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Chapter 1 : International relations - Wikipedia

A study of authority and relations in Chinese governmental agencies and institutional work units: neo-patrimonialism in urban work units.

Feminism international relations Feminist IR considers the ways that international politics affects and is affected by both men and women and also at how the core concepts that are employed within the discipline of IR e. Feminist IR has not only concerned itself with the traditional focus of IR on states, wars, diplomacy and security, but feminist IR scholars have also emphasized the importance of looking at how gender shapes the current global political economy. From its inception, feminist IR has also theorized extensively about men and, in particular, masculinities. Many IR feminists argue that the discipline is inherently masculine in nature. For example, in her article "Sex and Death in the Rational World of Defense Intellectuals" *Signs*, Carol Cohn claimed that a highly masculinized culture within the defence establishment contributed to the divorcing of war from human emotion. Feminist IR emerged largely from the late s onwards. The end of the Cold War and the re-evaluation of traditional IR theory during the s opened up a space for gendering International Relations. However, the growing influence of feminist and women-centric approaches within the international policy communities for example at the World Bank and the United Nations is more reflective of the liberal feminist emphasis on equality of opportunity for women. It makes the assumption that the economy trumps other concerns; allowing for the elevation of class as the focus of study. Marxists view the international system as an integrated capitalist system in pursuit of capital accumulation. Thus, colonialism brought in sources for raw materials and captive markets for exports, while decolonialization brought new opportunities in the form of dependence. A prominent derivative of Marxian thought is critical international relations theory which is the application of "critical theory" to international relations. Their emphasis on the "critical" component of theory was derived significantly from their attempt to overcome the limits of positivism. Modern-day proponents such as Andrew Linklater, Robert W. Cox and Ken Booth focus on the need for human emancipation from the nation-state. Hence, it is "critical" of mainstream IR theories that tend to be both positivist and state-centric. Further linked in with Marxist theories is dependency theory and the core-periphery model, which argue that developed countries, in their pursuit of power, appropriate developing states through international banking, security and trade agreements and unions on a formal level, and do so through the interaction of political and financial advisors, missionaries, relief aid workers, and MNCs on the informal level, in order to integrate them into the capitalist system, strategically appropriating undervalued natural resources and labor hours and fostering economic and political dependence. Marxist theories receive little attention in the United States. It is more common in parts of Europe and is one of the more important theoretic contributions of Latin American academia to the study of global networks. Examples of interest groups include political lobbyists, the military, and the corporate sector. Group theory argues that although these interest groups are constitutive of the state, they are also causal forces in the exercise of state power. Strategic perspective[edit] Strategic perspective is a theoretical[citation needed] approach that views individuals as choosing their actions by taking into account the anticipated actions and responses of others with the intention of maximizing their own welfare. Inherent bad faith model[edit] Further information: They are dismissed as propaganda ploys or signs of weakness. Post-structuralism explores the deconstruction of concepts traditionally not problematic in IR such as "power" and "agency" and examines how the construction of these concepts shapes international relations. The examination of "narratives" plays an important part in poststructuralist analysis; for example, feminist poststructuralist work has examined the role that "women" play in global society and how they are constructed in war as "innocent" and "civilians". See also feminism in international relations. Post-structuralism has garnered both significant praise and criticism, with its critics arguing that post-structuralist research often fails to address the real-world problems that international relations studies is supposed to contribute to solving. Levels of analysis[edit] Systemic level concepts[edit]

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International relations are often viewed in terms of levels of analysis. The systemic level concepts are those broad concepts that define and shape an international milieu, characterized by anarchy. Focusing on the systemic level of international relations is often, but not always, the preferred method for neo-realists and other structuralist IR analysts. Westphalian sovereignty Preceding the concepts of interdependence and dependence, international relations relies on the idea of sovereignty. While throughout world history there have been instances of groups lacking or losing sovereignty, such as African nations prior to Decolonization or the occupation of Iraq during the Iraq War , there is still a need for sovereignty in terms of assessing international relations. Power international relations The concept of Power in international relations can be described as the degree of resources, capabilities, and influence in international affairs. It is often divided up into the concepts of hard power and soft power , hard power relating primarily to coercive power, such as the use of force, and soft power commonly covering economics , diplomacy and cultural influence. However, there is no clear dividing line between the two forms of power. Core or vital interests constitute the things which a country is willing to defend or expand with conflict such as territory, ideology religious, political, economic , or its citizens. Peripheral or non-vital are interests which a state is willing to compromise. For example, in the German annexation of the Sudetenland in a part of Czechoslovakia under the Munich Agreement , Czechoslovakia was willing to relinquish territory which was considered ethnically German in order to preserve its own integrity and sovereignty. Rather, it is the presence of non-state actors, who autonomously act to implement unpredictable behaviour to the international system. Whether it is transnational corporations , liberation movements , non-governmental agencies , or international organizations , these entities have the potential to significantly influence the outcome of any international transaction. Additionally, this also includes the individual person as while the individual is what constitutes the states collective entity, the individual does have the potential to also create unpredicted behaviours. Al-Qaeda , as an example of a non-state actor, has significantly influenced the way states and non-state actors conduct international affairs. During the Cold War , the alignment of several nations to one side or another based on ideological differences or national interests has become an endemic feature of international relations. Unlike prior, shorter-term blocs, the Western and Soviet blocs sought to spread their national ideological differences to other nations. Truman under the Truman Doctrine believed it was necessary to spread democracy whereas the Warsaw Pact under Soviet policy sought to spread communism. After the Cold War, and the dissolution of the ideologically homogeneous Eastern bloc still gave rise to others such as the South-South Cooperation movement. Polarity international relations Polarity in international relations refers to the arrangement of power within the international system. The concept arose from bipolarity during the Cold War , with the international system dominated by the conflict between two superpowers , and has been applied retrospectively by theorists. However, the term bipolar was notably used by Stalin who said he saw the international system as a bipolar one with two opposing powerbases and ideologies. Consequently, the international system prior to can be described as multipolar, with power being shared among Great powers. Empires of the world in The collapse of the Soviet Union in had led to unipolarity, with the United States as a sole superpower, although many refuse to acknowledge the fact. Several theories of international relations draw upon the idea of polarity. The balance of power was a concept prevalent in Europe prior to the First World War , the thought being that by balancing power blocs it would create stability and prevent war. Here, the concepts of balancing rising in power to counter another and bandwagoning siding with another are developed. Hegemony is the preponderance of power at one pole in the international system, and the theory argues this is a stable configuration because of mutual gains by both the dominant power and others in the international system. This is contrary to many neorealist arguments, particularly made by Kenneth Waltz , stating that the end of the Cold War and the state of unipolarity is an unstable configuration that will inevitably change. It suggests that while hegemony can control the occurrence of wars, it also results in the creation of one. Its main proponent, A. Organski , argued this based on the occurrence of previous wars during British, Portuguese, and Dutch hegemony. Interdependence[edit] Many advocate that the current

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international system is characterized by growing interdependence; the mutual responsibility and dependency on others. Advocates of this point to growing globalization , particularly with international economic interaction. The role of international institutions, and widespread acceptance of a number of operating principles in the international system, reinforces ideas that relations are characterized by interdependence. NATO International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan Dependency theory is a theory most commonly associated with Marxism , stating that a set of core states exploit a set of weaker periphery states for their prosperity. Various versions of the theory suggest that this is either an inevitability standard dependency theory , or use the theory to highlight the necessity for change Neo-Marxist. Systemic tools of international relations[edit] Diplomacy is the practice of communication and negotiation between representatives of states. To some extent, all other tools of international relations can be considered the failure of diplomacy. Keeping in mind, the use of other tools are part of the communication and negotiation inherent within diplomacy. Sanctions, force, and adjusting trade regulations, while not typically considered part of diplomacy, are actually valuable tools in the interest of leverage and placement in negotiations. Sanctions are usually a first resort after the failure of diplomacy, and are one of the main tools used to enforce treaties. They can take the form of diplomatic or economic sanctions and involve the cutting of ties and imposition of barriers to communication or trade. War , the use of force, is often thought of as the ultimate tool of international relations. A popular definition is that given by Clausewitz , with war being "the continuation of politics by other means". There is a growing study into "new wars" involving actors other than states. The study of war in international relations is covered by the disciplines of " war studies " and " strategic studies ". The mobilization of international shame can also be thought of as a tool of international relations.

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Chapter 2 : List of Government of India agencies - Wikipedia

A Study of Authority and Relations in Chinese Governmental Agencies and Institutional Work Units: Neo-Patrimonialism in Urban Work Units of the Chinese work units is imbedded in the tendency.

Alexis de Tocqueville , French historian The word "centralization" came into use in France in as the post-French Revolution French Directory leadership created a new government structure. The word "decentralization" came into usage in the s. In the mids Tocqueville would write that the French Revolution began with "a push towards decentralization Tocqueville was an advocate, writing: And from the accumulation of these local, active, persnickety freedoms, is born the most efficient counterweight against the claims of the central government, even if it were supported by an impersonal, collective will. All my political ideas boil down to a similar formula: It blamed large-scale industrial production for destroying middle class shop keepers and small manufacturers and promoted increased property ownership and a return to small scale living. Hatfield , [14] Mildred J. Loomis [15] and Bill Kauffman. Schumacher , author of the bestseller Small is Beautiful: Economics As If People Mattered. Towards a Post-Welfare Agenda describes how after World War II governments pursued a centralized "welfarist" policy of entitlements which now has become a "post-welfare" policy of intergovernmental and market-based decentralization. According to a United Nations Development Programme report: This trend is coupled with a growing interest in the role of civil society and the private sector as partners to governments in seeking new ways of service delivery Decentralization of governance and the strengthening of local governing capacity is in part also a function of broader societal trends. These include, for example, the growing distrust of government generally, the spectacular demise of some of the most centralized regimes in the world especially the Soviet Union and the emerging separatist demands that seem to routinely pop up in one or another part of the world. Rather, these developments, as we have already noted, are principally being driven by a strong desire for greater participation of citizens and private sector organizations in governance. Those studying the goals and processes of implementing decentralization often use a systems theory approach. The United Nations Development Programme report applies to the topic of decentralization "a whole systems perspective, including levels, spheres, sectors and functions and seeing the community level as the entry point at which holistic definitions of development goals are most likely to emerge from the people themselves and where it is most practical to support them. It involves seeing multi-level frameworks and continuous, synergistic processes of interaction and iteration of cycles as critical for achieving wholeness in a decentralized system and for sustaining its development. An important property of agent systems is the degree of connectivity or connectedness between the agents, a measure global flow of information or influence. If each agent is connected exchange states or influence to all other agents, then the system is highly connected. In such a decentralized system, there is no single centralized authority that makes decisions on behalf of all the parties. Instead each party, also called a peer, makes local autonomous decisions towards its individual goals which may possibly conflict with those of other peers. Peers directly interact with each other and share information or provide service to other peers. An open decentralized system is one in which the entry of peers is not regulated. Any peer can enter or leave the system at any time Decentralization in government, the topic most studied, has been seen as a solution to problems like economic decline, government inability to fund services and their general decline in performance of overloaded services, the demands of minorities for a greater say in local governance, the general weakening legitimacy of the public sector and global and international pressure on countries with inefficient, undemocratic, overly centralized systems. Participation In decentralization the principle of subsidiarity is often invoked. It holds that the lowest or least centralized authority which is capable of addressing an issue effectively should do so. According to one definition: Decentralization brings decision-making back to the sub-national levels. Decentralization strategies must account for the interrelations of global, regional, national, sub-national, and local levels. Johnson writes that diversity plays an important role in decentralized systems

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like ecosystems , social groups , large organizations, political systems. Decentralized is defined as a property of a system where the agents have some ability to operate "locally. Decentralization promises to enhance efficiency through both inter-governmental competition with market features and fiscal discipline which assigns tax and expenditure authority to the lowest level of government possible. It works best where members of subnational government have strong traditions of democracy, accountability and professionalism. Brancati holds that decentralization can promote peace if it encourages statewide parties to incorporate regional demands and limit the power of regional parties. According to the United Nations Development Programme, it is "more than a process, it is a way of life and a state of mind. They can be initiated from the centers of authority " top-down " or from individuals, localities or regions " bottom-up " , [46] or from a "mutually desired" combination of authorities and localities working together. Governments deciding to privatize functions must decide which are best privatized. Existing types of decentralization must be studied. The appropriate balance of centralization and decentralization should be studied. Training for both national and local managers and officials is necessary, as well as technical assistance in the planning, financing, and management of decentralized functions. While in earlier years small towns were considered appropriate, by the s, 60, inhabitants was considered the size necessary to support a diversified job market and an adequate shopping center and array of services and entertainment. Appropriate size of governmental units for revenue raising also is a consideration. The unit may be larger than many decentralist bioregionalists prefer. Even when it happens slowly, there is a need for experimentation, testing, adjusting, and replicating successful experiments in other contexts. There is no one blueprint for decentralization since it depends on the initial state of a country and the power and views of political interests and whether they support or oppose decentralization. However, it may occur as "silent decentralization" in the absence of reforms as changes in networks, policy emphasize and resource availability lead inevitably to a more decentralized system. In both China and Russia, lower level authorities attained greater powers than intended by central authorities. In many countries, political, economic and administrative responsibilities may be decentralized to the larger urban areas, while rural areas are administered by the central government. Decentralization of responsibilities to provinces may be limited only to those provinces or states which want or are capable of handling responsibility. Some privatization may be more appropriate to an urban than a rural area; some types of privatization may be more appropriate for some states and provinces but not others. In his *The History of Nations* Henry Cabot Lodge wrote that Persian king Darius I BC was a master of organization and "for the first time in history centralization becomes a political fact. Sanderson wrote that over the last years chiefdoms and actual states have gone through sequences of centralization and decentralization of economic, political and social power. Chase-Dunn and Thomas D. Hall review other works that detail these cycles, including works which analyze the concept of core elites which compete with state accumulation of wealth and how their "intra-ruling-class competition accounts for the rise and fall of states" and of their phases of centralization and decentralization. Government decentralization has both political and administrative aspects. Its decentralization may be territorial, moving power from a central city to other localities, and it may be functional, moving decision-making from the top administrator of any branch of government to lower level officials, or divesting of the function entirely through privatization. It may be associated with pluralistic politics and representative government , but it also means giving citizens , or their representatives, more influence in the formulation and implementation of laws and policies. This process is accomplished by the institution of reforms that either delegate a certain degree of meaningful decision-making autonomy to subnational tiers of government, [71] or grant citizens the right to elect lower-level officials, like local or regional representatives. Decentralization reforms may occur for administrative reasons, when government officials decide that certain responsibilities and decisions would be handled best at the regional or local level. In democracies, traditionally conservative.

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Chapter 3 : Governance in China - OECD

Book Reviews: Huiying WEI-ARTHUS, A Study of Authority and Relations in Chinese Governmental Agencies and Institutional Work Units: Neo-Patrimonialism in Urban Work Units.

Administration and Society How administration acts and is acted upon by institutional forces and values; role of history, cultural, ethical, political, social, and economic values and institutions; an emphasis on: Quantitative Applications for Public Administration Exploring different methods of data analysis for understanding how public decisions are made and public policies are evaluated. Data collection; measurement; sampling; data analysis, including regression, are explored with practical applications. Organizational Theory in Public Administration A study of the key issues involved in the management of public organizations. This examination of organizational behavior and theories of complex organizations includes the following: Leadership styles; communication; organizational change; hierarchy and organizational structure; and organizational culture. State and Local Government State and local government will prepare students to understand the history of these governmental units and how they interact with the Federal government. Legislatures, executives, courts and city, and county councils are studied, particularly in terms of their emphasis on public policy. Public Budgeting This course examines the budget process, the use of economic analysis in evaluating taxation and expenditure issues, and the development and analysis of budget proposals. The course also includes discussion of burdens and effectiveness of different taxes and considers potential reforms to the budgeting process. Seminar in Public Management An inquiry into contemporary issues facing public managers. Topics that can be covered include: Administration of fiscal and human resources. Emphasis on resource acquisition, allocation, and development strategies; budgeting skills, debt, and financial management. Human asset management, labor relations, position classification and analysis, quality of work life and employment equity issues. Human Resources Management This course explores the development of the merit system in government; hiring and termination; career development; human resource planning; management-labor relations; equal opportunity; affirmative action; workplace diversity; and the legal dimension of the public personnel system. Ethics and Public Administration Prerequisite: The moral dimensions of public administrative decision-making. The nature of public and private morality; psychological and ethical egoism; relativism; utilitarianism and deontological theories; rights and goods in the public service context; sensitive applications of rules in public agencies. Public Policy Administration Prerequisites: Topics in Public Administration Selected topics meeting student needs and interests that are not met in other university courses. Nonprofit Management and Leadership This course explores important topics in the area of nonprofit management and leadership. Offered Spring Units: Internship in Public Administration Supervised work experience for a realistic exposure to an organizational-bureaucratic environment for students in the M. Approved for RP grading. See Criteria for Thesis and Project. For continuous enrollment while completing the thesis. May enroll twice with department approval. Additional enrollments must be approved by the Dean of Graduate Studies. Introduction to the study of democratic and authoritarian political systems; evaluation of the historical, cultural, and economic contexts of modern politics around the world; institutional structures and functions; political ideologies; individual and group participation in the political process; current issues. Fall, Spring GE Area: American Government and Institutions Prerequisite: Meets the United States Constitution requirement and the federal, California state, and local government requirement. Not open to students with credit in PLSI The development and operation of government in the United States; study of how ideas, institutions, laws, and people have constructed and maintained a political order in America. Methods of Analysis of Quantitative Political Data An introduction to hypothesis testing in political science, with applications to the analysis of quantitative political data; the formulation of research problems and hypotheses; accuracy and precision in measurements; problems of evidence and inference; basic techniques of statistical analysis. Open only to students who have satisfied United States Constitution requirement but have not

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satisfied California state and local government requirement. Examination of legislative, executive, judicial, and local government problems in California. California Politics Satisfies California state and local government requirement, if not used for political science major. Emphasis on the historical development of politics in California and the factors and institutions important to contemporary politics: The course examines how women have shaped and been shaped by U. Seminar in History of Political Thought Since Machiavelli Freedom and individual rights, democracy, majority rule, equality, law and authority, power, constitutionalism, property, social class and structure, and revolution traced through the writings of Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, Hume, Burke, Bentham, Hegel, Tocqueville, and Mill. Seminar in American Political Thought Analysis of democracy, majority rule and minority rights, constitutionalism, federalism, representation, pluralism, property, separation of powers, and judicial review based on the perspectives of representative early and contemporary American thinkers. Topics in Political Theory Possible topics include theories of democracy; the Marxian tradition; political thought of specific authors, historical periods and countries; peace and war; church-state relations; the nature of politics and of political science. Foundation and Breadth Area D. Dynamics of political interactions of nations; nationalism, imperialism and interdependence; national power and diplomacy; types of conflict, including war; peaceful settlement of disputes; current issues involving competing foreign policies, national development, energy, and national liberation movements. American Foreign Affairs Prerequisite: Formulation and execution of American foreign policy; constitutional frame work; role of the president and the executive branch, Congress, pressure groups and public opinion; contemporary problems and policies. Politics of Foreign Aid Theory and practice of foreign aid, including U. Russian Foreign Policy Historical and ideological sources of foreign policy of Russia and other former Soviet republics; continuity and change in methods, strategy, and tactics; policy formulation and application in specific geographic and subject matter areas. International Law and Organization The sources and subjects of international law; state jurisdiction and responsibility; international agreements; the regulation of force and the peaceful settlement of disputes through international law and organization, including the League of Nations, the United Nations, and regional organizations. Topics in International Relations Politics of military power; arms limitation and control; peace theory; ecopolitics; regionalism and cooperation; shifts in balance of power; nationalism; imperialism; neutralism and nonalignment; foreign policies of specific nations. International Human Rights This course explores the evolution of international human rights from World War II to today and the tension between national interests and moral values. Through films, assigned readings, research, and class lectures and discussions, students will learn about the key developments, issues and obstacles in the protection of human rights worldwide and the key players in the promotion of human rights protection. Approaches to Comparative Politics Prerequisite: Exploration of theories, models, and conceptual frameworks for the comparative study of political systems and subsystems; methodological rather than an area emphasis. Russian Politics A study of the political systems of Russia and other former Soviet republics. Changes in relations between state and society; change and continuity in political culture; trends in policy making; issues of relations between nationality groups. Area Studies in Eastern Europe Government and politics of Eastern Europe; or government, politics, and institutions of selected countries. Latin American Politics Discusses the role of the military and violence in Latin American politics, the role of civilian groups with emphasis on democratization, and the influence of other nations - especially the United States - on Latin American politics. Seminar in Comparative Government Parliamentary systems, problems and goals of developing nations, federal systems, comparative local government, parties and pressure groups, and multi-party systems. Public Policy Making Examines the institutional and political processes by which public policy is formulated, adopted, and implemented. Individual instruction on student papers students with fundamental writing deficiencies will be required to enroll in ENGL 1L, 1 unit, concurrently. Political Participation and Political Parties Political parties; nature and extent of citizen political activity; election of public officials; political organization of government. Public Opinion and Political Behavior Examines the origins and expression of political attitudes and beliefs, including voting and other political participation, and how public opinion

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influences public policy. Special attention is given to partisanship, elections, and voting. Presidential Politics Examines the history, development, and operation of the U. Special attention is given to the rise of the modern presidency, presidential power constitutional and extra-constitutional, presidential speech, presidential elections, and the importance of public opinion for presidential power. Congressional Politics Examines the history, development, and operation of the U. Special attention is given to congressional elections, congressional-presidential relations, and the policy-making process. Interest Group Politics In this course students learn why people join interest groups, study the size and ideological diversity of the national interest group system, and learn the circumstances under which lobbyists for these groups can influence how American public policy is made. Topics in Political Behavior Voting behavior, political alienation, leadership, political perceptions and knowledge, environmental effects on political participation, group processes, and political socialization. Environmental Politics Examines theory, concepts, and practices in U. Topics include ecological principles, the history and philosophy of environmentalism, the contemporary political conflict over environmental policy, and environmental policy analysis. Internship in Political Science Prerequisite: Maximum credit toward the political science major, 3 units. Seminar in American Government and Politics Congressional committee operations, policy making by the courts, political implications of civil service, executive initiation of legislation, minority groups and politics, political implications of news reporting; jurisprudence and legal philosophy; legal institutions; conflict resolution. American Political Economics This course will review US political economic history beginning with Alexander Hamilton and the first national bank system. The course will also focus on recessions, financial regulation, the effect of the economy on voting, the role of the Federal Reserve Bank, and the use of government policy by national government and local governments to advance economic growth. The course will include a mid term and final examination and a research paper. State and Local Governments The organization, structure, powers, and functions of state and local governments. Social Movement Politics Students will learn how and why social movements form, including what kinds of grievances lead to political organization. They will also study the tactics movements use, and why some movements are successful in their political advocacy while others are not. Municipal Government Organization, powers, and functions of city government; types of city charters, relationship between city and state government; police and fire protection, education, water supply, health and sanitation, city planning, debts and taxation, public utilities. Seminar in Metropolitan Government and Politics Regional and area intergovernmental relations, urban renewal, human relations agencies, and taxation methodologies. Constitutional Law, the Federal Structure Judicial Review, powers of the president, powers of Congress, federalism, and the contract clause and due process -- economic rights through case studies of leading Supreme Court decisions. Constitutional Law, Civil Liberties, and Civil Rights Free speech and association, freedom of press, commercial free speech, obscenity, religion guarantees, fourth, fifth, sixth, and eighth amendment issues, and social and political equality through case studies of leading Supreme Court decisions. Politics and the Court An introduction to the judicial process: Water Politics and Policy This course focuses on the development of policy regarding the ownership and use of surface and ground water in the American West, California, and the Central Valley. It also examines the political clash between economic and environmental demands for water. Seminar in Public Law Administrative law, international law, judicial administration, jurisprudence, legal institutions. Moot Court 1 The purpose of this course is to educate undergraduate students about the American Legal system jurisprudence, and appellate advocacy. Students receive training in oral advocacy and deliver arguments before a panel of judges. Public Administration General analysis of the field of public administration; administrative theories; policy and administration; behavioralism; budgeting, planning, and legal framework. Management and Organization Administrative organization; methods; systems and procedures; problem solving; systems analysis; reports and records; resources management. Comparative Administration Theories of comparative public administration; cross-national comparisons of administrative processes; institutions, policy formation, and behavior with consideration of cultural, social, and economic environments. Public Budgeting and Economy Policy

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Examines the administrative and political considerations of revenue generation and expenditure; budget types; the budgetary process and analysis; capital budgeting and debt administration; intergovernmental fiscal relations; monetary and fiscal policy. Public Personnel Management Examines the evolution of public personnel administration including the development of merit principles, equal employment opportunity, and affirmative action; recruitment, selection, and career development; classification techniques; theories of motivation; public sector labor relations. Topics in Public Administration Treatment of current topics and problems in fiscal administration, public personnel administration, and planning.

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Chapter 4 : DEVELOPMENT STUDIES / INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

*A Study of Authority and Relations in Chinese Governmental Agencies and Institutional Work Units: New-Patrimonialism in Urban Work Units (Chinese Studies, 10) [Huiying Wei-Arthus] on racedaydvl.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers.*

Further adapting institutions and the functioning of the state to an increasingly market-oriented economy is crucial to maintain economic dynamism. Governance reform is also fundamental to address emerging strains related to rising inequalities and environmental deterioration. This report goes beyond the general statement that governance matters. It shows how, in practice, governance impacts on public action by looking at different policy sectors, such as agriculture, higher education, labour market and social protection, foreign investment, environment protection, collection of statistics, protection of intellectual property rights, banking and tax collection. The study also takes stock of the progress made in public management and public finance and explores policy options for the future. Further redefining the role of the state, modernising public management, adjusting the relations between levels of government and consolidating the institutional framework for market forces are four directions in which reform efforts should be pursued. OECD member countries target a development path built on three pillars: Good governance is thus seen as a crucial element to address challenges and fault lines facing a nation and to ensure sustainable development. China is now undergoing a crucial transformation in its system of governance, adapting institutions and the functioning of the state to an increasingly market-oriented economy. This transformation is also being spurred by key strains that have emerged related to fiscal and financial imbalances, rising inequalities and environmental deterioration. In , the OECD initiated a project to share with China the expertise of its member countries on governance issues. The China Governance Project was also the opportunity to better understand the challenges faced by China and to organise policy dialogues on these issues. This project was undertaken in the framework of the programme of co-operation between the OECD and China, initiated in . It thus benefited from a relationship of mutual trust established between the OECD Secretariat and Chinese ministries and bodies in many areas. Civil Service Reform in China. The Chinese Government has undertaken extensive reforms to its civil service system over the past 10 years. These have encompassed recruitment and selection, training, appraisal, rewards and punishments, compensation, discipline and other areas. This chapter reviews each of these elements. The chapter argues that the capacity of the civil service has improved during the past 10 years. The rapid expansion of higher education since has produced a large population that is eligible for civil service employment. The Reform of Public Service Units: Following on from the reform of SOEs and core government, the reform of PSUs represents the third major step of reforms that aim at transforming the organisational structure of the public sector into one that assists the socialist market economy. This chapter tracks the development of corruption, analyses the causes for its perceived or real expansion, as well as reforms and policies that the Chinese authorities have adopted in response. E-government in China E-government refers to the use of information and communication technologies, and particularly the Internet, as a tool to achieve better government. Institutional Arrangements for the Production of Statistics Chinese statistics have come a long way from a pure reporting system in a centrally planned economy to a system that increasingly relies on surveys and modern statistical techniques to service users, be they government or the public at large. Nonetheless, many challenges remain. In recent years, the quality of Chinese economic statistics, in particular the growth rate of real GDP and other data has been repeatedly questioned by several Chinese and western authors. Governance in Taxation in China With its transition to a market-oriented economy, China has gone through major tax reforms in the last two decades. Significant measures to improve governance in taxation were implemented, including unifying tax laws, equalizing tax burdens, simplifying the tax system, rationalizing the decentralized system and standardizing revenue allocation methods between the central and local governments. Public Sector Budgeting Issues in China China has undertaken extensive

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reforms to its budgeting system over the past 10 years. These have encompassed the entire budgeting cycle: China has made crucial progress in this field. The early challenge was fundamentally to create the institutional infrastructure for a modern budget process where none had previously existed. In the planned economy, all resource allocation decisions were made in the plan with the budget serving essentially as a secondary accounting device. Nevertheless, significant problems remain. To protect workers, the government has set up public institutions for many social and administrative functions that until recently pertained to work units danwei or did not exist. This chapter focuses on three such functions for which the Labour Law makes the government responsible: Competition Law and Policy in China This chapter focuses on two issues, namely: The Domestic Policy Challenges and will here be discussed from a governance perspective. Governance of Banks in China The conceptual framework for governance in banking reflects the special role of banks in a market economy. In order for the bank to act as a profit-oriented corporation, it must have genuine owners and the corporate governance regime should enable the owners to hold the management accountable for achieving a competitive return at acceptable risk. Therefore, banks operate in a regulated environment. Intellectual Property Rights in China: Governance Challenges and Prospects Today, top leaders in the Chinese Government have become aware of the importance for China to build a sound intellectual property rights IPR system. China has thus, over the past two decades, quickly developed a set of IPR laws and regulations that are today basically in conformity with international practice and standards. The main challenge for the coming years is to improve upon the governance of the legislative, administrative and enforcement systems in order to make the existing laws more effective in stimulating innovation and protecting IPR. The Governance Challenges of Foreign Investment Policy in China Foreign investment has played a major part in economic development and economic growth in China. When economic reforms commenced in the late s, there was no framework for foreign investment. Thus, existing government structures were adapted and legislation created anew in the form of separate legislative enactments for each form of foreign-invested enterprise FIE. China has subsequently received large quantities of foreign direct investment FDI in the past quarter of a century, rising to nearly USD 55 billion in Institutional Framework for Effective Agricultural Policy: However, agriculture remains a sensitive area and is subject to intervention. This chapter describes the main institutions dealing with agricultural policies, with some suggestions for next steps in the reform process. Environment and Governance in China China has made remarkable progress in sustaining high economic growth rates, raising incomes and lengthening life expectancy. However, the pattern of economic growth, rapid industrialization and urbanization has not been environmentally sustainable. These processes have generated high pressures on the environment, including surface and ground waters, air in urban areas, land and natural resources. This in turn has adversely affected human health and the productivity of natural resources. If the state of the environment continues to deteriorate, these problems will intensify and the potential for maintaining economic growth may be undermined. Higher Education “ Finance and Quality In its quest to become a major player in the global market, China has made impressive strides in many domains, not least in the area of higher education. The Chinese Government recognizes the key role of education in realizing its goals in other domains, and the Ninth Five-Year Plan and the current Tenth Five-Year Plan have seen enrolment in tertiary institutions more than double from 9. It has also witnessed the rapid rise in the number of non-government min ban institutions that compete with the older, better-established state ones.

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Chapter 5 : Reform of the forest sector in China

Book Reviews: Huiying WEI-ARTHUS, A Study of Authority and Relations in Chinese Governmental Agencies and Institutional Work Units: Neo-Patrimonialism in Urban Work Units. Lewiston, N.Y.: The Edwin Mellen Press, pp., with bibliography and index.

In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: An International Journal 3. University of California Press, Cambridge University Press, Whiting, Power and Wealth in Rural China: The Political Economy of Institutional Change. China Studies used to be treated as one of many area studies. Though China scholars rarely denied that China Studies could benefit from the development of social sciences, fewer were ready and willing to apply general social science theories to their studies of China. For example, in an article written in , Harry Harding concluded that "the process of integrating China Studies and comparative politics has not gone far enough". China Studies have been greatly influenced by the development of general social science theories. It is reasonable to argue that great progress in China Studies has been achieved due to the expansion of social sciences into this field. Today, China is no longer regarded as "unique" and [End Page] excluded from social science studies. Not only have China experts begun to apply social science theories to China, but academics who focus on general social science theories have also made attempts to include China as their research subject. Such a development is especially true in the study of central-local relations in China. In doing so, they have turned to institutional economics to construct theories. The three books under review here are among some of the most serious scholarly works on this topic. Institutions, according to Douglass North, "are made up of formal constraints rules, laws, constitutions , informal constraints norms of behaviour, conventions, and self-imposed codes of conduct , and their enforcement characteristics". Assuming that institutions form the incentive structure of a society, and political and economic institutions are the underlying determinant of economic performance, scholars are interested in how political actors define their interests and structure their relations of power with other groups, and how institutions shape political strategies and influence political outcomes. As Peter Hall points out, "Institutional factors play two fundamental roles". On the one [End Page] hand, the organisation of policy-making affects the degree of power that any one set of actors has over the policy outcomes. Furthermore, scholars are also interested in how institutional changes take place. A general assumption is that as social and economic actors coalesce to pursue their own interests, they in turn influence state institutions and public policies. Robert Bates contends, "When political actors intervene in the economy and seek to restructure economic relations, the policies they choose depend upon the incentives generated by the institutional context within which You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

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Chapter 6 : Political Science

Central-local relations are a core but problematic issue in China's reform process. The conventional wisdom is that the economic reforms have considerably weakened control by the central government over economic activities in the localities.

Federalism and the Separation of Powers Chapter Study Outline Introduction One great achievement of the American founding was the creation of an effective constitutional structure of political institutions. Two important aspects of the U. Federalism limits government by creating two sovereign powers—the national government and state governments—thereby restraining the influence of both. Separation of powers imposes internal limits by dividing government against itself, giving different branches separate functions and forcing them to share power. Federalism and Institutional Jurisdictions What is federalism? Why did the Founders adopt a federal rather than a unitary system? What kinds of federal relationships did the Constitution establish and how? How and why has the federal balance of power changed over time? Federalism is the system of government in which power is divided between a central government and regional governments; in the United States, both the national government and the state governments possess a large measure of sovereignty. The framers of the Constitution granted a few expressed powers to the national government, reserving the remainder of powers to the states. Federalism also involves the complex relationships among the various states. Federalism also involves some limitations on state authority, particularly involving relationships between state governments. Local governments, while not recognized in the Constitution, are used by states in conducting the activities of government. *Maryland and Gibbons v. Ogden*, while the states did most of the governing. Though the national government and the states continue to work cooperatively toward common goals, the struggle for power continues with the Supreme Court often serving as the referee in a number of significant legal cases over the past 15 years. The Separation of Powers How did the Constitution divide power between the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government? What are the different roles played by each of these branches in American national government? Separation of powers divides power among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches as distinct departments of American national government. This also establishes a system of checks and balances in which power is divided to ensure that no one branch becomes predominant. Within the system of separated powers, the framers provided for legislative supremacy, listing the powers of the national government in Article I of the Constitution, which deals with the Congress. Presidential government has emerged, particularly after , such that Congress and the president perpetually compete for control of the national government, particularly during periods of divided government. The separation of powers system of checks and balances relies on the goal-seeking behavior of politicians acting within the various institutions of the national government. Exemplifying the Rationality Principle, the give-and-take between the legislative and executive branches is fueled by the ambitions of the politicians working within those institutions. Norton and Company, Inc.

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Chapter 7 : Project MUSE - Institutional Economics and Central-Local Relations in China: Evolving Research

Another remarkable work on the endogeneity of institutional design led by Ho () finds that property rights in Chinese housing stem from endogenous developments. Housing property rights are analyzed in a legal sociology sense, that is, how the structure of Chinese housing rights developed into its current form.

They define identity and roles 4. A great deal of the work of the English School concerns the examination of traditions of past international theory, casting it, as Martin Wight did in s-era lectures at London School of Economics, into three divisions: The latter include postmodernist, postcolonial and feminist approaches, which differ from both realism and liberalism in their epistemological and ontological premise. Marxists view the international system as an integrated capitalist system in pursuit of capital accumulation. Constructivists believe that these ideational factors can often have far-reaching effects and that they can trump materialist power concerns. For example, constructivists note that an increase in the size of US military is likely to be viewed with much greater concern in Cuba, a traditional antagonist of the US, than in Canada, a close ally. Therefore, there must be perceptions at work in shaping international outcomes. Constructivists also believe that social norms, shape and change foreign policy over time rather than security which realists cite. Rather than the self-interest that realists see as a motivating factor, functionalists focus on common interests shared by states. Integration develops its own internal dynamic: This usage, and the usage in functionalist in international relations, is the less commonly used meaning of the term functionalism. More commonly, however, functionalism is a term used to describe an argument which explains phenomena as functions of a system rather than an actor or actors. Immanuel Wallerstein employed a functionalist theory when he argued that the Westphalian international political system arose to secure and protect the developing international capitalist system. Functionalism is different from structural or realistic arguments in that while both look to broader, structural causes, realists and structuralists more broadly say that the structure gives incentives to agents, while functionalists attribute casual power to the system itself, bypassing agents entirely. Political scientists, much like the scientists investigating the origins of the universe, must piece together theories that explain past and current events based on data they can assemble. This is a daunting task since either there may not be a single answer to the question they are asking, or the unambiguous evidence they need to provide a fruitful hypothesis may no longer exist, assuming that it ever did. Some of the questions posed by these political scientists are: Realists believe that states are situated in the anarchy of world politics where every state purely looks out for its own national interests. Realists measure power according to material capabilities like military expenditures troop levels and natural resources. Peace, according to Realists, is only sustainable through a balance of power among several states, as opposed to a bi-polar, hegemonic world. The essential components of Realism are best summarized by Kenneth Waltz as: States are involved in unending struggle with each other, because that is the nature of state in an anarchic world; power is necessary to survive in it or to continue to fight; all states are potential enemies Waltz, 30 Liberal institutionalists believe that states can achieve security through construction of international regimes and structures. States can engage each other through these structures, learning norms of peaceful cooperation and developing a common interest in the status quo. Liberalism is most closely associated with the work of Immanuel Kant who argued that peace is achieved through international institutions and the spread of democracy. A grand debate has taken place over the last several decades of Realism and Liberalism. Critical international Relations theories CT developed as alternatives challenging these dominant paradigms, primarily Realism. Precisely defining CT is very difficult task, but roughly it is interdisciplinary endeavor, combining political science, international relations, sociology, history, psychology and other fields to formulate different theories of world politics. There are many different theories under the rubric CT, some examples include constructivism, identity politics and post structuralism. The main goal of the CT project is to provide an alternative to the Realist view of the world that more accurately explain world politics. Identity politics explores world politics from the view point that IR

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can best be explained by analyzing a collection of identities, rather than states. Instead of taking the state as the given and only relevant unit of analysis, these theories imagine the possibility of many different states, many distinct identities. It then follows that alternative kinds of states do not treat each other in similar manner. This approach has been used to explain many of the hard questions in international politics that realism has difficulty answering. Consider the vast number of adjectives used to describe Russia in our every day discourse in journals and newspapers. According to theories of Identity Politics, we can best understand Russian behavior by studying these particular identities and how policy choices influence these identities. So Identity Politics consider a dramatically different set of variables than does Realism. Further more, whereas Realists measures solely the role of states in world politics, critical theories take a more expensive course, incorporating NGOs, transnational corporations and factors like domestic politics into their explanation of world politics. Finally, critical theorists are very concerned wit inability of Realism to explain major events in world politics such as the end of the Cold War and the two world wars. Confidence building measures, trade agreements such as GATT or the WTO, and climate treaties are all examples of policies based upon the rationale of Liberal Institutionalism, in that these structures and institutions should encourage peaceful behavior. Typically arguments against these cooperative measures are based on a pessimistic, realistic view of the world. Another common example of the use of international relations in debate is the advocacy of disadvantages about geopolitics. Such arguments will be common on the Russia topic, focusing on Japan, China, and India. These disadvantages are rooted in Realism, a theory that places priority on the role of geopolitics, territory and material capabilities in determining security. Threat Construction is an argument based on identity politics constructivism which places an emphasis on identity, meaning and discourse in world politics. The evidence of this argument is derived from studies of linguists, discourse, identity and culture. Policies aimed at these constructed threats, and seek to remedy them with deterrent or hard-line solutions are the targets of these criticism. Examples of cases that are subject to this criticism are ones that warn of virulent Russian nationalism and its expansionist tendencies. A case that deters potential Russian aggression by stationing troops in neighboring states would be another example. A non-military example would be a case that uses economic sanctions influence Russian behavior. One would argue that these plans created self fulfilling prophesies or threats. These arguments are supported by claims that identities are constantly changing and adapting, and are influenced by others or mutually constitutive. William Wolfforth, a fellow of international security studies at Yale University describes this process as it patterns to Russia: It is very difficult to persuade these new Russian strategies that any person knowledgeable about world affairs could possibly believe such notions to be myths. Some affirmative plans will depend greatly on the theories of Realism. These assumptions are clearly Realist. These statements clearly reflect a Realist framework. The dominant paradigms offer plausible, albeit alternative and conflicting explanations of Russia behavior without reference to any exceptionalist claims regarding the putative uniqueness of Russian history, culture, or political values. Not only do the dominant paradigms offer no validation for exceptionalist claims, the possibility for the validation of such claims as default explanations is obscured by the nature of theories. References to the imperialist policies of the Soviet Union, when they occur, are invariably linked textually to examples of imperialist practice by other states. Thus, for example, Soviet Imperialist in post Eastern Europe and the westward expansion of the American colonies are described as typical example of a tendency of stronger states to extend their influence over weaker political units or into power of vacuums. For Morgenthau, Communist ideology functioned much as various other ideologies which been wielded by expansionist powers to justify and legitimize policies of expansion. Russian imperialism has successively or simultaneously made use of the orthodox faith, Pan Slavism, world revolution and defense from capitalist encirclement. For Morgenthau and other Realists: These ubiquitous inclinations assumed varying forms and manifestations in international relations. Significantly, in his extended discussion of the international politics and soviet imperial politics in the post World War II, Morgenthau saw little need to mention Stalin he is referred to three times, in passing in Politics among Nations or dwell on particular characteristics of the Soviet

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regime. George Kennan, Arnold Wolfers and Raymond Aron, all of whom contributed to the Realist narrative of international relations, did devote more attention than Morgenthau to the nature of Soviet regime. Among these theorists, however, only Kennan dwelled on the conditioning influence of particular features of Russia and Soviet history, and the Bolshevik mentality on the behavior of the Soviet Union in International Relations. Significantly, Kennan differed from the other Realists in at least two important respects. First he had had direct experience with the Soviet system, and perhaps of greater importance he was not primarily concerned, as Morgenthau, Wolfers and Aron were, with the articulation of a general theory of international relations. Kennan saw distinctive and abnormal behavior of international policies of Lenin and Stalin, but Kennan, much like Adam Ulam, concluded that the aberrant character lessened under the force of circumstance and moved increasingly toward the great power norm. At the height of the Cold War, Kennan offered a conclusion about soviet behavior which both reflected his stance as a realist and appeared, in the context of the times, highly iconoclastic. The relationship we have with Soviet Union has to be compared with what we can call the normal level of recalcitrance, of sheer orneriness and unreasonableness which we encounter in the behavior of states any where and which I am sure we often manifest in our own. Russian governments have always been difficult to do business with; this is nothing new in kind-if any thing is new about it, it is only a matter of degree Kennan, The reconstruction of the international relations and, implicitly, the Soviet Union, in Realistic discourse was profoundly political in implication and effect. It encouraged movement away from one mode of ideological thinking about the Soviet Union and the reimagination of the Soviet Union as a Greater Power involved in efforts to preserve and extend its power that were common historically in the behavior of states. Spanier In the terms of what become the dominant model of post-war international relations in Western theory, Soviet behavior toward the world, far from being exceptional, appeared normal for a Superpower under conditions of bipolarity. According to the overwhelming majority of international relations IR scholars, the costs are very high. We evaluate the key arguments that underlie this assessment, namely that increased US unilateralism will: We conclude that the theoretical arguments that IR scholars advance do not show that a shift toward unilateralism necessarily has high costs. Our analysis reveals the need to, first, distinguish clearly between criticism of unilateral policies based on procedure and those based on substance and, second, to recognize the weakness of current procedural arguments. International relation scholars, by contrast, have typically touted the benefits of multilateralism in general and for the United States in particular, while stressing the heavy costs of unilateralism. Scholarly concerns about the costs of unilateralism came to the fore in , when it appeared that President George W. While the debate encompasses many different issues, it was the sagacity of going it alone in security affairs that was most salient in the election and is now poised to become the defining foreign policy distinction between the Democratic and republic parties. Important though it is, the distinction is one of degree. Unilateralism and multilateralism are best understood as two ends of a continuum, and it is a mistake to view any politician or party as being at one end or the other. The debate is not about a wholesale abandonment of all multilateral commitments, but rather about the wisdom of moving to more strategic approach to unilateralism. During the post-World War II period, American policy makers commonly saw unilateralism as a last resort, to be pursued only when multilateralism carried great costs or was impossible. The Bush administration, in contrast, advertised a greater willingness to go it alone, seeming to view multilateralism much more instrumentally- as a strategy to be followed when doing so it is easy or especially advantageous, but never as an end in itself, and certainly not one whose pursuit merits bearing high costs. This raises fundamental question: What are the general costs associated with a shift toward unilateralism? President Bush escaped the most salient, short-term domestic downside-electrical defeat. Bush not only emerged the victor, but did so in large part because voters judged him to be superior on foreign policy issues. Notwithstanding their vigorous debates over theory, methodology, epistemology, ontology, not to mention other aspects of U. Significantly, recent criticisms of this kind come not just from institutionalists and constructivists whose scholarly writings highlight the importance of international institutions-but also from prominent representatives of the realist theoretical tradition as well Walt, ; Martin, ; Reus-Smit To any

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one familiar with this normally squabbling scholarly community, such widespread is noteworthy. The analysts have advanced the arguments on the following issues concerning increased U. These claims roughly correspond to the three major schools of IR theory: The argument is derived from balance-of-power theory, long a staple of realist thinking and practice. Nevertheless, influential contemporary formulations of the theory yield the argument that by strongly demonstrating its multilateral credentials, the United States can signal benign intent and thus forestall counterbalancing.

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Chapter 8 : Decentralization - Wikipedia

Existing agencies and government units generally resist any loss of authority. The larger units gain efficiencies in production, but frequently at the cost of reducing the ability of local units to vary the provision of services to reflect heterogeneous local preferences (Carr & Feiock,).

State Forestry Administration Organizational reform before During the period of national postwar economic reconstruction “”, the main goals in Chinese forestry development were to contribute capital for the initiation of industrialization and to provide timber for large-scale construction. Therefore the forestry sector at that time was focused on timber harvesting and exploitation. In Northeast, Southwest and South China, forests were logged on a large scale. However, from to attention turned towards vegetative rehabilitation and species protection. During the s, problems associated with the increasing seriousness of forest degradation and the greater frequency of natural disasters were addressed by the state. Since then, vegetative cover has gradually improved through harvest management, regeneration of logged-over woodland and the establishment of state-owned forest plantations on barren mountainsides and land suitable for forests and nature reserves. Protected areas have also been established. Under the latter, there were 35 commissions, ministries, administrative offices and councils, which were in charge of state administration. At that juncture, the Ministry of Forestry and Land Reclamation internally established the following branches: Agriculture and forestry ministries were established in the northeast, northwest, east, middle south and southwest administrative areas, respectively. Agriculture and forestry departments Ting in Chinese were components of each provincial government. On 5 November , the Ministry of Forestry and Land Reclamation was renamed the Ministry of Forestry as a result of administrative reclamation affairs being transferred to the Ministry of Agriculture. By , the initial year of the first five-year plan in China, over forestry-related agencies had been set up nationwide. In a significant streamlining took place at different levels in central and local government. The Ministry of Forestry continued in administering nationwide afforestation, forest management and production of forest products through its ten departments and bureaus. This resulted in an inevitable administrative dichotomy between forest harvesting and forest cultivation. Between and , a third comparatively major reform of government agencies was carried out to effect national economic adjustment and by the end of there were 79 agencies under the State Council. During the Cultural Revolution “”, government departments experienced radical changes. In , the 79 agencies were either disestablished or incorporated among 32 new offices, of which 13 were led by the military. The number of central governmental agencies dropped to its lowest since liberation. In June of that year, the Ministry of Forestry was disbanded and incorporated with five other organizations including the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Agriculture Reclamation into the Revolutionary Committee of Agriculture and Forestry. In early , it was renamed the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. When the Gang of Four was smashed in , the administrative system and organizational set up of the late s were adopted and developed to enhance governmental rehabilitation as the economy had almost collapsed. The offices of the State Council increased in number to in , reaching their highest level since liberation. But over the course of gradually deepening reform, the overstaffed administrative organizations were handicapped by the demands of the open door policy, minor reforms and economic and social development. Thus there was an urgent need for re-invention. After the Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and during the initial stages of reform and introduction of the open door policy, forestry reconstruction became a major objective. The state re-enforced the forest sector according to working requirements and underscored the independence of forestry administration. The combined structure of the national agriculture and forestry administration system was, however, not changed fundamentally. In May , it was decided to make the state forestry administration directly subordinate to the State Council. The new set up was administered by the Ministry of Agriculture on behalf of the State Council. In February , the Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council decided to detach forestry functions

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from the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and form the Ministry of Forestry as the ministry responsible for national forestry management and the forest industry. Organizational reform in Reform of the state administrative system From , top-down organizational reforms at different levels were carried out by the State Council to harmonize with economic reforms and the open door policy launched after the Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the CPC. Large-scale reform lasted for three years and was aimed at structuring and perfecting communist party and governmental organizations at various levels. The reform was based on enhancing human resources and simplifying administration and also aimed at reconstructing government to allow further development of economic reforms. Economic administrative departments were therefore disestablished or incorporated to provide optimum conditions for deepening economic reform. Consequently, some of the more mature departments were transformed into economic organizations. Retirement systems were put in place and selection of younger staff with higher education and skill levels was encouraged. Mandatory age and educational requirements were stipulated for heads of department at different levels. Assistant positions were also reduced and, consequently, the quality of senior management improved considerably. To simplify administration, the number of ministries, subordinate offices and administrative bodies in the state council was reduced from to With respect to staffing, the total number of positions was reduced from 51 to 30 and the average age of senior officers fell from 64 to 60 at the ministry level and from 58 to 54 at the bureau level. During the reform, efforts were aimed at reconstructing and optimizing the administrative system. A breakthrough was achieved by simplifying leading groups at different administrative levels, abandoning lifetime positions for senior staff and increasing the rate of influx of younger staff. An overall revolution in administration was not, however, called for as the economic reforms at the time focused primarily on rural areas. As a result, the highly concentrated administrative system supporting the planned economy remained intact and a full transformation of governmental functions could not be realized. In rural areas households were given forestry-related responsibilities under contract according to defined outputs. Between and , peasant households operated 71 percent of the collective forest land under contract. Timber markets in Northern China and the Central Plains were then liberalized and, at first, planned timber production was greatly reduced. There was, therefore, a good degree of flexibility in the system and the market economy was thus gradually introduced. Ultimately, however, the government structure, designed to operate as a planned economy, could not adapt to the demands of rapid economic development. The reform course The Ministry of Forestry MoF continued to improve and fine tune its structure and functions after its revival in During the first organizational reform in , the MoF, as the administrative body for national forestry under the State Council, was given independent status. Its main work was to enact and enforce forestry principles, policies and acts of the Party and the state. The forestry reform in involved three main thrusts: The ministry had more functions after than during the nascent period of New China. The additional social functions meant that forestry administrative management was not only more complicated but also less manoeuvrable. Forestry administrative structure in Organizational reform in Reform of the state administrative system In , the State Council decided to conduct organizational reform within the government to check the overexpansion that occurred after the reform. The main reasons for reform remained, however, the intensively focused economic reform plan and the fact that many governmental functions had not been transferred. For the first time the reform necessitated re-organization of government functions to increase macroregulatory power and to regulate trade, while the roles of distributing capital and materials and direct intervention in enterprise management were addressed by specialized economic entities. Reforms aimed to rationally allocate functions, scientifically divide responsibilities and adjust organizational structure to strengthen macromanagement and weaken micromanagement. As such, direct management by the economic administrative bodies was to be exchanged for indirect management. In addition, roles would be altered and the working styles improved to raise administrative efficiency and enhance operational mechanisms. Lastly, legislation for governmental administration would be accelerated. The most important issue was reform of economic administrative bodies to maintain pace with reform of the economic system. During the reform, the number of ministries and

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commissions under the State Council was reduced from 45 to 41; departments directly subordinate to the State Council were reduced from 22 to 19; non-standing organizations decreased from 75 to 44; 20 percent of departments and bureaus within the ministries and commissions were cut. Among the 66 ministries, commissions and bureaus of the State Council, over 15 staff in 32 agencies were redeployed. But in another 30 agencies, there was an increase of 5 staff members. Thus 9 staff were redeployed after structural reform.

Forestry situation before reform The reform of the State Council system coincided with moves being made towards a market economy in China. During this period, the core state forestry policies focused on increasing timber production to satisfy the growing demand for forest products. Fast-growing and high-yielding plantations of the empress tree *Paulownia tomentosa* were established in Northern China and the Central Plains to meet the rapidly increasing requirements associated with residential house construction in the countryside. Reform in forest tenure in the south resulted in overharvesting of forestry resources in collectively owned forest areas and the associated ecological damage drew attention from the state government. Control measures to mitigate threats from soil and water erosion, desertification and wind in Northwest, North and Northeast China were initiated and the Three North Shelterbelt programme was initiated. A policy on forest resource harvesting quotas became effective in the following year. Forestry reform course

The highlight of the governmental re-organization was the reshaping of governmental duties, which subsequently became more precise and explicit. Based on the requirements stipulated by the State Council, the MoF reshuffled its departments and expanded their mandates to: Enhance and supplement comprehensive responsibilities by exploring research needs and supervising forest economic reform. Adjust vocational and professional components. Revise administration of the forest industry, e. Protect forest resources with the help of a special police force. Monitor the import and export of endangered species. Conserve national water and soil resources. Address rural energy needs. The societal functions of the ministry remained generally unchanged. During the organizational reform, the MoF was an independent ministry under the State Council. The reform process followed a top-down sequence: However local organizational reform did not transpire for legislative reasons. As a result, local forestry departments or bureaus retained their status as of

In addition, the state civilian system was supposed to emulate the reform and a team of highly qualified and skilled administrators was put together to develop a governmental administrative system, adaptable to the socialist market economy system, but displaying inherently Chinese characteristics. The principles of the reform included: As a result of the reform, the number of the organizations in and under the State Council was reduced from 40 to 29, besides the General Office of the State Council. There were 12 new agencies for government administration, four for macrocontrol, eight for specialized economic administration and five for education, science and technology, culture, social security and natural resource management. In addition, offices were shifted from departments of the State Council to new venues. One-fourth of the departments and bureaus were eliminated within ministries and there was a

After the reform, the proportion of middle-aged and young staff in the new State Council agencies increased from 53 to 59 percent. As part of these reforms, the MoF was renamed the State Forestry Administration at the beginning of the year. Forestry situation before the reform

In , severe natural disasters “ floods and sandstorms ” occurred in China. Financial input from the state reached unprecedented levels, with an annual investment of 40 billion yuan 2 “ equal to the sum total of investments over the previous 50 years.