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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this presentation is to examine changing perspectives of rural development in an effort to better understand change in rural social systems and to analyze interactions between systems in general. The 1st section of this report is devoted to an analytic framework for intersystem interaction which entails a donor/recipient construct designed to achieve intersystem diplomacy by taking account of all professional, human, administrative, and political components in each system. The concepts of an international elite and a superiority syndrome are also presented in this section. Section 2 presents an analytic framework for rural development (defined in terms of underdevelopment, overdevelopment, and balanced development cycles as measured by utilization of resources), and presentation is made of a rural development model which describes 8 major components and their linkage systems, providing for: (1) analysis of the effect of a component change; (2) evaluation of the equity and cost-benefit ratio of individual components; and (3) measurement of the direction of component transactions. In light of the models presented, the 3rd section proposes a doctrine of interactive reciprocity between the rural social systems and the governments of each country and between nation/states to facilitate a rural renaissance. (JC)

CHANGING PERSPECTIVES ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT*

By

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Changing Perspectives on Rural Development

By

George H. Axinn

I. INTRODUCTION

Words like Rural Development are meaningless to the men, women, and children who till the soil and tend the livestock. How they view changes in the quality of their own lives may be similarly unknown to people in the agencies of government and universities of the world who concern themselves with Rural Development.

The purpose of this presentation is to examine changing perspectives of rural development in an effort to better understand change in rural social systems, and to analyze interactions between systems in general.

Three main sections of this report follow. An analytic framework is presented in the following section relating to inter-system interactions in general. Then, in the second section of this document a framework is presented for analysis of rural development, and for analysis of the

interactions between rural development stimulation systems and the rural societies whose development they are trying to stimulate.

Finally, the third section looks into the future, and to some degree predicts the types of interactions which are likely to be most fruitful in the future, both from the perspective of agencies and organizations within a particular country trying to bring about rural development in that country--and from the perspective of those in one nation/state, or in an international agency or organization, trying to assist a particular country with its efforts in the stimulation of rural development.

II. ANALYTIC FRAMEWORK FOR INTERSYSTEM INTERACTION

Any professional interaction between two groups of human beings tends to have at least five different dimensions. The word "system" is used here to refer to any group of human beings. In one case, the system may be the Ministry of Rural Development in a particular country. In another case the system could be the Agricultural Extension Department of a Ministry of Agriculture. However, a local Farmers' Association or an Agricultural Credit Cooperative is also a system.

A. Professional Intersystem Interaction

When one system interacts with another system, even if the interaction is designed to be a professional kind of thing--such as a physician

taking care of his patient, a professor lecturing to his students, or an agricultural extension worker trying to demonstrate a new variety to a group of farmers--that professional core of interaction may be viewed as having human, administrative, political, and inter-system or diplomatic dimensions.[1]

A general model of professional inter-system interaction is presented in Figure I. The professional unit in one system, like the professional unit in the other system, is always found within a human setting. The agriculturalist or engineer may have a wife or husband who may become ill, for example, and materially change the interaction.

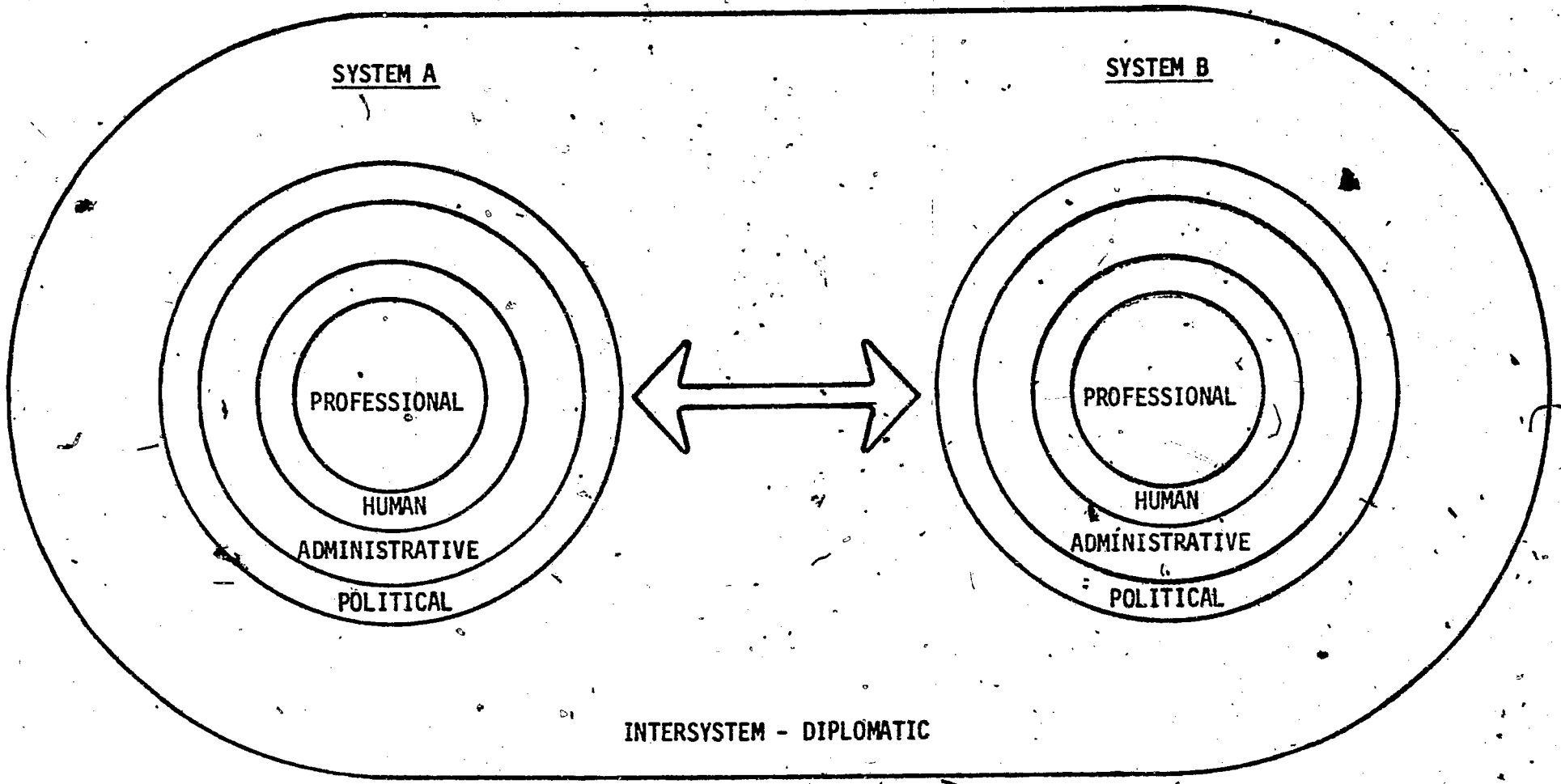
These human beings function in an administrative setting. Like the physicians in a hospital or the professors in a university, those whose specialization is directly related to producing the primary outputs of an organization, or a system of organizations, are usually supported by an administrative group. The administrators are necessary if the professionals are to function efficiently and effectively. The professionals, however, are not "free" to exercise their "professional" judgment without taking into consideration the constrictions that may be applied to the situation by the administrators.

Similarly, both the professional and the administrative personnel (all of them human) operate in a larger socio-economic-political milieu, which exerts political influence upon them. For example, a small technical assistance team of agriculturalists may have to recommend a different kind of fertilizer than their best judgment suggests--because political pressure has been successfully applied to them.

In addition, both system A and system B--sometimes referred to as a change system and a target system--sometimes referred to as a donor system and a recipient system--both of these systems are surrounded by an

FIGURE I

GENERAL MODEL OF PROFESSIONAL INTERSYSTEM INTERACTION



inter-system (or diplomatic) environment that also affects their interactions. For example, the professional members of a technical assistance team may "have to" facilitate the construction of a large building as part of their project because teams from other countries are doing similar things, regardless of the professional merits of such an activity.

Thus, any analysis of a strategy for interaction between system A and system B is inadequate if it takes into consideration only the professional aspects of what is being done. Professionals often claim that their program was appropriate, but it failed because administrators interferred, or the politicians would not let them carry it out as designed.

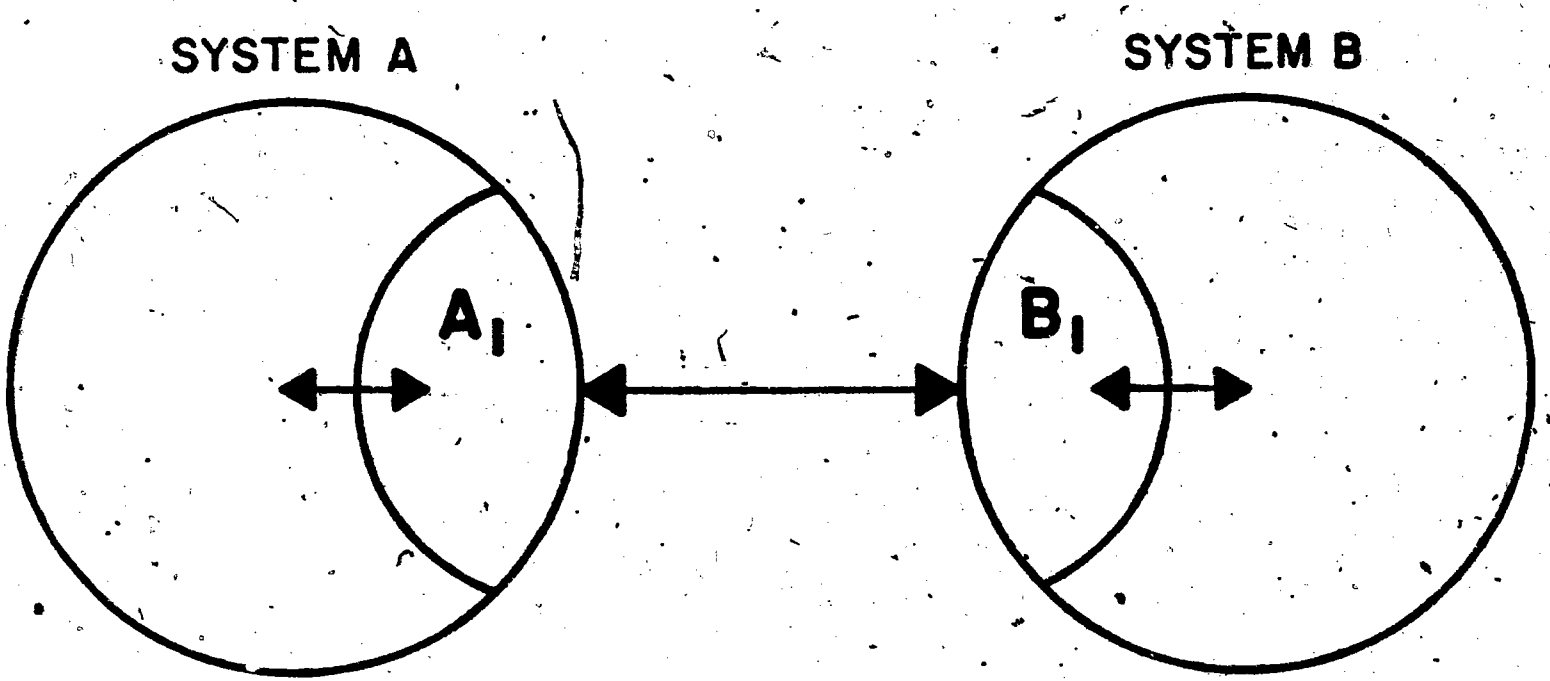
However, it can also be inferred that the ideal design of a professional inter-system interaction takes into account the facts that all professionals are also human; that all professionals also operate with administrative and political constraints, and that all interactions between systems take place in some kind of inter-system diplomatic milieu. Therefore, the ideal strategy would be designed to take all of this into account, to anticipate human, administrative, political, and diplomatic contingencies as well as the professional situation, and to function appropriately within them.

B. Third Culture Enclaves

One aspect of any inter-system interaction is that both systems tend to have within them small enclaves of persons who operate in the "inter-system arena," as illustrated in Figure II. These individuals have been referred to as persons in the "third culture."[2]

If you wish to look at a whole country as one of the two interacting systems--you may recognize that most countries have such an enclave,

FIGURE II
THE THIRD CULTURE ENCLAVE
(A_1 and B_1)



which tends to be a small, elite, internationally-oriented group. They often represent the wealth and the power of their own country, have been educated abroad, and tend to live in surroundings very similar to those of the other outside system.

In the outside system, which is trying to interact with it, there are also people who have lived and worked in the other system. They tend to have traveled extensively, and may interact as much or more abroad as they do at home.

Any such pattern of human interactions suggests that while persons of the third culture, from each of any two societies so involved with each other, may share certain values, be interested in and able to communicate with each other, and develop increasing understanding of each other as time goes by--each will tend to have less and less understanding of the system he represents as the process continues.

Thus, those members of the international elite enclave in many countries of the world have little understanding of "what life is really like," in the more rural and remote parts of their own country. Conversely, those persons of the third culture in an outside system which is trying to interact with such a country are likely to find themselves reflecting their own society as it was some years ago, rather than as it is now, and being so little understood at home that their sources of funds are continually in jeopardy.

Thus, rather than looking at interaction between one system (A) and another system (B), it is probably more appropriate to consider interaction between a component of system A and a component of system B, which are labeled A_1 and B_1. These two inter-system enclaves usually supply the membership for groups which travel to the other system, and tend to contain the personnel who carry on transactions with the other system. In

addition, there is also need for interaction between the enclave and the larger social system in both cases. Thus if A_1 interacts simultaneously with A and with B_1; and if B_1 has similar interactions with B and with A_1; then the possibility that those who interact between systems can carry on the appropriate transactions is increased.

C. The Superiority Syndrome

One of the difficulties in the attempt to interact between systems might be labeled the Superiority Syndrome.[3] It tends to happen whenever one group of individuals attempts to help their fellows and to do the "right thing" for mankind. This set of phenomena comes from the tendency of those who leave their own system and go to another--particularly if they are going to "assist" the others--to feel superior to, and to look down upon, those in the other system. As a result, there is a tendency for these individuals to pay less attention to the feelings and the opinions of personnel of the other system, and to be increasingly misguided by their own preconceptions.

The syndrome usually develops among personnel of any foreign mission in any host country. They tend to forget all of the negative aspects of their home situations; they tend to see and magnify all the negative aspects of the local situation. This is accentuated by their ignorance of and failure to understand the local situation. It is almost inescapable that an "up-down" form of interaction results. From the perspective of the receivers of any kind of "foreign assistance," the superiority syndrome spawns resentment and suspicion. In many ways the difference between the "haves" and the "have nots" within any one society is similar to the differences among societies. Referring to Figure II, B_1 feels and acts superior to the remainder of system B, just as A_1 may feel and act superior

to B_1. These relationships breed resentment, and the "haves" tend to blame the "have nots" for their own plight and the "have nots" blame the "haves" for their plight both within and between nations. In analyzing any interaction between two systems, one can then look for the extent to which each perceives the interaction as "up-down" or "down-up." This has to do with which system might exercise influence over the other, dominate the other, have power over the other, or control the other. If the two interact as equals--it could be termed as a "level" interaction. Otherwise, it is either "up-down" or "down-up."

III. ANALYTIC FRAMEWORK FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

In this section, rural development is defined, and indicators and descriptors of it are offered. Then a development cycle will be postulated and a method of analyzing rural social systems in terms of their components, the linkages between these components, and the milieu in which they operate will be analyzed. Finally, a perspective for looking at rural development stimulation systems and their interaction with rural development acquisition systems will be presented.

A. Indicators and Descriptors

A major weakness in the traditional approaches to rural development has been the lack of rigorous, usable definitions. Such synonyms as modernization, industrialization, and urbanization, cloud the scene. Economic and level-of-living indicators tend to reflect the values of the external developer, and show the "less developed" societies continuously falling further behind the "more developed."

In an attempt to overcome this problem, it is suggested that rural

social systems be analyzed in two different ways. One of these constitutes the development of indicators of level at which various functions are carried out; the other relates to descriptors of certain phenomena in the rural social system.

Following this approach, certain functions, like the production of food, the delivery of health care, the provision of education, and the marketing of what is produced can be indicated and measured. If one social system is using twice as much irrigation water in their rice paddies as another, that can be measured. If, in turn, they produce more rice per year, that can also be measured. Such phenomena as the difference in religion between the two groups, might be described. Thus, the suggestion is made that certain aspects of a rural social system be analyzed through indicators and others be analyzed through descriptors. The indicators will involve measurement and comparison with other rural social systems--as well as comparison with the same system over time. The descriptors will tend to illustrate the setting and the environment in which the indicators operate--but the things described will not be compared with others in different systems, or used as measures of change over time.

However, certain phenomena may be examined as aspects of both indicators and descriptors. For example, both those things which are indicated and those things which are described consume energy. Over time, relative amounts of energy devoted to each might be compared. Further, individuals use their time differently according to differences in religion and culture and other aspects of the rural social system, which may be described. Thus an analysis of time use would include both the phenomena being described and the phenomena being measured with indicators.

B. Development Cycle

An alternative to the traditional ways of assessing rural development using the criteria of outsiders is to envision a development cycle.

Assuming that it is possible for humanity to come into some sort of equilibrium state with its environment, then it is conceivable that:

1. Human groups which are under-utilizing the resources of of their eco-system in enhancing their own levels and styles of living may be considered to be underdeveloped.

2. Human groups which are over-utilizing the resources of their eco-system in enhancing their own levels and styles of living may be considered to be over-developed; and,

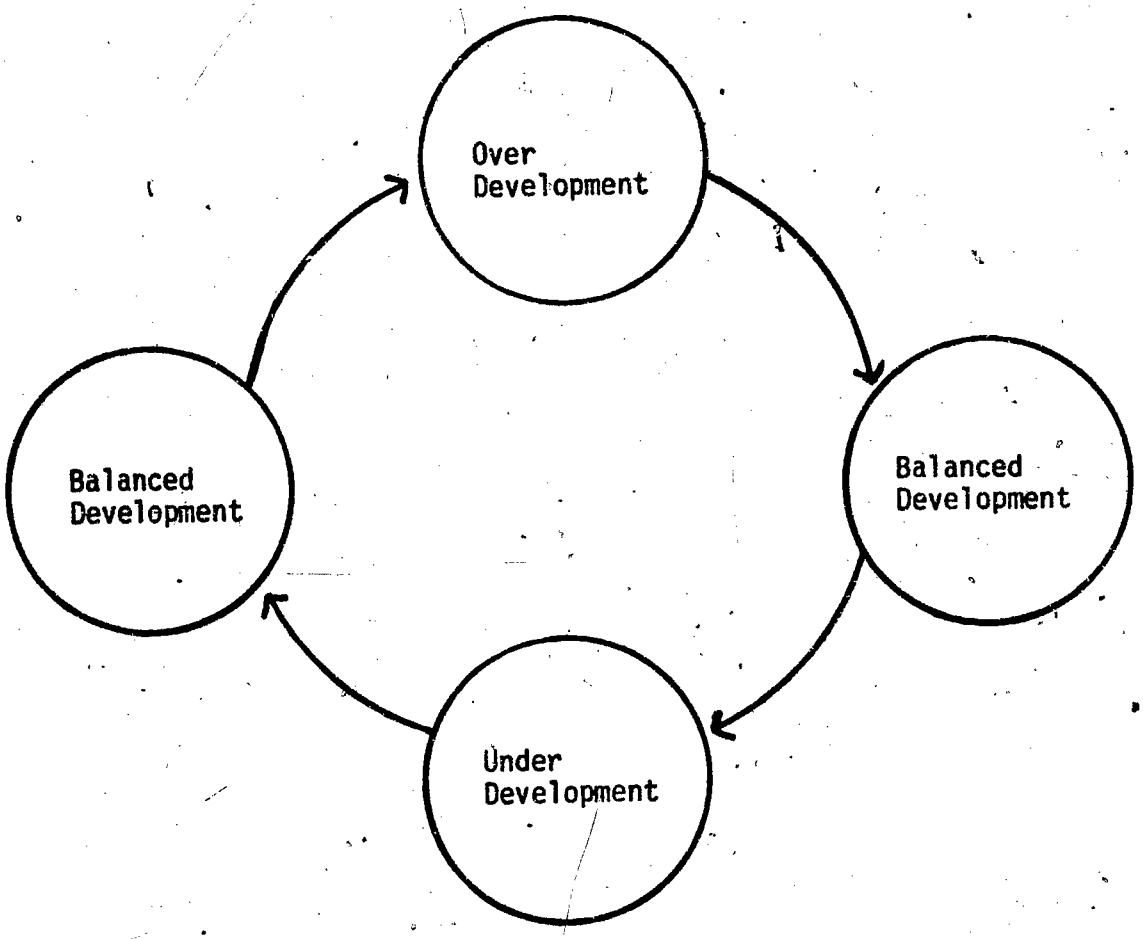
3. Human groups which are in equilibrium with the resources of their eco-system with respect to their own levels and styles of living, may be considered to be appropriately developed. See Figure III, The Development Cycle.

Viewed from a time perspective, each human group may move through cycles of under-development, balanced-development, over-development, balanced-development, under-development, etc. This phenomenon may be labeled, "The Development Cycle." The rate of change varies from group to group, with some apparently static, and others moving quite rapidly. A given group may also go through periods of rapid change, periods of very gradual change, and periods when change may not be apparent at all.

One way to assess the relative balance of a particular human group with its environment is in terms of its utilization of energy (petroleum, electricity, sun, light and heat, wood, etc.). That is, if a group is utilizing relatively little energy per capita in enhancing its own level

FIGURE III

THE DEVELOPMENT CYCLE



and style of living, then it may be considered to be under-developed. If a group is using relatively high amounts of energy in enhancing its own levels and styles of living, it may be considered to be over-developed--particularly if its eco-system cannot sustain the high levels of energy use over time. And if a group has balanced its utilization of energy with its level and style of life, it may be considered to be appropriately developed.

As Fred Cottrell put it twenty years ago in his book, Energy and Society,[4] "The thesis is that the amounts and types of energy employed condition man's way of life materially, and set somewhat predictable limits on what he can do and on how society will be organized."

Development might also be measured in terms of time use. There seems to be a tendency for social systems which are typically classified as "less developed" to be characterized by persons who have more time for leisure, play, or at least time over which they feel a sense of control. Conversely, those social systems which are typically referred to as "over developed" tend to contain individuals who have less time which can be utilized for leisure, play, or at least, be controlled by that individual.

Development can also be measured in terms of the specialization of human performance of functions. Given that these several functions (defined below), are performed in every rural social system, a progression may move from systems where one individual performs all functions for himself--to a stage where members of a family specialize in specific functions--to a stage where different families might draw major sustenance from fewer functions, increasing their dependency on other families for other functions.

The possibility that human groups may over-specialize as they become over-developed, and then broaden functions to less specialization, is consistent with the concept of a development cycle.

The opportunity costs of specialization, from an economic perspective, include deprivation from wholistic involvement with essential components of life. The over-specialized worker on a "modern" production line may long to own his own tools and make a "whole car."

There is a tendency for those rural social systems which are using relatively little energy (in relation to what the eco-system can provide) to also tend to be unspecialized with respect to the eight functions listed below. At the opposite side of the development cycle, those systems which are using highest amounts of energy also tend to have highest degrees of specialization.

And, the intermediate position of balance in energy use vis-à-vis the environment seems to be accompanied by a balance in level of specialization.

As a particular social system moves from low energy use and low specialization (under-development) toward an optimum energy use and level of specialization, there is a tendency for it to exhibit three general characteristics: (1) it tends to have a high efficiency of energy conversion; (2) it tends to have a high level of transactions with outside systems, and (3) it tends to have a relatively high efficiency of internal transactions among its functional components.

As a typical system moves from an optimum stage toward high or excess use of energy and high or excess state of specialization among the functional components, the transition tends to be accompanied by (1) low efficiency of

energy conversion; (2) lower numbers of transactions with outside systems; and, (3) a lower efficiency of internal transactions among the functional components. (See Figure IV.)

As a system moves from high energy use and high specialization toward a more balanced or optimum situation, that transition tends to be accompanied by (1) high rates of efficiency of energy conversion; (2) high rates of transactions with outside systems; and (3) high rates of efficiency of internal transactions.

And finally, as a rural social system tends to move from balanced use of energy and balanced levels of specialization toward low use of energy, and lowest levels of specialization, it is again accompanied by (1) low rates of efficiency of energy conversion, (2) low rates of transactions with outside systems, and (3) low levels of efficiency of internal transactions.

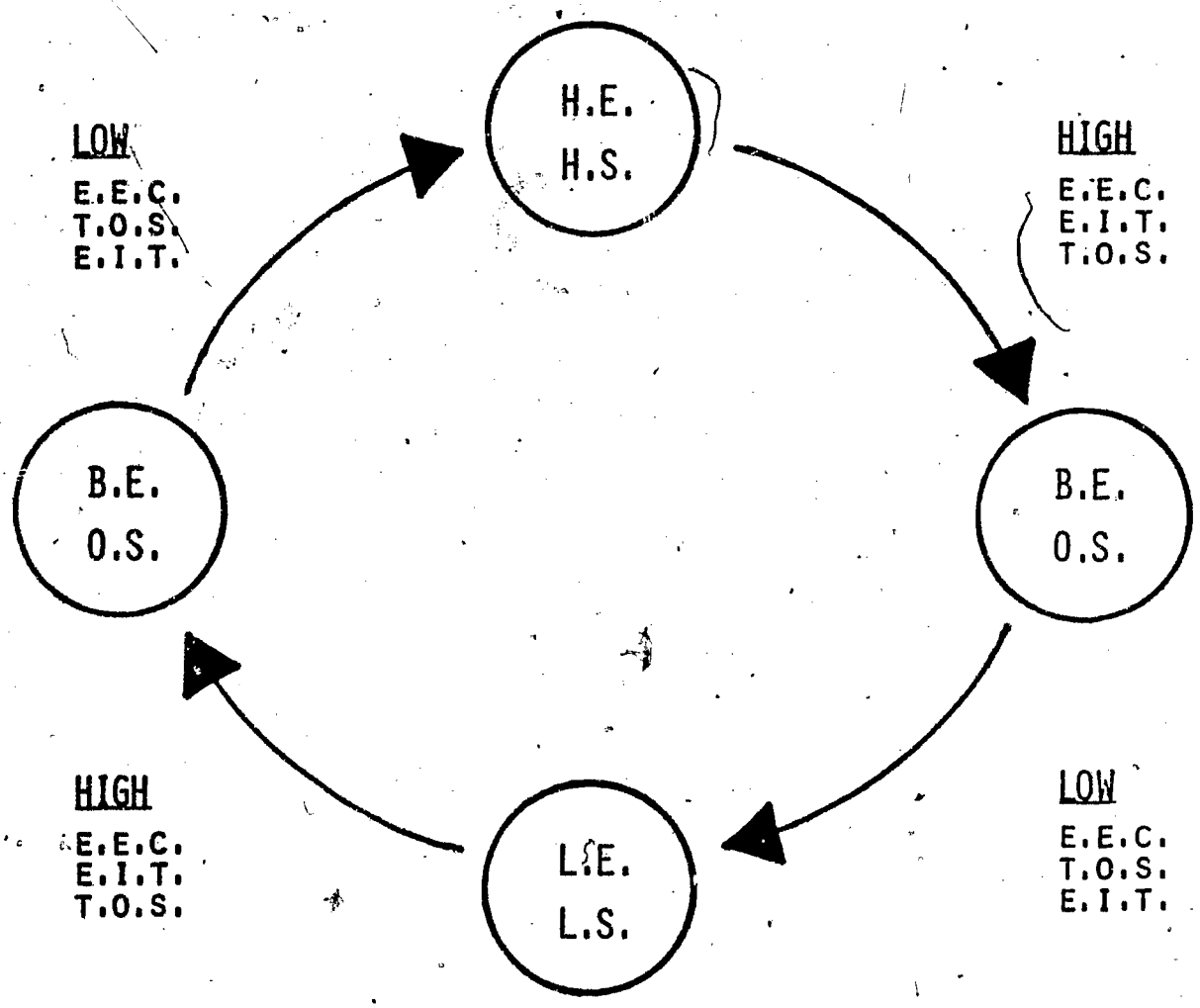
Viewing the development cycle in this perspective provides a conceptual framework by means of which rural social systems in various parts of the world and various points in time can be analyzed and compared, and direction and speed of change can also be examined comparatively.

The approach to change in rural social systems through change in energy use and extent of specialization does not ignore the conventional concerns about development. Rather, it encompasses the conventional indicators of development but does so in a more explicit and measurable fashion than is normally done.

An essential difference relates to the normal conception of the development process as being linear--going from less developed to more developed. Taking this basic linear conception, Esman and Uphoff[5] concern

FIGURE IV

CHANGE IN RURAL SOCIAL SYSTEMS



H.E. = HIGH ENERGY USE
L.E. = LOW ENERGY USE
B.E. = BALANCED ENERGY USE
H.S. = HIGH SPECIALIZATION
L.S. = LOW SPECIALIZATION
O.S. = OPTIMUM SPECIALIZATION

E.E.C. = EFFICIENCY OF ENERGY CONVERSION
T.O.S. = TRANSACTIONS W/OUTSIDE SYSTEMS
E.I.T. = EFFICIENCY OF INTERNAL TRANSACTIONS

= A RURAL SOCIAL SYSTEM

themselves with three major indicators: (1) agricultural productivity, (2) rural incomes, (3) rural welfare--which includes health, nutrition, education, employment, security, and equity, or income distribution.

Along a similar vein, and also conceiving of development as linear, Inayatullah[6] uses six indicators of rural development. They are: (1) rural productivity, (2) employment, under-employment, etc. (3) distribution of wealth, (4) power structure--rural vs. urban, (5) mobility and local class structures--status and power, and, (6) values, beliefs, and attitudes with respect to control of the environment.

Utilization of the transactional analysis, the specialization analysis, and the energy/eco-system analysis suggested on the basis of the eight functional component model (below) would take into account all of the concerns with productivity and equity--and go considerably beyond.

C. Rural Social Systems

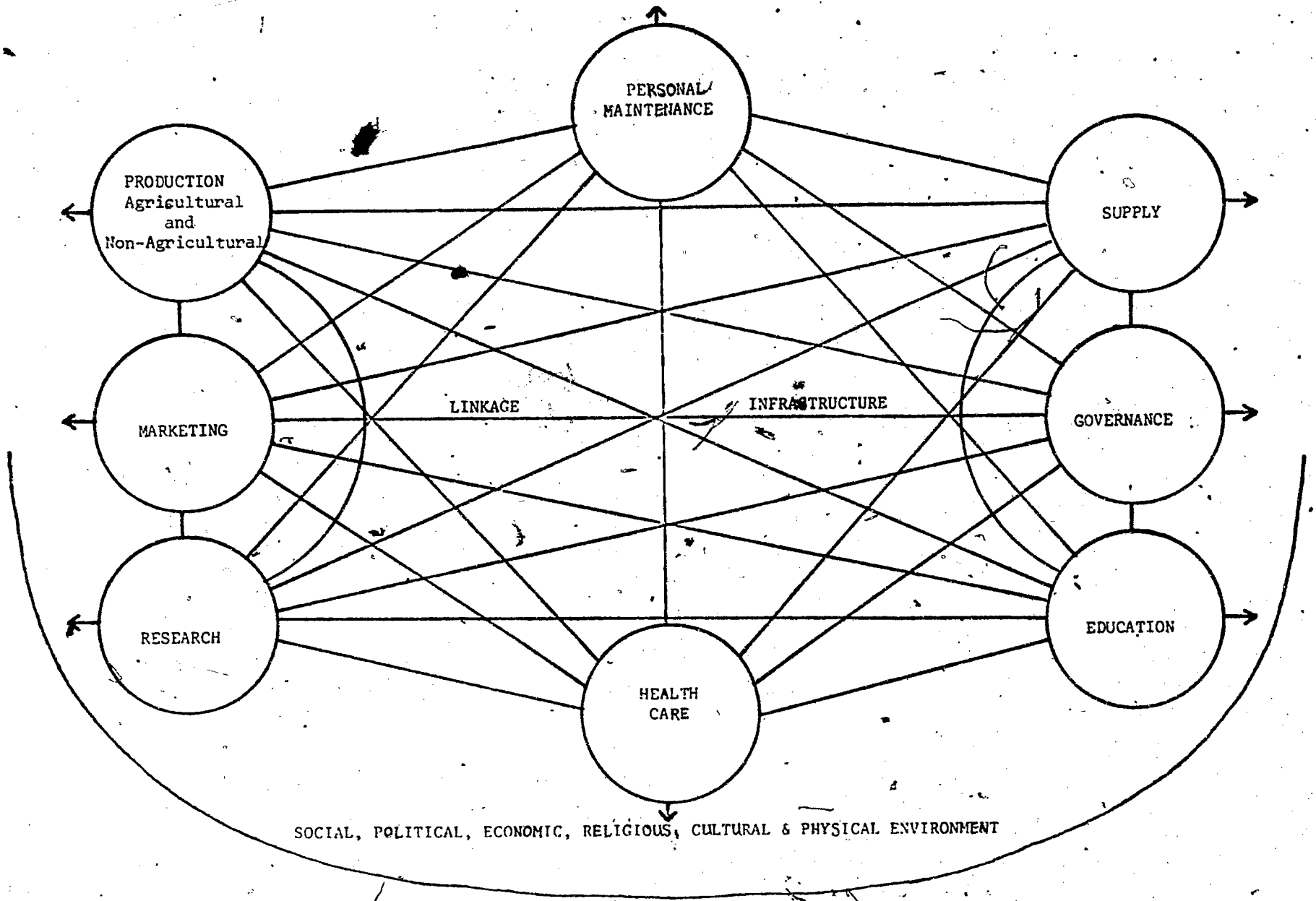
Human groups which live in rural places, and which tend to be small groups in relative isolation from each other and from larger groups, may be labeled as rural social systems. These systems (see Loomis)[7] may be described and analyzed according to their functional components, as in Figure V. A typical rural social system is characterized here as having eight functional components, related to each other through a linkage infrastructure, and all set into a social, political, economic, religious, cultural and physical environment.[8]

The production component may be subdivided into agricultural production and other production. Agricultural production involves land, labor, capital, technology, etc.; and other production involves manufacturing, agro-industries, including labor, capital, technology, etc. Then there is a supply side for

FIGURE V

THE RURAL SOCIAL SYSTEM IN ITS ENVIRONMENT

Functional Components



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both of these production components. The supply function, for agricultural production, includes seed, feed, fertilizer, credit, and other inputs. The marketing function includes transportation, storage, processing, retailing, etc.

The governance function has to do with the regulation of life, and includes administration, revenue, law and order, etc. The education function involves both formal and non-formal instruction of various individuals by others, and also the informal education which is not contrived, but through which people learn most of what they have to know.

The research function, like education, includes formal, non-formal and informal aspects. It includes the activities through which people learn how to solve problems and develop new information.

The health care function has to do with the various ways in which the social system prevents injury and disease, and attempts to cure these maladies when they arise.

The personal maintenance component is a function of every human group, and includes such activities as cleaning, grooming, and clothing the body, rest and recreation, and a variety of other sub-functions in which each individual must invest time and energy each day.

Each of these eight functional components is related to the others through an infrastructure of linkages which includes roads, waterways, (including drainage, irrigation, and potable water) communication, power systems, etc. Further, these functions, and the linkage infrastructure which connects them and relates them to the outside world, are always in a social/political/economic/cultural/religious/physical context, which sets the pace and the style of all of the actions of the separate components and the interactions between them.

Like any other system, a change in any one component, or in any linkage affects all of the other components and linkages. Resistance to change in any one component or linkage is a constraint on change for any other component.

In assessing change in rural social systems using this model, cost/benefit ratios can be calculated for each of the functional components. Levels and directions of transactions among the components are also measured. This provides indicators of the extent and efficiency of such functions as production, marketing, supply, education, health care, etc. Further, the linkage analysis provides opportunity for study of equity in the distribution of benefits as well as costs.

Linkages are defined as clusters of channels by means of which one component may interact with other components of the same or other systems.

Each channel is a means by which transactions may flow between two or more components of a system, or between a component and component(s) of other systems. Examples of channels include roads, waterways, electric transmission lines, radio, telephone, newspapers, group meetings, individual conversations, and many other means.

The linkage between any two components of a system may be described in terms of:

1. The types of channels available.
2. The numbers of channels available.
3. The capacity of each channel.
4. The actual rate of flow of transactions on each channel--the frequency.
5. The fidelity of each channel.

6. The direction of flow of transactions on each channel.

7. The power relationships of the components on either end of the linkage.

Capacity refers to the quantity of goods or information which a channel can carry within measured amounts of time.

Frequency refers to the extent of actual use of the capacity of a channel.

Fidelity refers to the qualitative change which occurs during transactions from one component to another. A channel with high fidelity is more likely to deliver goods or information from one component to another unchanged in character than a channel with low fidelity.

Power refers to authority or influence which gives one component control over another component or one system control over another system.

Of course, the components and linkages described here always exist in a larger social, political, economic, religious, cultural and physical environment. These set the pace, tone, and style of everything that happens.

D. Rural Development Stimulation Systems in Action

Turning to the view of the rural social system in its larger setting--it is possible to distinguish five major components of the larger system. These could be described as follows:

(a) The rural social system--including individuals, families and clusters of families. Typically, these are called rural villages.

(b) Rural development acquisition systems--described elsewhere, these are organizations of the people in the rural social

system, ideally controlled by the people in the rural social system, and designed to help them acquire what they need from and interact with the larger social system outside.

(c) Rural development stimulation systems--described elsewhere, these are organizations of the outside world, designed to stimulate change and to interact with the rural social system.

(d) Agencies and organizations of the larger social system--these include district, state, and national levels, and may be categorized as government units, public corporations, private firms, educational units, and health units. A strictly functional description can be made in terms of the functional category within the rural social system. Or, various functions can be grouped as public, private, or quasi-public.

(e) Agencies and organizations of the inter-system--these are the international agencies and organizations which interact with the agencies and organizations of the social system being studied.

With respect to linkages, ten major linkages may be identified by means of which each of the five components above interacts with each of the other components. However, four of those linkages are most crucial in the process of change in rural social systems. These are the linkage

between (a) and (b), the rural social system and the rural development acquisition system; the linkage between (b) and (c), the rural development acquisition system and the rural development stimulation system; the linkage between (c) and (d), the rural development stimulation system and the agencies and organizations of the larger social system; and the linkage between (d) and (e), the agencies and organizations of the larger social system and the agencies and organizations of the international inter-system. (See Figure VI.)

IV. THE FUTURE

In light of the analytic framework for inter-system interactions as well as the analytic framework for assessing rural development, two suggestions emerge. One is in the direction of what will be labeled iterative reciprocity; the other has to do with rural renaissance.[9]

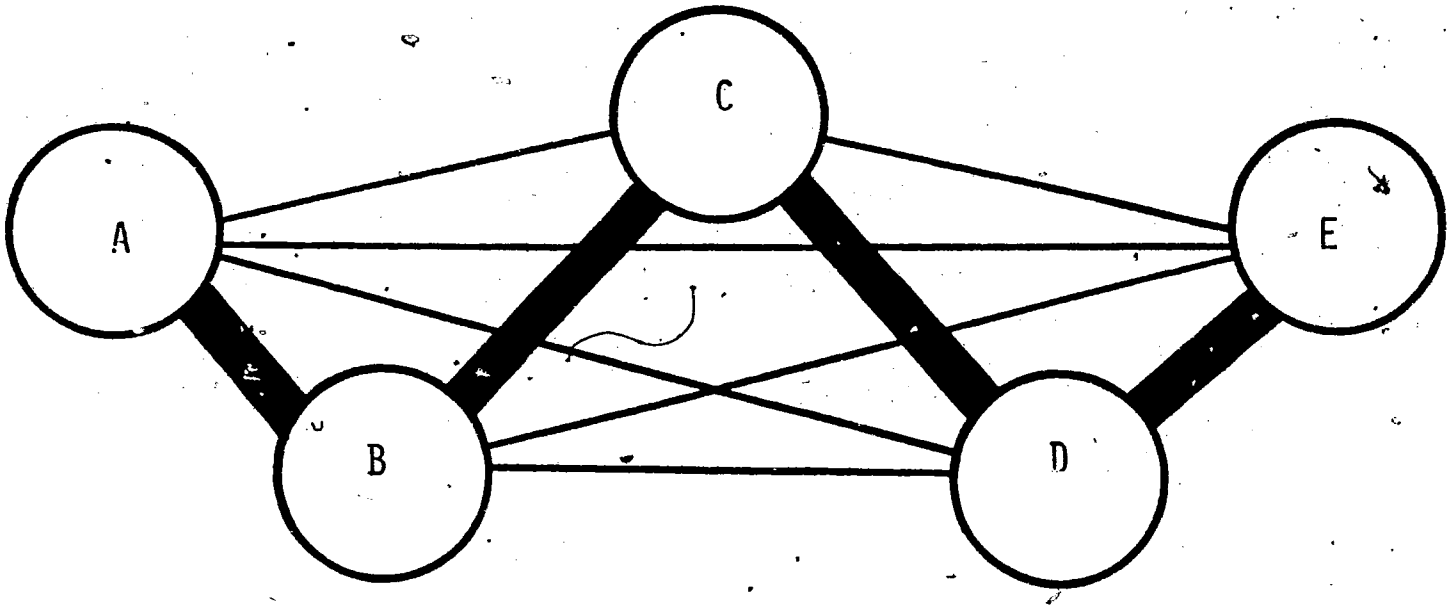
The superiority syndrome referred to above, and the tendency for outsiders to assume an "up-down" kind of view of their relationship with insiders has been increasingly rejected by systems with which they interact. Along with this is the frustration stemming from the extreme difficulty of inter-system understanding because of the walls of separation built around international enclaves in each system.

A doctrine of reciprocity may overcome these difficulties. It is increasingly evident in the examples above.

Reciprocity requires both systems in an inter-system interaction to look at the situation in terms of cost/benefit ratio. If both parties consider their cost/benefit ratio acceptable, they are less likely to suspect each other of taking unfair advantage. Even when it appears that one system is clearly the "donor" and the other clearly the "recipient,"

FIGURE VI

CRITICAL LINKAGES IN THE LARGER SOCIAL SYSTEM
AFFECTING CHANGE IN RURAL SOCIAL SYSTEMS



A = RURAL SOCIAL SYSTEM

B = RURAL DEVELOPMENT ACQUISITION SYSTEM

C = RURAL DEVELOPMENT STIMULATION SYSTEM

D = AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS OF LARGER SOCIAL SYSTEM

E = AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS OF INTERNATIONAL INTERSYSTEM

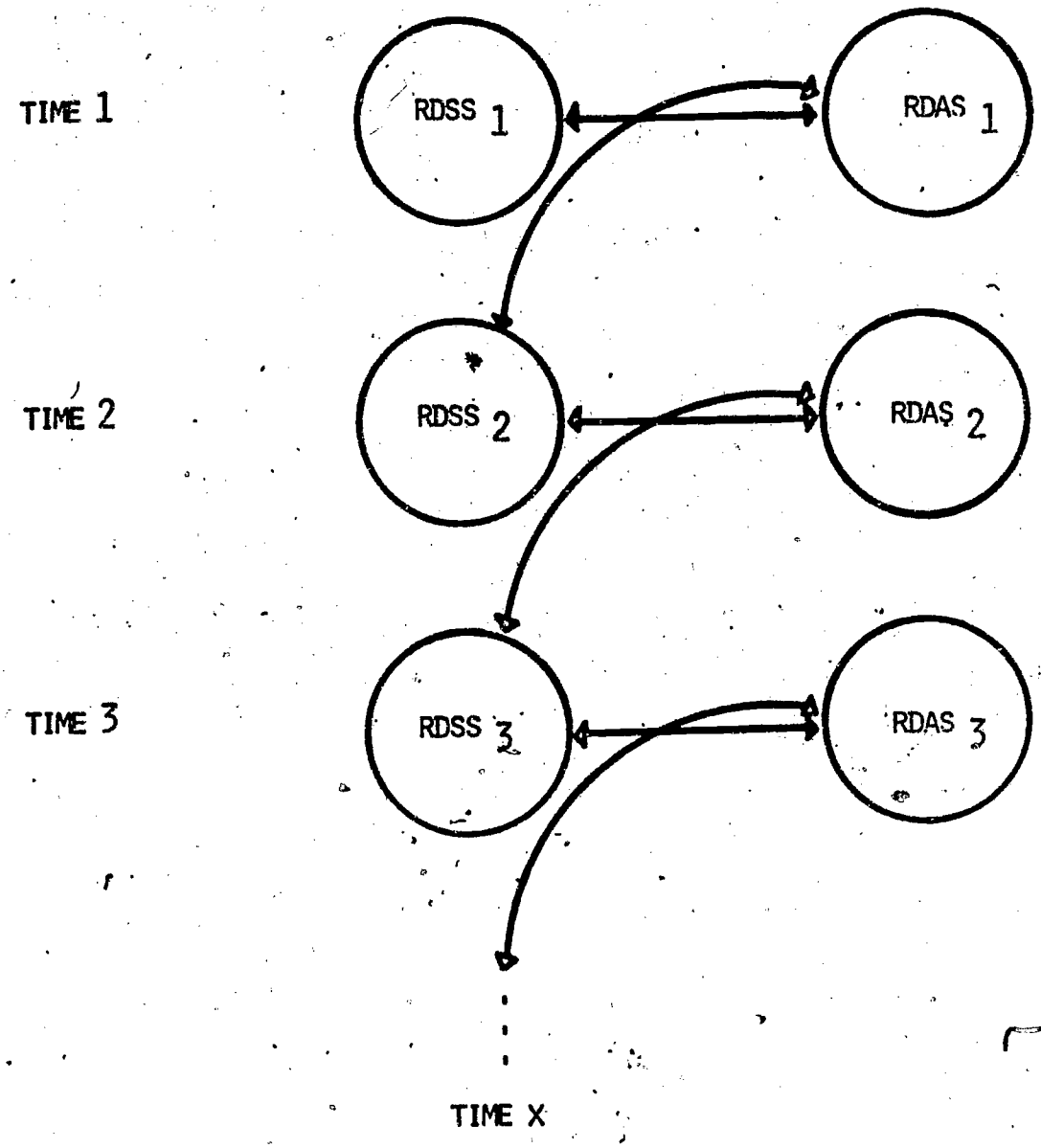
as in a typical education assistance program in an effort to meet national manpower needs, there is always reciprocity. Where there is recognized reciprocity, the superiority syndrome will tend to be minimized.

Inter-system interactions governed by a doctrine of reciprocity are still subject to problems of inter-system understanding. As illustrated in Figure VII (Iterative Reciprocity) when a rural development acquisition system (RDAS) interacts with a rural development stimulation system (RDSS), the interaction has an effect on both systems. Next time the RDAS is slightly different from what it was the first time, as is the RDSS. Thus, as time goes by, the RDAS changes and the RDSS changes. Among the changes in both sides should be increased inter-system understanding. Iterative (or repeating) transactions between any two systems may lead to better understanding and communication, and thus the greater chance that the substance of these transactions will be appropriate in light of the needs and the interests of humanity within the two systems.

The above suggests a pattern of iterative reciprocity. That is, two systems interact on the basis of equality. Each expects the interaction to cost something and each expects to gain something from it. Over time, the iterative interactions continuously modify the nature of both systems and the interaction between them. The more iterations, the more appropriate the transactions are likely to be for both systems. Reciprocity in value suggests continuous growth in benefit to each participant and continuous reduction in the cost.

FIGURE VII

ITERATIVE RECIPROCITY
BETWEEN A
RURAL DEVELOPMENT ACQUISITION SYSTEM (RDAS)
AND A
RURAL DEVELOPMENT STIMULATION SYSTEM (RDSS)



In this sense, reciprocity does not require exact exchange of goods or ideas that have equal value in some inter-system marketplace. For example, food grains may be exchanged for more raw metals. So long as there is some benefit, there can be reciprocity. To the extent that the two systems can build enduring linkages between themselves, iterative reciprocity may be more appropriate in the future than "international assistance," for and on behalf of either system.

Turning to rural development, and viewing the development cycle as illustrated above, a somewhat different perspective on change emerges.

Analysis of the experience with such efforts as the Comilla projects in Bangladesh, the Joint Commission for Rural Reconstruction in Taiwan, the Panchayati Raj in India, the recent approaches in the People's Republic of China, the conclusion emerges that perhaps rural development cannot be delivered from outside.

If the path to a better life be change which is preferred by rural people to their present situation, then recent world experience suggests that it must be born from within any particular rural social system, controlled by its beneficiaries, and integrated into the larger system of which it is a part. This path may be labeled rural renaissance.

Rural renaissance is a perspective and a process. As a perspective, it gives priority to the view from the farming family on the land. As a process, it draws initiative and energy from the same rural family.

Renaissance refers to a new birth or revival. To go through renaissance is to go through "a period of vigorous artistic and intellectual activity."[10]

From this perspective, renaissance may be defined as a marriage of traditional values, norms, behavior patterns, and technology with innovative values, norms, technology, and behavior patterns, resulting in the birth of changed behavior patterns, technology, norms, and values. With this conceptualization, rural renaissance cannot be delivered from outside. It is not something that can be injected like an antibiotic into an infected person. It has to be born from within any particular rural social system. In that sense, it is indigenous--it is the child of its older parent.

Thus in the future, perhaps we should look to iterative reciprocity--between the rural social systems and the governments of each country--as well as between each nation/state and the other nation/states. This kind of iterative reciprocity--if carried on in the spirit of costs and benefits being shared by both partners at each level--could lead to a rural renaissance. Rural renaissance emerges as the basis for the rationale of inter-system interaction at many levels--international, rural-urban, between agencies and organizations like Ministries of government or universities, and the rural people whom they serve.

Thus, perhaps the lesson of all of this experience is that through appropriate iterative reciprocity a rural reniassance can emerge.

FOOTNOTES

1. George H. Axinn, et. al., Toward A Strategy of International Interactions in Non-Formal Education, Michigan State University, Program of Studies in Non-Formal Education, 1974.

2. For discussion of the "third culture" concept, see John Useem, Ruth Hill Useem, & John Donoghue, "Men in the Middle of the Third Culture: The Roles of American and Non-Western People in Cross-Cultural Administration," Human Organization, 22:169-179, Fall, 1963.

3. Axinn, Op. Cit., p. 95.

4. Fred Cottrell, Energy and Society - The Relation Between Energy, Social Change, and Economic Development, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1955 (reprinted 1970 and 1974 by Greenwood Press, Westport, Connecticut).

5. Norman T. Uphoff and Milton J. Esman, Local Organization for Rural Development: Analysis of Asian Experience, Rural Development Committee, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., November 1974, pp. 23-24.

6. Inayatullah, "A Proposed Conceptual Framework for Study of Approaches to Rural Development in Asia," Asian Centre for Development Administration, Kuala Lumpur, Mimeograph, August, 1974, pp. 4 and 5.

7. Charles P. Loomis, Social Systems: Essays on Their Persistence and Change, D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., Princeton, New Jersey, 1960.

8. George H. Axinn and Sudhakar Thorat, Modernizing World Agriculture: A Comparative Study of Extension Education Systems, New York: Praeger Publishers, Inc., 1972.

9. For a more complete exposition of this perspective, see George H. Axinn, Rural Renaissance - A Perspective and a Process, paper presented at the Third International Conference of East/West Communication Institute on Integrated Communication for Rural Development, December 2-6, 1974, Honolulu.

10. Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary, Springfield: GNC Miriam Company, 1971, p. 724. The English word "Renaissance" comes from the French Renaistre, which translates as, "To be born again," which is exactly the sense in which the author uses it here.