of external aid,\textsuperscript{330} and lessons from development.\textsuperscript{331} Commission III included three categories for discussion; these were education for progress,\textsuperscript{332} public services as aids to rural construction,\textsuperscript{333} and the role of applied and

\textsuperscript{325} In this category the subjects discussed included present patterns of land use and planning for future utilization and the development of water resources and the implications thereof.
\textsuperscript{326} In this category the subjects discussed included bringing new lands under cultivation and land settlement and improving the productivity of land.
\textsuperscript{327} In this category the subjects discussed included livestock and poultry production, fisheries, and cultivation of legumes, fruits and vegetables.
\textsuperscript{328} In this category the subjects discussed included the relation of nutrition to human health and production efficiency, national nutrition policies and plans, training of nutrition personnel, food preservation and processing, and supplementary feeding programs.
\textsuperscript{329} In this category the subjects discussed included the importance of national development plans and the role of agriculture in economic development and planned agriculture in the national economy.
\textsuperscript{330} In this category the subjects discussed included the need for assistance, functions and objectives of assistance, bilateral and multilateral assistance and their place, the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and the World Food Program.
\textsuperscript{331} In this category the subjects discussed included development experiences in Japan and Mexico.
\textsuperscript{332} In this category the subjects discussed included the high price of illiteracy, agricultural education, and the role of consumer education.
\textsuperscript{333} In this category the subjects discussed included administrative personnel, extension, and community development.
long-range research.\textsuperscript{334} Commission IV included three categories for discussion, these were the role of industries in agriculture development,\textsuperscript{335} the role of peoples’ and citizens’ organizations,\textsuperscript{336} and organization, work and program of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign and its national committees. Each Commission produced a summary report and a list of recommendations; these were presented to the Congress and included in the official Report.

The Congress was an ambitious undertaking; it dealt with the entire field of food production – from cultural and economic aspects of development, to the application of knowledge, and to education and the participation of people in development. The field was broad and the discussions reached beyond the Congress itself. For example, the technical aspects discussed were in part a continuation of those explored at the UN Conference on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of Less Developed Areas which had been held in Geneva in February 1963. The recommendations of the Congress were debated at subsequent FAO and UN Conference Sessions, and as we will see later in this chapter, the recommendations of the Congress inspired direct action and the development and implementation of specific development oriented programs such as an expanded Fertilizer Programme, the Industry Cooperative Programme, and the Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development. In support of the Congress, Sen had amassed what was perhaps the greatest amount of information ever compiled on the condition of humanity, of agricultural development, and the implications

\textsuperscript{334} In this category the subjects discussed included the role of applied research, social research and rural development, and the role of long-range research.
\textsuperscript{335} In this category the subjects discussed included the fertilizer industry, the food industry, and the agricultural machinery industry.
\textsuperscript{336} In this category the subjects discussed included the role of non-governmental organizations; the role of universities and scientific societies, the role of farmers’ organizations and cooperatives, the role of religious groups and their institutions, the role of the press, radio, film, television and other mass communications media, and the role of women, youth, teachers, and other groups of people involved.
for the future. Moreover, Sen understood that applying the minds of the Congress to that information would result in a fundamental change in the way international development was understood and undertaken. In addition to the Basic studies, the *Third World Food Survey*, and the dozens of background papers, key papers, and major addresses to the Congress and Plenary Sessions, each Commission was provided with a number of background papers specific to the various subject areas.

**Participation at the Congress**

The germ of the idea for the Congress can be traced back to the conceptual phase of FFHC (see Chapter One), but serious planning did not actually begin until 1962. FAO accepted the offer made by US Secretary of Agriculture, Orville L. Freeman, that the United States host the Congress.\(^{337}\) In February 1962, Sen appointed Mr. S.Y. Krishnaswamy (India) as Secretary-General of the Congress, and a Preparatory Committee began meeting in March 1962;\(^{338}\) a Congress Secretariat was first set up in Rome, and then was moved to Washington in April 1963. The Secretary-General of the Congress reported directly to Sen, and the involvement of FFHC/FAO in the planning of the Congress was limited - though this situation would change for WFC-2. The chief


\(^{338}\) The Preparatory Committee consisted of Mr. Mekki Abbas (Sudan); Professor P.M.S. Blackett, Head of Department and Professor of Physics, Imperial College of Science and Technology, London; Dr. Detlev W. Bronk, President Rockefeller Institute and President of the American National Academy of Sciences, New York; Professor Jose de Castro (Brazil); Shri Chintaman D. Desmukh, President, Indian International Centre, New Delhi; Joachim Bony, Minister of National education, Abidjan; Professor H. Laugier, former Deputy Secretary-General, United Nations; Professor G.U. Papi (Italy); Dr. Roland R. Renne (United States); Dr. Frank J. Welch, Assistant Secretary, Department of Agriculture, Washington D.C.; Dr. R.L. Weeks (Liberia). Committee records do not list professional affiliations for all committee members, but note that the members represented the UN, WHO, UNESCO, ILO, IBRD, and the WMO. FAO, “The Plan for the World Food Congress” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1396), SP 20/2, World F.C. – Agenda of the Conference, 5 June, 1963), 2.; FAO, *Report of the World Food Congress*, Appendix A.
liaison with the US was through former Director of Information for the UN Department of Agriculture, R. Lyle Webster, who first sat as the Executive Secretary of the Congress and then as its Deputy-Secretary. The 38th FAO Council session approved of the Director-General’s motion to invite individuals from countries which were not members of FAO but which were members of the UN or the Specialized Agencies. By July 1962 information and invitations were circulated to all Member and Associate Member Governments of FAO, to Freedom From Hunger and FAO Committees, and to other organizations and agencies outlining the main objectives of the Congress and inviting their participation. In 1962 and 1963 many countries, including Canada, organized conferences, seminars and preparatory meetings in support of WFC-1. For these much of the data collected and compiled by FAO and the other UN Agencies was made available. In addition to the 1300 participants the Congress was covered by over 250 reporters, editors and commentators representing newspapers, television and radio based media.

Director-General Sen used the Congress as a means to accomplish several objectives, but the main purpose of WFC-1 was the culmination of FFHC. FAO Conference Resolution 13/59 authorized the Freedom From Hunger Campaign; paragraph 8 of this Resolution

Authorize[d] the Director-General to make preparations for a World Food Congress in 1963 immediately before the Twelfth FAO Conference Session, on the 20th anniversary of the Hot Springs Conference, when the Campaign will reach its climax.

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339 S.Y. Krishnaswamy, Note to B.R. Sen. (FAO, SP 20/1, World Food Congress, General Congress, 3 September, 1962), 1. FAO recognized membership in the UN and the UN Specialized Agencies as criteria for participation in the Congress. This meant that countries who were not members of FAO but who were members of the United Nations, such as the Soviet Union, were entitled to participate.


341 FAO Conference Resolution 13/59.
As indicated in the Resolution, the First World Food Congress was to be the peak of the five year mandate as proposed by Sen. He and FAO designed it as a platform to assess development activities to that point – both from the point of view of the Campaign and from that of international development in general, and as a point from which further efforts could be organized and initiated. Sen and Campaign organizers intended that the Congress would mark the beginning of a new era of cooperation in economic and social development. In contrast to official UN or governmental fora, the event was designed as an environment in which individual people could have a direct impact upon the policies and programs of the FAO, governments, and a variety of other organizations.\footnote{WFC-1 did not draw up specific plans or procedures for the FAO or governments; rather, it proposed ideas and indicated possible lines of action.} The Congress was meant “to bring together on the same platform those who give aid and those who receive aid.”\footnote{FAO, “The World Food Congress: the Plan, the Purpose, the Procedure,” 4.} The important aspect of the donor-recipient dialogue was that it was not truly between donors and recipients but between individuals who come from countries of varying economic and social experience. It is here that we see the most significant departure from the processes and discussions at Hot Springs and Quebec; WFC-1 was a discussion among individuals rather than governments. The situation is best described in the words of FFHC International Coordinator Charles H. Weitz, “…you had a student from Canada at the table with the Prime Minister of India, you had heads of NGOs sitting with Ministers and Statesmen, African mothers with Swiss businessmen…it was remarkable.”\footnote{Charles H. Weitz. Interview, 5-6 October 2005.}
Participation at the Congress was originally estimated by Dr. Sen and the Organizing Committee at 1200 individuals, but the actual number exceeded 1300.\(^{345}\) Though participants attended as individuals and in their own personal capacities, many were invited because of their affiliation with a government or organization. The intention was that participants bring their particular expertise and experience to the discussion, and that they express their views freely without responsibility to their governments or organizations. It was hoped that each participant would then carry the ideas of the Congress back with them to their community, government, or organization. Ninety speakers attended, including heads of state and senior government officials from various countries, and the event was covered by several hundred representatives of a host of media agencies from around the world.\(^{346}\) Central to the success of the Congress was the participation of individuals from developing countries – it was in fact the enthusiastic response of developing countries in their desire to participate, and in the response of developed countries in facilitating that participation, which pushed the total number of participants beyond the original estimates.\(^{347}\) Key speakers included US President John F. Kennedy, who opened the Congress with a speech on “The Fight Against Hunger”, Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru of India, UN Secretary-General U Thant, Larzo Cardenas, former President of Mexico, George Harrar, President of the Rockefeller Foundation, historian Arnold Toynbee, Ministers and Secretaries of State from dozens of

\(^{345}\) Participation in the Congress was: from the United States, 585; from 106 other countries, 607; from 65 NGOs, 121; from 10 United Nations and Specialized Agencies, 30. The total number of participants was 1343. FAO, *Report of the World Food Congress*, 9.

\(^{346}\) Sen estimates between 250 and 300 correspondents, editors, and reporters from newspapers, radio, and television. Sen, *Towards a Newer World*, 155-156.

\(^{347}\) Participants from developing countries were sponsored by their own governments, by governments from developed countries, by national Freedom From Hunger Committees, and by private fund raising efforts. In some cases US based airlines provided travel to participants from developing countries.
countries, sitting and former Heads of UN and other Agencies, academics, and a host of others.

A Note on the Absence of the USSR

The Director-General intended that in order for the Congress to be truly a world congress, representatives from the Soviet Union, which was not a member of FAO, should participate. However, there was opposition to this inclusion – especially from the United States. R. Lyle Webster, who was Executive Secretary of the Congress and then its Deputy-Secretary, outlined the position of the United States on this matter. Webster noted that at the Special Session of FAO Council in April 1962, the US had voted in favour of linking the World Food Congress to the UN Technical Conference. This would mean that the Congress should include representatives of all UN members, not just members of FAO.\(^{348}\) Webster noted in particular that this motion had the support of the delegate of the United States. He further noted that in his discussions at the US Government’s Inter-Departmental Committee in the offices of the US Department of Agriculture, there was “considerable discussion” on the role of the USSR at the Congress.\(^{349}\) Webster recalled his own position as not in favour of assigning representatives of the USSR “an unduly subordinate position” and suggested instead they be invited to deliver one of the major addresses and proposed ‘the role of science’ as a topic.\(^{350}\) The Officers of the United States Government\(^{351}\) who were present at the

\(^{348}\) R. Lyle Webster, “Participation by the USSR” (FAO, RG 8 (8FFHC1387), SP 20/1, General Organizational Program, 19 November, 1962), 1.
\(^{349}\) Ibid.
\(^{350}\) Ibid.
\(^{351}\) Ibid.
The Results of the Congress

351 These individuals are not specifically identified in this document.
352 Ibid.
353 Ibid., 2.
The Congress was a success in several ways. Like FFHC itself, its very existence was a kind of success, and like FFHC the Congress was a forum in which there was a very real, free exchange of information and ideas. Moreover, the event was conducted in an environment where heads of state and policy makers of all kinds were participating along with NGOs and others with appropriate backgrounds. The Congress became the platform for further action that Sen had hoped for. Moreover, the moment of the Congress marked the beginning of a new era of international development – one informed by more accurate data and one which became characterized as a global movement. What the Congress achieved was very much in line with the three supporting ‘legs’ of the FFHC stool (information and education, research, and action). It informed and educated the participants (and the world) on the actual state of the problem, it debated new data, methodology, and areas of concern, and it identified possible lines of action. The results of the Congress can also be measured in very specific ways: the renewal of FFHC by FAO Council and ECOSOC; the Resolution adopted by the First World Food Congress referring to periodic Food Congresses (a reference which is cited by the organizers of the Second); and FAO programs such as the Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development (IWP) – which was a product of Commissions II and IV at WFC-1, and the Industry Cooperative Program (ICP) – which was developed as a result of the work of Commission IV.

FAO’s World Seed Campaign (1958-1962) and its Fertilizer Programme (1960) were initiatives launched by FAO in support of the Green Revolution. Both of these initiatives were designed to promote the development of better crops and increased
yields, and both recognized that poorer farmers were not benefiting from the Green Revolution. The Technical Commission of the Congress stressed the need for increases in the use of organic and chemical fertilizer and of the need for the development and distribution of better seeds, and the Congress discussed the Fertilizer and Seed Campaigns, and the formulated a proposal for the creation of an Agricultural Inputs Pool:

There is an urgent need to increase the production of food in developing countries as rapidly as possible. Fertilizers are a spearhead in increasing crop production. It is therefore proposed that a “pool” of production requisites, including fertilizers, pesticides, farm machinery etc., should be established under the administration of FAO in order to provide aid to the countries that require it.

This recommendation was endorsed at the 1965 FAO Conference, and as a result Sen initiated the FAO Food Production Resources Programme. An important result of the Congress was that the ideas underpinning the Green Revolution were debated and reinforced.

The Congress moved the fight against hunger forward, but it did not bring an end to the problem. Critics of the Congress were quick to point out that the Congress resulted in little concrete action; it had merely produced a ‘plan’ which had no real teeth, and the

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354 The World Seed Campaign ran from 1958 to 1962; it culminated in World Food Year in 1961. The Seed Campaign promoted the increase of crop production through the use of adapted varieties of seeds suited to specific ecological conditions. Selection of indigenous varieties was encouraged, as was training and development of appropriate institutions. Continued work in this area revealed that poorer farmers were not benefiting from advances in seed technology and the situation was brought under review by FAO between 1968 and 1975. On the basis of those reviews the Seed Improvement and Development Programme (SIDP) was established. SIDP was reaffirmed and strengthened by the 1974 World Food Conference.

The FAO Fertilizer Programme was established in 1960 as a joint venture between FAO and the fertilizer industry. The Programme supplied information on the nature and use of fertilizers, drew attention to inadequate price policies and unfavourable relationships economic factors, and it studied and developed credit and marketing systems affecting fertilizer use. Sen, *Towards a Newer World*, 205-206.


357 This program was administered by the Director-General and was composed of a pool of resources (fertilizers, pesticides, farm machinery etc.). Materials from this pool were provided as loans on interest-free basis.
event was consumed with debate. Some observers noted that the ‘world food plan’
produced by the Congress was neither the first nor the last of its kind,358 and some
suggested that participants never really understood the nature or complexity of the
problem.359 The Director-General, however, did not accept these criticisms. In response
to an editorial in The Times which lamented that the British Labour Party had produced
“yet another food plan”,360 Sen wrote:

Sir – Your leading article…rightly stresses the fact that there have
been more plans than action to solve the problems arising from the
existence, side by side, of both world food surpluses and world hunger and
poverty. You also said, referring [to the Labour Party’s food plan] that
this is not the first world food plan to have appeared in the last year or
two.

We in FAO have been at pains to study the problem in detail at
periodic intervals, and the results of the Third World Food Survey, which
has been recently published by us, indicate that about half of the world’s
population is either undernourished or malnourished, or both. Today, this
state of affairs has to be appreciated along with the two great factors of the
world food situation – namely, the new dimension created by the certainty
that the world’s population will be doubled during the next 35 years, and
the new urgency created by the attainment of political independence of
several nations.

In the context of these factors a comprehensive worldwide effort to
meet this challenge is undoubtedly called for. The climate is ripe for such
action. While it may not be possible to draw up a detailed blueprint, two
lines of action are both feasible and necessary. The first is to intensify our
efforts to discover through proper planning the needs and the present
resources available internally in each country for the war against hunger
and the extent to which external assistance is required. The other is to
keep a periodical check on progress illustrated by output, employment and
productivity which are the major factors involved. We in FAO feel that
these are the two lines of action which are imperatively demanded by the
food and population situation at the present time. These views were
brought out forcibly during the discussions at the World Food Congress
held in Washington last month.361

358 “Another Food Plan” in The Times (18 July, 1963), 11.
360 “Another Food Plan”, 11.

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Viewed in the long term, it is easy to point to concrete results of the Congress, but as Sen reminded, the main purpose of the event was to assess, debate, and understand the situation at that time. Moreover, because participants attended in their own personal capacities, legally binding resolutions or contracts could not be produced under the auspices of the Congress. It was left to each participant to learn, form relationships, and carry information back to their respective community, organization, or government.

The Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development (IWP) was the end result of the ‘plan’ which had emerged from the Congress. The IWP offered a framework on a global scale for agricultural development, and it became a cornerstone of the work of FAO in the Second Development Decade. After the Congress the number of national FFH committees increased significantly, and the message of the Campaign was accepted and endorsed by participants, and the Campaign itself received world-wide attention. The event was widely accredited with helping establish a climate which fostered an increased level of action in the fight against hunger and malnutrition. For the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, resolutions at taken at the Congress meant an extended FFHC mandate and the convening of a second food congress. At the opening of the Congress Kennedy had warned that a failure to solve the problem of hunger would be the shame of his generation, and, unfortunately, his words turned out to be prophetic. By the end of the Congress, however, it was apparent that the problem the world faced could not be solved in a few years and that a massive, sustained effort was necessary to achieve a minimum of success.

The Second World Food Congress, 16-30 June, 1970
The Freedom From Hunger Campaign continued in the Second Development Decade. This was in part because the Campaign was both a success (it had met its objectives) and a failure (because the problem of hunger and malnutrition had endured). A Second World Food Congress was held in 1970 as a successor to the first, and was similar in several ways, especially in its goal of inspiring and informing continued work in international development – which was the primary purpose of each Congress.\(^{362}\)

The Second Congress was subject to a greater influence from the FFHC Secretariat and was organized during the tenure of the new FAO Director-General, Addeke H. Boerma. The First World Food Congress was part of B.R. Sen’s plan to reform FAO and the development community and to improve development efforts; it was also very much a product of his personal vision. The Second Congress was Boerma’s way of introducing and entrenching his ‘Five Areas of Concentration’ at FAO and was one of the means by which he put his own personal stamp on FFHC and FAO.\(^{363}\)

The Second World Food Congress (WFC-2) resulted from decisions taken at the First World Food Congress and from the extension of FFHC’s mandate by FAO Council in 1965. WFC-1 had specifically called for the holding of “a World Food Congress periodically to review a World Food Survey, presented by the Director-General of FAO,

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\(^{362}\) In 1971 Action for Development was added to Freedom From Hunger Campaign; this change reflected changes in the focus of FFHC and of FAO, and ‘Action for Development’ was the theme of the 1971 FFHC Conference. FAO, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign/Action for Development: A Brief Historical Review”, 5. The change to FFHC/AD also resulted from Director-General Boerma’s desire to put his personal imprint on FAO programs. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree, Interview, 5 October, 2005.

\(^{363}\) As noted above, another means for Boerma to put his stamp on FFHC was to add ‘Action for Development’ to FFHC (FFHC/AD), though the change was accompanied by budget cuts and a decrease in support for FFHC at FAO. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree. Interview, 6 October, 2005.
together with a proposed program for future action.\textsuperscript{364} WFC-2 did not review a World Food Survey,\textsuperscript{365} though it did bring together individuals from all parts of the world and representing many social and economic backgrounds to review efforts and to develop solutions and possible courses of action. Like the first, the second Congress was part of a larger plan of reform by the Director-General. For Sen, WFC-1 was the expression of FFHC and an instrument of change. In this regard it was very successful. Boerma’s relationship to WFC-2 was quite different. Boerma engaged with the Congress and used it as a means by which he could introduce his own agenda and instigate specific lines of action. The new Director-General was less enthusiastic than his predecessor had been about the Congresses. However, despite personal “misgivings”, Boerma claimed that he felt it important to carry through with the Congress because he felt an obligation to complete what Sen had started.\textsuperscript{366} Boerma’s sense of obligation to Sen was not actually as profound as he suggested,\textsuperscript{367} but he did demonstrate a sincere engagement with the issues debated and with the Congress participants – especially youth.

In many ways WFC-2 was a reflection of its predecessor, largely because the participants were invited in their own individual capacities, and because WFC-2 remained a vehicle for FFHC’s message. An important difference from the first Congress was the increased role of youth at WFC-2. Youth were numerous and influential at the Second Congress, and they were organized and well informed on the issues being discussed. The increased contribution of industry to the development community was

\textsuperscript{364} Resolution of the First World Food Congress.
\textsuperscript{365} Reasons for this include Boerma’s reluctance to devote the extensive resources toward this task during his tenure as Director-General (Food Surveys were carried out by the Nutrition Division), and the Congress was held less than a decade after the first and as Fourth World Food Survey would be premature. A Fourth World Food Survey was conducted by Director-General Saouma in 1977.
\textsuperscript{366} Don Paarlberg, “Notes on the Second World Food Congress,” (FAO: WF 1/1, Advisory Group, July 1970), 1. Paarlberg reports also that Boerma was “cool” to the idea of a third Congress.
\textsuperscript{367} Charles H. Weitz. Email, 8 June, 2006.
closely tied to the youth movement. As we will see in Chapter Four, in Canada Massey-Fergusson was a key partner with youth and youth organizations throughout the 1960s and 1970s. Another difference from the first Congress was the increased involvement by the FFHC Secretariat in the organization of the Congress. Here members of the FFHC/FAO were more active in the organization of the Congress and, because they had a decade of FFHC experience, were more capable and had a greater degree of expertise.368

The subjects (outlined below) reflect a much higher level of sophistication than was present in 1963. The first Congress had been informed by the Third World Food Survey and the Basic Studies, which revealed for the first time the real scope and nature of the hunger problem. The second Congress reflected a different set of circumstances and was informed by a vastly expanded body of information. The IWP and the Five Areas of Concentration, 369 two of the planks upon which WFC-2 was built, had grown out of the recommendations of WFC-1. The third plank was “the urgent need for new resources and more vigorous action.”370

WFC-2 was significantly larger than the First Congress; more than 2000 personal invitations were sent by the Director-General to FAO member countries, members of the ICP and Fertilizer Programs, national committees, NGOs, and individuals with a resulting attendance of over 1800.371 Forty regional and national food congresses were held in

368 The Secretary General of the Congress was the Deputy International Coordinator of FFHC, Donald W. Tweedle.
369 These were: the mobilization of human resources for rural development; promotion of high-yielding varieties of basic food types; filling the protein gap; war on waste; and earning and saving foreign exchange.
371 Ibid., 6.
various parts of the world in preparation for the Congress; some had been organized with the cooperation of FAO and some by participants or their host countries or organizations. Instead for four Commissions, the discussion was expanded to eight, each of these consisting of four smaller commissions, five discussion panels were added, and the Congress was preceded by a Youth Conference. At WFC-2 a special sub-commission was held to review and discuss the FAO Fertilizer Programme with a resulting recommendation for its continuation and expansion. Like the First World Food Congress, WFC-2 concluded with a declaration and a set of recommendations drawn from the recommendations developed in the Commissions.

A Note on the Participation of the USSR

No representative of the Soviet Union had attended the First World Food Congress; the Second welcomed one. The Second Congress, held in the Netherlands, was subject to an entirely different set of geopolitical circumstances than its predecessor, and the FAO had a different Director-General. Ironically, though Sen was known for his desire to keep politics out of FAO, it appears he bowed to pressure from the United States which wanted to keep the USSR out of the Congress. Boerma, who was not as vocal

373 The Commissions were: Commission I, Ensuring Basic Food Supplies; Commission II, Higher Living Standards and Improved Diets; Commission III, People in Rural Development; Commission IV, Trade Patterns and Policies; Commission V, Public Sector Support; Commission VI, Private Sector Support; Commission VII, Direct Participation Programs, and Commission VIII, Mobilization of Public Opinion
374 These Panels of the Congress discussed: the Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development, the role and attitudes of youth in development, perspectives on international development, population growth in relation to economic development, the conservation of man’s environment.
375 Ibid., 29-30.
376 This individual was I.V. Trinchenko.
about an ‘apolitical FAO,’ went further than his predecessor in reaching out to communist countries. The influence of the youth participants and those from non-Western countries meant that WFC-2 was conducted in a political climate very different than the one that had existed in 1963. Some discussions at the Congress focused on political and ideological factors inhibiting or encouraging development, and as we see below, the polar division of East and West was very much a consideration. The presence of a representative of the USSR and criticisms of America-dominated aid organizations resulted in a highly charged political environment at the Congress.

The Results of the Congress

The Congress was widely considered a success, but not all assessments were positive. Some participants questioned the wisdom of giving youth such a pronounced role at WFC-2. Don Paarlberg, Director of Agricultural Economics for the United States Department of Agriculture and member of the Congress Steering Committee, noted that youth accomplished several things at the Congress: they sustained the attack, raised some valid criticism, and influenced the final statement. However, Paarlberg offered several cautions as well. Paarlberg believed it was “risky for an intergovernmental organization to go over the heads of the governments that support it, and appeal directly to the people, many of whom are in opposition to their governments” and that he was “[n]ot sure it was wise for FAO to get into such a vulnerable position with respect to the radical youth in
the first place.” Other criticisms suggested that the Congress produced an abundance of leaflets and pamphlets but little concrete action. R.B. Martínez of the Dominican Republic viewed the Congress as a success, but noted that

[u]nless there is a democratic transformation in the structure of FAO and the UN Agencies, there is no point in having these congresses. Unless there is real and effective participation of workers, consumers, youth, women in these organizations, the solutions will always remain on paper…this 2WFC was a positive event for the third world, but sad and disastrous for the contractors who sell fertilizers and the industrialists who traffic with the poor people’s hunger.

Others took quite the opposite view to that of Martínez. Paarlberg indicated at the AMA seminar of the Second World Food Congress that WFC-2 was valuable because it indicated a new style of conducting business on the international stage, but noted that FAO and the Congress had become politicized. The criticism of the inclusion of a (leftist) political influence at WFC-2 is summed up by American Congress participant John Perryman who noted that

If there were others than myself at the Congress who wished to discuss the practical realities of feeding hungry people, their voices were drowned out by the litany constantly chanted by representatives of the far left that “nothing can be done without changing the political, economic and social structure of the major powers.” Although I realize food must be viewed in the broad concepts of policy and planning, the extremes of political posturing which occupied so much of the Congress could be viewed as nothing but obstructionist. For example, how can one hold a productive conversation on the development of more rational tariff policies among governments when one faction wishes only to call for the overthrow of the

378 G. Michanek, Swedish Fishery Biologist, reported that the Swedish Journal Vi 57.45 (November 1970) incorrectly reported that “at the end of the two week conference every participant had received ca 10 kgs of paper to bring home – reports and pamphlets.” G. Michanek, Personal Note to D. Tweedle, Secretary General, 2 World Food Congress (FAO, RG 8, WF 5/4, Comments, 23 November, 1970).
other man’s government? Or as another example, how can one intelligently discuss the more effective use of the vast resources of private industry when one faction disrupts the meeting with a refusal to accept the concept of private industry at all? The most used and misused word at the Congress was “dialogue.” Much of the conversation was not dialogue; it was diatribe. Had we from the free nations replied in kind… the Congress would have collapsed in the midst of vitriolic argument. Only by remaining basically silent as a courtesy to the sponsoring organization did we make possible – rightly or wrongly – the scheduled continuation of the Congress.  

Perryman’s view is indicative of some of his fellow Americans who were unprepared for exposure to theoretical viewpoints and frameworks not commonly held in the United States; Martínez’s view was reflective of leftist views held in Latin America. The contrast in these positions speaks to the diversity of social and political outlooks and experiences which were brought together at the Congress, a situation which was welcomed by the vast majority of participants and Congress organizers.

Conclusion

B.R. Sen had envisioned a global movement directed at ending hunger and malnutrition. The activities described in this chapter were each designed to reach individual people everywhere, inform and educate on the problem of hunger and malnutrition, and to bring people together to discuss, debate, and develop lines of action. In short, they gave a face to the Campaign. These were only a selection of the most prominent efforts of the FFHC Secretariat; other efforts by FFHC/FAO included the organization of FFHC regional conferences, work in relation to specific development

381 John Perryman, Letter to A.H. Boerma (FAO, RG 8, WF 5/4, Comments, 9 July, 1970), 2. It is important to note here that the vast majority of the participants came from ‘free’ nations; as noted earlier in this chapter, there was only one participant from the Soviet Union, a handful from nations with ties to the Soviet Union, and three from China (Taiwan).
projects, administrative responsibilities of all kinds, and a myriad of other duties necessary to the execution of an international campaign. The activities described in this chapter supported the three legs of the Campaign. The composition of the *Third World Food Survey* and Basic Studies, were prepared in support of the First World Food Congress, and represent very clearly an emphasis on research. Interestingly, FAO never veered from a focus on technical research (pursuit of better cows and fatter pigs), but research in support of the Congress depended on the cooperation from its own departments, other UN Agencies, and individual governments. Moreover, it viewed development in a global, holistic framework. Information and education efforts included the central FFH publications, publicity campaigns, and the provision of FAO information through contact with NGOs, national committees, and other groups and organizations. Examples of FFHC action include the World Food Congresses and FFHC Regional Conferences, and the organization and facilitation of events such as the Young World Assembly. FFHC publications were designed to inform and educate in support of direct action, and were a means whereby Campaign participants could access new techniques and methods.

Congress participants arrived in Washington in 1963 with access to more information on the condition of humanity than had ever been available. Moreover, they arrived at the greatest gathering of minds ever assembled to discuss world hunger and malnutrition. Participants arrived at the Second Congress more informed than at the first, and they brought with them a better understanding of the problems they faced. The two events provide a useful insight into the attitudes of actors in the development community at two important moments. In the 1960s the Green Revolution signalled revolutionary
advances in agricultural and biological science, and the problem of hunger and malnutrition was revealed as more complex and more urgent than anyone had imagined. By the 1970s the development community had reached new levels of sophistication and complexity, and the kind of activism which had characterized the First Congress had been replaced by something more radical and political. A look at the Congresses also provides insight into the environment in which they were conducted. WFC-1 was not as rigidly organized as the Second Congress, and as Charles H. Weitz noted, compared to the WFC-2, the First Congress was “a stodgy old maid!”

The First Congress was imbued with a sense of urgency and optimism; participants left the event with the confidence that a massive effort could be mobilized and that hunger would be ended within a generation. Participants at WFC-2 were less optimistic in the face of a greater awareness of the magnitude and complexities of the hunger problem; participants left with less expectation of an early end to hunger and malnutrition.

The information/education and publicity efforts of FFHC/FAO gave a face to the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. More importantly, these efforts gave a voice to people from all social and economic backgrounds and from all parts of the world. In these efforts we see the will that Kennedy had hoped for manifest and the vision of B.R. Sen realized. Though these activities were led by either FAO or FFHC/FAO, it is the level of participation by individual people, governments, groups, and companies that makes them important. The Freedom From Hunger Campaign Secretariat in Rome never numbered more than 18 people, and most of the time had considerably less. It was the vast sea of Campaign participants and the vigorous national committees which actually composed the Campaign.

382 Charles H. Weitz, Email to Author, 8 August, 2006.
Chapter Four: Youth and Industry

The problem of feeding the world is the greatest and most complex that has ever confronted mankind; the solution lies largely in the hands of young people.

-Albert A. Thornbrough, President, Massey-Fergusson

If not us – who? If not now – when?
-Declaration of the Canadian National Young World Assembly

The Freedom From Hunger Campaign brought together groups and individuals from across the social and political spectrum. Two of these groups, youth and industry, were drawn to the Campaign in their own way and each contributed to the Campaign according to its own merits. The contributions of youth and industry to FFHC are compared in this chapter because, like NGOs, these groups were active in international development of their own accord, and FFHC helped organize their efforts and bring them into closer cooperation with each other and with other actors in development. These groups represent opposite sides of the political spectrum and vastly different interests, but both agreed on the value of the Campaign, the leadership of FAO, and the importance of the fight against hunger and malnutrition. Moreover, youth and industry formed important and innovative partnerships and cooperated on a number of programs and projects. In the 1960s, Canada was a point of intersection among youth, industry, and the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. This chapter will include some reference on the intersection between youth and industry in Canada. This provides insight into how the youth-industry intersection operated at a national level, and allows some discussion on
the expression of FFHC in Canada by means not under the direct purview of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee/Canadian Hunger Foundation.

Part One of this chapter will look at the role of Youth in FFHC. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, youth were active in a wide variety of development efforts in many parts of the world. Director-General Sen had always believed that harnessing the resource represented by youth would be essential in the fight against hunger,\(^{383}\) and by 1965 FAO was making formal overtures to youth and youth organizations. In 1965 FFHC/FAO launched the Young World Mobilization Appeal, which was inaugurated by the Young World Assembly. In 1966-1967 FFHC/FAO cooperated with Massey-Fergusson in the Young World Food and Development Project, and in 1970 FAO facilitated the participation of more than 500 youth at the Second World Food Congress. In 1974 FAO was again linked to youth at the UN World Food Conference, and from the outset of the Campaign youth and youth organizations figured prominently in the work of the national committees. Officials at FAO welcomed youth participation in the Campaign, and Sen himself believed that involving youth in positive international development efforts would help ameliorate the potential for disruptive behaviour. FFHC and FAO involvement with youth continued into the 1970s, especially in developing countries.\(^{384}\)

Part Two of this chapter will look at FFHC relations with industry with a focus on the Cooperative Programme of Agro-Allied Industries and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, more commonly known as the FAO Industry Cooperative Programme (ICP). ICP was operated under the FFHC umbrella, but it was

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\(^{384}\) Hans Dall, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
entirely independent of FFHC/FAO operations. ICP was a product of FFHC and of the vision of B.R. Sen and represents the kind of innovation the Campaign was designed to generate. Moreover, ICP was akin to NGOs and to Youth because Sen saw industry as a distinct component of a global campaign against hunger. The Industry Cooperative Programme was an effort at cooperation among private industry, the UN, and governments in efforts to work for agricultural development.

Youth and industry intersect in important ways in the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and as we will see in Chapter Five, an important point for this intersection was in Canada. This was largely because of the efforts of Massey-Fergusson Limited (MF) of Canada which had been a partner in the Campaign since 1961 and which was actively looking for ways to partner with youth in development efforts. Massey-Fergusson was a founding member of ICP and the only Canadian company that retained long term membership. In partnership with FAO, Massey-Fergusson financed a series of regional youth conferences on development, culminating in a world meeting in Toronto in 1967, Massey-Fergusson made youth and agricultural development the theme of their pavilion at Canada’s Expo ’67, and Massey-Fergusson organized a meeting of ICP member industries in 1974 in preparation for the UN World Food Conference.385

Part One: Youth and FFHC

The Young World Mobilization Appeal

In 1964 B.R. Sen wrote a letter to FAO member governments, national FFH committees, and NGOs to propose the launching a youth oriented appeal within the

385 The 1974 meeting was known as known as the Toronto Consultation.
framework of FFHC. Sen argued that such an appeal would serve as a way to involve young people in economic and social development and would promote awareness of the importance of educating and training young people for future work in development.\textsuperscript{386}

After preliminary discussions, the idea was presented to the 7th Session of the FFHC/NGO Advisory Committee in Geneva in February, 1965 where the proposal was accepted by members of the Committee and supported by a variety of groups and organizations. The result was the launching of the FAO sponsored Young World Mobilization Appeal (YWA) which was designed to run from October, 1965 to March, 1966. The Appeal arose from awareness by Sen of the interest of youth groups around the world to become involved in the discussion on development, and from the efforts of the FFHC/FAO Secretariat in Rome to improve FAO’s own attitude on the possibilities of youth involvement in development.\textsuperscript{387} The purpose of YWA was to involve youth of all countries in educational and operational activities in connection with the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and to help advertise the FFH message.

For FAO, interest in youth participation was part of the information/education aspect of the Campaign, and interaction with youth provided an opportunity to take advantage of a new element or group and involve them in a discussion of issues that FAO defined. FFHC/FAO openly associated itself with the global youth movement in an effort to further its own goals. Charles Weitz recalled that the reason FAO “latched on to young people” was not to have youth activities in FAO,

\textsuperscript{387} Charles Weitz and Victoria Bawtree recall that until WAY FAO was primarily concerned with rural youth and that the individual officially in charge of youth relations at FAO considered youth groups to consist of 4H Clubs.
but in order to ride piggy back on what was happening in the world. In a sense we were taking advantage of them [youth] in order to do something FAO had not done before – which is to try and get young people, because they were expressing themselves in the world for the first time, to get them interested in development, and particularly in agricultural development.388

Despite some degree of self interest on the part of the FFHC Secretariat, FFHC/FAO’s involvement with youth was born of a “sincere desire” to involve that group in the discussion and dialogue on international development.389 Moreover, Sen and his successors knew that there was money in the budget for youth oriented activities and programs.390 Although FAO Director-General A.H. Boerma was apprehensive about youth, and had tense encounters with youth at the Second World Food Congress, he ultimately embraced the participation of young people. One reason for this, as FFHC International Coordinator Hans Dall recalled, was that Boerma “could get money from the budget for youth activities. FFHC/AD could get money to do things when they couldn’t get other funding. One had to be aware of what is possible.”391

As a result of the Young World Appeal youth around the world formed committees, supported FFH activities, and took other forms of action for development. FAO termed this the ‘Young World Movement’, because despite some degree of leadership and organizational structure by FAO, youth were acting largely on their own initiative and in their own distinctive way. In some cases, a Youth Committee was set up within an existing national FFHC Committee,392 in others Young World Committees

388 Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 3 October, 2005.
389 Sen and members of the FFHC Secretariat viewed involvement with youth “as an opportunity to “mine” or take advantage of a whole new element or group, to get them involved in the dialogue and discussion on the issues that you [FAO] wanted …about development and hunger.” Ibid.
390 Ibid.
391 Hans Dall, Interview, 4 October, 2005.
introduced FFH to their respective countries.\textsuperscript{393} In Canada, a Young World Mobilization Promotion Committee\textsuperscript{394} was set up independently of the national FFHC Committee, and more than one hundred youth organizations were consulted about the Appeal. In October 1965 a national Young World Appeal involving schools, universities, and youth organizations in every province assessed the Young World Mobilization Appeal and made plans for participation. The Canadian Assembly concluded with a declaration which paraphrased the Young World Manifesto:

We young Canadians appeal to all young Canadians to join us in a mobilization against hunger, against disease and against oppression, to undertake projects to increase understanding among people and to seek the attainment of human dignity and freedom. We appeal to every young Canadian to act on these ideals now before they are forgotten. If not us-who? If not now – when?\textsuperscript{395}

In developing and developed countries, there were hundreds of individual projects for development, political campaigns, action, and education efforts undertaken by youth acting under the auspices of the Young World Appeal. Among the most spectacular contributions came from New Zealand where Olympic champion Barry Davenport, chairman of New Zealand’s “Operation 21”\textsuperscript{396} and participant in the Young World Assembly, swam the Cook Straits between the North and South Islands as a publicity stunt to launch Operation 21.\textsuperscript{397} In Mexico, members of Isidro Fabela, a cultural organization set up by students from the University of Mexico, visited rural villages bearing with them expertise, medicines, pesticides, insecticides, veterinary drugs, and

\begin{footnotes}
\item[393] Examples include Iceland and Mauritius. Ibid.
\item[394] The members of this committee were drawn from the Youth Committee for International Cooperation Year, the Canadian Assembly of Youth and le Congrès des Mouvements de Jeunesse du Québec.
\item[395] Ideas and Action, 10-11.
\item[396] The youth arm of the New Zealand national Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee.
\item[397] Ideas and Action, 17.
\end{footnotes}
equipment donated by manufactures and distributors.\textsuperscript{398} The activities of youth committees acting under the auspices of the Appeal were as varied as the groups themselves.\textsuperscript{399} Significantly, they gained valuable publicity for FFHC and FAO.

As noted above, Sen had designed the Young World Appeal to “piggy back” on the growing youth movement around the world; he understood that youth would be essential to the inevitable, massive expansion of international development efforts. The Appeal encouraged youth to seek and develop both a national and an international voice, and participation in the Appeal contributed to a growing sophistication among youth in their methods and in their ideas.\textsuperscript{400} Sen argued at the Young World Assembly and on numerous other occasions that “Idealism is the essence of youth, but unless there is opportunity for the idealism to be expressed in concrete action, it often turns to anger and revolt.”\textsuperscript{401}

Conversely, the Appeal was designed as a means to bring youth as a group to the international stage and closer to the ear of those in positions of power. As we will see in Chapter Four, the youth voice at the Second World Food Congress included both moderate and radical elements, and that voice was far from unified or uniformly welcomed by other Congress participants. However, FAO was able to take advantage of an unprecedented spirit of activism among youth, and was successful in its efforts to promote youth participation in international

\textsuperscript{398} Ibid., 18.
\textsuperscript{399} For example, in Argentina youth, educators, and politicians met to discuss the appeal with resulting development education programs in schools. In Britain thousands of youth signed anti-hunger petitions (which were then sent to parliament) and youth brought 41 members of Parliament together with Barbara Ward to discuss development. In the Federal Republic of Germany a series of youth and development conferences were held, and in the Ivory Coast youth undertook school garden projects. In Malaysia youth called for and helped conduct health and nutrition surveys
\textsuperscript{400} Charles H. Weitz, Interview, October 5, 2005.
\textsuperscript{401} Report of the Young World Assembly.
development. Unlike many other institutions, FAO benefited from youth activism in the 1960s.

The Young World Assembly (Rome, 15-16 October, 1965) was held as the official launch to the Young World Mobilization Appeal. The Assembly was an effort to stimulate youth around the world into action and to promote amongst them a dialogue on international development. FAO invited 44 youth leaders from around the world to Rome to meet and discuss the role of youth in international development. In his opening remarks to the Assembly, Director-General Sen noted that the Assembly was “symbolic of a new spirit alive in the world…to strive for a better world order in which men can live in peace and dignity.” Sen also reminded the participants of John F. Kennedy’s words at the First World Food Congress and cautioned that idealism had to be expressed in concrete action.

The youth leaders were received by Pope Paul VI at the Vatican on the evening of 15 October, 1965. His Holiness noted at this time that the purpose of the Assembly was

to move the minds and hearts of Man, to awaken the conscience of nations, to prevail upon public authorities to make the necessary efforts and set apart the necessary resources…mankind must be made aware of its duty of worldwide solidarity. Young people of today…it rests with you – for you are the future – to see that these facilities should really be used in the service of all mankind...

The Assembly produced the Young World Manifesto which appealed to “all young people everywhere” and, echoing the words of President Kennedy, concluded with the following paragraph:

403 Kenney made a plea for the abolition of hunger and malnutrition, and he warned that the “present” generation would be judged by its success or failure in efforts made toward that end. FAO, Report of the World Food Congress, 20.
404 FAO, Young World Assembly, 7.
405 Ibid., 5.
We who are meeting at the Young World Assembly have pledged ourselves to this struggle as countless other young people all over the world have done. Our generation has the power and the knowledge that no previous generation has ever had. With these we must create a world in which the human spirit is set free from hunger and want, for ever.\footnote{Young World Manifesto. Rome, 16 October, 1965.}

An earlier paragraph in the Manifesto, however, is less positive in tone:

Let us all make plain to the rulers that the division of the world into rich and poor must end and that we know that efforts equivalent to the many billions of dollars wasted on armaments are needed to develop the world. Let them know, too, that if political or financial systems prevent a just distribution of food and wealth, those systems must be replaced.\footnote{Ibid.}

The Manifesto illustrated the two faces of the youth movement in the 1960s; one was pragmatic and sincere in its desire to improve the condition of humanity, and the other was highly critical of existing systems and political structures. As we will see below, these characteristics are evident at the Second World Food Congress in 1970 where youth were vocal in their calls for both increased action for development and a reordering of world systems. Has Dall, a participant at the Young World Assembly and later International Coordinator of FFHC, noted at the Assembly that “[t]here must not be anybody who from now on can say, “We didn’t know.” We, the young, must see that all are aware of their responsibility.”\footnote{FAO, Young World Assembly, 9.} The Young World Manifesto and the Report of the Assembly were widely reprinted and were often cited by politicians and other influential figures in support of the Appeal and of FFHC. Lessons learned by youth and FAO at the Assembly inspired and shaped future cooperation and action.
The Young World Food and Development Project

In 1967, with the support of Massey-Fergusson Limited of Canada, FAO organized the Young World Food and Development Project. MF had been associated with the Freedom From Hunger Campaign since 1961 and was increasingly supportive of youth in development. Massey-Fergusson was a key supporter of the Young World Mobilization Appeal and central to its success, and at the invitation of FAO, agreed to provide US$500,000 for a program aimed at enlisting the support of young people in development.409 The Young World Development Project (YWDP) consisted of a series of seminars and conferences in 1966 and 1967 in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, Europe, Latin America, and North America, which culminated in a world conference in Toronto in 1967. For FAO, the Young World Development Project continued the work of the Young World Mobilization Appeal and supported efforts to involve youth in development. YWDP was Massey-Fergusson’s special contribution to the Canadian Centennial.410

As we will see in Chapter Five, the Toronto Conference was a focal point for industry, youth, NGOs, and government, and at the time of Canada’s Centennial and in the context of the Expo ‘67 in Montréal, this event was symbolic of a growing, outward-looking humanitarianism in Canadian society. The objectives of the YWFD World Conference were

409 Massy-Fergusson, “Massey-Fergusson to Provide $500,000 for F.A.O. Project as Centennial Contribution” (MF, News Release, National Archives of Canada, MG 29, I 395, vol. 23, 408-18, Canada-Mysore Project 1965-1969), 15 October, 1965), 1; Massey-Fergusson had been looking for a way to contribute to Expo ‘67, and support of the YWDP was a part of this interest. MF contributed $500,000 to YWDP, and organized 5 regional conferences in support of the event.
410 Ibid., 2.
1. To develop greater awareness and interest in international development and the food crisis, with particular emphasis on the role of youth and of out-of-school rural youth programs in the context of FAO’s Young World Appeal; and to foster a fuller dialogue between rural and urban youth and between youth and adults, in relation to questions of food and development.

2. To plan a concerted world-wide action program for the continued development of rural youth work in the developing countries, and the generation of the resources needed for its support by –
   (a) recommending and promoting specific action projects to overcome the problems hampering the further growth of out-of-school rural youth programs contributing to the improvement of agriculture and rural life in developing countries;
   (b) stimulating the further interest and commitment for action of resource groups (government, non-government, business and industry, and youth) in support of concrete action projects and programs; and
   (c) encouraging the involvement of youth through educational activities, work projects and civic action in support of development, and the growth of youth-to-youth activities between the developing and more developed countries for mutual understanding, assistance and solidarity.\footnote{FAO, Young World Food and Development Project: Programme (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 48, file 48-9, FAO Massey-Fergusson - World Conference Toronto 1967, Young World Food and Development Programme, 1967, 1977.), 10.}

Keynote speakers included B.R. Sen, Tom J. Mboya (Minister for Economic Planning and Development, Kenya), Maurice Sauvé (Minister of Forestry and Rural Development, Canada), John Robarts (Premier, Ontario), Paul Martin (Secretary of State for External Affairs, Canada), A.A. Thornbrough (President, Massey-Fergusson), and Paul G. Hoffman (Administrator, United Nations Development Program). The Conference was composed of three Commissions: I. Program development; II. Resource development; and III. Organization and procedures. Each conference produced a report and a set of recommendations on the basis of which FAO and its partners developed follow-up actions.\footnote{The Commissions produced more than fifty recommendations. These included an emphasis on improvement of background conditions for delivery of aid, the suggestion that UN and government}
“Plan”, FAO undertook follow-up actions on two fronts. First, FAO helped to build rural youth programs in developing countries through the strengthening of institutional structures, leadership, and program content. Second, FAO promoted the involvement of all youth in information programs, youth-to-youth projects, and civic and political actions in support of the fight against hunger.\textsuperscript{413} Massey-Fergusson continued to support the Young World Development Project, and in Canada the Canadian Hunger Foundation (formerly the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee) developed a youth program and increased cooperation with other Canadian agencies (such as CUSO and the Overseas Institute of Canada) in their efforts to promote youth participation in development.\textsuperscript{414}

\textbf{Youth and the Second World Food Congress}

By the time of the Second World Food Congress, FAO had gained a great deal of experience working with youth, and youth organizations had gained experience working in the context of structures of international development and international politics. The Young World Mobilization Appeal and the Young World Food and Development Project

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had been largely focused on reaching youth and establishing a coherent voice for youth in international development, and in this way FAO “helped invent youth” as an identifiable group. 415 Moreover, the Appeal, the Young World Assembly, and the Young World Development Project were youth oriented events and programs. At the Second World Food Congress (the Hague in 1970), youth were present both as a group, and as individual Congress participants, but the Congress was not a ‘youth oriented’ event. However, in advance of the Congress youth were given their own three day conference, and representatives of that conference made a presentation to the Congress when it convened.416 Officially, youth were then asked to participate as individuals and in their own capacities, and many did so.

It was in part because of the presence of youth at the Congress that FFHC itself was able to continue into the 1970s. The new Director-General of FAO, A.H. Boerma, had intended to kill FFHC early in his first term, but it was in part his experience at the

415Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
416 Milton Gregg, President of the Canadian Council for International Cooperation and participant at the Congress, described the youth presentation: “The plenary session on “the role of youth in development” started off in quite a different atmosphere in the Congress assembly auditorium. A screen was hung at the back of the stage and slide projection set up. Tables and chairs were whisked off the stage, the lights turned out and the moderator sat cross-legged in the aisle. A number of pictures were flashed on the screen to give atmosphere. For example a large picture of Jack Kennedy, while a recorder reproduced the speech he had made at the opening of the first World Food Congress in Washington in 1963.

“After a brief statement by the Moderator, a series of young people, from both the developed and developing countries, to microphones, under spot lights in various sections of the hall made brief dramatic contributions. The theme was: “WE WANT ACTION NOT WORDS”. Some listed the sins of their own countries. Chief amongst these was the lad who poured forth all the crimes that his country (USA) has perpetrated since it ‘had stolen the land from the Indians.’

“After this series, the lights went up and the participants at large were requested to intervene. The shock treatment had been so strong that at first there was very little response. However a team of young people, each with a portable microphone, roamed the hall and interviewed likely adults with questions; e.g.: ‘What did you think of this programme? The responses as could be expected were not wholly complimentary, and for the rest of the session the discussion was very lively and very much down to earth. Some of the older’s reaction could be summed up as something like this ‘We’re glad Youth is out to put new life into the effort, but don’t let your contribution be just ‘words, words, words.’ Whatever can be said of the content of the youth plenary, no one could complain of boredom lack of opportunity for participation.” Milton Gregg, “Notes on the Second World Food Congress” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 52, 52-4, FAO – Second WFC, July, 1970), 6.
Congress which helped persuade him to keep it going. Boerma maintained two somewhat contradictory positions on the role of youth at the Congress. On the one hand, the Director-General did not want to separate youth as a distinct group by including a special panel or commission on youth; in planning for the Congress he noted that

I am particularly anxious that young people should play a major role in the Congress and I attach great importance to the arrangements that will make this possible. I do not want youth simply as youth – there will be no ‘Commission for Youth.’ I want young people to play their part in every stage and in all the commissions of the Congress. In this way, youth will participate as citizens, with all the rights and responsibilities of citizens and not as a separate group with separate needs.

On the other hand, Boerma feared the youth movement and its possible impact on Congress proceedings. Prior to the Congress, organizers became aware of rumours that “left-wing radicals” planned to take over the Congress. The response by FAO was an effort to undermine the potential for disruptive protest. The Advisory Group for WFC-2 felt that these elements could either be suppressed or absorbed and took the decision to adopt the latter alternative. To encourage youth participation FAO invited, subsidized, and housed youth participants, included youth on the Congress steering committee, and

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417 Boerma was also persuaded to keep FFHC when Weitz convinced the Director-General to appoint a high level committee of inquiry to evaluate the future of FFHC; half would be appointed by the Director-General and half by the International Coordinator. Weitz recalled that FFHC staff “stacked the deck” with strong supporters of FFHC (two of Boerma’s choices for the committee were strong supporters of FFHC) and that the “genius” was in appointing Albert Van den Heuvel of the Netherlands, a top official in the World Council of Churches and later Bishop of the Reform Church in the Netherlands, as the chair of the committee. Van den Heuval ran the committee with skill and the secret assistance of Weitz and other FFHC staff, and the result was that the committee’s decision to continue and improve FFHC was virtually unanimous. Weitz and Hans Dall, IC after Weitz, recalled that Boerma, whose heart was never in FFHC and who never really understood the program, was therefore forced to capitulate to the committee’s decision, and he wanted to put his personal stamp on FFHC; this was a part of the reason that “Action for Development” was added to the FFHC moniker. Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall and Victoria Bawtree, Interview by Author, October 5, 2005.; Charles H. Weitz, email, 6 July, 2006.


youth were given a three day conference of their own. FAO and the Dutch Government facilitated the creation of the “New Earth Village” which was located adjacent to Congress facilities on an unused Dutch army base and served as the main gathering point for youth participants. There were in excess of 500 youth participants (out of a total Congress participation of 1800) from all over the world – though the majority came from Western Europe. Boerma himself had spent a great deal of time personally interacting with youth at the New Earth Village and it was in part this experience which began to impress upon him both the success of the Congress and the value of FFHC.

The FFHC Secretariat was well aware that Boerma was looking for justification to close down FFHC and that youth activism at the Congress could provide such an opportunity, so they looked for a means to anticipate Boerma’s reactions to youth at the Congress. Members of the FFHC secretariat secretly approached a friend at the Dutch Institute of Social Studies, and, as Charles H. Weitz recalled, “We told him we needed a mole…someone to infiltrate the youth groups and feed us daily as to what was really

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421 Ibid., 1-2.
422 Paarlberg noted that the youth participants were: “(i) idealistic young people sincerely intent on alleviating world hunger; (ii) adventurous young people interested in being where the action was; (iii) a relatively small number of hard-core left-wing radicals, a conference going cadre, some of whom may show up at the UN meeting in New York.”

The document goes on to outline youth ideology (Marxist), youth philosophy (existentialist, nihilistic), youth theology (atheism), the youth objective at the Congress (radical transformation of governmental and institutional forms), the youth strategy at the Congress (to profess humanitarianism and democracy), and the youth tactics at the Congress (attack Western powers, especially the U.S. – for militarism, exploitation and the capture of FAO and its conversion into “an agency of Western Imperialism”). This document also notes friction between youth groups; youth from less developed countries were interested in food and agriculture, youth from developed countries were politically oriented, the Europeans sought intellectual leadership, and there was bickering between the various Marxist groups. Ibid., 2

423 The Report of the Congress includes a picture of the Director-General sitting cross-legged on the ground in the New Earth Village as he conversed with a group of the youth participants.
424 Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005; Email to Author, 6 June, 2006.
going on so we could anticipate Boerma." The individual FFHC/FAO selected was Jan Pronk, who later became the Netherlands Minister of Development, whom Weitz characterized as brilliant in his role as mole. The strategy worked. Boerma frequented the New Earth Village, as did other senior ministers, in an effort to engage with ‘radical’ and other youth. The Village was the most popular feature of the Congress and participants of all kinds came together in large gatherings and “tremendous discussion groups” each evening. The Director-General had a very positive experience with youth at the Congress, and it was in part this experience which ameliorated his desire to close FFHC.

Youth and the United Nations World Food Conference, 1974

The UN World Food Conference (Rome, 1974) invited the formal participation of member countries, UN Agencies, and affiliated organizations. FAO facilitated the participation of youth at the Conference, and though youth and youth organizations did not play a role in the official proceedings, their presence helped influence decisions taken there. Youth were present at the Conference as observers, and again FAO was active in facilitating this presence. Youth participation at the UN World Food Conference was

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425 Charles H. Weitz, Email, 6 July, 2006.
426 Ibid.
427 The Canadian delegation took participation at the UNWFC very seriously, and included in the delegation both provincial and national sections in order that the complexities of Canadian federalism did not undermine efforts at the Conference or in the fight against hunger. Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 4 November, 2004.
428 Weitz recalled that Canadian youth at the Conference were in regular contact with the official Conference Delegation. They provided information on the concerns of participants and observers, and helped keep the delegates anticipate new developments. On several occasions, the Delegation altered its position based on the information and lobbying efforts of youth. Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 6 October, 2005.
influenced and shaped by the experiences of youth at events such as the Young World Assembly, the Young World Development Program, and the Second World Food Congress, and Conference participants were very aware of the presence of youth. Youth influenced the Conference proceedings in several ways. Delegates were witness to a variety of demonstrations, protests, and actions by youth, some delegates maintained personal relationships with FAO or a national FFH committee, and youth groups provided information to both the general public and to the delegates. A particularly interesting effort by youth and voluntary agencies was the publication of the ‘youth’ newspaper *PAN*. *PAN* summarized Conference proceedings and contained a variety of comments and editorials by Conference delegates and other participants. This publication was distributed as widely as possible at the Conference and it informed participants of all kinds. An early issue featured on its cover a photograph of US Secretary of Agriculture Earl Butz and Italian President Giovanni Leone sitting together and reading *PAN*. Selections from *PAN* were included in FAO’s *House News* in 1974, and copies of *PAN* were commonly found in UN and delegate headquarters. This kind of effort was indicative of a new level of sophistication among youth and a greater ability to influence events. Both were products of the earlier efforts of FFHC.

**Part Two: the Industry Cooperative Program**

Through the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, B.R. Sen reached out to industry in the same way he had to NGOs and youth. Industries and private businesses of all

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430 Director-General Sen made sure that FAO staff were provided daily copies of *PAN* which they were required to read. Charles H. Weitz, Interview, 5 October, 2005.
kinds participated in the Campaign in many ways and in cooperation with FAO, Governments, and national FFH committees. The most prominent FAO-industry cooperative effort came through the FAO Industry Cooperative Programme. ICP was a product of the work of Commission IV of the First World Food Congress and of the vision and courage of B.R. Sen. Where the history of FFHC in concerned, ICP is “a bit of a red herring” because it was not properly a part of FFHC operations, but it was a product of FFHC and is of particular significance in the Canadian experience with the Campaign. The purpose of ICP is best described in the words of B.R. Sen:

FAO/ICP, as it was originally called, was one of several major initiatives under the FFHC. We had no illusions with regard to Transnational Corporations (TCs). We recognized that they were exploitative in character, impelled by profit motive. We from FAO or from the UN System could not stop them from functioning in the developing counties. What we could do was to try to harness the managerial ability, technical know how, scientific experience, and capital resources of the leading industries of Europe and North America to support our efforts to free the world from hunger. We wanted to guide the industries from our end into the channels we thought most needed for our campaign, and at the same time alert governments of the developing countries about the shoals and sandbanks they must steer clear of in dealing with these industries.

ICP was organized under the framework of FFHC and received contributions through FFHC Sub Trust Fund No. 177. Beyond the inspiration for the Programme and the connection to the FFHC budget, ICP had no relation to FFHC operations. Sen noted that ICP attracted the interest of other UN Agencies, and that in 1967 this interest found expression in the change from FAO/ICP to ICP which “conceptually loosened [ICP’s]

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433 Through this fund meetings relating to ICP were financed, an ICP unit at FAO headquarters was maintained, and the fund facilitated Country Missions and covered miscellaneous FAO/ICP expenses.
moorings from FAO.” However, ICP is a good example of the kind of innovation Sen was implementing through FFHC and at FAO. FFHC gathered various development partners (such as NGOs, governments, and individuals) under the same umbrella, and ICP would add industry to that list.

The concept of formal FAO-industry relations was proposed by Sen in a letter to Government Ministers in 1965. Sen was encouraged by cooperation between FAO and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), which by the end of 1965 was yielding tangible results, by a similar effort involving the Inter-American Development Bank, and by the formulation of the Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development. Sen believed that the next logical step in the global effort to combat hunger and malnutrition was a massive expansion of the involvement of industries related to agricultural production and food distribution in official processes of international development. The 13th Session of the Conference of FAO in 1965 endorsed the idea of closer FAO-industry relations and “recognized the potential value of extending FFHC activities into [this] area”, and FAO Council adopted the idea of an ICP with FAO Conference Resolution 5/65 on 9 December, 1965. At the request of the FAO/Industry Relations Steering Committee the FAO/Industry Cooperative Program unit was set up within the framework of the FAO Department of Public Relations and Legal Affairs.

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438 Sen appointed H.C. Felix as the inaugural Director of FAO/ICP and A.G. Friedrich as Assistant Director. Sen also formed a Working Group on FAO/Industry Relations (IRG) which whose mandate was to maintain close working relations between all interested departments and divisions of FAO. The
The Industry Cooperative Programme pioneered the concept of public-private partnerships (PPPs) and formed the basis for modern PPPs in the UN System and elsewhere. Peter L. Woicke, Executive Vice President, IFC, and Managing Director of the World Bank, noted that the contributions of the PPPs developed under ICP are now part of the everyday language of development assistance and cooperation and that this concept is now enshrined in the UN Millennium Declaration of 2000. ICP began with a membership of 16 representatives of industries and at its peak maintained a membership of more than 100 companies from Australia, Canada, Europe, Japan, and the United States. ICP produced results quickly. By 1967 membership had risen to 46 companies, and the Programme was reaffirmed by the 14th Session of FAO Conference in 1967 which recognized the “important catalytic role [of ICP] in bringing together the managerial, technical and financial elements for new investments as well as the

Chairman of the Working Group was E. Glesinger (Assistant Director-General, Public Relations and Legal Affairs), Mr. Felix as Vice-Chairman, and Mr. Friedrich as Secretary. Other members included the Chairman of the Inter-Divisional Working Group (IDWG), representatives of the Assistant Directors-General, Division Directors from Program and Budgetary Service, the Technical department, the Department of Fisheries, the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the Director of the Public Information Division, the FFHC Coordinator, and a representative of the World Food Program. B.R. Sen, “FAO/Industry Cooperative Programme” (FAO, Director-General’s Bulletin, Personal Collection of Walter Simons, 18 March, 1966).

439 Walter Simons, Former Deputy Executive Secretary (Director Level) of ICP, noted that in the atmosphere of the 1970s, where transnational or multinational companies were viewed with some suspicion, some countries did not support the idea of programs funded by private industry being a part of the UN system. For this reason the UN Centre on Multinational Corporations was set up. Walter Simons, Email to Author, 7 July, 2006.


441 The founding members of ICP were: R.G. Aikin (Shell, Netherlands/United Kingdom), J.F. Allen (H.J. Heinz, United States), A.C.C. Baxter (Unilever, United Kingdom/Netherlands), E. Bignami (Nestle, Switzerland), M. Bonow (Kooperative Forbundet, Sweden), P.F. Cornelsen (Ralston Purina, United States), J.P. Delafield (General Foods, United States), K.F. Landegger (Parsons and Whitmore, United States), E. Locatelli (Societa Locatelli, Italy), J. McGarry (International Minerals and Chemicals, United States), P. May (Knorr Nährmittel, Switzerland/Germany), H. Raising (Tetra Pak, Sweden), H. Schaffenhausen (Hoechst, Germany), E.F. Schroeder (International Corn Products, United States), A.A. Thornbrough (Massey-Fergusson, Canada), and J. Vilgrain (Grans Moulins de Paris, France). Ibid.
Program’s cooperation with governments in eliminating obstacles to investment.”\textsuperscript{442} By this time industries were supplying the essential requisites for development agriculture such as seeds, chemicals, fertilizers, agricultural equipment and machinery, and food packaging materials.

ICP began with limited, largely undefined objectives, but these were quickly identified and reassessed as the Programme developed. In 1971 the Director-General and the Executive Committee of ICP clarified Programme objectives; ICP should: “1. Provide support for government and industry-initiated projects; service non-members as well as members; 2. Establish and maintain working groups where there is a real need for them; 3. Implement high level ICP missions.”\textsuperscript{443} In a very basic sense, through ICP, FAO was able to support governmental and industry-initiated projects through a sharing of FAO resources and information and by including members of industry in discussions with FAO and governments on official development processes. ICP also identified and summarized investment opportunities for investment and cooperation in developing countries,\textsuperscript{444} it enabled FAO and other UN Agencies to collaborate with governments and industries in the formation of national development plans, and ICP helped industries work together in development strategies and projects. ICP provided a mechanism whereby government and UN officials were exposed to the perspective of private industry and vice versa; this was accomplished by including representatives from UN Agencies, governments, and industry on ICP staff at FAO – which was seen as a way to

\textsuperscript{442} FAO, Extract from the Report of the 14\textsuperscript{th} Session of FAO Conference, November 1967.
\textsuperscript{444} A good example of this activity is found in \textit{Industry International} magazine in 1971; this issue listed more than 50 individual opportunities in Africa and Asia and directed interested parties to the UNDP for further information. “Investment Opportunities” in \textit{Industry International} (June, 1971), 41-45.
remove intermediaries between these actors.\textsuperscript{445} Despite his wary attitude toward transnational corporations, Sen understood that industry provided a vast and important component of world economic and social development; ICP embraced this vision and therefore undertook to cooperate with industries and nations regardless of their affiliation to FAO, though all member countries enjoyed membership in the larger UN system. The primary objective of ICP was to stimulate agro-industrial expansion; as a result, ICP restricted industry membership to those companies which were operating in the developing world.

Among the most important and controversial aspects of ICP were the High Level Missions. The concept of the High Level Missions required an understanding by industry that their role must be a neutral one and that industry must make a maximum use of technical and industrial expertise in relation to the development needs of individual countries. It also required that organizations such as FAO, UNDP, and IBRD view ICP Missions as an adjunct and aid to the total planning processes in “LDCs” and as an innovation for increasing the effectiveness of private sector resources.\textsuperscript{446} The size and structure of each Mission varied according to local situations, but each would include a mission leader who was a senior executive with considerable experience in overall planning and who had the diplomatic talents necessary for dealing with a variety of government officials.\textsuperscript{447} Other mission members represented specific industry sectors or bring experience of other relevant technical or economic considerations.

\textsuperscript{446} FAO, “ICP High Level Advisory Missions – Organization and Preparation” (FAO, IP 22/1/2, Ad Hoc Working Party on Programme Objectives (Bignami)), 1.
\textsuperscript{447} Ibid.
The Achievements of ICP

After its official approval by FAO Council in 1967, ICP continued to redefine its purpose and scope, and these principles were reaffirmed by FAO repeatedly until it was discontinued in 1979. By the time of its official approval in 1967, ICP was responsible for the elimination of obstacles to development by increasing cooperation among FAO, governments, and industry, and was recognized as instrumental in setting up a food processing plant in Turkey. In 1969 the Programme was reaffirmed and FAO Council recommended an expansion of ICP to include smaller-scale industries.\textsuperscript{448} In 1970 the concept of industry-initiated projects was further developed and expanded as members proposed new projects; these fell primarily into three pre-investment categories (resource surveys, application of new technology, and infrastructural needs for high risk or new market development projects).\textsuperscript{449} ICP was successful in facilitating the sharing of expertise between FAO, governments, and industry, and in 1970 ICP allowed individual members to represent the Programme at international conferences. ICP took steps to improve cooperation and dialogue with UN and other organizations such as UNDP, UNICEF, ILO, WHO, UNESCO, UNCTAD, GATT on agro-allied industrial subjects in an effort to identify areas of common interest or activity, and ICP established working relations with the PICA and IDB. An early an important ICP liaison was with the FAO Investment Centre which helped evaluate many ICP projects and which collaborated with ICP on a number of ICP missions. ICP established important Working Groups such as the Pesticides Working Group which worked in cooperation with FAO, and the Working Groups.

\textsuperscript{449} Ibid., 2.
Group on Farm Mechanization Training, which was organized and led by Massey-Fergusson.

In the 1970s High Level Missions were operating in a number of countries and ICP was introducing new ideas such as Working Parties and set up a variety of Working Groups. ICP formed sub-commissions on Environment and Cooperation in Development, a Joint FAO/Industry Task Force was set up to help guide the Program’s efforts to improve protein food development, and ICP set up subcommittees on the cooperation of multinational industry in development, membership development, communications, the environment, input industries and employment and agricultural commodities. Individual members of ICP pursued projects in cooperation with various divisions of FAO on subjects such as development of the dairy and meat industries, fruit and vegetable processing, world rice production, fishery management, molasses feed for cattle, the use of animal by-products in the pet food industry, forest industries development, livestock development, and agricultural mechanization and processing. In some cases companies that were not members of ICP cooperated on individual projects, and ICP cooperated directly with governments and FAO in the organization of conferences, meetings, and a variety of administrative activities.

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450 In 1973, High Level Missions were operating in Brazil, Cameroon, Cyprus, Dahomey, Liberia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Venezuela
451 These were composed of small groups of ICP members with common interest who worked at the request of individual governments. By 1972 Working Parties were operating in six countries and were pursuing three main subjects: plastics (Dahomey, Egypt, Senegal, and Tunisia), meat (Botswana), and forestry (Zaire). FAO, “Achievements of ICP,” 4.
452 Before 1975, Working Groups included: the Pesticides Working Group, which provided material for the Stockholm Conference and organized a series of FAO/Industry seminars on the Safe and Effective use of Pesticides; the Farm Mechanization Working Group, which cooperated with member companies and collaborated with FAO Agricultural Services Division to support training courses; the Working Group on the Use of Plastics in Agriculture, which guided the activities of the Working Parties; the Working Groups on Dairy Industry Development and Integrated Meat Development, which cooperated with FAO in the exchange of economic and technical information, feed and food production, and other aspects of production and disposal of agricultural product and byproduct. Ibid.
453 Ibid.
In 1974 and 1975, ICP was expanded in dimension and scope – especially in the dialogue between FAO, ICP, and the industry partners, and by this time the close relationship between industry and governments of developing countries was believed to have helped increase “mutual understanding of development planning and execution.”\textsuperscript{454} In anticipation of the 1974 World Food Conference, at the request of the UN Secretary-General and with the support of Massey-Fergusson, ICP organized a meeting of agro-industries in Toronto in September 1974 which produced a document on the interests of industrial leaders in development and constructive cooperation with governments. The activities of ICP were broadened in 1975 and 1976, and the 18\textsuperscript{th} Session of the FAO Conference in 1975 reaffirmed the Programme and noted that “The Industry Cooperative Programme was in a position to harness substantial resources from transnational corporations for the development of agro-industries in line with the plans and wishes of developing countries.”\textsuperscript{455} The Conference further noted that

> Developing countries were called upon to encourage enterprises of developed countries to participate in their development. In this context, it was pointed out that the Industry Cooperative Programme had been working on these lines and that there was a need for an intensification of the efforts of ICP in agro-allied industries.\textsuperscript{456}

In 1976, ICP was looking for ways to increase cooperation with other UN Agencies and other international bodies, and ICP members were demonstrating a high level of cohesion and determination in their efforts to increase cooperation between governments and industry through the UN system.\textsuperscript{457} Finally, ICP cooperated fully with the Group of Eminent Persons and with the UN Centre on Transnational Corporations whenever

\textsuperscript{454} Ibid., 6.
\textsuperscript{456} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{457} FAO, “Achievements of ICP, 9.
possible. The level of enthusiasm for ICP by FAO, governments, and industry was high and the outlook for the late 1970s and the 1980s was positive, but by 1978 ICP was shut down.

The End of ICP

The proposed expansion of ICP was accompanied by an increased effort by ICP officials to develop a better understanding of projects and operations. In 1975 ICP Executive Secretary A.H. Friedrich identified a “gap” between expectations by governments and the UN system on the one hand and the “known performance” of international industry on the other. Friedrich recognized the increasing pressure on ICP as the Programme grew and a larger number of participants required both greater amounts of information and quantified results of ICP activities. Moreover, ICP was beginning to develop a “global approach” to agro-industrial development based on the goals embodied in the New International Economic Order and set out at the World Food Conference in 1974. Enthusiasm for the Programme ran high. A.S. Yohalem, Senior Vice President, CPC International Inc., described the mood of some ICP members in a letter to A.H. Friedrich; he noted that “Our task has been a labor of love – and I must affirm that the future of ICP and its imprint upon the agribusiness world is as important today, and even more so, than yesterday.” Despite the positive forward outlook and the apparent success of the program, several factors lead to the cessation of ICP in 1978. The most important of these was the continued opposition to ICP by several Nordic

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458 A.G. Friedrich, “Confidential, Background Note” (FAO, IP 22/1.2, Planning, 1 September, 1975).
countries, led by Sweden, which believed that private sector interests should be kept separate from UN activities. The argument for a “separation of church and state” (industry and the UN system) in international development was compounded by further arguments that industry was more interested in gaining access to FAO data such as soil maps and irrigation charts than they were in improving the condition of humanity.\textsuperscript{460}

Opposition to ICP had always existed, and as the campaign of Nordic countries against ICP demonstrated, private sector involvement in international development posed significant challenges and required the utmost surveillance of the motives and activities of participants. There was an increasing apprehension of transnational corporations in the 1970s, and this kind of challenge to ICP led to the development of the UN Centre on Transnational Corporations and the acknowledgement of the necessary role of private industry in international agricultural development.\textsuperscript{461} The atmosphere of the Cold War also posed a challenge to ICP; through ICP in the late 1960s many firms had developed relationships with governments and industries on the eastern side of the Iron Curtain. As noted above, these factors were compounded by an increased demand for quantifiable, concrete results from ICP. Finally, the end of ICP was heralded by the election of Saouma as FAO Director-General in January 1976.

The official end of ICP began with decisions taken at the Nineteenth Session of the FAO Conference between 12 November and 1 December, 1977. In response to proposals forwarded by Director-General Saouma, in regard to the Industry Cooperative Programme,

\begin{quote}
The Conference noted the views of the Director-General, shared by the Programme Committee, that the Industry Cooperative Programme should
\end{quote}

\textsuperscript{460} Victoria Bawtree, Email, 21 August, 2006.
\textsuperscript{461} Walter Simons, Email, 7 July, 2006.
not be a part of the structure of FAO. The need for continued cooperation with industry, particularly at the sectoral level, was recognized. This could assist in the transfer of resource, particularly in management and technology, according to the priority needs of developing countries.

The Conference supported the intention of the Director-General to examine the Industry Cooperative Programme, further to the Report of the Programme Committee, and to propose to the spring session of the Programme Committee and subsequently to the Council ways of securing appropriate cooperation with industry, in particular for the future.462

After his election in 1976, Saouma had expressed to ICP officials his intention to continue a partnership between FAO and ICP, but in the months leading to the FAO Conference those officials became aware that Saouma’s attitude toward ICP was not as positive as they had believed. Saouma commissioned reviews of ICP’s work, but despite a positive response from these assessments, the Director-General remained “antagonistic” to the Programme.463 Saouma also undertook in 1976 to disband the Working Groups and suspend other ICP activities.464 Support for ICP among some FAO and government officials, and especially by industry members, led to attempts to relocate ICP within the UN system, but these attempts failed and by 1979 all FAO/ICP activities had ceased.465

Like FFHC, ICP was a product of the vision of B.R. Sen and represented a major innovation in the work of international development. Unlike FFHC, ICP was designed as a long term programme and its termination was premature. Ironically, opposition came from leftist governments whose influence on international organizations was strong in the 1970s. In the 1980s, as dreams of a new economic order collapsed, criticism of collaboration between UN organizations and industry came from the right. For the

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463 Walter Simons, Email, 4 July, 2006.
465 Friedrich and Gale suggest that the end of ICP came as the result of “political considerations” in the Spring of 1978. Friedrich and Gale, Public-Private Partnerships Within the United Nations System, 47.
purposes of this study, ICP represents a marked success for FAO and for FFHC in the 1960s and 1970s. The umbrella provided by FFHC allowed for such an unorthodox approach to be initiated and sustained and FFHC leadership the development of new partnerships in international development was instrumental in creating an environment in which an idea such as ICP could exist. Though ICP was not a part of FFHC, it is a product of it, and it is the kind of programme that FFHC was designed to generate.

Conclusion

Participation of youth and industry in the Freedom From Hunger Campaign were necessary components of B.R. Sen’s global campaign against hunger and malnutrition. Sen recognized that like NGOs, the resource offered by youth and industry to the fight against hunger was as significant as it was essential. Both of these groups were increasingly interested in agricultural development in the 1960s and this interest drew them naturally to the work of FAO. Youth and industry represented opposing sides of the political and ideological spectrum, and their participation highlights the universality of the Campaign. Their participation also describes a triangular relationship wherein youth, industry, and an international governmental agency (FAO) cooperated to produce real results in the fight against hunger. FFHC was a very large umbrella under which these two very different groups could contribute to a common cause without ever encountering each other, yet they were drawn together in close cooperation. As we saw in the example of the Young World Food and Development Project, Canada was an important site for the intersection of youth, industry, and the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. CHF was the
primary expression of FFHC in Canada, but it was not the only one. That youth groups and industry independently supported FFHC indicates that the FFHC message was reaching Canadians more broadly and that Canadians were receptive to such a message. The kind of cooperation discussed here was largely conducted outside the purview of the Canadian Hunger Foundation,\textsuperscript{466} and was an example of the international Campaign operating at a national level. The following chapters look more closely at the operation of a national committee, that of Canada; and here we see a related, but different kind of cooperation and interest by youth, private industries and other groups and organizations.

\textsuperscript{466} CHF was involved in the YWDP and some other initiatives, but in these examples CHF’s role was largely supportive.
Chapter Five: FFHC in Canada: A Case Study

The world has no place for neutrals or bystanders in this war on want. We are all involved. We shall all suffer if that war is not won. We shall all benefit from victory and it is my hope that we shall see the fruits of that victory in this generation.

Hon. Paul Martin

There is one good and sufficient reason for international aid and that is there are less fortunate people who need our help. If they are grateful for that help so much the better.

Hon. Mitchell Sharp

Studies of Canadian aid usually place the beginnings of official Canadian involvement in international development assistance at 1950 with the inception of the Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in South and South East Asia.\(^{467}\) Canadian involvement in Colombo was significant, but was part of a broader level of Canadian activity in agricultural development. Canadians were involved in an assortment of official and voluntary aid schemes long before Colombo. Canada had been an official supporter of the International Institute of Agriculture which had been recommending the creation of an international agency to promote the development of food and agriculture for many years (this body eventually lead to the creation of FAO).\(^{468}\) Canada was one of 45 nations\(^{469}\) which cooperated in setting up the Food and Agricultural Organization of


\(^{469}\) These were: Australia, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark (observer), Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Iceland, India, Iran, Iraq, Liberia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Union of South Africa, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom, United States of America, Uruguay, Venezuela and Yugoslavia.
the United Nations between 1943 and 1945, and Canada was a founding member of the United Nations. Five years later Canada participated in the Colombo Plan, which was organized in a Commonwealth framework. For more than a century, Canadian religious organizations and community groups engaged in ‘people-to-people’ efforts in agricultural, economic, and social development in many parts of the world. Even after Colombo, Canadian official and voluntary efforts at international development were relatively modest, and yet it is during these years that Canada laid the foundations for expanded official and voluntary aid programs.

After the Second World War, Canada moved steadily toward greater involvement in international social and economic development. In addition to the Colombo Plan, Canada supported a number of relief agencies and efforts including the United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA), the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA); moreover, Canada played an important part in the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) and the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance to Underdeveloped Countries (ETAP). Canada supported the creation of the Special United Nations Aid Fund (SUNFED) After 1954 Canada served on FAO’s Sub-Committee on Surplus Disposal which was a part of the Committee on Commodity

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470 Lester Pearson was the Chairman if the Interim Commission on Food and Agriculture; this was the body that organized and guided the processes at Hot Springs and Quebec.

471 By 1945 Canada had a century old missionary tradition and many Canadians justified aid on religious and moral grounds. Spicer, 6.

472 Canada supported the fund in principle, but had originally opposed its creation on the basis that it was being implemented too quickly and without adequate preparation. Government of Canada, “Question of Establishing a Special United Nations Fund for Grants-in-Aid and Long-Term Low-Interest Loans” (Ottawa: Documents on Canadian External Relations, Vol. 19, 15 December, 1953), 267-271. Canada later changed its position because it was clear the fund would be established despite Canada’s opposition and officials wanted a high degree of influence in the operation and distribution of the fund. Government of Canada, Memorandum from Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs to Secretary of State for External Affairs (Ottawa, Documents on Canadian External Relations, Vol. 22, 14 March, 1957), 352-254.
Problems, and Canada had a particular interest in the FAO Grains Group and the FAO Oilseed Group. In the late 1950s, under the auspices of FAO, Canada helped organize the World Food Program, and a Canadian served on the WFP’s Intergovernmental Committee as Chair on several occasions. It was Canada’s relationship with FAO which produced the most profound initial influences on Canadian involvement in international development assistance in the voluntary and official sectors.

The evolution of Canadian official aid policy in Canada in the 1950s and the 1960s mirrored the aims of the FAO very closely. As Keith Spicer noted in 1966, Canada, like other Western nations, pursued an aid policy focused on a “trilogy” of aims: humanitarian, economic, and political good. These aims reflected what Cranford Pratt called “humane internationalism”, and it was a kind of humane internationalism which formed the basic rationale of the Charter of FAO, the first of the UN Specialized Agencies to be set up. The preamble to the Charter of FAO reads:

The Nations accepting this Constitution, being determined to promote the common welfare by furthering separate and collective action on their part under their respective jurisdictions,

securing improvements in the efficiency of the production and distribution of all food agricultural products,

bettering the condition of rural peoples,

and thus contributing toward an expanding world economy

473 Canadian Department of Agriculture, *Canada and FAO*. (Ottawa: Canada Department of Agriculture, 1971), 15.
475 Pratt defined this as “an acceptance that the citizens and governments of the industrialized world have ethical responsibilities to those beyond their borders who are suffering severely and who live in abject poverty.” Cranford Pratt, “Middle Power Internationalism and Global Poverty,” in Crawford Pratt ed., *Middle Power Internationalism: The North-South Dimension* (Kingston: McGill-Queen’s, 1990), 5.
476 Charter of FAO.
Canadian ODA policy was bound in 1945 to the principles outlined in the Charter of FAO when Parliament passed the FAO Act in 1945. Canada played an important role at the founding conference of FAO in Quebec City (October, 1945) where it played host and provided both the Conference Chairman (Lester Bowles Pearson) and the Deputy Secretary General (D.E. Richards). Canada supplied one of the largest delegations and the Government of Canada lent a number of administrative personnel and resources to the Conference. Canada signed and ratified the Constitution of FAO, and many Canadians have liaised with or worked for FAO in a variety of capacities. By the 1960s, Canada was highly receptive to ideas and policies generated at FAO. For example, in the early and mid-1960s, FAO pioneered new programs for NGOs, industry, and youth; in the late 1960s, Canada introduced its own NGO, industry, and youth programs. The objectives of the Canadian programs matched those of FAO almost exactly.

It is through FAO that Canada first became involved with FFHC. Canadian officials at FAO became aware of Director-General Sen’s proposals for a world campaign against hunger as early as 1957, and Canada supported FAO Conference Resolution 13/59 which authorized the Freedom from Hunger Campaign in 1959. FFHC owed its beginnings to governments and governmental agencies, but the bulk of the work of FFHC was undertaken in the voluntary sector. FFHC (and FAO) was an important source of information on the economic and social condition of humanity and was a point of contact for FAO, governments, industry, NGOs, and individuals interested in international development.

477 Canada’s Minister of Agriculture, the Hon. J.G. Gardiner, led the Canadian delegation. Canada loaned the Conference a number of civil servants who served as Conference Officials, and many of these individuals remained involved with FAO as staff members or as Government Representatives. These individuals include Dr. Vladimir Ignatieff, S.C. Hudson, E.P. Reid, and Frank Shefrin. Members of the Canadian delegation to the Conference were also “sufficiently inspired” to join FAO, including Donald Finn, Roy Cameron, Jack Harrison, John Booth, and Dr. E.S. Archibald. Canada, Department of Agriculture. *Canada and FAO* (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1971), 10.
development. FFHC provides a useful lens for a view of Canadian involvement in international development assistance – especially by voluntary agencies. Moreover, looking at FFHC provides insight into how ideas and information moved among governments, organizations, and peoples in informal ways.

There is virtually no mention of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign in the relatively sparse literature on Canadian development assistance in the first development decade. Yet even a cursory examination of voluntary participation in FFHC by industry, NGOs, groups and individuals shows a significant presence of FFHC in Canada in both the official and public realms. FFHC-inspired activity by industry, NGO, groups, and individuals in Canada was significant. Through the Campaign, hundreds of organizations and thousands of individuals raised millions of dollars and undertook numerous development projects. Much of this work was done with the support and cooperation of the Government of Canada, and many Canadian politicians and other government officials participated directly in the Campaign. This chapter will examine the origins of FFHC in Canada and track its development throughout the 1960s. The most prominent expression of FFHC in Canada was the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee (CFFHC) which later became the Canadian Hunger Foundation (CHF). However, as we saw in Chapter Four, Campaign activities in Canada went beyond the scope of this organization.
FFHC in Canada

Canada’s involvement in the Freedom From Hunger Campaign began when Canada joined FAO member countries in supporting Resolution 4/29 of the 29th FAO Council Session in 1958 which established an Ad Hoc Committee for a Free the World From Hunger Year. Canada then supported the 1959 FAO Conference Resolution 13/59 which formally approved Director-General Sen’s proposals for a 5 year Freedom From Hunger Campaign. After this point, FAO communicated directly with the Government of Canada regarding support for the Campaign (financial and otherwise) and the establishment of a national FFHC committee, and FAO communicated with Canadian non-governmental organizations, with international non-governmental organizations which had ties to or operations in Canada, and with Canadian religious groups and their parent bodies internationally.

The first official FFHC-related communication between governments and FAO took the form of a letter from Director-General Sen to Ministers of FAO Member Governments on 25 February, 1960. In this letter Sen referred to Resolution 13/59 and reminded governments of their obligations to that Resolution. Sen summarized the goals of the Campaign and specifically addressed the role of National Committees. He noted that

National action programs…will be the heart of the Campaign. It is from them that increased production, improved distribution of agriculture

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478 B.R. Sen, FAO Doc. G/158 (FAO, RG12, Sec 4, B-067 (Box 2), Dr. Ezekiel’s Files, Government and Governmental Institutions, 25 February, 1960).
479 Sen indicated that these were “to promote a better understanding of the problem of providing adequate food for the present and future world population in the light of its rapid increase and of all the methods available for bridging the gap between available and optimum food supplies, and to stimulate national and international action with a view to bridging that gap.” Ibid., 1.
products, and the other pre-requisites to freeing the world from hunger will have to flow. Most of the projects will relate to increasing food production, improvements in nutritive quality, prevention of food losses, increased effectiveness in distribution or in stimulating better food habits and consumption, as also to associated social, economic and institutional questions.480

In March of 1960, Sen sent a second letter, again reminding governments of their obligations (financial and otherwise) to Resolution 13/59, and noted that National FFH Committees were already being formed in many countries. He included detailed suggestions on the nature and form of each committee and included with the letter was a document detailing the “Principles and Methods Governing the Freedom From Hunger Campaign”.481 Sen was specific in his suggestion that the National Committees include representatives of governments and other “influential individuals”, and Sen suggested that Heads of State might serve as Honorary Presidents.482

In May 1960, a meeting was held to discuss the formation of a Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee. Attendees at the meeting agreed that one consideration in the formation of such a committee was fundamental: “If non-governmental organizations are to play an important part, it should be because they are convinced themselves that they should do so, and not because they are pushed into it by the government.”483 It was proposed that the activities

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480 Ibid., 2.
482 Ibid., 2.
483 Attendees at this meeting are not specifically listed in this document, but similar meetings were attended by Willson Woodside (National Director, United Nations Association of Canada), Dr. H.H. Hannam (Canadian Federation of Agriculture), David Kirk (Canadian Federation of Agriculture), Howard Trueman (Canada, Department of Agriculture), and representatives of a number of NGOs, private industries, and voluntary organizations. Freedom-from-Hunger Meeting, “A Canadian Freedom-From-Hunger Campaign
of a Canadian FFHC Committee take two main lines: “1) information and education on the world food problem and the steps being taken to handle it, and 2) the raising of money to supplement the regular government contribution to various agencies.” The plans for action discussed and adopted at this and subsequent meetings were based largely on guidelines provided by FAO. It was acknowledged even at this early stage that as the committee matured it would require less and less guidance from FAO or from government.

A second meeting of the Interim Committee of the FAO Freedom From Hunger Campaign in 1960 on 18 August, 1960, which Sen himself attended, convened in the Board Room of the Canadian Department of Agriculture in Ottawa. The Committee was chaired by Willson Woodside, National Director of the United Nations Council of Canada. At this time Interim Committee Secretary Howard L. Trueman, Foreign Agricultural Relations Officer of the Canadian Department of Agriculture, reported that the Government of Canada
would make a grant of $23,000 to the Campaign Trust fund. Attached to the government pledge was a memorandum outlining the type of organization needed and the action which might be taken at the meeting of the Interim Committee. At this meeting each of the members reported on their activities in the Campaign—which included the establishment of scholarship funds, fund raising, professional training, and cooperation with existing international efforts such as the Colombo Plan and the FAO International Seed Improvement Campaign. The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee was formally inaugurated in Toronto on 22 March, 1961. The work of organizing the Committee was undertaken by Willson Woodside (Director, United Nations Association), Dr. G.H.S. Barton (former Deputy Minister of Agriculture), and Herbert Hannam (President, Canadian Federation of Agriculture). The inaugural committee consisted of an Executive of five individuals headed by Mitchell Sharp, former Deputy Minister of Trade and Commerce and in 1961 Vice-President of Brazilian Traction. Sharp served as chair until March, 1962 and continued to serve on the executive until 1963 when he became a cabinet minister in Lester Pearson’s Liberal government. The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee defined the purpose of a national FFH Campaign committee as

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488 The Canadian Committee deliberately left “Campaign” out of its title because it expected to engage in an effort of long, sustained support toward the objective of freeing the world from hunger. H.L. Trueman, “Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-66, Box 161, FFH Correspondence (151), 26 September, 1961), 1.
489 In addition to its financial support, the Government of Canada lent CFFHC the services of J.R. Pelletier and H.L. Trueman. The Committee underwent several changes in its first year, but several individuals served on the executive in various capacities and most maintained long term relationships with CHF.
to inform people on the problems of food and population and to stimulate more rapid action for the alleviation and eventual elimination of hunger. In the developed nations we have the added responsibility of providing money, equipment, and personnel to assist in speeding up the self-help programmes in less fortunate countries.\footnote{Canadian Hunger Foundation, “Canada’s Contribution to the Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (National Archives of Canada, MG 29, I-395, vol 2, file 102-6, Annual general Meeting – Minutes 1960-1973), 1.}

The Committee began immediately in its work of informing the public and securing financial support for itself and individual development projects. Fifty voluntary organizations offered financial support, use of information services, and several worked through CFFHC to accept projects from FAO. Notable among these were school garden and nutrition projects in the Sudan (Red Cross Youth), radios for Indian villages (Farm Forum), mechanization for local fishing craft (Anglican, Presbyterian and United Churches, and the Society of Friends), a number of small projects involving scholarships, farm equipment (Massey-Fergusson), livestock, fertilizers, and CFFHC undertook a major project developing the Food Technology Training Centre at Mysore, India (which became known as the Canada-Mysore Project).\footnote{As of January, 1960 the member organizations of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee were: the Anglican Church of Canada, the Agricultural Institute of Canada, the Association Forestiere Quebecois, the Canadian Agricultural Chemicals Association, the Canadian Association for Adult Education, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, the Canadian Catholic Conference, the Canadian Citizens Council, the Canadian Council of Churches, the Canadian Federation of Agriculture, the Canadian Federation of Business and Professional Women’s Clubs, the Canadian Federation of Newman’s Clubs, the Canadian Fertilizer Association, the Canadian Friends’ Service Committee, the Canadian Dietetic Association, the Canadian Home Economics Association, the Canadian Institute of Food Technology, the Canadian Jewish Congress, the Canadian Labour Congress, the Canadian Lutheran World Relief, the Canadian Red Cross Society, the Canadian Save the Children Fund, the Canadian Seed Growers’ Association, the Canadian Seed Trade Association, CARE of Canada, Caritas-Canada, the Conseil des Oeuvres de Montreal, the Cooperative Union of Canada., the Corporation des Agronomes du Quebec, Croix d’Or, the Confederation Synd. Nationaux, the Federated Women’s Institutes of Canada, Jeunesse rurale Catholique, L’Union Catholique des Cultivateurs, the Meat Packers’ Council of Canada, the Mennonite Central Committee, the National Council of Jewish Women, the National Council of Women of Canada, the National Farm Radio Forum, the Presbyterian Church of Canada, the Société}

\footnote{These individuals include J.B. Lanctot, Dr. Margaret McCready, Dr. H.H. Hannam, G.H. McIvor, and J. Hulse.} Some organizations not
directly connected to the Committee, such as Massey-Fergusson of Canada (which did not become a member of CHFFHC/CHF until 1964) cooperated with both the Canadian Committee and with FAO to support FFHC in Canada and abroad.\textsuperscript{492}

The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee cooperated with its partners in a wide variety of fundraising activities, publicity efforts, and development projects. Initiatives supported by CFFHC came from government, FAO, member organizations, other national FFH Committees, and from the work of the Committee itself.\textsuperscript{493} Many of the development projects originated at FAO. FAO assessed the needs and costs of individual projects and made this information available to national committees and other Campaign participants. In some cases FAO matched individual projects with particular national committees; this was the case with the Mysore Project. Several member organizations undertook activities under the auspices of the Campaign which did not involve the

\textsuperscript{492} H.L. Trueman reported to a meeting of the Executive that MF was interested in cooperating with CFFHC to design, print and distribute informational and promotional materials on the work of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee. H/L. Trueman, “Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee executive Meeting” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 2, 102-6, Annual General Meeting – Minutes 1960-1973 Vol I, 18 December, 1961), 2.

\textsuperscript{493} As of March, 1962, the CFFHC was active in the Share-A-Loaf coin card system, was in negotiation with FAO and the Government of India regarding support of the Mysore Food Technology Training Institute, supported the Tanganyika Community Development Trust Fund, was cooperating with Massey-Fergusson in the development of CFFHC promotional materials, was undertaking regional organization in Canada, and was actively assessing a number of FAO sponsored development projects. H.L. Trueman, Canadian “Freedom From Hunger Committee: Minutes of First Annual Meeting” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 2, 102-6, Annual General Meeting – Minutes 1960-1973 Vol I, 18 August, 1960), 2-4.
national committee, and some formed their own bi-lateral partnerships to support
FFHC in Canada.

**The Canadian Hunger Foundation**

Nineteen sixty three was a decisive year for the Freedom From Hunger
Campaign and for the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee. At the
international level, the success of the international FFHC and of the World Food
Congress pointed to an extension of FFHC beyond its five-year mandate. In
Canada, 1963 brought discussion about improving and reforming the committee.
Following the World Food Congress in 1963 members of the Canadian FFHC
Committee “felt that the task ahead would take far longer than ten years” and that
“a more permanent organization was needed.”¹⁴⁹⁴ In his closing address to the
Annual General Meeting of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee
March, 1963, CFFHC Chair George H. McIvor noted that the Committee faced an
immediate, necessary change. An important problem faced by the Committee
was in getting recognition from the government that contributions be made tax-
deductible. McIvor noted that in consultation with Mr. Trueman and Mr. Sharp, it
had been recognized that the solution to this problem lay in some kind of
organizational change.¹⁴⁹⁵ At this time it was also noted the increasing interest in
FFHC activities and in corresponding increases in requests for materials by a wide

¹⁴⁹⁴ Canadian Hunger Foundation, “Canada’s Contribution to the Freedom From Hunger Campaign”
(National Archives of Canada, MG 29, I-395, Vol 2, file 2-5, Annual General Meeting – Minutes 1960-
¹⁴⁹⁵ Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee, “Annual Meeting – 1963” (National Archives of Canada,
variety of organizations and individuals.\textsuperscript{496} After September 1963, the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee no longer asked for or received direct assistance from the Government of Canada.\textsuperscript{497} After this point CHF obtained funds from individuals, voluntary organizations, and private industry; some governments funds supported CHF projects, but did not contribute to operational costs of the Foundation.

The committee was correct in its estimation that increasing public awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition in Canada would require sustained and expanded effort. In \textit{A Samaritan State?}, Keith Spicer pointed out that public opinion on aid in the early 1960s is difficult to measure. Spicer noted that there was

\begin{itemize}
  \item a striking proliferation of private Canadian groups promoting so-called “people-to-people” aid schemes – whether for sponsoring overseas aid schemes, selling Christmas cards, or exporting medical supplies, sewing machines or eager young volunteers. Adherents of such groups display a genuinely fervent idealism for what they see as a pressing human obligation, if not crusade. And the impressive moral and financial support given their enterprises by service clubs, churches, companies and individuals suggests that similar motives for aid are shared by a substantial segment of the Canadian population.\textsuperscript{498}
\end{itemize}

At the same moment there was an increase in the number of Canadian NGOs working on international development, and as Tim Brodhead and Cranford Pratt note, “All of this activity represented and gave active voice to a humane internationalist strand of the Canadian political culture that was robust from the

\textsuperscript{496} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{497} Until this time, CFFHC had received support from the Government of Canada in the form of a salary for a director and secretary, office space and supplies, and several grants. Canadian Hunger Foundation, “Canada’s Contribution to the Freedom From Hunger Campaign.” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, 1-395, Vol 2, 102-6, Annual General Meeting – Minutes 1960-1973 Vol I, 21 March, 1966), 2.
\textsuperscript{498} Spicer, \textit{A Samaritan State?}, 7.
early 1960s to the mid-1980s.” Moreover, attitudes toward aid responded to changing circumstances; in Quebec, for example, support for foreign aid, which had been low, increased when the Diefenbaker Government introduced Canada’s French Africa Program in 1961. Opinion polls had difficulty presenting an accurate picture of popular Canadian attitudes toward aid, and the information about aid and about the nature and scale of the hunger problem was increasing daily. In the early and mid-1960s Canadian official and voluntary aid contributions remained modest, and this situation was not unlike that in many other parts of the world. Sen had designed the Campaign to harness the growing energy he perceived in the world; he sought to help organize and direct it, and to develop momentum for a much greater effort. In Canada, the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee increasingly served that purpose. As FFHC matured it became clear to CFFHC that a new organization would be required in order to help encourage and educate the Canadian public on the problem of hunger and malnutrition, to help organize and support organizations and groups undertaking aid projects and fundraising, and to undertake its own projects for development.

After seeking legal advice, members of the Executive of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee established the Canadian Hunger Foundation


500 Spicer, A Samaritan State?, 7.

501 Spicer noted that in 1963 polls by the Canadian Peace Research Institute and by Lemelin-Marion differed. Spicer, 7.

502 In 1962-63 total Canadian aid contributions were approximately $57 million Canadian dollars, of which about $200,000 were voluntary. By 1968-69 total contributions were $210 million, of which about $3 million were voluntary, and industrial cooperation is now recognized with a $200,000 contribution. As we see from participation by MF and other companies with the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, this figure is inaccurate – and suggests that the amount of voluntary aid is also inaccurate. Morrison, Aid and Ebb Tide, 453.
and the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee voted to secure the cooperation of the CHF in conducting the Freedom From Hunger Campaign.\textsuperscript{503} CHF took over operation of CFFHC during 1964-1965, and CFFHC continued until the end of its original mandate in 1965. A combined meeting of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee and the Canadian Hunger Foundation was held on 9 April, 1965.\textsuperscript{504} The Chair of CHF, George H. McIvor, presented the following statement concerning the organization of the Foundation:

In order to provide for the continuation on a long-term basis of the Freedom from Hunger Campaign in Canada as a part of a world-wide effort, it was felt desirable to set up an organization with a more permanent structure than that of a campaign committee. Legal advice was secured, and it was decided a “Foundation” type of organization would be most suitable. This provides for the acceptance and holding in trust of subscriptions, gifts, legacies, bequests, grants, and other contributions to be used exclusively for the purposes of the Foundation.

The purposes were defined broadly as the carrying on of work for the relief of poverty, hunger and malnutrition in food deficient areas. Membership is open to individuals and groups interested in these objectives.

The property and affairs of the Foundation are to be managed by a Board of Trustees of not less than three or more than seven who shall be elected by the Annual Meeting of the members. All proper safeguards are set up to cover replacement of Trustees in the event of death, resignation, bankruptcy, etc.

In order to get the Foundation started Dr. Margaret McCready, Mr. J. H. Hulse, Dr. H. L. Trueman and myself signed the original Trustee Agreement after it was properly prepared, and proceeded to launch a financial and membership campaign. The results, while not spectacular, as you will have seen from the Financial Statement...are encouraging.\textsuperscript{505}


\textsuperscript{504} This was CHF's first annual meeting.

\textsuperscript{505} The Board of Trustees stood as follows: George H. McIvor, Dr. Margaret S. McCready, J.H. Hulse, Hugh Keenleyside, A.M. Runciman, Pierre P. Daigle, and H.L. Trueman. Canadian Hunger Foundation,
McIvor’s positive assessment of the future of CHF was an astute one, and events in the mid and late 1960s revealed CHF and FFHC as important and pioneering in the work of international development.

The 1964-1965 period was significant for CFFHC and the Canadian Hunger Foundation in several respects. During this period CHF took over the work of the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee, cooperated in the organization of the Young World Mobilization Appeal, began publication of the newsletter/magazine *Hunger*, cooperated with the Government of India, the Government of Canada, and a number of organizations on the Canada-Mysore and Canada+One Projects, and CHF maintained and expanded partnerships with numerous organizations and industries. Because of their own experience, and because of their association with other individuals and organizations, CHF members became increasingly sophisticated in their methods and in their understanding of the problems they faced. Activities in 1965 were highlighted by the International Cooperation Year and the Young World Mobilization Appeal, public support for aid had increased substantially, while Canadians were increasing their financial donations to charities and aid agencies.

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506 Continuation of the Canadian Freedom from Hunger Committee was based on two factors. The first is that 1965 was the International Cooperation Year and Freedom From Hunger projects had been adopted by many organizations as their contribution to ICY, and the Youth Committee of CFFHC had undertaken to organize and promote the Young World Mobilization Appeal in Canada. The second factor was that CFFHC was associated with FAO 20th Anniversary plans and with the second Freedom From Hunger Week (16-23 October, 1965) and these events provided an opportunity for organizations associated with FFHC to concentrate their efforts. H.L. Trueman, “Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee: Report of the Secretary to the Fourth Annual Meeting” (National Archives of Canada, MG 29, I-395, Vol 2, file 2-5, Annual General Meeting – Minutes 1960-1973, Vol I, 9 April, 1965), 2.

507 At this time new means of fundraising, largely those that represented a ‘one time’ donation were yielding impressive results (In 1965 “Marches” alone raised over $250,000). Marches, drives, and other
The objectives and activities of CHF were outlined in the first issue of *Hunger* in the winter of 1965:

Believing [the fight against hunger] to be a long term effort, and in order to give the community beyond the initial Freedom from Hunger Campaign period, the Canadian Hunger Foundation has been established to act as an information and servicing agency.

The following are some of the things the Foundation does:

1. Encourages public support for the work of the Food and Agriculture Organization and related Agencies of the United Nations in promoting agricultural development in food-deficient countries. The Foundation provides facilities for assembling and transmitting funds and for signing contracts with FAO and developing countries for carrying out and assisting development projects. It also assists in recruiting experts and locating training facilities for scholars and trainees from overseas engaged in the development of projects supported by non-governmental organizations and funds.

2. Provides a regular news-letter service to members and to the press and radio covering general progress toward freedom from hunger, reports of Canadian projects and Canadians serving outside of Canada, sources of films and pictures, book and periodical reviews, and other information pertinent to Canada’s participation in agricultural development overseas.

3. Provides information and teaching materials for public and high schools, and guidance for adult leaders and groups on how to participate in freedom from hunger activities.

4. Maintains a regular exchange of information with non-governmental organizations in other countries on the progress of constructive measures to relieve hunger and want.

5. Arranges for the publication and the publicizing of basic reliable information on Canadian international activities which might otherwise fail to receive adequate attention.\(^{508}\)

These objectives reflected those of the Canadian Hunger Committee, but were oriented toward a more permanent effort. Moreover, CFFHC had spent much of

its effort developing information, education, and publicity materials and in getting those materials (and the FFH message) to the general public. By 1965 the situation had reversed itself and CHF experienced “constant pressure from the mass media to provide reliable information for press reports, radio and TV programs, and for film production.”

CHF was in fact unable to meet the demand for materials, and as a result was forced to seek government assistance in the production of such materials.

Canada launched its participation in FAO’s Young World Appeal on 15-16 October, 1965 – the same time as the Appeal was being launched in Rome. One hundred and fifty young Canadians representing schools and youth organizations met under the auspices of the Overseas Institute of Canada to discuss the Appeal and a Canadian response to it. The final declaration of this meeting called for awareness and action:

We young Canadians appeal to all young Canadians to join us in mobilization against hunger, against disease and against oppression, to undertake projects to increase understanding among people and to seek the attainment of human dignity and freedom. We appeal to every young Canadian to act on these ideals, now, before they are forgotten.

If not us – who? If not now – when?

As we saw in Chapter Three, the Young World Appeal was funded by Massey-Fergusson of Canada, and its final conference (the Young World Food and Development Conference) was held in Toronto in 1967.

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510 Final Declaration of the Canadian Young World Appeal.
511 Massey-Fergusson’s involvement in the Young World Appeal was shaped by discussions with the Government of Canada and with the Canadian Hunger Foundation. It was the Director of CHF who made the official announcement of MF’s half million dollar donation to finance the Appeal. CHF devoted a
organizations undertook a variety of projects and initiatives across the country.512

The Young World Mobilization Appeal was in part the product of the International Cooperation Year. A second development arising from the ICY was the decision by Canada’s Centennial Commission to provide funds for a special effort described in the following terms:

Working within the broad context of Canadian Centennial celebrations, to endeavor to increase substantially public awareness in Canada of our obligations and opportunities to participate in international development.

Through a variety of methods, the CIDP will provide a dynamic and outward looking international dimension to our centennial celebrations.

Within this broad objective, specific aims will be to increase the contributions made by Canadians to non-governmental organizations in overseas development; to involve other non-governmental organizations in overseas development as a priority field of service, and generally to encourage and stimulate Canadians to recognize their responsibilities as citizens of the world.513

The ICY Committee in Canada was asked to reorganize itself into what became known as the Centennial International Development Programme. The CIDP stimulated community participation in development activities, cooperated with other voluntary agencies, and developed a youth program. CIDP organized and financed a youth seminar in October, 1966 in support of the Young World Appeal. The seminar involved the participation of 30 young people and the


512 An interesting example of an FFHC/YWA inspired action by young people occurred in Winnipeg in 1965. Using large spikes, a group of young people posted a list of 14 points on world hunger to a church door. The congregation was horrified by the desecration of church property; during the service the young people burst into the church, marched down the centre aisle, and asked for the right to address the congregation. The Pastor allowed the address, and for the next half hour the youth discussed the fourteen points before leaving. Charles H. Weitz, Email, 16 November, 2006.

programme so successful that these youth became a corps responsible for
developing the spirit in Canadian high schools that made the Share/Canada’s
March for Millions campaign a success.⁵¹⁴

**The Canada-Mysore Project**

In 1959, the FAO Regional Seminar on Food Technology for Asia and the
Far East, held in Mysore, India, recommended that FAO investigate the
possibilities of establishing in the region a permanent food technology training
centre. The seminar suggested that such an institute would train students from
various parts of the region on the storage and preservation of food products. In
January, 1961, the Canadian Institute of Food Technology (CIFT) contacted FAO
in search of ways in which they could contribute to FFHC.⁵¹⁵ The FAO Nutrition
Division suggested that CIFT follow up on the recommendations of the Mysore
seminar. CIFT and then the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee were
immediately interested in the Project, and FAO and CFFHC began cooperation on
what would eventually become the Canada-Mysore Project. By the autumn of
1962, the Mysore project was considered as a joint project of the Indian
Government, FAO, and the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee.⁵¹⁶ The

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⁵¹⁴ Ibid., 3-4. March for Millions was also known as ‘Miles for Millions’. This was a national initiative
where participants in the events raised funds based on their participation. The initiative was so successful it
became an NGO unto itself.
⁵¹⁵ FAO, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign Project: Regional Training Centre in Food Technology for
Asia and the Far East” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol, 23, file 23-11, regional Training
⁵¹⁶ Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign Project, Regional
Training Centre in Food Technology for Asia and the Far East: Minutes of a Meeting held with Mr. Hulse
Indian Government and the Canadian Committee agreed that Canada select and fund a project manager and a number of fellowships. The Canada-Mysore project was to be Canada’s major contribution to FFHC, but it was only one of many Canadian FFHC initiatives.\textsuperscript{517}

The organizations involved in the Project were FAO, CHF, and the Central Food Technological Research Institute (CFTRI). The initial supporting organizations were the United Nations Association in Canada, the National Council of Women of Canada, the Women’s International League of Peace and Freedom, the Canadian Institute of Food Technology, the Canadian Dietetic Association, and the Canadian Home Economics Association. National organizations including the Canadian Save the Children Fund, Oxfam of Canada, CARE of Canada, and the Anglican Church of Canada made donations to the project, as did numerous individual churches, service clubs, universities, colleges, schools and thousands of private individuals.\textsuperscript{518} Early proposals suggested that the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Committee finance the FAO Food Technology Training Centre at Mysore for three, and possibly five years.\textsuperscript{519} Canadian support would in fact last for decades and the relationship still continues. The objective was to establish a permanent International Training Centre for food technologists from South and East Asia. At this time it was

\textsuperscript{517} In 1964, Dr. W.J. Gall was selected as Project Manager. Dr. Gall had been Technical Director of the Cryovac Division of the W.R. Grace Company, was a distinguished scientist and scholar, and had experience working with UNESCO.


\textsuperscript{519} Ibid.
estimated that at least 30% of agricultural food product spoiled after harvest.

Emphasis was to be on technologies appropriate to tropical and semi-tropical countries in South and East Asia – where these losses were greatest. The Centre was administered by FAO in cooperation with the Government of India.\textsuperscript{520} The choice of Mysore as a location was taken because in 1947, Prime Minister Nehru, himself a chemist, encouraged the establishment of technical research institutes throughout India. One of these was the Central Food Technological Research Institute, established at Mysore in Southern India, in the former palace of the Maharajah.\textsuperscript{521} Canada-Mysore augmented existing operations at the Centre.

In 1963 much of the work on the Canada-Mysore Project was suspended because of the 1962 Chinese invasion of India, but in Canada some parts of the project moved forward. After the establishment of the Canadian Hunger Foundation and the granting of tax exemptions to CHF and its projects by the Government of Canada, CHF named the project officers. The inaugural President was Chancellor FCA Jeanneret of the University of Toronto; Honorary Co-Chairman were celebrated comedians Johnny Wayne and Frank Shuster; Honorary Vice-Presidents were Prime Minister Lester Pearson, and the other principal Party Leaders: John G. Diefenbaker, Tommy Douglas, Réal Caouette, and Robert Thompson. Later additions to the list of Honorary Vice-Presidents included leaders of religious organizations and senior executives from labour and industry.\textsuperscript{522} On 15 September, 1965, Prime Minister Pearson launched Canada-

\textsuperscript{520} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{521} Ibid., 2.
\textsuperscript{522} Ibid., 4.
Mysore Week, and numerous organizations undertook activities in support of the project.\textsuperscript{523}

In April, 1965, the Training Centre was officially inaugurated. By this time Project organizers had received messages of congratulations from U Thant, Indian Prime Minister Shastri, Adlai Stevenson, and Sargent Shriver. After the inauguration they received congratulations and personal gifts from the Duke of Edinburgh, the President of India, the Governor General of Canada, heads of governments of India, Canada, the USSR, Australia, Jamaica, Japan, Pakistan, Ceylon, Korea, Hong Kong, Israel, the Republic of China, and Her Royal Highness Grand Duchess Maria Teresa of Luxembourg.\textsuperscript{524} In the same year the Canada-Mysore Project was named an Official Centennial Project by the Canadian Centenary Council.\textsuperscript{525} The Campbell Soup Company supported several seminars and some student accommodations, the province of Saskatchewan Jubilee and Centennial Committee adopted the Project, and Canada-Mysore received support from the Young World Mobilization Appeal. The Industry Committee of the Canada-Mysore Project agreed with this proposal, suggesting that the food industry been looking for a rallying point for the Centennial

\textsuperscript{523} These activities included collection of funds, meetings between Prime Minister Pearson and Project Officers, initiatives by Cadet Corps, university students, communities and service clubs. Comedians Wayne and Shuster did radio and television commercials in markets across the country, radio stations and newspapers supported the Project, and numerous articles and editorials were written. Canada-Mysore Project, “Newsletter – September, 1964” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 23, file 23-11, Regional Training Centre – Vol I, 1962), 1-2.

\textsuperscript{524} Ibid., 5.

celebrations. The Centenary Council responded to communications from the Industry Committee, and recommended Canada-Mysore for industrial support as part of the Centennial program, and in 1966 the Project was designated a Canadian Centennial Project by the Canadian Centenary Council.

Canada+One

The success of Canada-Mysore in 1967 attracted the attention of the Government of Canada and of Canadian agro-allied and grocery industries. Once it had been adopted as a Centennial Project, the Mysore Project was carried forward and extended into Latin America by the Canada Plus One Project (Canada+One / C+1) of the Canadian Hunger Foundation. The Canadian Hunger Foundation received the personal congratulations of Mitchell Sharp, then the Minister of Finance, Roland Michener, the Governor-General of Canada, Paul Martin, Secretary of State for External Affairs, and Prime Minister Lester Pearson. The continued project signalled a new relationship between CHF and the Government of Canada. Ottawa launched a new NGO Program at this time

believing the time was right to harness the momentum generated by NGOs and other voluntary agencies outside Government, and launched a business and industry program. Moreover, Canada was reorganizing the External Aid Office into the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and was creating the International Development Resource Centre (IDRC). Canada+One was supported by Canada’s Grocery Industry, the Government of Canada (CIDA and IDRC), FAO, CHF, and the governments of participating developing countries.

Canada+One served India and South America from the Technology Centre at Mysore. In cooperation with local government, FAO established food technology training centers, projects and programs in several developing countries. Mobile teaching units, outfitted with simple laboratory equipment, film projectors and other media for demonstrating food processing and preservation techniques, carried teams of instructors on continuous rounds in rural areas. In addition to FAO and governments of individual countries, Canada+One enjoyed the support of more than 200 corporate and foundation donors and continued until 1973. As we will see in Chapter Six, Canada+One was an early application of the concept of Appropriate Technology – which became an area of expertise for CHF.

529 Morrison, Aid and Ebb Tide, 68-70. Morrison noted the success of the Miles for Millions program, but does not mention CHF or FFHC.
532 Ibid., 2.
533 Ibid., 3.
Massey-Fergusson and Canada’s Centennial

The contribution of Massey-Fergusson to Canada’s Centennial was the Young World Food and Development Project. As noted earlier, Massey-Fergusson had been involved in the Freedom From Hunger Campaign since 1961 and had supported FFHC-related youth initiatives since 1962. In 1965 Massey-Fergusson had cooperated with FAO to organize the Young World Mobilization Appeal and MF extended this cooperation to its support of the Young World Food and Development Project.\(^\text{x34}\) As was noted in Chapter Four, in Canada there were very strong links between youth and industry; moreover, that relationship was tied to FAO. The Toronto Conference was the culmination for the YWDP, and it was revealing of the interesting dynamic of the industry-youth-FAO triangle. Peter Hendry, editor of the Family Herald, had been following the YWDP and YWA, and attended the Toronto Conference. Hendry described the situation:

> It was a bold, if not deliberately broad-minded gambit by a profit-oriented private enterprise with world-wide investments that could make it possible for a delegate from Cuba to stand up in Toronto and denounce economic imperialism while a covey of Massey-Fergusson’s top executives looked solemnly on. It was an intriguing precedent that an international governmental agency such as FAO should accept the financial support of a private firm like Massey-Fergusson for an undertaking of such scope and political sensitivity.\(^\text{x35}\)

Hendry noted also that friction between the various groups was quite evident.

Massey-Fergusson officials had expected more concrete, action oriented discussion and less ideological debate. MF was also not used to dealing with an

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\(^{\text{x34}}\) CHF cooperated with MF in the YWDP and supplemented MF’s grants with additional funds.  
^{\text{x35}} Peter Hendry, “These are Troubled Times for Good Samaritans,” in The Family Herald 23 (9 November, 1967).
organization such as FAO – which was composed of member states and was therefore much more cumbersome and slow moving than MF.\footnote{Ibid.}

Following the Conference, Massey-Ferguson hosted Conference participants as guests at the Expo ‘67 in Montreal where Massey-Ferguson made youth and agricultural development a dominant theme in its exhibit. Massey-Fergusson was a major participant in the Agricultural Pavilion – the largest single pavilion at Expo ‘67. This pavilion, which had as its theme “Man the Provider”, was composed of 10 smaller pavilions. One of these, the Mechanization Pavilion, was the primary focus of MF. A.A. Thornbrough, the President of Massey-Fergusson, noted that this kind of support was natural for MF because it was an internationally oriented company which predated Canadian Confederation by 20 years.\footnote{A.A. Thornbrough, Statement on the Young World Food and Development Project (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 49, file 49-20, Young World Food and Development Project – Massey-Fergusson 1965-1968, 27 June, 1967), 1.} Moreover, Massey-Fergusson was candid about its self interest in promoting agricultural development: that is why MF made mechanization and development the focus of their exhibit in the Agricultural pavilion. Massey-Fergusson continued to support the Young World Development Program into the next decade and MF undertook follow-up activities in cooperation with FAO, CHF, and YWDP. In the late 1960s and early 1970s Massey-Fergusson developed and facilitated a series of rural youth program staff training workshops, farm mechanization seminars, and regional workshops designed to train rural youth in farm mechanization.
Conclusion

The Canadian Hunger Foundation was highly successful in its attempts to act as a servicing agency for organizations working in the field of international development, and through this work members of CHF became aware of the “almost complete lack of integration” in Canada’s voluntary effort in community and international development.\(^{538}\) This lack of integration is reflected in the absence of an accurate assessment of Canadian voluntary aid in the 1960s. An examination of Canadian FFHC in the 1960s reveals some significant gaps in the literature on Canadian aid in the period. In his study of CIDA, David Morrison described voluntary Canadian aid efforts in the 1960s, but does not mention FFHC at all.\(^{539}\) Morrison is not alone in his omission; the work and influence of FFHC in Canada is largely unknown. Many of the scholars refer to Cranford Pratt’s “humanitarian internationalism”,\(^{540}\) but none discuss the national and global campaign which promoted that concept. Indeed, the extent to which Canadian development assistance responded to international events and initiatives is almost completely overlooked. Innovations and ideas promoted by FFHC were adopted by Canada on numerous occasions. As the primary source for information on agricultural development and the economic and social condition of humanity, FAO and FFHC had a profound influence on a Canadian understanding of development. The Canada-Mysore project had an important impact on the


\(^{539}\) Morrison includes one mention of ‘Miles for Millions’ on page 69. Morrison, Aid and Ebb Tide, 69.

\(^{540}\) Pratt also refers to this as “humane internationalism.”
work of the Foundation, and was a forerunner of the types of projects that would later be supported by IDRC. The experience with Massey-Fergusson was an important model for other agro-allied and food industries in the development of business partnerships for development. Some of the strongest expressions of FFHC were in Canada. Canadian agro-allied industries were prominent cooperants with FFHC, FAO, and governments in development projects throughout the world; Canada was both a liberal, democratic country and a primary agricultural producer; and the network of relationships between governments, NGOs, and industry that Sen hoped to inspire had developed in Canada.

It is difficult to account for all the efforts of all the participants in FFHC in Canada. An examination of the central expression of FFHC in Canada, the national committee, provides a useful window on how the Campaign played out at a national level. Many groups and organizations undertook their own initiatives to support FFHC and many of these were not reported to the national committee or to Rome. CFFHC/CHF, however, was at the centre of most FFHC activity in Canada, and in the 1960s was one of the most important development organizations in the country. A look at CFFHC/CHF also shed light on some areas in official and voluntary aid which have escaped serious scrutiny. A key feature of FFHC in Canada, and especially of CFFHC/CHF, is continuous growth and change. By the end of the 1960s and in addition to its own projects, CHF continued to do the work of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign in Canada and did so in increasingly close cooperation with other NGOs, Canadian industry, and
with the newly minted CIDA and IDRC. There can be no doubt that the work of CFFHC/CHF was of fundamental importance in creating the political and intellectual climate in Canada not only for expanded development assistance but also for innovative approaches to development such as the IDRC and public-private partnerships. Because of its voluntary and cooperative character, the full range of influence is often difficult to measure precisely, but it surely placed many ‘foundation bricks’ in place.
Chapter Six: A Second Decade of FFHC in Canada

“Development is the new name for Peace.”

Pope Paul VI

The Hunger Foundation has learned over a period of years that it is better to work with the people and educate them at the same time. They have a long, beneficial experience that has taught them.

Eugene Whelan, Canadian Minister of Agriculture

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the Freedom From Hunger Campaign entered a new phase. FAO priorities had changed under the direction of the new Director-General, Addeke H. Boerma, and the work of international development had become increasingly sophisticated. The circumstances in Canada in the 1970s were quite different than those of the 1960s; the official aid program had been thoroughly reorganized, Canadians were embracing a new kind of humanitarian internationalism in the wake of Expo ‘67 and Canada’s Centennial celebrations, and the Canadian Hunger Foundation was now one of many NGOs competing for a finite amount of government funding. CHF continued to be the primary expression of FFHC in Canada, and still operated according to the principles and guidelines of the Campaign. However, it became more dependent on its relations with CIDA and more independent in character. In 1971 CHF became a Charitable Organization under the Canada Corporations Act, and CHF redirected its focus away from a role as a servicing agency to other development agencies and to a greater direct involvement in overseas projects.

Part One of this chapter will examine the changes that FFHC/AD experienced at the end of the 1960s and beginning of the 1970s. Changes at FFHC/FAO had important
consequences in Canada, and an examination of FFHC/FAO helps shed light on the international context in which CHF operated and reminds us that CHF was part of a global network. Boerma’s new ‘Five Areas of Concentration’ and the addition of ‘Action for Development’ to FFHC created a new direction for the international Campaign and reflected the new realities of international development. In Canada, the official aid program underwent a very thorough review, two new government agencies were created, and appropriations for official development assistance (ODA) rose significantly. Interestingly, some of the most important characteristics of new Canadian aid policies and programs reflect very closely those developed by FAO and FFHC in the early and mid-1960s. This chapter compares the processes of reform at FAO and those in Canada because CHF was inextricably linked to both of these bodies. Moreover, these periods of review meant CHF was forced to make organizational and operational changes of its own.

Part Two of this Chapter will examine the changes to CHF as it entered the Second Development Decade. CHF adopted the principles and guidelines of the new Freedom From Hunger Campaign/Action for Development program, and reoriented itself to promote people’s participation in their own development and increase its involvement in overseas programs. CHF was a pioneer in the field of Appropriate Technology, and AT became an area of CHF expertise in the 1970s. CHF involvement in AT can be traced to the early 1960s, but the first real application of this philosophy was in the Canada+One Project. Canada+One brought mobile training units to rural areas in an effort to help communities eliminate food wastage and become self-sufficient in their ability to deliver food to the people. Canada+One led to the development of the Tools for
Development program – which applied the Appropriate Technology philosophy to a large number of action projects. CHF continued to work in the area of development education and 1976 the areas of development education and Appropriate Technology came together with the publication of the *Appropriate Technology Handbook* - which was in high demand throughout the world.

**Part One: Action for Development**

Addeke H. Boerma became Director-General of FAO in 1968. As noted above, the change in leadership at FAO had a profound influence on the work of FFHC. During his first month as Director-General (January 1968), Boerma walked into the office of the FFHC International Coordinator, Charles H. Weitz, and said “Charles, I regret to tell you that I’m going to recommend to shut the Campaign down.”\(^{541}\) Weitz inquired as to the reason for this move, and Boerma explained that as the new Director-General “he was expected to do something, and there was nothing else in the budget he could touch.”\(^{542}\) Weitz convinced Boerma to form a commission to study the idea of closing down FFHC, and then the DG would have a basis for that kind of an action.\(^{543}\) The commission, known as the Director-General’s Expert Consultation, produced a report which recommended that FAO continue and expand FFHC.\(^{544}\) Boerma responded by aligning the work of FFHC with his five new priorities, the subtitle “Action for Development” was added to FFHC, and the work of the Campaign was allowed to continue. However,

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\(^{541}\) Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree. Interview, 5 October, 2005. \\
\(^{542}\) Ibid. \\
\(^{543}\) Ibid. \\
\(^{544}\) Ibid.
as Weitz recalled of the new Director-General, “his heart was never in it.” The interest of the new Director-General lay in the World Food Program (of which he had been Executive Director) and in his Five Areas of Concentration for FAO. These objectives differed from those pursued by FAO under Director-General Sen, and reflected the realities of FAO in the Second Development Decade.

Several factors influenced the direction that FFHC/AD took in the 1970s. The first, noted above, was the election of Boerma as Director-General and the implementation of his Five Areas of Concentration. A second came in 1969 when the FFHC/AD structural mandate was broadened by the FAO Conference and FFHC/AD was empowered to deal both with FFHC/AD national committees and with other bodies – governmental or otherwise. At this time there were important changes to the FFHC/AD secretariat. In 1971, Charles Weitz left FFHC to become Head of FAO’s Office at the UN (he was succeeded by Hans Dall), and in the same year the FFHC/AD Projects Unit was moved out of the Offices of the Director-General and into FAO’s Development Division. Dall lead FFHC/AD through a very different set of circumstances than Weitz had faced, and FFHC/AD applied the lessons learned in the 1960s to its work in the 1970s. Much of the work of FFHC carried forward into a second

545 Ibid. 546 The Five Areas of Concentration were: extending the use of high-yield cereals; closing the protein gap; eliminating waste; mobilizing more effectively human resources, and promoting foreign exchange earnings and savings in developing countries. These were based on the recommendations of the Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development (IWP). 547 These were: reform of FAO into a development agency; the collection and dissemination of accurate data on the social and economic condition of humanity; FFHC; facilitation and development of new partnerships among and between actors in development (NGOs, industry, youth etc). 548 Hans Dall, “Sixth FFHC Conference – Action For Development, FAO, Rome, 1-5 September 1975, Introductory Address by the Coordinator, FFHC/AD” (Rome: FAO, 1 September, 1975), 7. 549 This separation weakened FFHC/AD’s ties with national committees and NGOs concerned with project implementation and funding, but forced FFHC/AD to clearly define its role in relation to the two themes which arose from the recommendations of Second World Food Congress, the 5th FFHC/AD Conference, and the 1969 FAO Conference: i) stimulating a critical awareness of development issues, and ii) the involvement of people in their own development. Ibid., 4.
decade, particularly in areas such as development education and support for Campaign partners, and in efforts to create awareness and facilitate action. New areas of emphasis included the concept of people’s participation in their own development, the need for continuous observation and evaluation, and the importance of viewing small and large scale projects in the context of a long term, holistic understanding of community development.

The first 10 years of FFHC are known as the Campaign Phase. During this period the primary focus of FFHC was on raising awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition and facilitating the development of solutions to that problem. This period was characterized by the three central legs of the Campaign: the search for solutions through the collection and dissemination of data (research); the promotion of efforts at development education in developed and developing countries (information/education); and the development of specific action projects and programs (action). It was during this period that Sen had helped build a truly global movement – a movement characterized by innovation, information sharing, and cooperation. The second ten years of FFHC are known as the Development Program phase. FFHC/AD in this period attempted to situate food and hunger problems in the broad context of community development rather than viewing problems in isolation. Where the aim of FFHC had been “that of making the public aware of the existence of hunger and malnutrition as massive world problems”, the new focus was on making people aware that international development was a complex, long-term process with both economic and social components, and that aid was only one

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small part of that process.\textsuperscript{551} The Fifth FFHC Conference in 1971 suggested that FAO orient the new FFHC program according to the several criteria: the FFHC program identify new ideas and approaches in rural development; provide support to such approaches and to means of communication between them; stimulate critical awareness of development issues; and develop equal partnership between people in developing and developed countries.\textsuperscript{552} By the mid-1970s, the term “people’s participation” was often used to describe the kind of work FFHC/AD was doing – where a ‘top-down’ approach was avoided and the beneficiaries of aid were involved in decision making and implementation processes.\textsuperscript{553}

The changes in FFHC from a campaign to a development program reflect the changing nature of the development and NGO communities. The late 1960s and early 1970s saw an explosion in the number of NGOs and a high level of activity in the international development community. A number of major conferences were convened; these include the Second World Food Congress (1970), the Fifth International FFHC/AD Conference (1971), the First UN World Food Conference (1974); the Canada World Food Conference (1974); the Toronto Consultation (1974); the Sixth International FFHC/AD Conference (1975); and a host of other meetings and gatherings. A key focus of FFHC/AD in relation to these conferences was in organizing and facilitating the participation of the NGO sector. While FFHC had changed in its second decade, it

\textsuperscript{551} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{552} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{553} People’s participation was viewed as a central component of agricultural development. In the early 1970s, FFHC/AD developed strategic alliances and partnerships with NGOs in an effort to promote people’s participation in their own development. In preparation for the 1971 FFHC/AD Conference, a report on “people’s participation” was prepared. This report “represents one of the earliest serious examinations of what was later to become a widely adopted concept discussed at the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) and other fora.” FAO, “Freedom From Hunger Campaign/ Action for development (FFHC/AD): A Brief Historical Review”, 6.
continued to liaise between the various Campaign participants and continued to give a
voice to the voluntary sector in governmental and inter-governmental affairs.

A New Aid Regime in Canada

Canada’s official aid policy, and the government departments and agencies which
delivered aid, underwent a thorough review at the end of the 1960s. This process was
initiated by Lester Pearson in 1966 and 1967 who understood that Canada’s contributions
to official development assistance programs would increase by geometric proportions.
Pearson brought in Maurice Strong as head of EAO to reorganize Canada’s aid program.
Strong shared Pearson’s belief that aid would be a long-term process and he supported
the Government’s commitment to international development (as opposed to External
Aid). In 1966 Strong succeeded Herbert Moran as Director-General of Canada’s
External Aid Office (EAO). The transformation of EAO to the Canadian International
Development Agency (CIDA) and the foundation of the International Development
Resource Centre (IDRC) were initiated by Pearson, but CIDA was created after Pierre
Trudeau became Prime Minister in 1968, and IDRC was not in operation until 1970. The
creation of these agencies marked the most significant change in Canada’s external
aid program since the introduction of Canada’s Francophone Program in 1960 by the
Conservative Government of John Diefenbaker.

554 A similar effort to distinguish EAO more clearly from External Affairs had been undertaken by Herbert
Moran in 1963, but it had been opposed by individuals such as Marcel Cadieux who argued that such a
move would undermine the authority of External Affairs. Mitchell Sharp expressed similar reservations in
1968, but Strong won the support of the External Aid Board, and Trudeau officially announced the change
to “CIDA” on 29 May, 1968. Morrison, 62; see also Donald Barry and John Hilliker, Coming of Age:
Canada’s Department of External Affairs Vol. 2 (Ottawa: Institute of Public Administration of Canada;
The changes underway in Canada followed an intense period of proliferation of information coming out of FAO, and of an unprecedented level of activity by Canadian NGOs including CHF, the Canadian University Service Overseas (CUSO), the Canadian Council for International Cooperation (CCIC), and a host of others. Canada was developing its policies based to a large extent on information coming out of FAO, and Canadian officials agreed with FAO on the urgency of the problem and on the need for an integrated approach to development. Moreover, some of the most important characteristics of the new Canadian aid policy reflected very closely initiatives pioneered by FAO earlier in the decade. Like FAO, Canada had to reform its aid programs and policies because circumstances demanded it. However, Canada undertook reforms by means of a very different method than that employed at FAO.

As we saw in Chapter One, B.R. Sen had undertaken a remaking of FAO during the late 1950s and early 1960s because he perceived that the organization was not capable of fulfilling its objective – that of eliminating hunger and malnutrition in the world. Sen had come to FAO after a long career in the vast bureaucracy of the Indian Civil Service (ICS) where he had gained an understanding of the machinery of governmental organizations. Moreover, experiences as ambassador for India had given him insight into the intricacies of international diplomacy. The most important point about Sen’s work to change FAO was that he had initiated reform through the development and implementation of projects and programs and through the acquisition of information. Sen understood that in the late 1950s there was no adequate understanding of the scope and nature of the problem of hunger and malnutrition. He also understood that FAO was not capable of offering adequate solutions or of mobilizing the kind of resources required to
make a difference. Through special projects such as the composition of the *Third World Food Survey* and the Basic Studies, Sen required that the various departments of FAO necessarily work in collaboration with each other and with Governments, UN and private Agencies, and NGOs.\(^{555}\) Prior to this time FAO had focused efforts on technical research and was dominated by out-dated attitudes and assumptions inherited from the colonial era. Sen correctly understood that this process and the assessment of the data would itself result in new attitudes and approaches to development, and would necessarily require a response from FAO and its member governments. Through work on projects such as the *Third World Food Survey* and programs such as the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, Sen gave a new face to FAO, attracted interest in the work that it did, and drew FAO into involvement with a new set of groups and organizations.

In Canada, the process of review and reform followed a different path. Maurice Strong was brought to the External Aid Office from the private sector, and his understanding of public administration was limited. This led to an approach which was at once highly disruptive and disregarding of established procedures, and at the same time was innovative and sensitive to contemporary realities.\(^{556}\) At EAO Strong undertook a deliberate reorganization which had “shaken the office to its roots” – a process which began with a lengthy, thorough period of review and evaluation.\(^{557}\) Strong commissioned the Bureau of Management Consulting of the Public Service Commission to undertake an in depth review of the External Aid Office and its functions and objectives. In addition, Strong commissioned a number of task forces and sought the

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\(^{555}\) Charles H. Weitz, Hans Dall, and Victoria Bawtree. Interview, 4 October, 2005.

\(^{556}\) Morrison, 60-69.

\(^{557}\) Morrison, 65, 69.
advice of consultants from within government and from the private sector.\textsuperscript{558} David Morrison observed that the mingling of public and private was characteristic of Strong’s leadership at EAO/CIDA, as was an increased emphasis on individual projects.\textsuperscript{559} During this period of review and reorganization, aid disbursements slowed down, as did the number of new projects and programs.

Though the process of reorganization in Canada differed greatly from that of FAO, there are several areas in which Canadian policies and initiatives reflect very closely those developed at FAO. Canadian officials shared the view that the problem of hunger and malnutrition must be met with modern, integrated approaches to development, and that this effort must reach beyond the structures of government and governmental agencies. Strong’s review and reorganization of Canada’s aid program coincided with the creation of three new programs – two of which were permanently incorporated within CIDA, and one which became a new organization. Strong created the Canadian Non-Governmental Organizations Program and the Canadian Business and Industry Program in 1967 and 1969 respectively, and in 1970 IDRC was founded. Morrison described the later 1960s as a period of “unparalleled opportunity to recruit excellent people to EAO/CIDA” and one where EAO/CIDA budgets grew quickly.\textsuperscript{560} He noted that many of the “excellent people” who came to CIDA at this time were drawn from pools of experienced individuals – including returning CUSO volunteers, the military, and organizations with experience in missionary work.\textsuperscript{561} Moreover, during the

\textsuperscript{558} Strong hired the Quebec consulting firm SNC to manage offices of the Francophone Africa Program; this “end run” angered officials at External Affairs. Ibid., 65.
\textsuperscript{559} In 1969 CIDA began training its officials in more direct contact with recipient countries and was allotting greater responsibility for each project to field officers and project managers. Ibid., 66-68.
\textsuperscript{560} David Morrison, \textit{Aid and Ebb Tide: A History of CIDA and Canadian Development Assistance}. (Waterloo: Wilfrid Laurier University Press, 1998), 64.
\textsuperscript{561} Ibid.
1960s, organizations such as CHF, CICC, and CUSO were populated by a group of individuals who moved among these organizations, Government Organizations, and FAO.

By association with FAO and FFHC, Canadian government, NGOs, and industries had been cooperating in international development for a decade. Strong consulted individuals such as Lester Pearson, Mitchell Sharp, and Paul Martin, who had experience in the area of international development and external aid. Pearson and Sharp are particularly interesting because of their association with FAO and FFHC. Strong also attracted individuals such as Joe Hulse\(^{562}\) and Clyde Sanger, who had worked directly with FAO and FFHC. Ideas transmitted easily between CHF, CCIC, FAO, and government agencies in part because the pool of individuals working in this area in Canada was not a large one, and movement among these agencies was common. More surprising is the degree to which Director-General Sen’s vision of international development was expressed in Canadian policy.

Sen articulated the importance of “reaching out” to NGOs and industry on several occasions. In 1960, he noted the importance of forming new partnerships with NGOs:

> Much of the Success of the Campaign will depend upon the cooperation of non-governmental organizations of all sorts…the desired awakening of world conscience could never be attained unless NGO’s [sic], as organizations of private citizens of all kinds and at all levels, vigorously attacked the problem of getting their own membership, and also the general public, hard at work…\(^{563}\)

\(^{562}\) Joseph Hulse had been Head of the Cereals and Baked Products Group of the Defence Research Medical Laboratories in Toronto. In 1961 he became Director Of research at maple Leaf Mills. At that time Hulse was President of the Canadian Institute of Food Science and Technology. He was Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Canadian Hunger Foundation from July 1966 until January 1967, and was instrumental in the success of the Canada-Mysore Project. In 1969 Hulse was Advisor in Food Technology to the President of CIDA (Strong), and in 1971 was appointed Vice-President of Research Programs at IDRC. Anderson, “History of Canadian Hunger Foundation”, 8.

\(^{563}\) B.R. Sen, “Participation by Non-Governmental Organizations in the Freedom-From-Hunger-Campaign” (FAO, RG 12, Sec 4, B-067 B15, Background Papers FFHC, 12 April, 1960), 1.
In a letter to Ministers of FAO Member Governments in 1965, Sen pointed to the potential of private industry as an important partner in development:

In this global effort, a massive expansion of industries related to agricultural production and food distribution...deserves a very high priority, especially since the possibilities in these fields are far from having been fully exploited...I am sure you will agree that if the managerial ability, technical know how, scientific experience, and capital resources of the leading industries in Europe and North America could be mobilized to support our efforts to free the world from hunger, we would have made a significant move forward in our desperate race against time.\textsuperscript{564}

In 1967 Strong argued that:

The concept of individual responsibility and private initiative is basic to the Canadian way of life. We would like to see our government aid programs complemented and supplemented by an increasing amount of private initiative on the part of voluntary service organizations, church groups, cooperatives and business and industry. Private agencies can do much to create...direct personal channels...between Canadian citizens and the peoples of the developing world.\textsuperscript{565}

In the same year, Lewis Perinbam described the objectives of the NGO Program:

First of all was the desire to go beyond the confines of government-to-government relationships and to tap the enormous resources, experience, expertise and knowledge that resided outside government...The second consideration was to make it possible for a large number of voluntary organizations who possessed a wealth of experience and capacities to collaborate with government in the whole international development field...The third was to find ways to enable Canadians to participate in international development...Participation was also a means of building enlightenment and informed support for the whole international development endeavor.\textsuperscript{566}

In 1968 Paul Martin announced that “a new program of assistance to non-governmental organizations, active in the field of international development, would be initiated

\textsuperscript{565} Maurice Strong, Address to the Empire Club of Toronto, 26, January, 1967. Quoted in Morrison, \textit{Aid and Ebb Tide}, 68-69.
\textsuperscript{566} Quoted in Morrison, 69.
effective April 1st, 1968…” \textsuperscript{567} Strong’s “organizational experimentation” was a new development in Canada’s official aid regime, but it followed similar developments internationally and in Canada. Under the umbrella of FFHC, Sen had been working closely with governments, NGOs and industry since the beginning of the Development Decade, and had formally introduced FAO’s Industry Cooperative Programme in 1966. By the late 1960s, numerous Canadian NGOs and industries had been working with the Government of Canada, FAO, and each other for nearly a decade.

Part Two: The Canadian Hunger Foundation in the Second Development Decade

As noted earlier, the Canadian Hunger Foundation continued to be the primary expression of FFHC in Canada in the Second Development Decade, and remained one of the strongest of all the national FFH committees. \textsuperscript{568} However, CHF was sensitive to the changes at FAO and in Canadian aid policy, and the organization changed according to its own particular set of circumstances. In fact, virtually all of the conditions in which CHF worked changed dramatically with the passing of the First Development Decade. FFHC/FAO had added ‘Action for Development’ to its name in order to better reflect a revised mandate, Canada had undergone a thorough review and reorganization of all things related to official development assistance (ODA), and the business of international development was increasingly sophisticated and characterized by a focus on projects and people’s participation in their own development. Close relations with FFHC/AD were maintained, but CHF became more dependent on its relationship with CIDA as it became

\textsuperscript{568} Charles Weitz, Hans Dall, Victoria Bawtree, Interview. 5 October, 2005.
more project-oriented. At the same time CHF itself underwent a period of review, and revised its mandate and operations accordingly.

In the 1970s CHF continued to reflect changes at FAO and to follow guidelines developed by the FFHC and FAO in Rome. Director-General Boerma proposed two themes for FFHC/AD in the 1970s: stimulating critical awareness of development issues; and promoting the involvement of people in their own development.\textsuperscript{569} At this time, the Campaign objectives were outlined as:

a) the creation of a critical awareness by public opinion of development issues and of an informed body of support for FAO’s role in tackling the problems concerned with these issues;

b) stimulation and assistance in the formation of self-development programmes for people in rural areas and channelling of requests for assistance to them in these fields;

c) relating national and international programmes for the mobilization of human resources from non-governmental sectors in an overall programme of development action;

d) more and better planned support for national FFHC committees so these can carry out the above functions and help create more support for FAO programmes and priorities.\textsuperscript{570}

A redefinition of FFHC/AD objectives reflected a new style of cooperation in international development and was a departure from “the pattern of ‘the poor’ being helped by ‘the rich’ on the donor’s conditions.”\textsuperscript{571} The new approach was based on a view of partnership where the efforts and desires of people in developing countries are given priority in decisions concerning their own future.\textsuperscript{572} The priority of the Office of the Coordinator, still situated in the Office of the Director-General of FAO, was to act as

\textsuperscript{569} These themes were proposed by Boerma at the 5\textsuperscript{th} FFHC Conference in 1971.

\textsuperscript{570} FAO/FFHC/AD (C.71/15), 33.


\textsuperscript{572} Ibid.
“a catalyst helping to strengthen the initiatives of others and to bring together people, issues and programmes”; to facilitate contact contacts with and among peoples’ organizations, to complement the technical divisions of FAO by projecting their expertise to a wider public; and to provide opportunities and support for innovative development projects and programs in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Near East.573

In the first decade of FFHC, the national committees worked to: stimulate interest in development issues; stimulate and support self-development activities; build up two-way channels of communication between communities, peoples’ organizations, and planners and administrators; build up systems to coordinate assistance from the NGO sector; and to project a “Third World” view of development problems and their solutions.574 These objectives were viewed as still relevant for FFHC/AD in the Second Development Decade, but FFHC/AD was increasingly concerned with extending decision-making processes to marginal people.575 FFHC/AD developed and suggested several criteria as a “flexible definition” of contacts between national committees and contacts in both developing and developed countries:

a) They should be working to stimulate a critical awareness of the causes of underdevelopment, and to involve people in their own development;

b) Their programmes should have long term perspectives in view and allow for continual evaluation of their effectiveness;

c) They should be using or willing to use supporting rather than directive techniques;

d) They should be trying to demonstrate possible solutions to development problems through original and imaginative action;

573 Ibid., 2.
574 Ibid.
575 These guidelines and objectives were developed by members of regional and central FFHC/AD Headquarters, and distributed in a document titled “FFHC/AD Programme Notes” which was published annually. The document was based on past experience and on proposals, requests, and ideas from a wide range of local, national, and international groups within the FFHC/AD network of contacts. Ibid., 1.
e) There should be no objection by Government to their having a direct programme relationship with FFHC/AD.\textsuperscript{576}

As we will see below, the activities of CHF in the 1970s reflected these guidelines, and CHF undertook its own initiatives and developed its own methods and policies.

It was clear to members of CHF that as the First Development Decade passed into the Second, important transformations were underway in the development community – Canada was no exception to this process.\textsuperscript{577} The significance of the moment for Canada was not lost on FFHC/AD. International FFH Coordinator Charles H. Weitz stressed to CHF the opportunity for forge new and lasting relationships. Weitz wrote to CHF Executive Director Howard L. Trueman in 1970:

My Dear Howard,

You recall when I visited Canada in December last we had lunch with Lewis Perinbam. At that lunch and later in his office the whole issue of closer relations between FAO/FFH and Canadian NGOs arose particularly as those enjoyed matching grants from CIDA. Perinbam, in effect, made an offer to FAO to use CIDA as a channel to obtain more comprehensive cover of all NGOs in Canada and a better penetration of their work for support to agricultural projects.

Rightly, perhaps, you objected to the implication that FAO would deal directly with CIDA and said this, so far as NGOs were concerned, was the job of CHF. We did not press the issue then and there, but it is fair to say that it has never been far from my mind since.

However, it is fair to tell you that I am under increasing pressure here to re-explore CIDA relations; the positive attitude of the Canadian delegate at the recent UNDP Governing Council Jackson Capacity Study debate towards Specialized Agencies and particularly FAO, the by now almost certain knowledge that Strong is leaving (in one direction or another) and other factors are all encouraging to press toward Canada

\textsuperscript{576} Ibid., 2.
\textsuperscript{577} In 1968 and 1970, CHF employed the management consulting firm P.S. Ross and Partners to review CHF’s operations and mandate. P.S. Ross and Partners recommended CHF continue and expand its operations. The Board of Trustees, Chaired by Keith Porter, followed the recommendations.
again. Of course, if that were done and an agreement reached, it could well swallow up smaller FFH/CHF ties.

Or, looked at the other way round – since our friendship is an older one and our working relations closer, perhaps we should seize the time by the forelock and move to cement in the FAO/FFH/CHF/CIDA link now while it is still in our power to do so. Thus, no matter what might transpire later, a positive, agreed line of cooperation would exist covering the whole NGO sector in Canada.\textsuperscript{578}

Weitz was correct in his estimation that CHF might not continue to be the primary link between FAO and NGOs, and CHF would retreat from the position expressed by Trueman during the meeting with Perinbam.

Where CHF had seen its role as primarily a servicing organization to development NGOs and agencies, now it focussed more attention in direct support of overseas action projects. The consulting firm P.S. Ross and Partners had noted the unique role that CHF had played, and should continue to play, in Canada. The Report suggested that the objective of the Canadian Hunger Foundation at that time was “to secure increasing participation by the Canadian people in the removal of hunger and want in areas where these are a threat to mankind.”\textsuperscript{579} The report further noted that

CHF is one of some ninety similar organizations around the world acting as the non-governmental representatives of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization in the developed and developing countries.\textsuperscript{580} The Foundation itself is entirely non-governmental, and acts as a service and liaison organization to twenty-two voluntary agencies interested in supporting the agricultural aspects of international development. It is the only organization in Canada specifically devoted to the performance of this task…

\textsuperscript{580} Ibid.
Figure 5 describes the operational relationships of CHF in 1970 as viewed by P. S. Ross & Partners. The basic arrangement of this view remains largely unchanged in the early 1970s, but there were shifting emphases and priorities.

P.S. Ross and Partners recommended both continuity in CHF success areas – such as cooperation with FAO and in information and education efforts – and expansion of other areas – such as direct project support and partnership with government agencies. The report refers to both the Pearson Commission and the Declaration of the Second World Food Congress in its recommendations for CHF to “expand and intensify its efforts to secure increasing participation by the Canadian peoples in the removal of hunger and want in areas where these are a threat to the welfare of mankind” and suggested that immediate priority must be to use existing “development structures” to “increase food supply, improve nutrition, and expand opportunities for employment in the emerging nations.” Moreover, the Report recommended CHF join FAO in emphasis on Boerma’s Five Areas of Priority.

The 1969 “Operational Review” of CHF by P.S. Ross and Partners had recommended that CHF strengthen its headquarters’ organization by securing the services of a full-time Executive Director and supporting administrative staff, and by establishing

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an Advisory Board and a Finance Committee. The period between 1969 and 1971 was one of expansion and reorganization for CHF; the first Executive Director, Howard L. Trueman, and the Chair of the Board of Trustees, Keith Porter, guided CHF through this period of transition. Since the spring of 1970 CHF had been planning to restructure the Board of Trustees and readjust Foundation aims and policies. It did so in the context of the changes at FFHC/AD, Canadian Government Agencies, and of international events such as the Second World Food Congress. Howard Trueman noted in 1970 that at that time that CHF had “completed the transition from being a fund-raising organization to a fund-seeking organization.” In 1971, CHF incorporated as a Charitable Organization under the Canada Corporations Act., which enabled CHF to undertake operational Foundation projects in developing countries and set the stage for CHF to move into a new kind of work.

**Canada+One**

In 1970, the priorities of CHF were a heavy focus on projects, and expansion of its information/education efforts. An important influence on the decision to take this direction was the Canada+One Project (C+1). C+1 was initiated by the same food

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586 Ibid., 5.
industry executives who had been instrumental in financing the Canada-Mysore Project, and began with a gift of $100,000 from a men’s Bible class in Toronto known as ‘the Hustlers’. Based on the success of the Canada-Mysore Project, the Canada+One (C+1) project was launched in 1968. Canada+One was a five-year war against food wastage – and directly tackled one of Director-General Boerma’s areas of priority. This project was undertaken in cooperation with FAO, CIDA, IDRC, and Canada’s food industry. C+1 was able to custom design individual projects to meet the specific needs and conditions of each region and country seeking technical assistance. C+1 employed a wide latitude in its marshalling of human resources and in selection of projects, and made efforts to identify the roots of specific problems and devise solutions to critical situations. The goal was to help each country, region, and community be self-sustaining in their ability to alleviate food spoilage and deliver food to people.

Canada+One developed mobile training units (MTUs) which served food producers throughout the world. MTUs served as mobile laboratories and as teaching units, and in many cases an MTU was used as a pilot project for further action by the recipient nation. Examples of MTU activity include identification of specific micro

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587 One of the members of the bible class was George Metcalfe, President of Loblaws, who wanted a food industry project in the developing world. Metcalfe consulted with Joseph Hulse, former CHF Chairman and Canada-Mysore Committee Chairman, who was at that time working at FAO. Hulse briefed Metcalfe on an FAO project which was trying to raise the standards of small canneries and fishing plants in Chile. FAO had the idea that a mobile training unit could easily demonstrate to each community how to operate a canning factory; Metcalfe and his staff at Loblaws embraced the idea and decided they would take it a step further and develop many mobile training units for use all over the world. Keith Porter, CHF Board Member (he would later become Chair of CHF’s Board) and President of Lipton’s, and Bill Murchie contacted International Harvester who cooperated to design and build special self-contained, laboratory/demonstration vehicles.

The first unit was built and sent to Chile, and was eventually turned over to Chile’s Fisheries Promotion Institute. This unit travelled 20,000 miles up and down Chile’s coast – giving training, testing products, assessing quality control in fish processing, and handling a variety of other situations. In canneries south of Santiago, this unit was instrumental in helping reduce food losses due to problems in canning from 6% to 1%. Margot Anderson, “History of Canadian Hunger Foundation” (CHF, Unpublished Document), 14.

588 W.J. Gall became Director of the C+1 Project.
bacteria causing food spoilage in Singapore, a mobile training centre for sanitation and food storage in Thailand, and cooperation with governments in several countries in offering technical training courses and seminars in rural or remote locations.\textsuperscript{589}

Canada+One was adopted as a Centennial Project and was supported by the Canadian Grocery Industry, the Government of Canada, FAO, CHF, and individual governments of developing countries. Corporate and foundation donors numbered in excess of 200. Maurice Strong noted in 1973 that Canada+One was “One of the finest examples [he had] seen of cooperation of industry, private individuals and international agencies to meet one of the central problems of our time - world hunger.”\textsuperscript{590}

Canada+One was an early example of the application of appropriate technology, and involvement in the project had a profound impact on the work of CHF in the Second Development decade and beyond.\textsuperscript{591} In his letter of congratulation to CHF Chair and Loblaws President, George Metcalfe, Prime Minister Lester Pearson noted that Canada+One

…struck at the very root of the hunger gap[,] the Canada Plus-One Project recognizes that farmers in the developing countries must be able to make use of new and profitable ways of growing more food. Underlining the importance of research as a first requirement it acknowledges that while basic scientific knowledge is universal, it must be applied effectively to the particular agricultural problems of specific regions and countries; that to do this requires experimentation where the crops are to be grown, skilled technicians and large amounts of capital.\textsuperscript{592}


\textsuperscript{590} Anderson, “History of Canadian Hunger Foundation”, 15.

\textsuperscript{591} As we see below, Canada+One was not the only project employing the philosophy of appropriate technology, but it was the largest at that time and its operation spanned the period of greatest transition for CHF.

\textsuperscript{592} Lester Bowles Pearson, Letter to George C. Metcalfe. (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 22, file 22-1 (408-18) Correspondence – Vol I 1966-1970, 17 January, 1968. CHF also received personal letters of congratulation from the Minister of Finance (Mitchell Sharp), the Governor General of Canada (Roland Michener – who had personal experience with the Canada-Mysore Project in India and Canada), and the Secretary of State for External Affairs (Paul Martin).
Pearson’s comments reflect the growing awareness of the often negative impact of the application of intensive, imported technology on developing societies. The concept of appropriate technology arose in the 1960s from a growing desire to examine how decisions are made and who makes them in international development (it is critical of ‘top-down’ development) and from an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the development process. This was compounded by a growing awareness of the consequences of industrialized development – such as pollution, unemployment, dependency on non-renewable energy resources, migration, and the development of exploitative labour practices. Practitioners of appropriate technology favoured a high level of decentralization and low levels of bureaucracy; this put more focus on the specific needs of each community and ameliorated ‘top-down’ development.

Canada+One was one of the first projects anywhere in the world to employ this philosophy.593

Tools for Development

The Canadian Hunger Foundation learned from its success with the Canada-Mysore Project594, Canada+One, and other projects of the 1960s.595 These experiences


594 CHF directly supported the Mysore Centre until 1976. After that FAO administered the Centre through an international advisory board composed of representatives of the Indian Government, FAO, and CHF. After 1968, Canada-Mysore received support from CIDA, largely in the form of donations of equipment and the provision of grants, and would later receive support from other donor countries. In 1970 the Mysore Centre became a United Nations University, and in its first two decades of operation trained more than 1,700 students from 37 countries.
led directly to CHF’s “Tools for Development” project and an embrace of the philosophy and practice of appropriate technology. Members of CHF believed that unemployment was one of the greatest problems facing developing countries, and Tools for Development was designed to combat that problem. The 1970 launch of the Tools for Development project was the “embryonic beginning” of the modern concept and practice of appropriate technology – which quickly became a major area of expertise for CHF.596 Tools for Development focussed on efforts to support communities in developing local industries to create employment and mitigate migration to urban centres. The project cooperated with communities to establish small scale service industries for well drilling, machine maintenance shops, road building, automobile servicing, furniture making, boat building, and other local industries. CHF cooperated with FAO, Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committees in Africa, CIDA, and Canadian grocery and agro-allied industries in running Tools for Development.597 Tools for Development marked a turning point for the Canadian Hunger Foundation and was the beginning of the organization’s Project Phase. The Tools for Development project coincided with the period of review and reform at CHF, and in combination with information and education efforts, was the primary focus of CHF as it moved into the Second Development Decade. It was at this point that the Foundation no longer viewed its main role as servicing and coordinating other Canadian NGOs; instead, it began to focus on fundraising and working directly with its own development projects. After 1971, the two main areas of interest for CHF

595 CHF was involved in fishing boat mechanization projects in Togo, Chad, Dahomey, and the United Arab republic; these were early roots of what later became known as appropriate technology. In its first five years, CHF contributed more than $100,000 to these projects. Margot Anderson, “History of Canadian Hunger Foundation” (CHF, Unpublished Document), 5.
596 Ibid., 16.
597 The United Church of Canada loaned CHF the services of David Eadie to oversee the development of the project. Mr. Eadie had just returned from 15 years work in India where he helped develop medium and small scale industries.
were Tools for Development and cooperation with Action for Development (which CHF described as the NGO agricultural project arm of FAO).\footnote{The first Tools for Development field project undertaken by CHF was a well drilling project in Hyderabad, India in 1971; by 1976, CHF completed more than 80 overseas projects with a total budget of $5.6 million. Ibid., 18.}

In 1971 CHF employed its first full time executive Director, Col. Tim McCoy, and hired its first Program Director, Jal (Ghadially) Dinshaw.\footnote{Both McCoy and Dinshaw had extensive military experience and both had lived and worked in developing countries.} Both of these individuals were early supporters of the idea of involving the beneficiaries in their own development (people’s participation). The CHF Board of Directors, chaired by Ernie Steele, President of the Grocery Products Manufacturers of Canada, shared the belief that the future of CHF lay in a ‘project heavy’ agenda. In 1971, the aim of CHF was “to give maximum assistance to developing countries in the fields of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and nutrition, to help those countries help themselves.”\footnote{Anderson, “History of Canadian Hunger Foundation”, 5}

Pursuit of this mandate resulted in the development of five distinct programs in accordance with the aims of the Foundation. These were: appropriate technology; food technology and applied nutrition; improvement in agricultural and food production; rural development training; and assistance to NGOs in developing countries.\footnote{John Wenzel, “Report by the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, Mr. John Wenzel, to the Annual Meeting, 14, June 1974” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, vol 54, file 101.10, Policy-Periodic Reports vol III, 14 June, 1974), 1.} “Appropriate Technology” included all projects concerned with the transfer or development and adaptation of simple, inexpensive and labour intensive equipment and processes, and included projects relating to group credit and improved marketing. “Food Technology in Applied Nutrition” included food preservation, processing, and storage and those projects concerned with nutrition and nutrition education. “Improvement in Agricultural and

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597 The first Tools for Development field project undertaken by CHF was a well drilling project in Hyderabad, India in 1971; by 1976, CHF completed more than 80 overseas projects with a total budget of $5.6 million. Ibid., 18.
599 Both McCoy and Dinshaw had extensive military experience and both had lived and worked in developing countries.
600 Anderson, “History of Canadian Hunger Foundation”, 5
Food Production” focussed on all projects concerned with cattle development and fisheries, and better utilization of forest resources. “Rural Development Training” included training of rural youth leaders, management staff for cooperatives, rural handicraft industries, and rural extension training. “Assistance to NGO’s of Developing Countries” referred to a program focussed on assisting development NGOs in developing countries in terms of material and financial support, and the sharing of Canadian expertise with those NGOs.  The first three of these areas of emphasis grew out of the success of Canada-Mysore and Canada+One; these projects had positive, measurable results and through them CHF had acquired important experience in project support and in fundraising. They are areas of particular expertise for CHF. The second two are reflective of the growing awareness of the importance of people’s participation in their own development – and are ideas which permeate the whole of FFHC at that time.

Tim McCoy was responsible for the development of CHF as a partner of business and industry – a quality which separated it from most other NGOs at that time. The new emphasis on projects was made possible only through innovative partnerships with Canadian business and business leaders. An early innovation under McCoy was the creation of the Committee of 500. The Committee of 500 was a special group within the business and financial community, organized by R. Keith Porter, President of the Thomas J. Lipton Company and former Chairman of CHF’s Board of Trustees. The aim was to provide ‘seed’ money for CHF by means of pledged donations for a period of three years. Contributions were substantial and were directed at national development education

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602 Ibid.
programs and to overseas development projects.\footnote{CHF, “Interim Report as of 1 Nov, 1973.” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, Vol 30, Operational Policy – Periodic reports vol I, 1973, 8 November, 1973), 6. As of June 1974, the Committee of 500 included: Arvak Limited, the Bank of Montreal, the Bank of Nova Scotia, Bata Industries Ltd., Borden Company Ltd., the Campbell soup Company, Canada Packers Ltd., the Canadian Co-operative Wheat Producers Ltd. (the Alberta Wheat Pool, the Manitoba Wheat pool, and the Saskatchewan Wheat Pool), the Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce, the Canadian Salt Company, the Carnation Company Ltd., Coca Cola Ltd., the Continental Can Company of Canada Ltd., Corporate Foods Ltd., Food Products Ltd., General Foods Ltd., Griffith Laboratories Ltd., J.M. Schneider Ltd., Johnson & Higgins Willis Faber Ltd., Kelly Douglas & Company Ltd., Kraft Foods Ltd., Lever Brothers Ltd., Maple Leaf Mills Ltd., Mercantile Bank of Canada Ltd., the Quaker Oats Company of Canada Ltd., Reynolds Aluminium Company of Canada Ltd., Robin Hood Multifoods Ltd., the Royal Bank of Canada, Salada Foods Ltd., Scott Paper Ltd., St. Lawrence Starch Company Ltd., Swift Canadian Company Ltd., Thomas J. Lipton Ltd., Thomas, Large & Singer Ltd., the Toronto Dominion Bank, Warner-Lambert Canada ltd., William Neilson Ltd., Wm. Wrigley Jr. Company Ltd., and Standard Brands Ltd. Canadian Hunger Foundation, “Committee of 500” (National Archives of Canada, MG 28, I-395, vol 54, file 101.10, Operational policy – Periodic Reports vol III, 26 June, 1974), 1.} Moreover, CHF continued to cooperate with many of its ‘traditional’ industry partners – such as Massey-Fergusson. MF and CHF cooperated in a number of projects in the 1970s, especially on events supported or resulting from the 1974 UN World Food Conference, and on matters concerning the industry Cooperative Program. In many cases, donors cooperated directly with CHF or the recipient government or community; through this kind of association CHF was able to support the large number of projects it sought to undertake.

**Education for Development and the Appropriate Technology Handbook**

In the 1970s the aim of CHF was “To give maximum assistance to developing countries in the fields of agriculture, forestry, fisheries and nutrition, to help those countries help themselves.”\footnote{CHF, “Annual Report for Financial Year 1 April 73 to 31 Mar 74” (National Archives of Canada: MG 28, I-395, vol 54, file 101.10, Operational policy – Periodic Reports vol III, 27 June, 1973), 1.} A corollary to the achievement of that aim was the expansion of CHF’s Development Information and Education Program.\footnote{This became known as the Education for Development Program.} The Board of Trustees felt a responsibility to encourage Canadians in the public and private sectors to
play an active role in practical overseas development, and to support the fundamental objectives of FAO. Information and education had been important aspects of the Foundation’s work in its first decade, and information/education was a central aim of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. Development education efforts were divorced from fundraising activities with the result that development education was a direct cost to CHF. Conversely, projects were financed by partners and donors with the result that CHF itself bore very little of the cost. However, development education was a key component of FFHC/AD, and CHF members believed that education of peoples in developed and developing countries was essential in the global fight against hunger and malnutrition.

The information and education efforts of CHF in the Second Development Decade were directed at peoples in Canada and in developing countries. In Canada, these efforts took several forms. As it had in the First Development Decade, CHF provided basic information on hunger, poverty, and other development issues which it had compiled or which had been provided by FAO. In the 1970s this continued, but also included material compiled by CIDA and IDRC. CHF also continued to develop materials and curricula for schools and school boards, and CHF conducted seminars, briefings, and educational programs in rural communities. In the early 1970s CHF cooperated with the Carleton University School of International Affairs, the University of British Columbia and the University of Toronto to develop a training course on development. CHF also developed a “Regional Animateur Program” which employed

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606 Ibid.  
607 By the mid 1970s, CHF was running a library service for more than 150 schools, and actively responded to the resource needs of teachers. John Wenzel, “Report by the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, Mr. John Wenzel, to the Annual Meeting, 14, June 1974.”, 4.
individuals to act as an ‘animatuer’ in the various regions of Canada. These individuals acted as a liaison between schools, FFHC committees, and other organizations across Canada. Each animateur distributed CHF and FAO information, identified activities and ideas developed by organizations and communities, and brought this information back to CHF where the ideas were compared and evaluated. CHF also supported information and education efforts by supplying information on specific development needs to Canadian government agencies and other NGOs. In 1973 and 1974 CHF was the only Canadian NGO (or agency) represented on the Interstate Committee of the seven drought stricken countries in the Sahel. CHF provided information on the situation in the Sahel to CIDA and, through CICC, to other NGOs.

One of the most important CHF initiatives in the area of information and education was the development of the *Appropriate Technology Handbook* which was first published in April, 1976 and which was immediately in high demand in Canada and around the world.\(^{608}\) CHF cooperated with the Brace Research Institute (BRI)\(^ {609}\) to develop the *Handbook*, and the project received funding from CIDA. The *Handbook* promoted and explained the concept of appropriate technology, described some options for its application, and provided sources of further information on the subject. The idea for the *Handbook* was first developed by CHF in discussion with CCIC in 1971. At that time CHF and CCIC were looking for ways to increase interest and participation in appropriate technology; it was believed that a handbook was the best, most cost-effective way to do this. At the time the idea was proposed, CHF members realized that their

\(^{608}\) *The Appropriate Technology Handbook* was published in English, French, and Spanish, and was reprinted several times between 1976 and 1978.

\(^{609}\) The Brace Research Institute had specialized in the fields of water supply and renewable energy resources since 1959 and had developed and implemented a number of technologies and methods which underlie the appropriate technology concept.
experience with AT was limited, and that time was needed to test the philosophy “on the ground.”\textsuperscript{610} It was realised at the time that while many AT projects had been carried out throughout the world since the mid-1960s, very few had been documented and analyzed. As we saw above, the number of projects undertaken by CHF in the early 1970s expanded significantly, and many of these were documented, examined, and assessed. CHF and BRI began such a process, and at the same time gathered empirical information on appropriate technology from around the world.

With the support of CIDA and IDRC, CHF organized a low-cost workshop and seminar on appropriate technology which was held in Ottawa in March, 1972.\textsuperscript{611} As a result of the seminar, a committee was established to explore the uses of appropriate technology and relate the concept to Canadian aid programs and objectives; this committee was responsible for initiating production of the \textit{Handbook}. In March 1973, the committee received support from the NGO Division of CIDA and by 1976 had completed production of the first edition. CHF and BRI understood “Appropriate Technology” to refer to the adaptation of local resources to create techniques or tools which are consonant with local circumstances.\textsuperscript{612} Moreover, AT meant that the application of any technology or method must be viewed in the social context of the community. The \textit{Handbook} was meant as a communications device for and between practitioners of appropriate technology. The result was a handbook which summarized and explained the concept of appropriate technology, which described specific examples

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\textsuperscript{610}Ron Alward, and Tim McCoy eds., \textit{A Handbook on Appropriate Technology} (Ottawa: Canadian Hunger Foundation and Brace Research Institute, 1976), i.
\textsuperscript{611} In attendance at the seminar were participants from developing countries, NGOs, research institutes, industry, and government. Also in attendance were Dr. E.F. Schumacher and G. McRobie of the Intermediate Technology Development Group, who were among the first and most important proponents of appropriate technology in the 1960s.
\textsuperscript{612} \textit{Handbook on Appropriate Technology}, v.
\end{footnotesize}
of AT projects (successes and failures), and introduced a variety of simple technologies and lists of groups, individuals, and resources in the field of appropriate technology.\textsuperscript{613}

The sequel to the \textit{Handbook, Experiences in Appropriate Technology}, was published in 1980 by CHF. \textit{Experiences in Appropriate Technology} updated and clarified the concept of appropriate technology, and stressed that in addition to being sensitive to local social, economic, and political conditions, AT required a strengthening and support of local organizations.\textsuperscript{614}

\section*{Conclusion}

The Canadian Hunger Foundation was a very different organization in its second decade than it had been in its first. It had moved from its role as a servicing organization to development NGOs to a more direct involvement in overseas projects. Changes to CHF reflected new directions and policies at FAO and in Canadian governmental agencies, and the organization changed according to its own circumstances and objectives. Yet CHF also remained true to the objectives and principles of the Campaign. The Foundation continued to promote awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition, it worked to support new partners in development (in the 1970s this was the promotion of people’s participation in their own development), and it continued to innovate and experiment. An examination of changes to CHF at the end of the First and beginning of the Second Development Decade indicates the nature of international development at that time. The Canadian Hunger Foundation is a good example of the

\textsuperscript{613} Ibid., v-vi.

important legacy of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. CHF became increasingly independent of its parent organization, survived beyond the end of FFHC in the 1980s, and is still in operation today.615 FFHC organizers had intended exactly such a result for national committees, and CHF met other Campaign objectives in its partnership with private industries and other NGOs. In the transformation of the concept of development in the 1960s, FFHC had played a fundamental role as this Canadian case study so clearly demonstrates.

615 The Canadian Hunger Foundation is now known as CHF: Partners in Rural Development.
Conclusion: Whither FFHC?

James Morris, World Food Programme Executive Director...called for students and young people, faith-based groups, the business community and governments to join forces in a global movement to alleviate and eliminate hunger, especially among children, in an interview Friday Feb. 16, 2007.

*Edith M. Lederer, Associated Press*

Sounds like FFHC to me...

*Charles H. Weitz, 2007*

We began with two questions: what was the Freedom From Hunger Campaign; and what was its effect on Canada? The answer to the first question is that FFHC was an international campaign to raise awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition and to indicate possible solutions to that problem. Viewed simply in terms of that basic objective, FFHC was a success. Charles H. Weitz illustrates the Campaign’s success using two stories:

...the outreach of FFHC was fantastic. A French senior director of FAO, a solitary fisherman, was working a small stream in the rugged Dordogne and at noon went into a bar in a tiny mountain village of a few houses. Its only other occupant, a villager, started to talk over a glass of wine and asked the FAO director what was his work? Our friend tried to simplify FAO and what he did when he was interrupted by the villager with a nod and “Oh yes, I know what you do – it’s the Freedom From Hunger Campaign.
Story two is from Africa….Boerma, named by Sen as the first Executive Director of the World Food Programme, quickly built a high visibility programme (part of his campaign in seeking election as Director General) but more than once was frustrated (and angered) when going to a village where a WFP Food for Work project was being shown, to find himself greeted by a banner strung between trees loudly proclaiming “THANK YOU FREEDOM FROM HUNGER!”616

As we have seen, however, Sen had intended FFHC be much more than development outreach. The Campaign was instrumental in transforming FAO from a technical organization into a development agency, and it pioneered new models for cooperation among governments, NGOs, UN agencies and other organizations. As is demonstrated by the myriad activities conducted under the auspices of the Campaign around the world, and by its prolonged life, FFHC was near the centre of the world-wide movement Sen had hoped for.

Perhaps the greatest significance of the Campaign was its pioneering nature. The work of what became known as international development was nothing new in 1960, nor was an awareness of the problem of hunger and malnutrition. The existence of the UN and its Specialized Agencies is testament to an awareness by peoples and their governments of the problem and the implications for human security of a failure to solve it. What was new about FFHC was that the Campaign clarified the nature and scale of the problem, and framed possible solutions in terms of a global and sustained effort. Significantly, it was under the auspices of FFHC that NGOs, private industries, religious organizations, youth, and individuals were first brought into direct cooperation with governments and governmental organizations. In this way FFHC bridged the gap between philanthropy and the large development schemes of governments and

governmental organizations. Prior to 1960, a handful of NGOs had relationships with UN Specialized Agencies and some governments, but as we saw in Chapter Two, their influence on governments and governmental organizations was limited. After 1960, the Campaign served as an important coordinating mechanism among NGOs, governments, and UN Agencies as the number and influence of NGOs increased exponentially throughout the decade and beyond. As we see in the case study of FFHC in Canada, by the end of the 1960s NGOs had proliferated, and government agencies assumed and depended upon their cooperation.

The answer to the second question is equally complex. Canada was host to one of the strongest national FFH committees, and in Canada FFHC was directly responsible for establishing new partnerships among governments, NGOs, and UN Agencies. Like FFHC internationally, the Campaign in Canada was indicative of larger societal changes. The ideas underpinning FFHC coincided with the emergence of a Canadian brand of humanitarian internationalism – which itself was accentuated by Canada’s Centennial Celebrations and Expo ’67. The Canadian Hunger Foundation emerged as a permanent feature of the Canadian development community, and, particularly in the 1960s, was an excellent example of how Director-General Sen brought NGOs into closer contact with government and UN Agencies. Through CHF, a number of influential individuals became acquainted with the Campaign; and Canadian policy, not surprisingly, reflected some ideas and initiatives developed by FFHC and FAO. Looking more broadly at Canada and FFHC, we see enthusiastic support from hundreds of private Canadian companies and organizations, and the undertaking of a variety FFHC related initiatives across the country. Much of the information Canadians relied on in their understanding
of world hunger and poverty was generated by FAO and FFHC, and this information was actively promoted by FFHC/FAO and by the Canadian FFH committee.

The Campaign coincided with a period in Canadian history in which cultural renaissance accompanied a review and reorganization of official development policy. This process began in the late 1950s and early 1960s as the Conservative Government of John Diefenbaker expanded the official aid program, supported FFHC at ECOSOC and FAO, and was generous in its support of the Canadian FFH committee. Support for the Campaign continued through a change of government and its message was heard by policy makers at the highest levels. In 1970, Mitchell Sharp, Minister of Foreign Affairs and former Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee Chair, writing on the occasion of the Second World Food Congress, was explicit in his support for the Campaign, and in the suggestion that its goals were universal:

One of the most crucial features of the whole international development scene is increasing public awareness of the conditions of poorer nations and of the imperatives of active growing programmes of development assistance. Popular support in Canada for development assistance has not been lacking, it is true, and the activities abroad of the many private voluntary agencies is a concrete manifestation of this. However, at a time when the total flow of official development assistance from major donor countries is declining, it is essential that public support in Canada be maintained, stimulated and increased. This is particularly true of governmental programmes where there is a great distance and many administrative steps between the taxpayer and the ultimate beneficiary. The value of a new road through a tropical jungle, or of a more modern and effective system of teaching science in an African country, is hard for many of us here to fully grasp as the live reality it actually is...Increased popular awareness in Canada of this world-wide problem is a condition for the necessary public support of and involvement in the large development assistance programme to which the Canadian Government is committed.617

Sharp, writing in 1970, refers to a Canadian tradition of support for humanitarian aid. The success of the Campaign in Canada, particularly in its first years, supports Sharp’s suggestion that development related volunteerism had been alive and well in Canada for some time. The Campaign influenced a very broad spectrum of Canadians, and, as we have seen, Canadian FFHC efforts were among the most enthusiastic and innovative in the world. Why, then, does popular and official support for development assistance appear to be so flaccid until the mid-1960s?618

A Reluctant Liberal?

Before the Campaign the problem of hunger and malnutrition was not unknown in Canada, nor were the implications of a failure to solve it. The Second World Food Survey was widely available; it noted that:

The low level of food production in the under-developed areas of the world, and the wide disparities between food consumption in these areas and in the more advanced countries have long been recognized as outstandingly serious aspects of the world’s food and agricultural situation.619

The subject was addressed in a variety of Canadian media. For example, the National Farm Radio Forum: Farm Forum Guide in November 1953 described the situation:

…there are many countries that are standing aside from the power struggle [between the Communist countries and the non-Communist countries]. These countries include some of the most heavily populated countries in the world such as Pakistan, Indonesia, other parts of Southeast Asia, parts of Africa and South America.

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These same countries are short of food and money. Their methods of agriculture are primitive, they have few industries, and the majority of the people cannot read or write. But they are going through a period of awakening. They want to have political independence and they want to have a standard of living comparable to more favoured parts of the world…If and when these countries with their huge populations get on their feet they will be a great force for peace or war. The two great power blocs realize this, and are bidding for their support.620

Canadian policy makers were also aware of the magnitude of the situation, and they too related economic and social security in the developing world to Canadian security. Despite this awareness, officials were reluctant to commit resources. A meeting of the Inter-Divisional Policy Committee in 1952 debated whether Canada could afford to make the kind of contribution to economic aid it knew was necessary. It was decided that Canada could not. The meeting referred to Barbara Ward’s book Policy for the West and explored economic, political, humanitarian, and “Reasons of shame” as justifications for aid. The committee agreed that economic assistance could contain communism, that there was little evidence that the benefits of the level of economic assistance called for by Ward remained unproven, that humanitarian grounds for Canadian aid were sound, and that Canada lagged behind other countries in the amount of assistance it gave.621 The situation, however, did not last. By the end of the 1950s Canada had softened long standing opposition to UN initiatives such as SUNFED, and was beginning to move toward an expanded aid program.

By the 1960s, international attention was increasingly focussed on the developing world. On a visit to Canada in 1961, US President John F. Kennedy raised the issue in an

621 Canada, “Minutes of Meeting 2 of the Inter-Divisional Policy Meetings, Ottawa April 1, 1952: Economic Aspects of Canadian Policy Towards under-developed Countries.” in Documents on Canadian External Relations Vol 18 (Ottawa: Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, 1952), 229-231.
address to Parliament: “Both your nation and mine have recognized our responsibilities to [developing] nations. Our people have given generously, if not always effectively. We could not do less. And now we must do more.” The movement that Sen had hoped to capture was in evidence in Canada, and as we see from Kennedy’s visit, the question of aid began to receive attention at the highest levels. The Freedom From Hunger Campaign was an important unifying element in what was until then a disparate and unorganized community of organizations and institutions. Moreover, FFHC was a means by which the strength of the Canadian voluntary sector could be measured. By the time CIDA was formed, public opinion favoured increased aid, and Canadian industries, NGOs, and other organizations had demonstrated a high level of support for international development. As we saw earlier, when Canada reorganized its aid programs in the late 1960s, it was assumed that NGOs and private industries would play a prominent role.

Cathal J. Nolan described Canada as a “Reluctant Liberal”, and suggested that after the Second World War Canada undertook a functionalist approach to world order. Canadian policy in the post-war era was a mix of self-interest, practical politics, and belief in the necessity of new multi-lateral social and economic institutions. As Akira Iriye and others have noted, Canada had a tradition in volunteerism that predated the two World Wars, a number of what became known as development NGOs had long histories in Canada, and the problems of underdevelopment were well known. FFHC helped identify the existing voluntary sector as a community and gave it an international voice. The success of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign in Canada suggests that the

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functional approach described by Nolan was already giving way in the 1960s to one characterized by humanitarian internationalism and adaptability. As a point of contact between government and private organizations, FFHC was unprecedented. Here we see powerful organizations such as the Canadian Labour Congress, Massey-Fergusson, the United Church – to name only a few – in direct contact with officials in Canadian government and at FAO. This new level of influence, as noted above, came at a time when Canadian society as well as government policy was undergoing profound change.

**Herding Cats**

Akira Iriye suggested that one way to measure the development of a “global community” was to look at the creation, growth, and activities of international governmental and non-governmental organizations.\(^{624}\) Iriye noted that

For both intergovernmental organizations and international non-governmental organizations to emerge, nations and peoples had to be strongly aware that they shared certain interests and objectives across national boundaries and that they could best solve their problems by pooling their resources and effecting transnational cooperation...Such a view, such global consciousness, may be termed *internationalism*, the idea that nations and peoples should cooperate instead of preoccupying themselves with their respective national interests or pursuing uncoordinated approaches to promote them.\(^{625}\)


Iriye further suggested that a “global consciousness” had been growing throughout the 20th century as a result of increases in communications technology and the experiences of two World Wars.\textsuperscript{626} International governmental and non-governmental organizations were in part an expression of the movement toward a more global community, and by the time of the launch of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign cooperation between them was common. Sen recognized the trend described above, and created FFHC to encourage and direct it. As he had intended, the Campaign did more than raise the profile and influence of NGOs; it contributed directly to their proliferation.\textsuperscript{627}

Leon Gordenker and Thomas G. Weiss quote a UN official who suggested that the UN effort to coordinate the activities of NGOs was like “herding cats”.\textsuperscript{628} For NGOs, typical cooperation with the UN was costly in terms of finances, and occasionally in terms of an NGO’s credibility, and therefore cooperation with formal UN-led efforts was not always desirable.\textsuperscript{629} Gordenker and Weiss are looking back upon a quarter of a century of close cooperation among governments, NGOs, and UN Agencies. When Sen approached the idea of increasing the profile of NGOs in the late 1950s, only a small handful of NGOs had formal working relationships with the UN or its Specialized Agencies. There were far fewer cats to herd and the UN had little interest in playing shepherd to them. Through FFHC, FAO was able to influence and direct NGOs without imposing a formal structure on them, and at the same time was able to harness the enormous resource they represented. A result was the emergence of formal relationships

\textsuperscript{626} Iriye, 9-10.
\textsuperscript{627} The Campaign helped create an environment in which NGOs flourished, many national committees became independent NGOs, and numerous other groups and organizations organized under FFHC became or supported NGOs.
\textsuperscript{629} Ibid., 29.
and frameworks for cooperation among these groups, and the nature of these relationships was as heterogeneous as they were numerous.

The situation in Canada was very much like that which Sen had hoped for. The national committee had achieved its objectives in cooperating with government, FAO, and other organizations in projects such as Canada-Mysore and Canada+One, and the Canadian Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committee/Canadian Hunger Foundation became a self-sustaining entity unto itself. The success of the Campaign, internationally and in Canada, was such that the situation described by the frustrated UN Official had emerged. Sen had also hoped that FFHC could help inspire and support a sustained fight against hunger and malnutrition. Again, we see in the Canadian experience that Sen’s hopes were fulfilled. CHF itself continues to operate in Canada and a number of developing countries, development NGOs abound, and cooperation among government, NGOs, and UN Agencies is expected. The second of the questions raised above cannot be entirely answered. Because the nature of the Campaign was not to dictate but to facilitate, instead of suggesting FFHC had ‘an effect’ on Canada, it might be more accurate to suggest FFHC was a part of a process of profound transformation in Canada. The early success of the Campaign in Canada speaks to its closeness to pre-existing Canadian values and a corresponding readiness of Canadians to mobilize in supporting them.

A Sustained, Global Effort
The Freedom From Hunger Campaign set a founding precedent for a modern approach to the problem of hunger and malnutrition. As we saw internationally and in Canada, the Campaign made an important contribution to both an understanding and practice of international development. In many ways FFHC helped invent modern international development, and was early in its embrace of the idea that real solutions can only be found in broadly based and sustained efforts. Because the Campaign called on all levels of society to act, FFHC placed the responsibility for the problem squarely at the feet of all people rather than simply of governments and governmental organizations. When John F. Kennedy told those assembled at the 1963 World Food Congress: “We have the means; we have the capacity to wipe hunger and poverty from the face of the earth in our lifetime. We need only the will”, he was addressing individuals and not governments. More recent appeals for a broadly based effort are similarly directed at all peoples. In 2000, those gathered in New York for the UN Millennium Development Summit called for the kind of effort FFHC referred to four decades earlier. Point Five of the UN Millennium Declaration reads:

We believe that the central challenge we face today is to ensure that globalization becomes a positive force for all the world's people. For while globalization offers great opportunities, at present its benefits are very unevenly shared, while its costs are unevenly distributed. We recognize that developing countries and countries with economies in transition face special difficulties in responding to this central challenge. Thus, only through broad and sustained efforts to create a shared future, based upon our common humanity in all its diversity, can globalization be made fully inclusive and equitable. These efforts must include policies and measures, at the global level, which correspond to the needs of developing countries and economies in transition and are formulated and implemented with their effective participation.631

The same language was used two years later at the 2002 World Food Summit which called on “all parties (governments, international organizations, civil society organizations and the private sector) to reinforce their efforts so as to act as an international alliance against hunger to achieve the WFS targets no later than 2015.”

In 1996, at the World Food Summit in Rome, echoes of FFHC were pronounced. The Rome Declaration on World Food Security reads:

> We emphasize the urgency of taking action now to fulfil our responsibility to achieve food security for present and future generations. Attaining food security is a complex task for which the primary responsibility rests with individual governments. They have to develop an enabling environment and have policies that ensure peace, as well as social, political and economic stability and equity and gender equality. We express our deep concern over the persistence of hunger which, on such a scale, constitutes a threat both to national societies and, through a variety of ways, to the stability of the international community itself. Within the global framework, governments should also cooperate actively with one another and with United Nations organizations, financial institutions, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, and public and private sectors, on programmes directed toward the achievement of food security for all.

Interestingly, on this occasion, FAO Director-General, Dr. Jacques Diouf, paraphrased the words of President Kennedy at the 1963 Congress. Diouf said: “We have the possibility to do it. We have the knowledge. We have the resources. And with the Rome Declaration and the Plan of Action, we've shown that we have the will.”

As we saw from the comments of outgoing World Food Programme Director James Morris, calls for a comprehensive, sustained effort are still being made. In 1960, Dr. Sen appealed for a world-wide campaign against hunger and frequently (and correctly) pointed out that by the end of the century the world population would grow

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632 Declaration of the World Food Summit (Rome, June, 2002).
from 3 to 6 billion, and at least half would be hungry or malnourished or both. It was clear then, as it is now, that governments alone could not alleviate poverty on a global scale and a much broader approach was necessary. Significantly, while Sen was sounding the call for a global assault on hunger, he was acting to create conditions which supported such an effort. A study of FFHC internationally and in Canada shows us that the kind of Campaign Sen called for was possible, and, more importantly, was welcomed by governments, organizations of all kinds, and by individuals in all parts of the world. The high level of receptivity to the Campaign suggests that FFHC helped give direction to a movement which was already emergent in the late 1950s and 1960s in Canada and around the world. The pioneering efforts of FFHC therefore had a profound and lasting impression. A look at FFHC in Canada shows us a good example of how Sen’s campaign tapped into an emerging movement toward humanitarian internationalism and how easily the ideas underpinning the Campaign were embraced by Canadians of all kinds. It had an enduring legacy.
Epilogue

A Google search of the term “Freedom From Hunger Campaign” (May 2007) turned up a living legacy of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign. On the first page of my search were links to two existing Freedom From Hunger Campaign Committees (German Agro Action/Deutsche Welthungerhilfe, Germany, and Oxfam, Australia), a solicitation of pledges for a Meals for Millions campaign, FFHC stamps and coins for auction on EBAY, and a personal account (author anonymous) of the First World Food Congress. A more thorough search easily identified a number of NGOs and development organizations bearing the Freedom From Hunger Campaign banner, and still more operating as a result of FFHC initiatives from the early years of the Campaign. Another short search revealed continuing “FFHC” activity in developing countries including Ghana, Kenya, and Zimbabwe.

Though it has somehow escaped academic scrutiny, a Canadian FFHC legacy is as easily found. The Canadian Hunger Foundation continues to operate as CHF: Partners in Rural Development, and Canadian FFHC projects continue to produce results. A good

635 Organizations specifically employing the term “Freedom From Hunger Campaign.”
example is the Food Technology Training Centre in Mysore, India which is now recognized as a United Nations University. FFHC walks for development, which helped inspire Miles for Millions – and which put Oxfam Canada on the map, are well known to Canadians and are still looked to as a model for ‘walks’ and other fund raising and awareness campaigns. If we look closely at Canadian development NGOs which were linked to or supported by FFHC, including CHF, we can add their myriad activities to those my Google search turned up. These few examples clearly indicate that 47 years after its launch, and 42 years after it was supposed to end, FFHC continues in exactly the way it was supposed to. Dr. Sen would be pleased.
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