

6241 These nit-pickings take little away from the quality and
6242 breadth of *Skills and Inequality*, however. The identifica-
6243 tion of distinct worlds of skill regimes measures up to
6244 examples set by titans in the field, such as Gøsta Esping-
6245 Andersen, Peter Hall and David Soskice, and Torben
6246 Iversen. The book will likely become required reading in
6247 undergraduate and graduate courses in comparative polit-
6248 ical economy and social policies; it will certainly be on my
6249 syllabus for years to come.

6251 **The Transformation of Governance in Rural China:**
6252 **Market, Finance, and Political Authority.** By An Chen. New
6253 York: Cambridge University Press, 2014. 406p. \$99.00.
6254 doi:10.1017/S1537592715002790
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6256 — Hiroki Takeuchi, *Southern Methodist University*
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6258 The study of political economy in rural China has been
6259 a growing subfield of Chinese politics and comparative
6260 politics. Chinese rural governance, central–local relations,
6261 local inter- and intragovernmental relations, taxation and
6262 finance, rural political participation—all of these have
6263 been mainstream and very important issues in the study of
6264 contemporary China in recent years. In the last few years
6265 alone, an increasing number of books and articles have
6266 been published, including Lynette H. Ong, *Prosper or*
6267 *Perish: Credit and Fiscal Systems in Rural China* (2012) and
6268 Hiroki Takeuchi, *Tax Reform in Rural China: Revenue,*
6269 *Resistance, and Authoritarian Rule* (2014). As this literature
6270 has been closing the gap between reality and our under-
6271 standing of the rapidly changing Chinese countryside,
6272 Chen’s most recent book helps to advance our knowledge
6273 of the buildup of internal political and socioeconomic
6274 tensions in rural China, which promises to bedevil the
6275 Chinese leadership well into the twenty-first century.

6276 Chen argues that rural governance in China has been
6277 transformed because “[t]he positional authority and
6278 income advantages of traditional village cadres were
6279 gradually but steadily eroded in the wake of expanding
6280 markets that replaced the state institutions in allocation of
6281 economic resources and thus nibbled away at their re-
6282 distributive power” (p. 128). In a sense, this observation is
6283 consistent with, as Chen notes, Victor Nee’s theoretical
6284 argument that “marketization caused a decline in the
6285 significance of the positional power of the village cadres
6286 who had failed to enter into (private) entrepreneurship” (p.
6287 271). However, as China specialists often insist, “[t]he
6288 impact of market transition on political power structure is
6289 a different issue . . . and one on which reform China,
6290 Eastern Europe, and the former USSR are barely compa-
6291 rable” (p. 14). So, has rural governance in China com-
6292 pletely collapsed when traditional village cadres have lost
6293 their ability to control their redistributive power over
6294 economic resources? Chen disagrees. He argues that a new
6295 type of village cadres, called “entrepreneur cadres,” have
6296 emerged in some of the villages that satisfy certain

6301 economic conditions. Those entrepreneur cadres, who
6302 may provide public goods, can be found in villages that
6303 have their own economic resources, such as private
6304 industries and/or commercial activities, which bring
6305 a sufficient amount of revenue to the fiscal coffers. One
6306 can easily see that the legitimacy of these entrepreneur
6307 cadres is very different from that of traditional village
6308 cadres whose legitimacy is based on their political ap-
6309 pointment.

6310 Chen traces the trajectory of the transformation of
6311 China’s rural governance during the post-Mao reform to
6312 a series of fiscal reforms conducted by the central
6313 government: the 1994 tax reform, the tax-for-fee (TFF)
6314 reform that began in 2002, and the abolition of the
6315 agricultural taxes (AAT) completed in 2006. He then
6316 argues that “the straw that broke the camel’s back was the
6317 AAT” (p. 5). I agree with this argument. As discussed in
6318 *Tax Reform in Rural China*, a series of fiscal reforms,
6319 starting with the 1994 tax reform, has significantly under-
6320 mined the traditional system of China’s rural governance
6321 and caused political and social instability in the country-
6322 side. *The Transformation of Governance in Rural China*
6323 starts its discussion with the observation that nowadays,
6324 “organized or collective violent resistance is an explicit,
6325 outright challenge to the political establishment” (p. 2).
6326 The TFF reform and the AAT were the regime’s response
6327 to the rural instability that had even threatened the
6328 resilience of authoritarian rule by the Chinese Communist
6329 Party (CCP). However, apparently they did not improve
6330 the quality of rural governance but brought local fiscal
6331 crises, and as a result, “rural governance was gravely
6332 compromised by deteriorating rural finances” (p. 287).

6333 This trajectory of rural tax reforms casts doubt on the
6334 premise that “the ultimate goal of market transition in
6335 China is none other than to consolidate Communist Party
6336 rule through improving the rural economy and peasants’
6337 living standards” (p. 232). Indeed, “an array of ‘pro-
6338 peasant’ reforms over the past decade, which culminated in
6339 the AAT, has given rise to a counter-trend as well” (p. 96).
6340 *Tax Reform in Rural China* argues that a series of pro-
6341 peasant rural tax reforms, such as the TFF reform and the
6342 AAT, was a conscious trade-off by the central government
6343 between fiscal crises and rural instability. The premise that
6344 leaders at the CCP center in Beijing, very early in the post-
6345 Mao era, decided on a strategy of market-oriented reforms
6346 and authoritarian rule is not controversial. For the central
6347 government, paralyzed rural governance in agricultural
6348 localities caused by local fiscal crises and the lack of public
6349 goods was a less serious concern than the heavy peasant
6350 financial burden and rural unrest that local governments’
6351 predatory extractive behavior had generated in the 1990s,
6352 which threatened both economic reforms and authoritar-
6353 ian rule. Thus, paralyzed rural governance does not
6354 threaten authoritarian rule so long as the center controls
6355 personnel.

6361 Therefore, I strongly doubt the premise that the CCP
6362 has been committed to improving rural governance. The
6363 premise that “the ultimate goal of market transition in
6364 China is none other than to consolidate Communist Party
6365 rule” is noncontroversial, but the premise that it is for
6366 “improving the rural economy and peasants’ living stand-
6367 ards” is at best debatable. Although Chen says that “this
6368 outcome [of rural reforms] may be puzzling, if not
6369 shocking, as the entire rural reform process has never spun
6370 out of the reform regime’s effective control” (p. 286), the
6371 outcome of the seemingly pro-peasant reforms would be
6372 much less puzzling once one drops the premise that the
6373 central government’s primary goal was the improvement
6374 of rural governance. Rather, as *Tax Reform in Rural China*
6375 argues, the central government uses local governments as
6376 a target of blame for the problems that the central
6377 government has actually created.

6380 At the same time, the central government has a strong
6381 incentive to welcome the rise of entrepreneur cadres,
6382 “whose private wealth and market power allow them to
6383 shift their base of authority from political appointments to
6384 their *private* capacity to control fellow villagers by eco-
6385 nomic means” (p. 262; italics in the original). For the CCP
6386 center, the entrepreneur cadres help to improve the local
6387 economy and villagers’ living standards by bringing
6388 financial resources to rural governance. At the same time,
6389 “market transition has intensified the stratification of the
6390 rural society and placed heavier pressure on the [local]
6391 government to achieve ‘common affluence’” (p. 263). As
6392 *Prosper or Perish* argues, even in the localities that do not
6393 have appropriate conditions for industrialization, local
6394 governments are pressured to industrialize their areas,
6395 and as a result, unsuccessful enterprises starve local
6396 governments of revenue. This ends in paralyzed rural
6397 governance and the decline of party–state authority.

6399 What policy implications do these findings suggest?
6400 The transformation of rural governance is apparently
6401 a product of the central government’s ad hoc, shortsighted
6402 response to the problems that might threaten the regime’s
6403 political stability, rather than one based on long-term
6404 perspectives for China’s market transition. Thus, when
6405 one problem is solved (e.g., the AAT), another, perhaps
6406 unexpected, problem emerges (e.g., local fiscal crises). To
6407 analyze the intention of China’s policymaking, it is better
6408 not to assume that the policy is made as a part of some
6409 long-term goal.

6412 **We Created Chávez: A People’s History of the Vene-**
6413 **zuelan Revolution.** By George Ciccariello-Maher. Durham, NC:
6414 Duke University Press, 2013. 352p. \$94.95 cloth, \$25.95 paper.
6415 doi:10.1017/S1537592715002807

6416 — Maxwell A. Cameron, *The University of British Columbia*

6418 In *We Created Chávez*, George Ciccariello-Maher offers
6419 a history of Venezuelan politics that is radically at odds
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6421 with the conventional wisdom among political scientists.
6422 He rejects the claim that for decades prior to Hugo Chávez,
6423 Venezuela was a model of democratic stability. He argues
6424 instead that the political system (or “democracy”—always
6425 placed in quotation marks or otherwise qualified [e.g., p. 9])
6426 created by the power-sharing pact of Punto Fijo (which
6427 followed the overthrow of the dictator Marcos Pérez
6428 Jiménez in 1958) was exclusionary and repressive in its
6429 treatment of popular movements. The author dismisses
6430 the idea that the Bolivarian Revolution began with the
6431 1998 election of Chávez, and that it is a “story of an evil
6432 and all-powerful, would-be dictator centralizing all power
6433 in his own hands” (p. 6). Rather, it is the people, the poor
6434 and oppressed, who in various moments—particularly
6435 the urban uprising in Caracas in February 1989 (known
6436 as the Caracazo) and the restoration of Chávez in April
6437 2002 in the face of a coup attempt—“created Chávez”
6438 and propelled the Bolivarian revolutionary process for-
6439 ward: “*the Bolivarian Revolution is not about Hugo*
6440 *Chávez*” (p. 7, italics in original).

6443 The book is also at odds with currents of radical
6444 thought that downplay the importance of the state,
6445 power, and institutions—as in John Holloway’s call to
6446 “change the world without taking power” (quoted on p.
6447 16). Against this view, Ciccariello-Maher advocates what
6448 he calls, following Lenin, a struggle for “dual power:” an
6449 “ongoing, tense, and antagonistic opposition to the state,
6450 straining insistently upward from the bases to generate
6451 a dialectical motion allowing the revolutionary transfor-
6452 mation of the state and its institutions, with the ultimate
6453 goal of deconstructing, decentralizing, and rendering it
6454 a nonstate” (p. 19). This strategy implies the use of
6455 workers’ councils, popular militias, and other forms of
6456 (often armed) self-defense outside and against the state.

6458 The idea of building popular power from below “into
6459 a radical pole that stands in antagonistic opposition to the
6460 state” (p. 240) implies a militant rejection of constituted
6461 power, even under the government of Chávez. Ciccariello-
6462 Maher’s “people’s history” is really a history of former
6463 guerrillas from the 1960s (some of whom support Chávez,
6464 while others do not); Communists who infiltrated the
6465 military and rose to senior ranks within the Chávez
6466 government; guerrilla leaders who later organized urban
6467 militias; students who abandoned the university to join
6468 popular movements; feminist, Afro-Venezuelan, and in-
6469 digenous activists who have fought for recognition within
6470 popular organizations; and street activists who organized
6471 informal labor, like the strategically important motorcycle
6472 couriers. Many of these activists were (and are) wedded to
6473 militaristic forms of struggle in which the goal is to
6474 annihilate the enemy. Take Valentín Santana, a leader of
6475 a revolutionary collective in a working-class neighborhood
6476 called La Piedrita, in Caracas: “This Revolution is dirty,” he
6477 says. “I think we can cleanse it, strengthen it, but we might
6478 need to pass through a bit of a bloodbath first” (p. 85).
6480