MPA系列教材 MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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公共管理专业英语

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前　　言

MPA（Master of Public Administration）即“公共管理硕士专业学位”。与MBA一样，MPA也是国际通行的一种专业学位。该学位培养的是从事公共管理、公共事务和公共政策分析研究的高层次、应用型人才。在MPA的教育培养过程中，注重学员实际能力和素质的培养，在教学内容上则注重面向社会实际，特别是当前公共管理实践中遇到的问题。MPA属职业背景教育，学习方式以在职学习为主，教学方法采取课堂讲授、案例分析、情景教学以及社会调查和研讨等多种形式。所以，MPA教育的基本特点在于与政府实际部门以及非政府的公共部门的实际相结合。

1999年5月，国务院学位委员会第17次会议审议通过了我国公共管理硕士（MPA）专业学位设置方案及其说明。2000年8月，国务院学位委员会办公室下发了关于MPA专业学位试点工作的通知，MPA的试点工作在我国正式开始了。

MPA教育在我国的启动对于我国公共管理具有十分深远的意义。从世界范围来说，现在总的趋势是使公共管理朝着专业化的方向发展。公共管理是一项专业化的工作，需要专业化的人才才能胜任，这已经越来越得到社会的广泛认同。江泽民同志在党的十五大报告中也提出：要“完善公务员制度，建设一

支高素质的专业化国家行政管理干部队伍。”报告明确了公务员队伍建设的目标是高素质、专业化，这是在总结我国政府工作人员队伍建设以及政府工作实践的经验基础上，对政府管理工作以及政府工作人员提出的新要求。

开展MPA教育，有利于优化公务员队伍的学历结构、知识结构和专业结构，有利于建设一支高素质、专业化的公务员队伍，有利于提高公共管理的水平和效率，对加速培养适应新世纪经济、社会发展需要的高层次复合型公共管理人才起到积极、重要的作用。

此外，随着我国社会主义市场经济体系的逐步完善，政府在推动经济发展和社会资源配置中的职能和角色也正在发生着深刻的变化，很多过去由政府包下来的公共事务管理职能也将由非政府的公共管理或服务部门来完成。这方面的机构涉及一般的社会公共组织、中介机构、公益性组织和非政府组织（NGO）以及非营利组织（NPO）等等。近年来，这些公共部门的职能正日益增强，对相关管理人员的素质要求和数量要求也有很大的提高。有关的部门也一再反映，希望尽快开展公共管理硕士专业学位教育，以便为这些社会公共管理机构提供称职的专业管理人才。

中国的MPA正刚刚起步，任重而道远，愿她走好、走远，也希望社会各方面关心、帮助和扶持她的成长。我们的这一套MPA系列教材在上海人民出版社的大力支持下面世，愿它能够为我国的MPA教育作出一份贡献。它也必将随着我国MPA教育事业的发展而逐步完善。

顾建光

于上海番禺路寓所

使用说明

本书为公共管理硕士专业学位(MPA)专业英语教材。

本书以专题的形式共设置了七个单元,每个单元有2—5篇文章。为了便于学生理解文章内容,每篇文章后都对文中出现的有关词汇(Vocabulary)、关键词(Key Term)、新词组(New Phrase)进行了解释,并对文中较难理解的句子给出了中文译文。同时,每篇文章后还配有"问题与讨论"(Questions and Discussions)的练习,旨在培养学生的英语思维能力和口头表达能力。

教师可以通过课文学习和模拟、听力练习、听读转换、复述、课堂讨论等教学形式,帮助学生熟悉有关新学科的专业术语和概念,提高学生阅读、理解英语专业文献的能力;通过重点讲解英译汉的技巧,使学生能够准确、流畅地阅读、翻译公共行政管理学科的英语文献;同时适当安排一定的口语练习,使学生在未来的工作中能用英语进行基本的口头交流。

通过学习本书各单元,我们希望学生全学年的总阅读量能达到20—26万字母,掌握专业常用词汇2560—3500条;英译汉的翻译速度(不查阅字典)为1500—2000字母/小时,英语阅读速度为150—200字母/分钟;能用英文书写论文摘要,正确表达原意,无重大语言错误。

本课程总学时为144学时，其中阅读讲课40—48学时，阅读练习32—36学时，翻译练习考察28—36学时，听力练习和讨论20—24学时。

各学校可以根据自身情况，对教学进度进行调整，也可有针对性地选择若干课文作为教学内容。

编　者

2003年2月

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Unit One

Public Administration and Management

1.1 The Big Questions of Public Management

Whenever physicists get together, they discuss the big questions of physics. Physicists have big questions about the universe: How did the universe begin? When did the universe begin? How big is the universe (which is the same question as how old is the universe? Will the universe continue to expand forever, or will it eventually stop expanding and then start contracting)?

Physicists also have big questions about the composition of matter. What are the most basic building blocks or elementary particles from which all physical objects are constructed? How do these building blocks interact? That is, what are the forces that hold these elementary particles together or push them apart?

Indeed, in physics, there are numerous big questions. For example, Nobel Prize winner Steven Weinberg writes, "The theory of the formation of galaxies is one of the great outstanding problems of astrophysics." "The formation of galaxies provides one of the thorniest problems in cosmology." "Despite intensive work, no solution has been produced which does not amount to saying: a galaxy forms because the initial conditions of the universe preordained that it would." Physicists all know what these big questions are, what alternative answers exist, and how different people are attempting to sort out these alternatives, to create new alternatives, and answer the questions.

Get a group of paleontologists together, and they, too, will begin discussing the big questions of their field: Why did the dinosaurs die out? When did humans get to the American continents? One of the big questions for paleontologists and paleoanthropologists is: How did human life evolve? At the moment, there are two competing theories. There is the regional continuity theory: Homo erectus left Africa about a million years ago and evolved independently three different, modern populations of homo sapiens originally based in Europe, Asia, and the Middle East and Africa. There is also the out of Africa theory: we are all the direct descendants of a single homo sapien, a woman called Eve, who lived in Africa only 200,000 years ago.

Stephen Jay Gould, the prolific paleontologist, describes how the revision of the history of evolution forged by the fossils found in the Burgess Shale of British Columbia "poses two great problems about the history of life". First, why did modern, multicell life erupt in the Cambrian explosion of diversity rather than evolve slowly and continuously? Second, why did some of the creatures created by the Cambrian explosion survive and evolve while others disappeared?

In July 1900, at the International Congress of Mathematicians in Paris, the mathematician David Hilbert (1902) set forth what he thought were the 23 most important unsolved problems in mathematics—the ones that he thought his discipline should address in the next century. Nearly a century later, mathematicians continue to work on some of Hilbert's problems.

Get any group of scientists from any branch of science together, and they will start talking about the big questions in their field, the latest research published about those questions, and how they, through their own research, are attempting to tackle those same big questions. Any field of science is defined by the big questions it asks.

The same ought to be true for scholars of public management. We, too, ought to have our own big questions that we discuss and debate when we get together. These are the questions on which we ought to focus our research. These are the questions we ought to seek data and devise clever methodologies to answer. These big questions ought to define the field of public management.

The Big Questions and Science

The big questions about physics are what make it a science. Physics always has a number of big questions it is trying to answer, and it has a sense of how those questions should be answered. For some of the big questions, physicists have satisfied themselves that they have the answers. The big-bang theory of the beginning of the universe is so widely accepted by cosmologists that it is called "the standard model". Although every six months the Berkeley Lawrence Laboratory publishes a list of literally hundreds of subatomic particles, physicists generally agree upon a standard model for the structure of truly elementary particles: 24 bosons (including photons), 6 leptons (including the electron and the neutrino), and quarks. Baryons (including protons and neutrons) are each made up of 3 quarks, while mesons consist of 1 quark and 1 anti-quark. There are 18 different kinds of quarks: they come from 6 flavors (up, down, strange, charm, top, and bottom) as well as in 3 different colors (red, green, and blue).

No physicist, however, has seen a quark. Indeed, theoretical physics suggests that free quarks cannot exist. Thus, a big question for experimental physics is: Do quarks exist? Weinberg, an elementary-particle physicist, writes, "The puzzle of the nonexistence of isolated free quarks is one of the most important problems facing theoretical physics at the present moment."

Some of us may think that these big questions are not all that important. Would it really have been worth ten billion dollars to build a 54-mile subatomic racetrack in Texas that could crash two beams of protons into each other hoping to smash them apart into their most elementary, component particles, that is, quarks? Theoretical physicists predict what these elementary particles are. Experimental physicists need highspeed accelerators to break down stable particles into these predicted elementary particles so that they can be observed (or so that some phenomena predicted by their existence can be observed) and thus verified. In this time of budget deficits, a lot of us, and particularly those of us in the U.S. House of Representatives, did not think that answering this question warranted building the Superconducting Supercollider. That does not mean that the question is not a big one for physics. It simply means that the nonphysicists of the country would rather spend $ 10 billion on answering some other questions, or perhaps on acting on the basis of some questions to which (we think) we already have the answer.

The Scientific Method and the Big Questions

How do scientists answer their big questions? Success involves multiple ingredients: wisdom, hard work, and, sometimes, luck. In science, observe Nathan Spielberg and Bryon D. Anderson, "often dumb luck, sometimes called serendipity plays a role either in revealing a key piece of information or in revealing a particularly simple solution." Sometimes, such serendipity helps scientists discover the answer to a question that they did not know they were supposed to be asking. In an effort to answer one big question, they may end up answering another. For example, in 1826, Otto Unverdorben was attempting to produce a synthetic form of indigo but instead discovered aniline, an important molecule in the chemical and pharmaceutical industries.

Serendipity strikes a lot more frequently, however, than scientists recognize it. That is, most of the time the lucky observation of some revealing data produces no increase in knowledge; those who were blessed with the serendipitous data did not recognize its implications. After all, how many people over the millennia were bopped on the head by a falling apple before Isaac Newton discovered gravity? Every ancestor of Newton had watched objects fall; yet he was the first one. Building on the ideas of Kepler and Galileo, who discovered the law of gravity? It takes a prepared scientist—someone who knows what the big questions are—to recognize when an answer to an unanswered question fortuitously presents itself. For serendipity to really work in science, the lucky scientist must simultaneously recognize both the answer and the question.

Joseph H. Taylor, Jr., and Russell A. Hulse were awarded the 1993 Nobel Prize for physics for discovering a binary pulsar. Pulsars are collapsed, rotating stars that emit beacons of electromagnetic radiation, much as a lighthouse emits a beacon of light. Moreover, the rotational frequency of the pulsar, and thus the timing between their beacons of radiation is extremely constant. Taylor and Hulse, however, discovered a pulsar whose frequency was modulated. This, obviously, was pure luck. Even discovering a new pulsar is luck; you just happen to point your radio telescope in its direction.

Recognizing the implications of scientific luck is not luck. Taylor and Hulse recognized: (1) that frequency of the pulsar's beam varied because it was rotating in orbit with another pulsar (whose beam was not pointed towards earth), (2) that this pair of orbiting pulsars should emit, according to Einstein's theory of general relativity, gravity waves, and thus (3) that this pair of pulsars could be used to test the theory of general relativity. Taylor and Hulse won the Nobel Prize not for finding a pulsar with a beacon whose frequency modulated but for recognizing the implications of that modulation and using that implication to test one of the big questions of 20th-century physics: Is the theory of general relativity correct?

As scholars of public management aspire to make their field a science, they, too, need to focus on big questions. Unfortunately, the effort to create a science of administration—to make management look more like physics (or, at least, more like economics)—has led to an emphasis on methodology, on the manipulation of data. After all, real