N .N	PADM	padm ⁻ 1955	\mathbf{P}	Dispatch: July 6, 2011	Journal: PADM	
LASER	Journal Name	Manuscript No.	\mathbf{D}	Author Received:	No of pages: 16	TS: Karthik

doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9299.2011.01955.x

THE FRENCH STATE AND ITS TERRITORIAL CHALLENGES

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7 This article focuses upon the territorial challenges to the French state. There is a genuine policy 8 puzzle in terms of how to join up separate agencies of the state that is far from unique to 9 France. Introducing new evidence based on interviews with high ranking officials, politicians and representatives of territorial policy communities in 2010, the main body of the article focuses upon 10 the two main territorial reforms of the Sarkozy presidency, the reform of the territorial state, and 11 the local government reform. These cases reveal an original attempt to craft a political discourse 12 based on public sector productivity and state puissance. The article explores the tension between 13 synoptic models of reform, focused on the expectation of rapid and quantifiable macro-level change 14 that suits the short-term returns of the political cycle; and institutionalized processes of meso-level implementation, with different timescales, logics of appropriateness and configurations of actors. 15

16 This article presents a theoretically informed, empirically based account of territorial 17 reform in France under Sarkozy (2007–), encompassing reforms both to the institutional 18 machinery of the state and local government. Why link reform of the state and local 19 government reform? The first obvious response is that there has been a sustained political 20 enterprise under Sarkozy to join up questions of the territorial state and local government. 21 A state productivity discourse has developed in France that claims to be macro-level 22 and holistic; it involves public organizations as a whole, and imagines sets of coherent 23 responses encompassing state, social security and local government organizations. From 24 a scientific perspective, if there is an important recent literature on decentralization in 25 France (Le Galès 2008; Pasquier 2009; Pinson 2010) and a growing one on state reform at 26 the level of the core executive (Rouban 2007; Bezes 2009; Eymeri-Douzans and Pierre 2010), 27 much rarer are accounts which frame the state in terms of its overall territorial challenges, 28 encompassing the reform of its own structures as well as the complex relationship with 29 local and regional authorities (Le Lidec 2007). This article proposes to fill this gap. This 30 research endeavour is important and interesting for several reasons. There is a genuine 31 policy puzzle in terms of how to 'join up' separate agencies of the state that is far from 32 unique to France. Peters (2010) identifies the quest for joined up government as a generic 33 movement across European countries, irrespective of state type. There is a more specific 34 intellectual puzzle involving debates around governance; how are broad transnational 35 trends, such as New Public Management, domesticated or obviated in different contexts 36 (Cole 2008; Eymeri-Douzans 2008)? Finally, there is an analytical puzzle about how 37 to evaluate attempts at synoptic reform. Through introducing new empirical data, the 38 article explores the misfit or tension between synoptic models of reform, focused on the 39 expectation of rapid and quantifiable macro-level change that suits the short term returns 40 of the political cycle, and institutionalized processes of meso-level implementation, with 41 different timescales, logics of appropriateness and configurations of actors.

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43 44 STUDYING THE 'TWIN FACES' OF STATE REFORM

As used in this article, the expression 'twin faces' of state reform in France refers to reforms both of the institutional machinery of the state and of local government. Territorial

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Public Administration Vol. 0, No. 0, 2011 (0-0)

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16

 TABLE 1
 Sub-national authorities in France, 2011

Туре	Number	Functions
Communes	36,682	Varying services, including local plans, building permits, building and maintenance of primary schools, waste disposa first port of administrative call, some welfare services
Intercommunal public corporations (EPCI)	2611	Permanent organizations in charge of inter-communal services such as fire-fighting, waste disposal, transport, economic development, some housing
Departmental Councils	100	Social affairs, some secondary education (<i>collèges</i>), road buildin and maintenance, minimum income (RSA)
Regional Councils	26	Economic development, some transport, infrastructure, State-Region plans, some secondary education (<i>lycées</i>), training, some health
Source:		<i>Les Collectivités locales en chiffres.</i> 2010. Paris: Ministère de l'Intérieur.

administrative decentralization ('déconcentration') preceded political decentralization by 17 two decades. Déconcentration was initially aimed at strengthening the capacity of the 18 French state to undertake regional economic planning, though subsequently it became 19 understood as a form of administrative subsidiarity (Pontier 2010). Administrative decen-20 tralization in general, and regional state development in particular, has had great difficulty 21 in becoming a settled part of the French administrative landscape, for reasons that are 22 tied to core features of the French state itself: namely, the vertical control of government 23 ministries over their external services; the career strategies adopted by the professions 24 and the civil service corps; and the rival claims of governmental coordination between 25 distinct levels of state organization, and across government bureaux. 26

Reforms of the state's own machinery have rarely acknowledged explicitly the need 27 to take into account the logic of decentralization, the other face of territorial reform. 28 As Crozier (1992) has argued, however, decentralization must in part be understood 29 as a reform of the state, insofar as central government strategies for efficient steering 30 involve the delegation of problematic or inflationary policy domains (such as social 31 policy) to lower echelons of public administration. The French Socialist government's 32 decentralization reforms of 1982-83 took place almost two decades after the first 1964 33 déconcentration reform. These highly complex reforms established 22 elected regional 34 councils, and greatly enhanced the decision-making powers of the 100 departmental 35 councils and of the larger communes. Political decentralization eventually aligned France 36 with the core principles of the Council of Europe's European Charter of Local Autonomy 37 that she finally signed in 2007, namely: the existence of directly elected local authorities; 38 a reference to local authorities in the Constitution; a formal adoption of the principle 39 of subsidiarity; a degree of local financial autonomy and the possibility of contesting 40 central state decisions in the courts (Schondorf-Haubold 2007). Decentralization has 41 made a fundamentally important contribution to the governing of contemporary France. 42 Sub-state actors have acquired new roles, functions and opportunities (table 1). New 43 institutions and forms of territorial capacity building have developed, notably in relation 44 to regional and city governments. The drivers of this process are partisan, economic, 45 institutional, cultural, though only rarely do they involve ethno-territorial identity claims. 46 Our research object is thus a hybrid one; it involves the state in terms of its overall 47 territorial challenges, encompassing the reform of its own structures as well as the complex 48

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relationship with local and regional authorities. Our hybrid research object reflects the need to take account of the persistence of a powerful territorial French state, paralleling, partially supervising and occasionally frustrating the activities of local and regional elected authorities. Combining these two traditionally separate analytical fields creates a real added value and allows us to test the reform claims of the Sarkozy presidency.

Three perspectives appear most convincing to offer partial explanations for this linkage 6 7 between the state and territorial reform under Sarkozy. Our first perspective, drawn 8 mainly from new public management, is that of state productivity. The modern regulatory 9 state seeks to ensure compliance with its directives through standard setting, performance 10 indicators and the close oversight of local government, the welfare sector and semiindependent agencies (Eymeri-Douzans and Pierre 2011). The chief causal factors in such 11 12 an account are typically economic (the weight of external financial constraints), budgetary 13 (the need for robust performance indicators to control performance) and political (the determination to steer change by a new administration). In the French version of this 14 15 new managerial turn, the state capacity building project sets out quite explicitly to counteract the consequences of three decades of uneven political and administrative 16 17 decentralization by imagining new fiscal instruments and performance management 18 regimes. Some observers such as Epstein (2006) have noted a much harsher edge to inter-19 governmental relations, especially after the stasis of the 2004 decentralization act. Full 20 validation of this hypothesis would require a demonstration that new policy instruments 21 and other forms of central state steering capacity are driving lasting changes in territorial relationships in ways that are broadly consistent with new public management doctrines 22 23 elsewhere. A weaker version of state productivity would not require such a rigorous 24 empirical demonstration of outcomes (extremely difficult given the temporal scope of our investigation), but would reveal intentions, for which the interview method (used here) 25 26 is well suited.

Our second perspective, drawn from the insights of historic institutionalism, is that of 27 institutional resilience. Though *déconcentration* and decentralization in France since the 28 29 1980s have modified the locus of local, urban and regional power, the basic architecture of the 'Napoleonic' territorial state (based around departmental prefects, ministerial field 30 services, the communal bloc and the departmental councils in local government) has 31 32 proved highly resistant to reform. The traditional departmentalist coalition has resisted, or at least sought to control, the alternative dynamic of developing elected regions and new 33 forms of metropolitan governance, arguably more in tune with EU level developments and 34 economic arguments. I have argued elsewhere that France's elected regions have emerged 35 over three decades as significant new institutions, though their impact is rather uneven 36 according to place (Cole 2008). Throughout their existence, however, French regions have 37 had to fight hard for recognition. Thus, the 2003–2004 decentralization reforms, originally 38 conceived as an overarching set of reforms to strengthen the regions, ultimately transferred 39 important new responsibilities and resources to the departments, supported by the Senate 40 and by key Paris-based ministries. There is a parallel at the level of the state's organization 41 of its own services, where the traditional mode of operation was for the central ministries 42 43 to prescribe the policy objectives and the means by which these were to be achieved while the (usually departmental) field services were expected to apply these centrally devised 44 directives to their respective local environments (Duran and Thoenig 1996; Jones 2003; de 45 Montricher 2006). Our second perspective has strong elements of path dependency. It is 46 less prone to express itself in terms of an overarching discourse, more inclined to stress 47 the defence of particular institutions or levels of appropriate public administration. 48

1 Our third - favoured - perspective is that of contingent governance. Attempts to 2 describe state reform or decentralization in terms either of precise causal mechanisms 3 and explanatory variables, or by mobilizing overarching meta-narratives, are unlikely to 4 be very convincing. To observe an 'untidy reality' is not simply to engage in empirical 5 description. It is to suggest that variable types of justification and/or causal mechanisms 6 are likely to intervene in the overarching relationship between the French state and its 7 territories. Such observation favours empirically informed individual or aggregate level 8 analysis from a range of distinctive standpoints and logics. From the evidence presented 9 below, and conscious of the need to avoid conceptual inflation, four main types of key 10 variables are identified. Political variables include those of political leadership, party 11 dynamics and the partisan control of institutional venues. Bureaucratic variables are 12 mainly those involving rival bureau-shaping logics and claims at legitimate coordination, 13 involving the Budget and Interior ministries in particular. Professional variables inter-14 vene via the strategies of the civil service corps, and competition between professional 15 interests within the state (and local government). Finally, institutional variables can be 16 comprehended both in terms of the development of (sub-national) organizations and as 17 the starting point for building the horizontal and vertical relationships that are at the heart 18 both of the adaptation of inter-governmental relations and the construction of variable 19 territorial 'regimes' that correspond to the politics of place. These four variables are now 20 observed in two linked, yet analytically distinct, cases: the reforms of the territorial state 21 and of local government under Sarkozy.

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23 24 **REFORMING THE TERRITORIAL STATE**

In 2007, the Fillon government launched a General Public Policy Review (Révision Générale 25 des Politiques - RGPP) with explicit reference to the Canadian Program Review 26 of 1995-1996. The RGPP claims to engage in rethinking the whole state, including the 27 territorial state, understood in terms of the state's operation in the localities, departments 28 and regions, and the efficiency of local and regional authorities. In December 2007, the 29 RGPP steering committee declared that the regional level should steer public policy, while 30 the departmental level should be a level of local service delivery and implementation of 31 central and regional orientations (Interior Ministry 2010). Such a move was presented as 32 a step change in the gradual evolution towards affirming the primacy of the state at the 33 regional level. Following the 2003–2004 decentralization reforms, the decree of 29th April 34 2004 had proclaimed that the regional prefect 'inspires and coordinates the actions of the 35 departmental prefects'. Moreover, the 30 or so state services with regional offices were 36 regrouped into eight clusters, which mostly prefigured those presented in table 2, though 37 the individual services remained for the moment separate legal entities (Chauvin 2010). 38

Strengthening the regional state has been one of the constant themes of French post-39 war territorial administration. The regional prefectures, created in 1964, were initially 40 light, strategic bodies that attempted to coordinate the activities of the much weightier 41 departmental prefectures (Kada 2008; Pontier 2010). They have claimed to provide 42 interministerial leadership of the state, by way of coordinating the 'decentralized' services 43 of government departments; and, more recently, by contractualizing with local and 44 regional authorities and the European Union. The 2010 reform can be read at one level as 45 an attempt to build up the regional prefectures, with the ambition of embedding new forms 46 of central steering and political leadership. The various decrees and circulars published 47 from 2008–2010 identify four core dimensions of this process of regional state capacity 48

 TABLE 2
 The regional state in 2010

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Nomenclature	Functions and services
Regional Prefectures and General Offices for Regional Affairs (SGAR)	The 'authority' of regional over departmental prefects is recognized in the decree of 16 February 2010. The SGAR obtain new budgetary, management and IT responsibilities and can henceforth recruit their own staff
Food, agriculture and forests (DRAAF)	Merged regional directorates of former Agriculture and Fores Ministry with Food
Cultural Affairs (DRAC)	Largely unchanged
Environment, planning and housing (DREAL)	Under the mega-Ministry for the Environment, Energy, Sustainable Development and Maritime Affairs, the DREAI regroup the three regional directorates for the Environment Infrastructure and Housing
Firms, competition, consumers, work, employment and training (DiRECCTE)	The DiRECCTE unite seven previously separate field services two ministries (Work and Economy, Industry and Employment) including training and lifelong learning, industry and research, competition and several other responsibilities
Youth, sports and social cohesion (DRJSCS)	The DRJSCS regroup all activities dealing with social policy, youth and associative life in one division. They 'lose' health the ARS
Education	26 Rectorates, depending on the Education Ministry
Finance DRFiP	Regional office of the Finance Ministry
Regional Health Agencies (ARS)	New <i>établissements publics</i> to be headed by a director, to lead of issues of hospitalization, healthcare and medico-sociaux services
Source:	Adapted from 'L'avancement de la réforme de l'administration territoriale de l'État', RGPP, 12 mai 2009
	(http://www.rgpp.modernisation.gouv.fr), accessed 18 Ma 2009; 'Quatrième Conseil de Modernisation des Politiques Publiques' June 2010, RCPP, Paris
	Publiques', June 2010, RGPP: Paris.

30 building: first, to achieve economies of scale through centralizing back-office functions 31 (purchasing, ICT, buildings, maintenance) at the regional level; second, to affirm the formal 32 ascendancy of the regional over the departmental level; third, to reorganize and rationalize 33 the services of the regional and departmental state and place them under the hierarchical 34 authority of the regional (and sometimes departmental) prefect; finally, and probably 35 most importantly, to bring the territorial state into line with the mergers taking place at 36 the central, core executive level. For the first time, the decree of 16th February 2010 affirms 37 that the regional prefect has 'authority' over the departmental prefects. Moreover, using 38 the power of revocation ('evocation'), the regional prefect can exercise responsibilities 39 normally reserved for the departmental prefectures for a limited period of time. The 40 departmental prefecture is confirmed by the 7th July 2008 circular in its traditional 41 missions of law and order (control over police and, since 2007, gendarmerie), and the 42 prefectures gain several new functions in terms of immigration and asylum services, and 43 the control of the legality of acts of local authorities. Overall, however, the departmental 44 prefectures complain of losing resources and functions, via the regionalization of back 45 office and support services and the strengthening of the regional level. 46

The central steering interpretation is supported by the observation that the Fillon government has reorganized the missions of the regional state in a uniform manner across

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1 French regions. Using the new budgetary law (the LOLF, see below) and the RGPP as 2 the pretext, the reform of the regional state involves creating larger regional services that 3 correspond broadly speaking to the new missions of central government, understood in 4 the language of the budgetary law, the LOLF, which identifies missions and programmes, 5 rather than ministries and divisions. Table 2 briefly presents the new regional state. Of 6 the seven regional directorates, three have not substantially changed. The education 7 ministry remains organized in academies and rectorates; the culture ministry can call on 8 its powerful regional service, the DRAC, and agriculture also has a powerful regional 9 division (DRAAF). Three new regional directorates - the DiRECCTE, the DREAL and the 10 DRJSCS - clearly reflect the priorities of the Sarkozy administration. Each is born out of mergers at the central and regional level, and each also reflects the fusion of administrative 11 12 corps. These new regional directorates, in the process of being constituted, are criss-13 crossed by distinct institutional traditions and cultures and by sometimes contradictory interests. Finally, the creation of the regional and departmental financial services (DRFiP 14 15 in the regions; DDFiP in the departments), reflects the nationwide merger between the previously separate tax assessment and tax collection agencies. The February 2010 decree 16 17 also affirmed the role of the Regional Administrative Committee (chaired by the regional 18 prefect but bringing together the directors of the seven new regional services, as well as 19 the head of the new Regional Health Agency and the departmental prefects) as providing a form of collective leadership of the territorial state. All this adds up to an increased 20 21 steering capacity on behalf of the regional prefects. One interlocutor referred to a return to the 'spirit of 1964', strengthening the regional prefects as the artillery of the heroic state. 22 The second level concerned by the reform of the territorial state is that of the 96 23 24 (mainland) departments. At the departmental level, the principle is not to reflect central missions, but to provide broad services for the population. The two key dimensions are the 25 26 reduction in the number of services, hence potential points of veto, and strengthening the hierarchical authority of the Prime Minister (above Interior or Finance). In organizational 27 terms, the core innovation is the creation of the interministerial directorates (DDI – the 28 29 direction départmentale interministérielle) envisaged as somewhere between One Stop Shops and multi-task government offices. A decree of 3rd December 2009 set out the missions of 30 the DDI, summarized in table 3. Unlike the regional services, the DDI are not theoretically 31 responsible in principle to any specific central ministry. Operationally, they are placed 32 under the authority of the departmental prefect, implementing policies determined at 33 the level of Regional Administrative Conference discussed above. A study of the DDI 34 reveals the major problems involved in attempting to reconcile distinct standard operating 35 procedures and to harmonize terms and conditions across the component elements. First, 36 37 there is a major problem of resources, namely who is responsible for financing these new offices? The fledgling DDI have been financed by several national ministries, which have 38 attempted to impose conditions on 'their' agents and in relation to 'their' buildings or 39 equipment. In relation to staff, the DDI house agents who have very different terms of 40 pay and service depending upon which corps they belong to and which old ministry 41 they served under (Kamel 2009; Debar 2010). As pay and conditions have been averaged 42 upwards, reform of the state machinery is proving expensive. Created formally on 1st 43 January 2010, by mid 2010 the DDI were in crisis; the only solution for buildings and 44 operational expenses was to create a new Programme (in the language of the LOLF) under 45 the authority of the Prime Minister. 46

The reform of the territorial state was shaped by Claude Guéant, the head of President Sarkozy's staff and, in the words of one interviewee, 'the man who decides everything in

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 TABLE 3 The departmental state (metropolitan France)

Nomenclature	Functions and services
Prefectures	Security, elections, legal control, responsibilities not assumed by the other departmental divisions. Henceforth control over the Police and Gendarmerie
Interministerial directorate for Territory (DDT)	Merged directorates of infrastructure, agriculture, forests and the environment
Social cohesion and the protection of populations (DDCSPP)	Merged directorates for competition, consumer protection, anti-fraud protection and vetinary services. In large departments, there are generally separate offices for Social Cohesion (DDCS) and Protection of the Population (DDPP
Education	The 96 Academic Inspectors and their services retain control over primary and some secondary education
Finances (DDFiP)	The departmental office of the Finance Ministry
Territorial Units of the regional field services: ARS, DRAC, DiRECCTE	Henceforth under operational control of the departmental prefects, subject to decisions in the Regional Administrative Committee
Source:	Adapted from 'L'avancement de la réforme de
	l'administration territoriale de l'État', Révision Générale
	des Politiques Publiques, 12 mai 2009
	(http://www.rgpp.modernisation.gouv.fr), accessed 18
	May 2009; 'Quatrième Conseil de Modernisation des Politiques Publiques' June 2010, RGPP: Paris.

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this country'. That Guéant was previously a regional prefect obviously had an impact. But 24 this sustained effort at political steering is likely to be a necessary, rather than a sufficient, 25 condition for change. Several intervening variables are likely to act as either countervailing 26 pressures or unpredictable obstacles to the reform goals. The first intervening variable is 27 the territorial one. In small regions where there are only two departments (as in lower 28 Normandy or the Limousin), the departmental prefectures will have far more weight than 29 in larger regions where there are up to eight departments (for example Rhône-Alpes). In 30 larger regions, also, the Regional Council is likely to be a more influential player, able 31 and apt to draw in the regional prefecture into a constructive engagement irrespective 32 of partisan engagement. Pasquier (2010) charts with considerable expertise the role of 33 territorial coalitions between regional state and regional councils that can resist political 34 pressures. The result, in the words of one regional prefect interviewed in 2010, is that 35 prefects need to work hard to establish their core legitimacy amongst their own field 36 officials with respect to central government and in relation to the *élus*. 37

Second, in relation to professional dynamics, the key is that regional and departmental 38 prefects remain part of the same corps and usually demonstrate corps loyalty. One 39 regional prefect refused to envisage the relationship with his pairs (important for the 40 sense of corps loyalty) in the departmental prefectures in terms of authority or hierarchy: 41 I do not consider my departmental prefect colleagues as people to whom I might give 42 orders, unlike my delegate prefects or my General Secretary'. For the regional prefecture 43 in Brittany, taking over the delivery of services usually assured by the departmental 44 prefectures might conceivably be necessary, but only in very specific areas that related 45 to EU regional policy, new environmental commitments, or clear areas of regional public 46 interest (SGAR 2010). Beyond the prefectures, the unknown variable is how the traditional 47 rivalries between corps will play themselves out in the departmental and regional field 48

1 services. Two examples, drawn from fieldwork in Brittany in the new regional and 2 departmental services in 2010, illustrate likely scenarios. The DREAL brings together 3 the formerly powerful regional services of the equipment ministry (DRE), the industry 4 ministry (DRIRE) and the environment ministry (DIREN). In the case of Brittany, the 5 solution was one of accommodation; the new director was from the DIREN, but associate 6 posts were created for the DRE and the DRIRE. At the departmental level, the DDTM 7 (Ile-et-Vilaine) merged the previously separate divisions of infrastructure, agriculture and 8 environment. One episode demonstrates the persistence of older organizational cultures; 9 the Director gave the example of a former infrastructure bureau in St Malo approving a 10 proposed urban development that was rejected by the local environment bureau. Even though both bureaux were supposed to agree at a local level, they sent up the contested 11 12 dossier to the director for arbitration (DDTM 2010).

The main obstacle to horizontal leadership relates to the role of the budget and public 13 accounts ministry. As one interlocutor in the Court of Accounts (2005) expressed it very 14 15 cogently: 'either one defends central steering and vertical coordination, which concentrates power at the central level, or one supports horizontal coordination, which means genuinely 16 giving the prefects hierarchical authority over all central services and agencies in their 17 18 territories'. One potential lever to allow the regional prefect to impose their authority over the external services is that of the LOLF, the 'new' budgetary law operational since 19 20 2006. Under the LOLF, the regional prefects are budget holders (RBOP), formally charged 21 with distributing operational resources to government agencies coming under their hierarchical control. In practice, however, they have 'very limited margins of manoeuvre' 22 23 and 'virtually no capacity to change the substantive content of policy programmes' 24 (Brittany Regional Prefecture 2010). The budget and public accounts ministry made its 25 presence felt as the core vertical coordinating force. The bulk of resources distributed via 26 the prefectures are ring-fenced for specific services and government agencies. Initially conceived as a tool to join up central government around programmes and missions, the 27 LOLF was not primarily concerned with the interests of local or regional government. 28 29 The key officials, the Programme Heads (Responsables du Programme), operate in central government departments in Paris and the programmes they administer are national in 30 their logic, allowing little territorial variation. 31

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33 Summary of reform

From the above survey, we can draw support for each of our approaches. In favour of the 34 state productivity hypothesis, the strengthening of the regional prefectures is explicitly 35 framed in terms of efficiency gains, notably via the definition and implementation of 36 37 management targets, greater control and influence over devolved ministerial budgets at the regional level, and oversight over back-office and IT tasks. The strategic plans to be 38 coordinated by the regional prefectures must henceforth include provision for the staff 39 working for public corporations (établissements publics) and chambers of commerce, hence 40 bringing these semi-autonomous bodies into the purview of the state administration. 41 Moreover, the official public expenditure targets published as part of the RGPP include 42 not just the state budget, but the larger social security and local government budgets as 43 well; the ambition is clearly stated to exercise tighter control over the vast local government 44 and social security budgets. The reorganizations of the regional and departmental levels 45 of the French state machinery were presented as a product of a synoptic institutional 46 design, conceived in order to limit capture by interest groups and reduce the number 47 of veto points within the administration. The above survey also provided considerable 48

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1 evidence of institutional resilience. The government's efforts to make the regional state 2 more coherent ran against key obstacles in the form of vertical and hierarchical logics 3 within the state, the weight of the core institutional feature of the corps, and the rather 4 perverse effects of the budgetary law, the LOLF, which, designed for the central state and 5 its services, has made the coordination of state activity at the territorial level that much 6 more difficult. Strategic state capacity building is likely to run against the constants of 7 bureau-shaping, professional and institutional rivalries. This brief survey of reforms in 8 the local and regional state raises the prospects of likely implementation failure, not least 9 because of the poor linkage with the local government reform that is now considered.

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12 **REFORMING AND REFRAMING LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN FRANCE**

The second face of state reform involves inter-governmental relationships and the reform 13 of local government. The 2010, local government reform was presented as part of a 14 logically coherent and joined-up package of reforms designed to modernize the French 15 state. There was purported to be a close linkage between local government reform and the 16 RGPP: the introduction to the main bill refers to it as the second step in the 'modernization 17 of the local structures', coming after the reform of the territorial state undertaken since 18 2007. Under Sarkozy, decentralization and territorial state reform are both framed in 19 terms of efficiency, cost and joining up the disparate levels of the local and regional public 20 sector. The state is intricately involved in inter-governmental relations in core fields such 21 as structure, finance, standards, norms, contractualization and EU funding, fields that lie 22 outside of the limits of the current exercise. Following the framework of analysis presented 23 above, central-local relations will now be placed within each of our three perspectives of 24 state productivity, institutional resilience and contingent governance which provide the 25 analytical grid for appraising the 2010 Act. 26

Reversing the order of presentation, the constants of inter-governmental relations 27 are testament to a high degree of institutional resilience. Contemporary France has a 28 rich tapestry of sub-national government, which incorporates directly elected communal, 29 departmental and regional authorities, inter-communal councils, as well as the departmen-30 tal and regional prefectures, and the field services of the key government ministries and 31 agencies with responsibility for various aspects of territorial management (see tables 1–3, 32 above). The 2010 local government reform was intended in part to address the problem 33 of this institutional mosaic of overlapping structures. Reform-minded governments have 34 attempted to promote local government re-organization in the name of broader principles 35 of territorial equity and economic efficiency. Long before decentralization, the Marcellin 36 law of 1971 had very limited success in its declared objective of merging the 36,500 or 37 so communes and reorganizing them into larger authorities. The 1982-83 and 2003-04 38 decentralization reforms did not radically alter the highly fragmented structure of French 39 local government. No French government has successfully resolved the problem of the 40 division of responsibilities between the 96 departmental and 22 regional councils in 41 metropolitan France. Such institutional fragmentation should not imply stasis, however. 42 Successive reforms in the 1990s (the Joxe law of 1992, the Voynet and Chevènement 43 laws of 1999) strengthened more joined-up, inter-communal councils through developing 44 inter-communal public corporations with pooled tax revenues (Établissements publics de 45 Co-opération intercommunal – EPCI) throughout urban and much of rural France (Cole 46 and John 2001). In 2010, EPCI cover 95 per cent of the French population. Elected regional 47 councils have also considerably enhanced their prestige and influence. For our analytical 48

purposes, the key point is not about identifying winners and losers but observing how endogenous institutional structures are likely to overwhelm any efforts at synoptic state reform. There are too many interests at stake and the state has neither the capacity nor the will to transform existing arrangements.

5 Consistent with our first perspective, the state now emphasizes its own productivity 6 as the key to future prosperity, an efficiency turn that can be observed in the linked 7 areas of state-region contracts and financial relations. Bringing the state back in to the 8 governance of French localities and regions was the object of the state-region plans 9 introduced in the 1982 planning law (Gaudin 1999; Burnham 2009). Consistent with the 10 state productivity thesis, since 2003, there has been a movement away from the language of contractualization. The state-region plans have been relabelled as state-region projects, 11 12 with much stricter national criteria governing their operation and less room for adaptation 13 to local and regional circumstances. In the 2007–2013 round of state-region projects, the French state was far more prescriptive in terms of the types of field that could enter 14 into agreements, defining the broad priorities themselves based on France's EU priorities 15 (competitiveness, sustainable development and social and territorial cohesion) (Pontier 16 17 2007; Lerousseau 2008). Controlling local government finance is the other central feature 18 of the state's close involvement in localities. Since 2004, the politicization of central-local 19 relations has spilled over into disputes about local taxation. Largely run by the Left, local authorities have been accused by the governing centre-right (UMP) government of 20 21 financial profligacy. In a move reminiscent of Thatcher in the 1980s, in 2009 the Fillon government announced what amounts to a central cap on the business rates charged 22 23 by local authorities. The new provision was rushed through parliament in the 2010 24 budget, before any consideration had been given to the broader local government reform (Hertzog 2010). The political objective was clear: to use the argument of financial necessity 25 26 to override entrenched interests and centralize control over one of the main instruments 27 of local taxation.

The above evidence is suggestive of a coherent managerial turn. Consistent with our 28 29 contingent governance thesis, however, one must point to clear divisions within the state, even in the technical field of budgetary policy. From the perspective of the interior 30 ministry, the most successful local government reforms, especially the 1999 Chevenement 31 32 law, have naturally required financial inducements to encourage communes to cooperate. From the perspective of the budget and public accounts ministry, however, institutional 33 duplication and local government capacity building has had an unacceptable financial 34 35 cost. The increase of staff numbers in the EPCI in particular has raised fiscal sustainability concerns (Finance Ministry 2010). Even more than divisions within the state, the key 36 37 dimension of contingent governance is that of institutional and party political dynamics. There has traditionally been no simple left-right cleavage in relation to decentralization; 38 supporters and opponents of more decentralization could be identified on left and right. 39 The gradual conquest of a majority of France's regions, departments and large towns and 40 cities by the Left, combined with successive victories in decisive national elections by 41 the Right, introduced a partisan dimension that became increasingly pronounced. This 42 43 sharper party political cleavage provided the backdrop against which President Sarkozy (2007–) undertook to reform the French state and its territories. 44

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46 The local government reform, 2010

47 The set of laws and decrees that became known as the local government reform of 2010

48 were loosely based on the findings of the Balladur Commission of 2009, itself the latest

in a string of reports under Sarkozy into core challenges faced by local authorities and
the state. The Balladur Commission (2009) advocated a radical overhaul of the structures,
functions, legal principles and public finances of French local and regional government, as
well as a more joined up approach to intergovernmental relations. Though loosely based
on Balladur's report, the 2010 reform fell short of the report's ambitious recommendations
(Nemery 2010).
The local government reform of 2010 was ostensibly designed to rationalize compe-

8 tencies and avoid duplication between layers. To enhance transparency and efficiency, 9 Balladur had called for a reduction in the number of regions from 22 to 15, encouraged 10 the merging of departments into larger entities and advocated that directly elected inter-11 communal councils (EPCI) should cover the whole French territory by 2014. The main 12 2010 law extends the operation of the intercommunal councils (EPCI) to all of France 13 by 2014, a 'consensual measure' in the words of the Socialist *rapporteur* in the Senate, 14 though it falls short of their direct election (Sueur 2010). As one interlocutor put it, these 15 technical provisions concerning inter-communal councils represented 80 per cent of the 16 bill. In practice, as table 1 demonstrates, on 1 January 2010, there were already 2611 17 EPCI, which regrouped 34,774 communes (95 per cent of the total) and covered 92.2 per 18 cent of the overall population. The EPCI have been criticized from the basic democratic 19 standpoint that these non directly elected bodies are responsible for the fastest growing 20 part of local expenditure, yet they are subject to no democratic scrutiny. The 2010 reform 21 acknowledged these democratic and fiscal concerns, but abandoned proposals for the 22 direct election of EPCI under pressure from the communal bloc (see below). There was 23 less consensus in relation to other proposals. Early briefings that the departments might 24 be abolished were silenced once Sarkozy made known his opposition (DGCL 2010). The 25 suggestion that some regions might be merged against their will was abandoned. Finally, 26 far from being the single tier unitary authorities envisaged by Balladur, the 12 new 27 Metropolitan Councils were reduced in the government bill to being voluntary public cor-28 porations (hence not fully fledged local authorities) to be set up on the basis of agreements 29 between communes, proposals which were then diluted further by the Senate. 30

Consistent with the broad philosophy of the RGPP, the Balladur report emphasized the 31 importance of clarifying service delivery responsibilities across levels of local government 32 to avoid duplication. In practice, however, the 2010 reform was highly constrained by 33 the provisions of the 2003 constitutional reform for the 'free administration of local 34 authorities' and the interpretation by the Senate that no local authority can exercise 35 authority (tutelle) over any other. By refusing any hierarchy between local authorities, 36 the 2004 decentralization Act had checked the emergence of the region as the key 37 federating body and, in the process, undermined the declared objective of strengthening 38 the state at the regional level (Cours des comptes 2009). By mid-way through the 39 2010 bill's second reading, the Fillon government effectively abandoned the idea of 40 introducing a far-reaching overhaul and rationalization of local government competencies. 41 Instead, an amendment stipulated that, in each region, the distribution of service delivery 42 responsibilities will be agreed in a signed contract between the regional and departmental 43 councils, to be approved, moreover, by the regional prefect. Rather as in 2004, in 2010 44 the idea of the lead authority (chef de file) was emptied of its substance. This reversal 45 ought to be attributed to the combined influence of the *bloc communal* (the communes, 46 many intercommunal syndicates and their professional associations) coupled with the 47 determination of the second chamber, the Senate, to represent the interests of rural and 48

small town France. The resilience of the communal bloc became clear as the 2010 territorial
 reform progressed through the two house of the French parliament in 2010.

3 The most controversial element of the 2010 territorial reform was the new territorial 4 councillor, a locally elected politician who, from 2014 onwards, will combine the existing 5 roles of departmental and regional councillor. This institutional innovation is presented by 6 the law's framers as a response to the calls for clarification between the roles of the regions 7 and the departments. The argument in favour is that a single councillor will strengthen 8 the cohesion of the 'department-region' couple, with a view to producing a harmonization 9 between these two levels of local authority, hence addressing the problem of duplication 10 (DGCL 2010). Two readings of this institutional innovation were expressed in interviews. One involves the expectation that the department will eventually wither away, with the 11 regional councils gradually taking over the responsibilities of the departments. A more 12 13 widespread sentiment took exactly the opposite position; namely, that the regions will most likely be captured by departmental interests. As elections for the new councillors 14 15 will take place on the basis of single member geographical constituencies, the territorial interests of the departments will prevail over the larger region. The territorialized 16 partisan cleavage really came to the fore under Sarkozy, with the controversy over the 17 18 new territorial councillor, and the associated widespread suspicions of gerrymandering 19 and institutional engineering.

Was this a coherent joined-up approach or a set of incremental adjustments? Even 20 21 those involved in writing the 2010 Act did not lend much credence to the 'joinedup' hypothesis. In the opinion of one interlocutor in the interior ministry, the RGPP 22 23 was a budgetary process associated with cost-cutting (and driven by the budget and 24 public accounts ministry), hence the local government reform had little interest in being presented as part of RGPP. The familiar narrative of state reform as a contest between the 25 26 rival bureaucratic actors with a stake in governmental coordination - interior, budget, Matignon - resurfaces (Bezes 2009). The local government reform is best interpreted as a 27 series of incremental adjustments. It became clear, in the course of the passage of the bill 28 29 through parliament, that there was a basic capacity-expectations gap. The Balladur report called for an overhaul and clarification of the division of competencies between levels 30 of local authority. In the event, the Fillon government abandoned the idea of a separate 31 32 piece of legislation 'because there would have been no consensus on the issue either between the ministries, or the local government associations' (DGCL 2010). Strikingly, 33 the decision *not* to proceed with a comprehensive overhaul of competencies was justified 34 35 in interviews in terms of the complexity of the exercise; the government had neither the time nor the capacity to undertake this (DGCL 2010). The reforms did not fundamentally 36 37 resolve, or even address the problem of path dependent institutions. Ultimately, the local government reform added still further to the institutional complexity that provided the 38 raison d'être for the reform itself. 39

The 2010 territorial reform represented a good example of a form of 'contingent 40 governance'. The reform was strictly bounded by the constitutional principle of the free 41 administration of local authorities. The proposed reform was also modified in relation to 42 provisions whereby the intercommunal bodies could deliver services on behalf of local 43 councils in order to comply with advice from the European Commission (Marcou 2010). 44 The importance of partisan and institutional rivalries emerges clearly from this account. 45 This element of partisan competition had an impact upon the eventual outcomes of the 2004 46 reform; why strengthen the regions if they were to be controlled by the opposition parties? 47 Somewhat paradoxically, the politicization of territorial relations has been mediated by the 48

Public Administration Vol. 0, No. 0, 2011 (0–0) © 2011 The Author. Public Administration © 2011 Blackwell Publishing Ltd. effect of institutions. The constitutional reform of 2008 has introduced new dynamics that can cut across party loyalty and make expected governmental outcomes less certain. The parliamentary committees, both in the National Assembly and the Senate, have emerged as powerful players. The UMP-led government was forced into a series of concessions to the parties forming part of the presidential majority (including UMP). The precise interplay between these bureaucratic, partisan and institutional rivalries better explained the outcome of the 2010 territorial reform than the narrative of state productivity.

8 9

THE FRENCH STATE AND ITS TERRITORIES

10 The cases considered in this article reveal an original attempt to combine a political 11 discourse based on public sector productivity and state puissance, and to apply a rational 12 policy-making model to the reform of the territorial state and the 2010 reform of local 13 and regional authorities. As an internal reform of the state's own machinery, the reform 14 of the territorial state was entirely implemented by secondary legislation (circulars and 15 decrees). There was virtually no public negotiation, and what opposition emerged was 16 expressed in terms of President Sarkozy versus the traditional corps of the state. Whether 17 the reform of the territorial state would *succeed* or not was uncertain. Indeed, there was 18 ample evidence of obstacles in the form of hierarchical, professional and rival bureau-19 shaping logics within the existing state, as well as the perverse effects of the LOLF. But 20 the policy review was far-reaching in its scope and the degree of formal institutional 21 change achieved was impressive, whether understood in terms of the merging of corps, 22 the fusion of departmental and regional field services, or the creation of mega-ministries 23 at the level of the core executive itself. In contrast, the local government reform required 24 complex and detailed legislation and had to be steered through a divided presidential 25 majority and accommodate an affirmative second chamber, the Senate, with a specific 26 constitutional responsibility for local government. Through passing a number of important 27 amendments, the Senate confirmed its reputation as a resolute defender of the 36,000 or 28 so communes, a sceptic towards forms of regional and metropolitan governance, and a 29 powerful force in favour of the status quo. In the case of the local government reform, 30 there were more complex sets of interests, institutional venues and veto points; but above 31 all the government effectively abandoned any serious attempt radically to reshape the 32 institutional map in the face of so many well-entrenched interests. Sarkozy was less 33 personally committed to local government reform and anxious to compromise in advance 34 of the 2010 senatorial, 2011 cantonal and 2012 presidential elections. 35

To conclude, the three perspectives presented in the introductory section each elucidate 36 aspects of state reform. They behave as one might expect them to do. State productivity, 37 in the form of the RGPP, provided an overarching frame that articulated the intentions of 38 reform-minded governors. The Fillon government's official position was that the territorial 39 state and local government reforms were both part of a logically coherent and joined-up 40 package designed to modernize the French state. This holistic approach is consistent with 41 broader questions of institutional design; rather than multiply single purpose agencies, 42 or introduce market or quasi-market principles, the policy fashion under Sarkozy has 43 been to create mega-ministries at the centre in a more traditional attempt to join up state 44 activity and provide state steering. An NPM-style discourse is consistent with varying 45 institutional or instrumental choices. 46

In both cases there was evidence of institutional resilience. If one goal of the local government reform was to reduce institutional density and layering, then it ought to be

1 regarded as a lost opportunity. Though both reforms claimed a link with the RGPP, taken 2 together they suffered from a lack of coherence, even a basic inconsistency. Two examples 3 illustrate this. First, the Balladur report proposed that, where state responsibilities had 4 been transferred to local and regional authorities, the state field services ought to be 5 suppressed, a cost-cutting and potentially far-reaching measure. But there was no further 6 reference to this in the bill. Second, the territorial reform of the state, piloted by Sarkozy 7 and the chief of his presidential staff Guéant (himself a regional prefect), was intended 8 unambiguously to strengthen the regional level. And yet, the local government reform, if 9 anything, reinforced the supervisory role of the departmental prefect (who now has a key 10 role in approving how inter-communal councils are to be organized within a department 11 and which services they deliver [Marcou 2010]) and refused to grant a leadership role for 12 the regional councils which might benefit political opponents.

State reform, as described throughout the article, has elements of a 'garbage can' logic. 13 The chances of reform appear rather dependent on the particular mix of political, bureau-14 15 shaping, institutional and professional dynamics, as well as the nature and timescale of the reform undertaken. Far from the abstract meta-narratives (state productivity), 16 17 or static causal mechanisms (path dependency), the approach adopted allows a more 18 realistic strategy to uncover the political, bureau-shaping, professional and institutional 19 dynamics that mediate the relationship between the French state and its territories. Taking account of these four dimensions, the core question thereby becomes reformulated into 20 21 a hybrid one: when and how do political, bureau-shaping, professional and institutional dynamics matter? Robust political leadership is required to drive reform that challenges 22 23 institutional inertia; its chances of success appear correlated to timescale and intensity (Elgie 1993; Burnham 2009). Presidential power is most effective in France when there 24 is active presidential involvement in steering, as in the case of the early RGPP. In the 25 26 case of Sarkozy, the partisan dimension also emerges clearly as a driver of, and an obstacle to, reform. The RGPP was part of a clear presidential mandate and accepted 27 as such within the governing UMP. The local government reform involved cross-cutting 28 29 partisan and institutional interests: it was modified as a result of internal opposition within the governing majority, but it was also carefully designed to secure maximum 30 political advantage for the President's party. 31

Although less visible than these macro-political considerations, more routine bureau-32 shaping logics are continually present. Both cases revealed rivalries within the state based 33 on the rival strategies of central divisions that filter down to the departmental and regional 34 levels. In both cases, these turf wars mainly involved the budget and the interior ministries. 35 They were strengthened by professional dynamics, though the significance of the corps 36 37 appears less visible at the regional and local levels and the research uncovered some evidence of internal divisions, especially in the prefectoral corps. Finally, the institutional 38 variable was a key one for contrasting the two cases: the RGPP was mainly confined 39 to internal state processes, while the local government reform became enmeshed in the 40 complex interactions between interests (especially the local government associations), and 41 formal and informal institutions. In sum, the political leadership steered reforms that were 42 43 partially embraced and partially resisted by bureaucratic interests. Professional influences appeared somewhat on the defensive, testament to the changing nature of elites under 44 Sarkozy and the disorientation of the corps (Gervais 2010). Partisan and institutional 45 influences helped to shape the eventual outcome of the two cases considered. 46

47 Some more generic conclusions might also be drawn. In both cases, reform was 48 conditioned in precise ways by the consequences of past decisions. The reform of

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1 the territorial state ran against the obstacle (for the regional prefects, at least) of the 2 budgetary law, the LOLF, which operated against 'joining up' government on a horizontal 3 basis. The local government reform was bounded by previous constitutional decisions 4 taken in relation to the principle of the free administration of local authorities. These 5 examples also contribute to our understanding of contrasting timescales. While the 6 political temporal horizon requires immediate returns (hence encourages transformational 7 styles of leadership, others things being equal), the administrative cycle and timescale is 8 more distant. As one interlocutor stated, officials were still working out how to implement 9 previous far-reaching reforms such as the LOLF of 2001 and Act 2 of decentralization 10 in 2003–2004. Reforms of the state machinery and local government might be driven 11 by high level political pressures, but they are implemented by public servants over a 12 period of several years. Holistic and far-reaching reforms, such as the RGPP and the local 13 government reform, are equalled in the scope of their ambition by the magnitude of the 14 unintended consequences of their implementation.

15 unintended consequences of their implementation

15 16

17 ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

18 I would like to thank Romain Pasquier, Christian de Visscher, and Patrick le Galès for

reading this article and making good comments for revision. Above all my thanks go

- to the anonymous reviewers, whose input was invaluable, and to the editors of PublicAdministration.
- 22 23

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Public Administration Vol. 0, No. 0, 2011 (0-0)

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Date received 25 September 2009. Date accepted 6 December 2010.

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- 1. Right click into area of either inserted text or relevance to note
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How to use it:

- 1. Select cursor from toolbar
- 2. Highlight word or sentence
- 3. Right click
- 4. Select Replace Text (Comment) option
- 5. Type replacement text in blue box
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- Change to italics
- Change to capitals

Change to small capitals

How to use it:

- 1. Select cursor from toolbar
- 2. Highlight word or sentence
- 3. Right click
- 4. Select Cross Out Text

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