Measuring the quality of Government at the subnational level and comparing results with previous studies

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1. Introduction

This document presents the latest of three rounds of the EQI data on regional governance in EU countries (Charron, Dijkstra and Lapuente 2014, 2015; Charron, Lapuente and Rothstein 2013). While this round of data largely builds on the work of previous rounds, there are several alterations based on suggestions from a Rauch analysis of the 2010, and 2013 rounds of the EQI data (Annoni and Charron 2017). In this document, we highlight the sample, summary statistics and question items that are included in the 2017 round of the EQI. Together with national estimates from the World Bank Governance Indicators (Kaufmann, Kraay and Mastruzzi 2009), we report data on Quality of Government ('QoG') for all EU 28 countries and for NUTS 1 and NUTS 2 regions for 21 EU countries, totaling 185 regions[1][2]. The QoG questions are aimed at capturing average citizens' perceptions and experiences with corruption, and the extent to which they rate their public services as impartial and of good quality.

In addition, we highlight broad patterns as we see them in the data and more specifically analyze trend in the EQI over time within regions. Using several statistical and observational techniques, we elucidated four interesting case studies from Spain and Poland, which were undertaken to better draw out 'best practices' to improve governance at the sub-national level in other EU regions.

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[1] The 2017 round of survey data and research was funded by the EU Commission via an EU Tender "Measuring Quality of Government and Sub-National Variation"

[2] NUTS stands for 'Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics' and more can be read about this at: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/nuts_nomenclature/introduction

Kosovo is included, and because it is technically still a region in Serbia according to the EU, it is coded as such here as well.

PART I: EQI survey, methodology & results

2. Background, Methodology and Sample

The field work began during the month of May, 2017 and were conducted in the local majority language in each country/region. The results were returned to the Quality of Government Institute in August, 2017.

The E.U. regional survey was undertaken by Efficience 3 (E3), a French market-research, Survey Company specializing in public opinion throughout Europe for researchers, politicians and advertising firms. E3 has also conducted the 2010 and 2013 rounds of the EQI and were thus familiar with the question format and goals of the survey. E3 conducted the interviews themselves in several countries and used sub-contracting partners in others[3]. The respondents, from 18 years of age or older, were contacted randomly via telephone in the local language. Telephone interviews were conducted via both landlines and mobile phones, with both methods being used in most countries. Decisions about whether to contact residents more often via land or mobile lines was based on local expertise of market research firms in each country. For purposes of regional placement, respondents were asked the post code of their address to verify the area/ region of residence if mobile phones were used.

Ideally, a survey would be a mirror image of actual societal demographics – gender, income, education, rural-urban, ethnicity, etc. However, we are not privy to exact demographic distributions; in particular at the regional level in most cases, thus imposing artificial demographic lines might lead to even more problems than benefits. We thus sought the next best solution. Based on their expert advice, to achieve a random sample, we used what was known in survey-research as the 'next birthday method'. The next birthday method is an alternative to the so-called quotas method. When using the quota method for instance, one obtains a (near) perfectly representative sample – e.g. a near exact proportion of the amount of men, women, certain minority groups, people of a certain age, income, etc. However, as one searches for certain demographics within the population, one might end up with only 'available' respondents, or those that are more 'eager' to respond to surveys, which can lead to less variation in the responses, or even bias in the results. The 'next-birthday' method, which simply requires the interviewer to ask the person who answers the phone who in their household will have the next birthday, still obtains a reasonably representative sample of the population. The interviewer must take the person who has the next coming birthday in the household (if this person is not available, the interviewer makes an appointment), thus not relying on whomever might simply be available to respond in the household. So, where the quota method is stronger in terms of a more even demographic spread in the sample, the next-birthday method is stronger at ensuring a better range of opinion. The next-birthday method was thus chosen because we felt that what we might have lost in demographic representation in the sample would be made up for by a better distribution of opinion. In attempt to compensate for some key demographic over/under-representation, E3 provides weights based on age and gender for each region, comparing the sample drawn to actual demographic statistics from Eurostat. In the end, we find variation in response and refusal rates by country, which could have to do with many factors including the sensitivity of one of the primary the topics at hand – corruption. A breakdown of the sample response rate, land line vs. mobile phone use, etc. is listed in the table below by country.

[3] http://www.efficience3.com/en/accueil/index.html. For names of the specific firms to which Efficience 3 sub-contracted in individual countries, please write cati@efficience3.com

Table 1: Sample by Country

Country	NUTS lvl	# regions	n per NUTS	total n	% sample
1 France	2	26	401	10422	13.4
2 Belgium	1	3	450	1350	1.7
3 Bulgaria	2	6	400	2400	3.1
4 Czech Republic	2	8	450	3600	4.6
5 Slovakia	2	4	450	1800	2.3
6 Hungary	2	7*	400	2800	3.6
7 Croatia	2	2	450	900	1.2
8 Romania	2	8	450	3600	4.6
9 Finland	2	5	400	2000	2.6
10 Italy	2	21	400	8400	10.8
11 Greece	1	4	405	1620	2.1
12 Portugal	2	7	400	2800	3.6
13 Denmark	2	5	450	2250	2.9
14 Sweden	1	3	400	1200	1.5
15 Germany	1	16	450	7200	9.2
16 UK	1	12	450	5400	6.9
17 Ireland	2	2	450	900	1.2
18 Austria	2	9	450	4050	5.2
19 Netherlands	1	4*	460	1840	2.4
20 Poland	2	16	403	6442	8.3
21 Spain	2	17	411	6992	9
Total		185		77966	100

Note: *Hungary was a NUTS 1 country in 2010 and 2013 and is now at NUTS 2. Netherlands was a NUTS 1 and NUTS 2 country in 2010 and 2013 respectively and is now at NUTS 1, yet NUTS 2 regions are calculated so as to make comparisons with 2013 data.

Two issues in the preparation of this study are worthy of mention here. First, in some areas, such as immigration, customs, defence or the judicial arena, we do not expect much variation from region to region within countries at all. Thus to maximize regional variation on the QoG-oriented question in the survey, we elected to limit the questions in the survey to only those policy areas that are most often either governed or administered by sub-national bodies. In the end, three policy areas were selected – health care, education and law enforcement. In addition to these three policy areas, we also inquire about the integrity of regional elections as well as the impartiality of the tax authorities.

The second issue to deal with is the fact that in some countries – such as Germany, Belgium, Italy or Spain – the regions that we are targeting in the questions are both politically and administratively meaningful. That is to say that these regional governments are elected by their local constituents, and that these governments have their own autonomous revenues (either from directly taxing citizens, or central government transfers or both) and have a degree of autonomy with which to redistribute resources in the form of public services. However, in more politically centralized countries, such as Bulgaria, Romania, Slovakia or Portugal, this issue becomes more challenging. The regions that we are targeting (NUTS 1 or NUTS 2) while meaningful in the sense that EU development funds are targeted directly to

them and that Eurostat reports annual data on them, they have in some cases been mainly an invention for EU statistical purposes, yet not politically meaningful. Therefore asking a respondent in some cases 'how would you rate the quality 'X' service in your region of 'Y'' might be very confusing, since respondents from countries like Hungary or Romania might not recognize that they are even living in region 'Y'. It can therefore be argued that the administrative and political responsibility of the regions in these three public services varies in different countries and thus this may be problematic for this data gathering. However this study argues otherwise, in that we attempt to capture all regional variation within a country and, as several other scholars have noted (e.g. Tabellini 2005; Charron and Lapuente 2013), there are numerous empirical indications and anecdotal evidence pointing out that the provision and quality of public services controlled by a powerful central government can nonetheless largely vary across different regions.

In the 2010 and 2013 rounds, in order to synthesize the survey and make the results as comparable between and within countries as possible, we asked respondents about questions focusing around three key concepts of QoG – the 'quality' of the services themselves, the extent to which they are administered 'impartiality' and extent to which 'corruption' exists in their area. In countries where the NUTS region is not recognizable, we continue with this approach. However, in 2017, for countries with politically relevant regions, we elected to attempt to maximize validity and regional variation at the regional level by substituting the local word for the regional level in question in lieu of 'in your area'. For example, in Germany, a respondent would hear the phrase 'in your Bundesland'.

Table 2: Demographic summary of Respondents 2017 survey

category		% respondents
Gender		
	male	48.6
	female	51.4
Education		
	<Primary	10.1
	some secondary	17.6
	secondary	34.2
	college/university	27.8
	post-grad degree	10
	n/a	0.3
Age		
	18-29	18
	30-44	35.8
	45-64	26.9
	>65	19.3
	n/a	0.1
Income		
	Low	26.2
	Medium	31.6
	High	28.8
	n/a	13.4
Employment		
	Public sector	19.8
	private sector	39.8
	student	4.2
	unemployed	6
	Housewife/man	3.7
	retired	24.6
	other	1.3
	n/a	0.6
Population		
	<10k	32.9
	10k-100k	37.5
	100k-1m	20.9
	>1m	6.8
	n/a	2.1

3. 2017 Survey Question Items

Several empirical (based on Annoni and Charron 2017) and conceptual improvements are made to the question items that make up the EQI index in 2017. In sum, three key changes have been made. First, the scale of the questions has been changed. In previous years we used an odd-numbered 11 point scale. However, we found that the '5' response (mid-point) was overused and might be lead to misleading results. An even '10 point' scale is now employed to keep the variation of a larger scale but to eliminate the middle category which may have been representing 'don't know' at times. Second, two questions have been removed due to poor performance, and three others have been added, for a total of 17 question items (compared with 16 in the previous two rounds). Third, as noted, we emphasize the regional level in question in the local langue by country when relevant (as opposed to 'in your area' in previous years in all cases)[4].

We begin however by highlighting the 'core' questions that have remained in the three rounds of the survey over time.

First, in question 4-6 in the current survey, respondents rate the quality of their three public services in question on a scale of '1' (extremely poor quality) to '10' (extremely high quality):

4. 'How would you rate the quality of public education in your area5?' (edqual)

5. 'How would you rate the quality of the public health care system in your area?' (helqual)

6. 'How would you rate the quality of the police force in your area?' (lawqual)

The next six questions try to capture the extent to which public services are delivered impartially in the regions of Europe. 'Impartiality' is admittedly a more complicated concept to put forth to respondents than 'quality', so we framed this question in two ways –with a more negative tone, and a more positive tone. In the first three questions (7-9), we asked citizens to rate whether they agreed that 'certain people' get special advantages when dealing with the public service in question from 1 (strongly disagree) to 10 (strongly agree). The second set of questions (10-12) asks respondents whether all people in their region are 'treated equally' by the service in question on a four point scale (1. Agree, 2. rather agree, 3. rather disagree or 4. Disagree). We use all six questions in the final index to allow for as much variation as possible while not letting either the 'positively' or 'negatively' framed question determine the impartiality data alone.

7. "Certain people are given special advantages in the public education system in my area." (edimpart1)

8. "Certain people are given special advantages in the public health care system in my area." (helimpart1)

[4] In cases where countries have politically relevant or recognizable regions at the NUTS 1 or NUTS 2 level in question, we substitute this phrase with the regional name.

9. "The police force gives special advantages to certain people in my area." (lawimpart1)

10. "All citizens are treated equally in the public education system in my area" (edimpart2)

11. "All citizens are treated equally in the public health care system in my area" (helimpart2)

12. "All citizens are treated equally by the police force in my area" (lawimpart2)

The next three questions deal with respondents' perception of the extent to which corruption is present in their public services, along with a general question of how often they believe that 'others in their area' use corruption to obtain public services. Again, perceptions may not capture the full story, however, as Kaufman et al (2009:3) argue "perceptions matter because agents base their actions on their perceptions, impression, and views", thus if citizens believe their public services are inefficient or corruption, they are less likely to use their services, likewise with foreign firms and investment in countries perceived to be plagued with problems of rent-seeking and public sector mismanagement. However, we complement these questions with additional questions about respondents' actual experience with bribery later on. The first three questions are scaled as 1-10, with '1' being "strongly disagree" and '10' being "strongly agree".

13. "Corruption is prevalent in my area's local public school system" (edcorr)

14. "Corruption is prevalent in the public health care system in my area" (helcorr)

15. "Corruption is prevalent in the police force in my area" (lawcorr)

The following two question constitute a slight change from the previous 2010 and 2013 rounds, whereby instead of asking citizens about either 'how often others engage in bribery to obtain public services' (2010), or asking respondents about corruption for 'special advantages' (2013), we split these ideas of so called 'need' and 'greed' corruption (Bauhr 2014) into the following two questions (1-10, with '1' being "strongly disagree" and '10' being "strongly agree")

16a. People in my area must use some form of corruption to just to get some basic public services

16b. Corruption in my area is used to get access to special unfair privileges and wealth.

In addition to corruption perceptions questions, we ask about citizens' direct experience with corruption. In contrast to 2010 and 2013, where we only inquired about whether a respondent paid a bribe for one of the public service in question, we add whether the respondent was asked to pay a bribe by a public sector employee at one of the services in question so as to attempt to capture the direction of who is the 'initiator'. For the final index, we code a respondent as '1' for Q17 or 18 if they answered 'yes' to any of the four sub-questions.

17. In the last 12 months, have you or anyone in your family been asked by a public official to give an informal gift or bribe in: (a): Education services? (b): Health or medical services? (c): Police? d) any other public service? '(yes/no)' (bribe)

18. 'In the past 12 months have you or anyone living in your household paid a bribe in any form to: (a): Education services? (b): Health or medical services? (c): Police? d) any other public service? '(yes/no)' (bribe)

Finally, we ask about two other relevant regional aspects of QoG, namely the extent to which corruption is present in their area's elections and the respondents' view of how fair the tax authorities are. In previous rounds, we inquired about one's trust in their area's media in reporting on matters of corruption in the public sector and among politicians.

Q19-20: Please respond to the following 2 questions with the following ('0' strongly disagree - '10' strongly agree)

Q18: "Elections in my area are clean from corruption" (elections)

Q20: The tax authorities in my area treat all people equally (tax)

4. Construction of the EQI

We begin by taking the country average from the World Bank's WGI data for four indicators: 'control of corruption', 'government effectiveness', 'rule of law' and 'voice and accountability' and combine the four into one composite index (equal weighting)[6] The data is taken for the most recent year of publication (in this case 2015). Then, the combined WGI data is standardized for the EU sample. This figure is used as country's mean score in the EQI for all countries in the sample so as to combine those countries outside the survey with those in it as well as to 'anchor' the regional QoG estimates in a national context that is not captured by the regionally-based survey questions[7] Table 3 shows the results of the latest national level WGI scores by country and indicator. The countries are in rank order and grouped together based on the result of a cluster analysis[8] of that grouped together countries that were most similar on the four individual WGI indicators. The scores are then added together (equal weighting) and then standardized within the sample of 30 European countries. As a point of reference, we also provide the rank-change from the 2013 EQI (which used 2011 WGI data)

We see six cluster groups in the data. The most difficult states to place were Malta and Cyprus, as they could also belong to group 4, yet in the end were placed in group 3. Moreover, when changing some assumptions of the cluster analysis, Slovakia could be placed in the higher group 4. We observe that the rank order of countries has not changed for most of the states in the sample, and most changes are only 1-2 places. Notable exceptions are Cyprus, Austria, and Hungary, which fell three places, and Spain which fell five places respectively since the EQI 2013 (which used the latest published WGI data at that time, which was from 2011). Notable improvements were Estonia and Portugal, which climbed three and Lithuania, which made the largest changes at plus 6 in the rankings within the EU28. In addition, Greece now enters the

6 In addition, we underwent extensive sensitivity testing of each of these 4 pillars of QoG from the World Bank and found the data to be highly robust. For a closer look at the sensitivity tests and results for the EU sample of countries see Charron, Nicholas. 2010. "Assessing The Quality of the Quality of Government Data: A Sensitivity Test of the World Bank Government Indicators." QoG Working paper.

7 Charron 2013 provides more on this point.

8 Wards linkage and squared Euclidean distancing

bottom group, where Romania and Bulgaria had been the only EU28 countries in the first two rounds.

Table 3: Country Level Governance Indicators and Rankings

2017 rank	country	CoC	RoL	GEE	VAA	total ave.	EU z-score	2013 rank	rank change
1	FINLAND	2.28	2.07	1.82	1.56	1.93	1.446	2	1
2	SWEDEN	2.25	2.04	1.81	1.6	1.92	1.428	3	1
3	DENMARK	2.23	2.04	1.85	1.57	1.92	1.425	1	-2
4	NETHERLANDS	1.89	1.93	1.84	1.57	1.81	1.232	4	0
5	LUXEMBOURG	2.12	1.86	1.72	1.52	1.81	1.226	5	0
6	GERMANY	1.82	1.78	1.74	1.43	1.69	1.034	7	1
7	UK	1.87	1.81	1.74	1.27	1.67	0.995	8	1
8	IRELAND	1.64	1.79	1.54	1.35	1.58	0.839	9	1
9	AUSTRIA	1.49	1.85	1.47	1.4	1.55	0.796	6	-3
10	BELGIUM	1.58	1.42	1.44	1.39	1.46	0.636	10	0
11	FRANCE	1.28	1.41	1.44	1.18	1.33	0.413	11	0
12	ESTONIA	1.25	1.33	1.09	1.17	1.21	0.213	15	3
13	PORTUGAL	0.92	1.14	1.23	1.12	1.1	0.031	16	3
14	MALTA	0.92	1.15	0.85	1.18	1.03	-0.101	13	-1
15	CYPRUS	0.98	1.01	1.04	1.04	1.02	-0.116	12	-3
16	LITHUANIA	0.56	0.98	1.2	0.97	0.93	-0.27	22	6
17	SLOVENIA	0.73	0.95	0.97	0.95	0.9	-0.317	17	0
18	CZECH REP.	0.39	1.12	1.05	1.02	0.9	-0.323	18	0
19	SPAIN	0.49	0.9	1.18	1.02	0.89	-0.325	14	-5
20	POLAND	0.58	0.8	0.8	1.04	0.81	-0.478	19	-1
21	LATVIA	0.4	0.79	1.1	0.82	0.78	-0.527	23	2
22	SLOVAK REP.	0.15	0.48	0.84	0.97	0.61	-0.812	20	-2
23	ITALY	-0.05	0.25	0.45	1.01	0.42	-1.138	24	1
24	HUNGARY	0.1	0.4	0.49	0.52	0.38	-1.203	21	-3
25	CROATIA	0.2	0.2	0.51	0.5	0.35	-1.248	26	1
26	GREECE	-0.13	0.24	0.25	0.59	0.24	-1.444	25	-1
27	ROMANIA	-0.05	0.15	-0.04	0.43	0.12	-1.637	28	1
28	BULGARIA	-0.31	-0.12	0.22	0.39	0.04	-1.777	27	-1

Table 4: Summary of Regional EQI Indicators

Pillar	Variable Description	Variable name
Corruption Items		
perceptions		
	corruption in education	stEdCorr
	corruption in health care	stHelCorr
	corruption in law enforcement	stLawCorr
	need corruption	stNeedCorr
	greed corruption	stGreedCorr
	elections clean from corruption	stElecCorr
experiences		
	asked to pay a bribe for public service	stnoAskB_any1
	paid a bribe for public service	stnopayB_any1
Impartiality Items		
	some get special advantages in education	stEdImpart1
	some get special advantages in health care	stHelImpart1
	some get special advantages in law enforcement	stLawImpart1
	all treated equally in education	stEdImpart2
	all treated equally in health care	stHelImpart2
	all treated equally in law enforcement	stLawImpart2
	All treated fairly by tax authorities	stTaxImpart
Quality Items		
	quality of education	stEdQual
	quality of health care	stHelQual
	quality of law enforcement	stLawQual

In previous rounds, we then took the standardized sample mean for 2015 WGI data and set each country's national average as such. ***A key difference in this round (and retrospectively in other two rounds) we now aggregate to the WGI at the pillar levels of corruption impartiality and quality in order to better make use of these three distinct concepts empirically*** (as shown in Figure 1). This also allows for the added advantage of more valid comparison of unit changes in each pillar over time. The regional data itself combines 18 survey questions about QoG in the region, which are shown in Table 3. As noted, the questions are centered on three QoG concepts: 'quality', 'impartiality' and 'corruption'. In building the regional index, we re-score each variable so that higher numbers equate to higher QoG and then the 18 questions/indicators to three pillars based on factor analysis[9] then we averaged these three pillars together to form the final index figure for each region. After each stage of aggregation, the data are standardized. For the seven EU28 countries outside of the regional survey, there is nothing to add to the WGI Country score, thus the WGI data is used as the QoG estimate alone, as regional variation is unobserved. With respect to countries with the regional data, we set the national average as the WGI for each of the three pillars[10] and explain the within-country variance using the regional-level data. The 'roadmap' so to speak of the aggregation process can be seen in Figure 1.

To begin, we aggregate the individual scores ('survey question') to the corresponding regional level, so that each of the 17 questions in the index is now a regional 'indicator'. We test the overall consistency of the 17 indicators with the Cronbach's Alpha, which was 0.934, showing high levels of association. In addition, of the 153 pairwise correlations, all but two are positive when items are re-scaled so that higher scores equal higher QoG (see appendix, table A2). The two are between stnopayB_any1 and stEdImpart1, and stnopayB_any1 and stTaxImpart; yet neither negative pairwise correlation is significant (p value = 0.39 and 0.14 respectively). Next, factor analysis then groups the 18 indictors into more similar groupings, of which we find three. After normalizing each of the 18 indicators (through z-score standardization) so that they share a common range, the 18 indicators are aggregated into the three groupings 'pillars'. The one exception is the corruption pillar that has one additional step – which contains two sub-pillars called 'experience' and 'perceptions' which represent question items reflecting personal experience with petty corruption versus perception of corruption in various other areas. These two sub-pillars are aggregated using equal weighting. The pillars are then aggregated into the regional index[11]. After each step of aggregation, the data is standardized.

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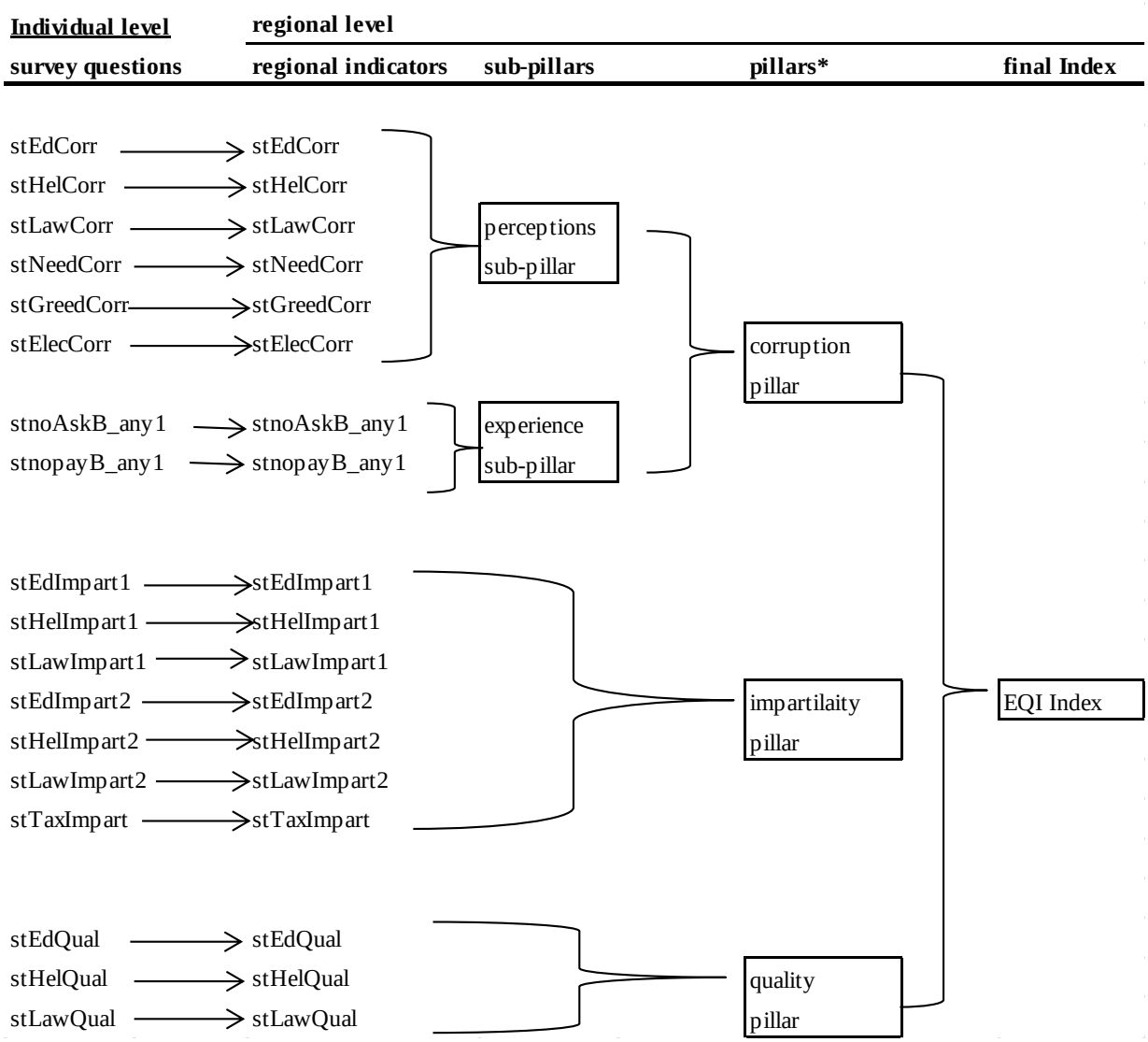
[9] Results of the factor analysis can factor weights are found in the appendix 2, Table A.3 of this paper. In previous years, the underlying pillars were determined by the concepts, while in 2017, there were three clusters that were determined soley by the principle component analysis

[10] For corruption pillar, the regional estimates are centered round the 'control of corruption WGI score. For impartiality, the estimates are set around 'government effectiveness' WGI score. The regional impartiality indicators are centered on the 'rule of law' and the regional 'quality' indicators are centered on the 'voice and accountability' and 'government effectiveness' WGI national scores.

[11] Nardo et al. (2008) point out that when combining multiple indicators into a single index, the underlying data should be significantly correlated. We find that 98.5% of the pairwise correlations among the variables are significant and in the expected direction at the 99% level of confidence. We show the results in Appendix 2, Table A.2.

Figure 1: EQI 2017 Roadmap



Note: * represents the stage at which the regional data is centered on the national level WGI data.

For data for the regional pillars' score for each of the countries included in the 2017 regional survey, weighting each region's score by their share of the national population. This figure is thus used to explain regional variation only within each country included (not absolute levels of QoG). We then subtract this mean score from each region's individual pillar score from the regional study, which shows if the region is above or below its national average and by how much. This figure is then added to the national level, WGI data, so each region has an adjusted score for each of the three pillars, centered on the respective WGI indicators. It is worth mentioning that none of the regional variation from the regional index is lost during this merging process; the country mean of all regional scores is simply adjusted. The formula employed is the following:

$$EQIpillar_{regionX\ in\ countryY} = WGI_{countryY} + \left(Rqog_{regionX\ in\ countryY} - CRqog_{countryY}\right)$$

where 'EQI' is the final score from each region or country ***in each pillar*** –corruption, impartiality and quality - of the EQI. 'WGI' is the World Bank's national average for each country for each pillar, while 'Rqog' is each region's score from the regional survey and 'CRqog' is the country average (weighted by regional population) of all regions within the country from the regional survey for each pillar. The EQI pillars are standardized so that the mean is '0' with a standard deviation of '1'. The three pillar scores are then aggregated using equal weighting.

A full list of the EQI for 2017 for all countries and regions is located in Appendix 1. As in the results for 2010 and 2013, we find that in several cases, the data show significant and wide variations in QoG within countries (Italy, Belgium, Spain and Bulgaria for example), while others show little to no variation in regional QoG (Denmark, Sweden, Netherlands, Slovakia).

5. Margins of Error for the EQI 2017

As we reported for 2010, we construct margins of error for the regional estimates, similar to the authors of the WGI report 'margins of error' around each of the QoG variables that they publish annually. The idea is to construct a type of margin of error around the regional estimates so that we can say with some degree of certainty that region 'x's higher QoG score is in fact 'significantly' higher than region 'y's score.

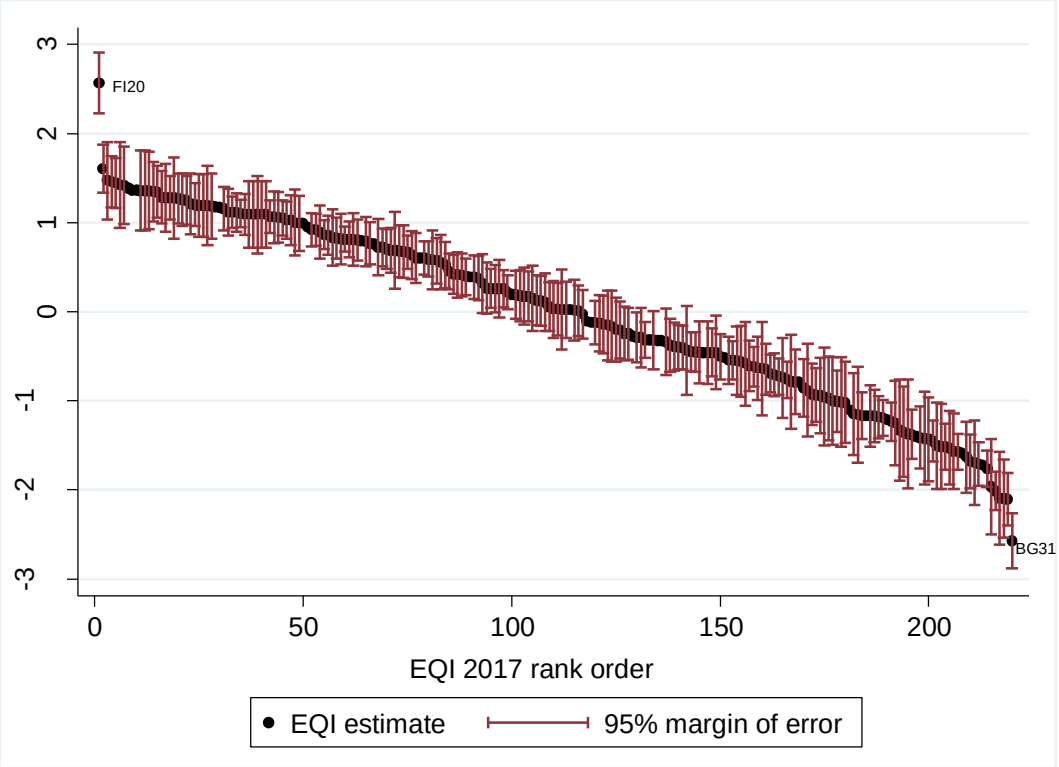
As noted, the regional QoG index is based on data from a randomly selected group of respondents in each of the 185 regions. Since this is an estimate of the total population, we provide some sence of the uncertainaty around the data point. Although, in theory, any number can be chosen, we select a margin of error at the 95% confidence level. After obtaining the margin of error based on our sample size, we then can calculate the distance around the estimates of QoG for each region.

To be precise, there are two ways to go about calculating the margin of error for survey data – an 'exact' confidence interval and an 'approximate' confidence interval. The former takes into account both sampling and non-sampling errors, while the latter only random sampling errors. While the 'exact' interval may be more precise, we find the advantages of the 'approximate' confidence interval to far outweigh the drawbacks, in particular with respect to the efficiency and time saved in the calculation. Moreover, we have no reason to suspect that there is any bias in certain groups being excluded or not being forthright in their responses, so compensating for such error is simply beyond our reach. Thus we report an 'approximate' confidence interval for each region's QoG estimate.

We begin by assuming a normal distribution of the sample so that we may use the Central Limit Theorem. We know from basic statistical probability that in a sample 'x', 95% of the area of a basic normal Bell curve are between our estimates (μ) 1.96+/- the standard error around μ. We calculate the standard error as: S.E. = $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$. The margin of error for each individual region is based around the QoG estimate: $1.96 +/- \left(\sigma/\sqrt{n}\right)$ with N = 18, because there are 18 indicators in the QoG index which have been aggregated from the survey data.

As shown in Figure 5, each region will have their own individual margin of error based on the consistency of the estimates for each of the 18 aggregated questions in the survey. Regions where aggregate responses to the QoG questions are inconsistent (e.g. citizens feel that that the services are impartial, but lack good quality) will have higher margins of error than those regions where citizens rated the quality, impartiality and corruption at a consistently high (or moderate or low) level.

Figure 2: EQI in Rank order with Regional Margins of Error



The mean margin of error by region is 0.31 with a standard deviation of 0.10. The three regions with the greatest level of consistency are Burenland (AT11), Voralberg (AT32) and East Midland (UKF) with 0.14, 0.15 and 0.16 respectively. The three regions with the margins of error around their estimates are the two Croatian regions (HR03 and HR04) and Southern Transdanubia (HU22) with 0.57, 0.55 and 0.54 respectively. Figure 2 shows the full range of countries and regions with confidence intervals around the estimates of the EQI 2013[12] The highest ranked region is the small, island, Swedish speaking Finish region of Åland, which shows to be a positive outlier; while the region of Severozapad (BG31) is ranked lowest.

6. Testing the Uncertainty of the Estimates

In this section, we summarize a number of alternative simulations that were done to the index in order to test how sensitive the results are to our model assumptions and specifications. Specifically, we examine the effects of alternative weighting schemes, aggregation methods, standardization and exclusion of individual indicators in the index to test how close the results resemble the final ones reported.

In the 2017 version of the EQI, the method is now to center the regional indicators around national estimates for each of the three pillars – corruption, impartiality and quality – and thus to elucidate as clear results as possible, we undergo sensitivity

[12] Due to the fact that the margins of error are constructed using the regional data, there are no confidence intervals for the national level estimates, thus countries like Estonia or Malta do not have them.

analyses for each of the three pillars. In sum, the following adjustments are considered – testing the sensitivity with all possible combinations

Table 4 : Alternative Construction Scenarios to Test Uncertainty

model	weighting	aggregation	excluded indicators	standardization	micro to macro adjustments
original EQI	equal	arithmetic	none	z-score	none
alterantives	factor	geometric	all - one at a time	min-max	aggregate using gender & age weights
					aggregate exclusing high education
					aggregate exclusing low education

6.1 Corruption pillar

Table 5 shows the top 10 most divergent scenarios from the final EQI corruption pillar estimates. The tables shows the various ways in which the original EQI roadmap has been altered, along with the median shift in regional rank and the region with the greatest shift in rank due to the alteration and the direction of that shift.

In general, we observe that the corruption pillar is quite stable and robust to alterations. The Spearman rank coefficient is above 0.95 in all cases, and only in the simulation least like the original corruption pillar results do we see the Spearman rank drop below 0.96. The median shift in rank ranges between five and eight for the 10 most deviant scenarios in Table 5, which is relatively small given that there are 193 regions in the sample.

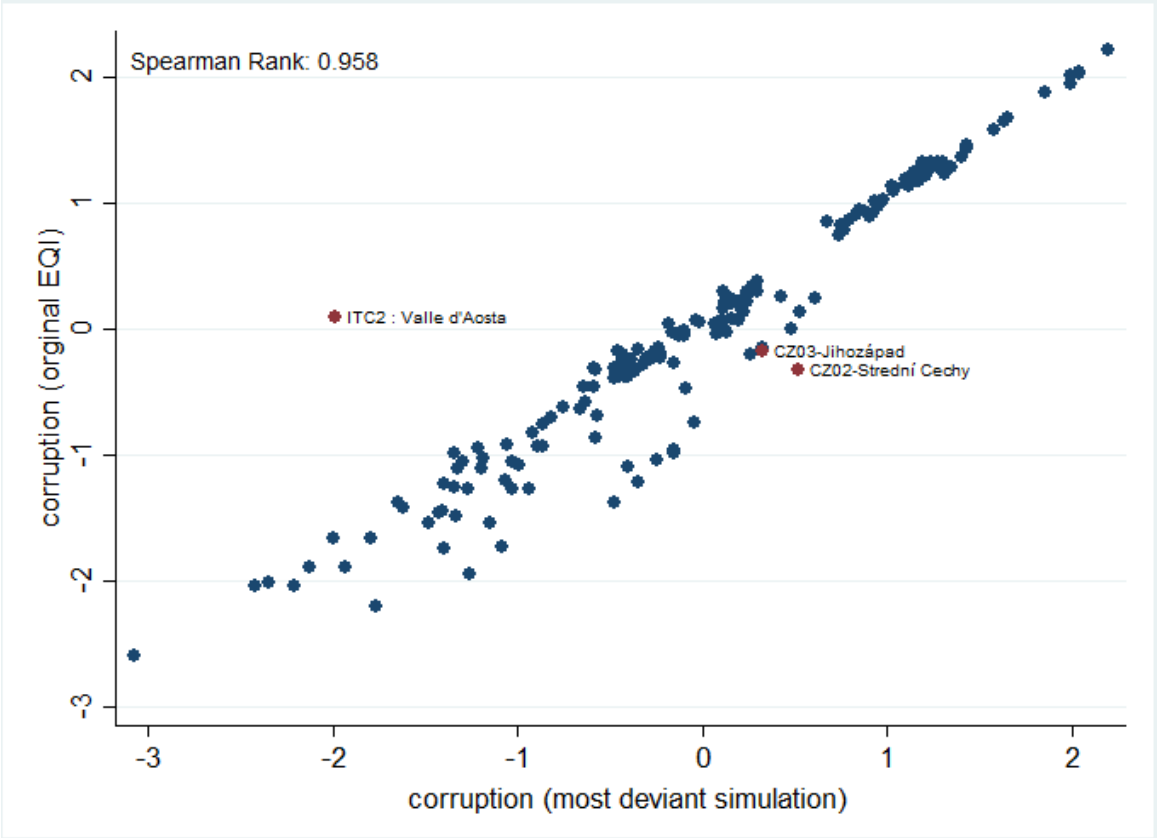
Table 5: Results of Sensitivity Testing for Regional Level Data in Corruption Pillar

Scenario Rank	Aggregation	Weighting	Excluded Indicator	micro-macro adjustment	Normalization Method	Median shift	Max shift	Max Region	Spearman Rank Coefficient
Reg. Corruption Pillar	Arithmetic	Equal	none	none	Standardized	0	0	0	1
1	Arithmetic	Equal	Pay bribe	Gender & age weights	Standardized	5	102 (-)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.958
2	Arithmetic	Factor	none	none	Standardized	8	44 (-)	Haute-Normandie (FR)	0.960
3	Arithmetic	Equal	Pay bribe	none	min-max	5	102(-)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.961
4	Arithmetic	Factor	none	drop high ed.	Standardized	8	88(-)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.962
5	Arithmetic	Factor	none	drop low ed.	Standardized	6	108(-)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.962
6	Arithmetic	Factor	none	Gender & age weights	Standardized	7	87(-)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.965
7	Arithmetic	Equal	Ask bribe	Gender & age weights	Standardized	6	104(+)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.966
8	Geometric	Factor	none	drop high ed.	Standardized	7	108 (-)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.967
9	Arithmetic	Equal	Ask bribe	none	min-max	6	104 (+)	Valle d'Aosta (IT)	0.967
10	Geometric	Equal	Ask bribe	none	Standardized	6	70 (+)	Střední Cechy (CZ)	0.969

Note: total of 193 regions, with 1st scenario representing the final index. These are the 10 scenarios LEAST like the aggregated regional Corruption index used to build the EQI. Median shift is absolute median shift.

There are a few outlying regions that are highly affected by alterations to the EQI index assumptions however. Namely, the region of Valle d'Aosta (ITC2) is highly sensitive to several of the alterations, moving at times over 100 places in the rankings. For example removing certain experience indicators of corruption, and making changes in the aggregation process from the micro to macro level. Other regions that make substantial shifts in ranks (between 35 and 70 places) in certain alternative simulations are Střední Cechy (CZ02), Jihozapad (CZ06), Haute-Normandie (FRD2), and Nyugat-Dunántúl (HU22). Figure 3 shows the scatterplot of the simulation with the lowest Spearman Rank coefficient compared with the original corruption pillar, highlighting regions that moved 50 places or more in the rankings.

Figure 3 : Most Deviant Scenario in Corruption Pillar



6.2 Impartiality

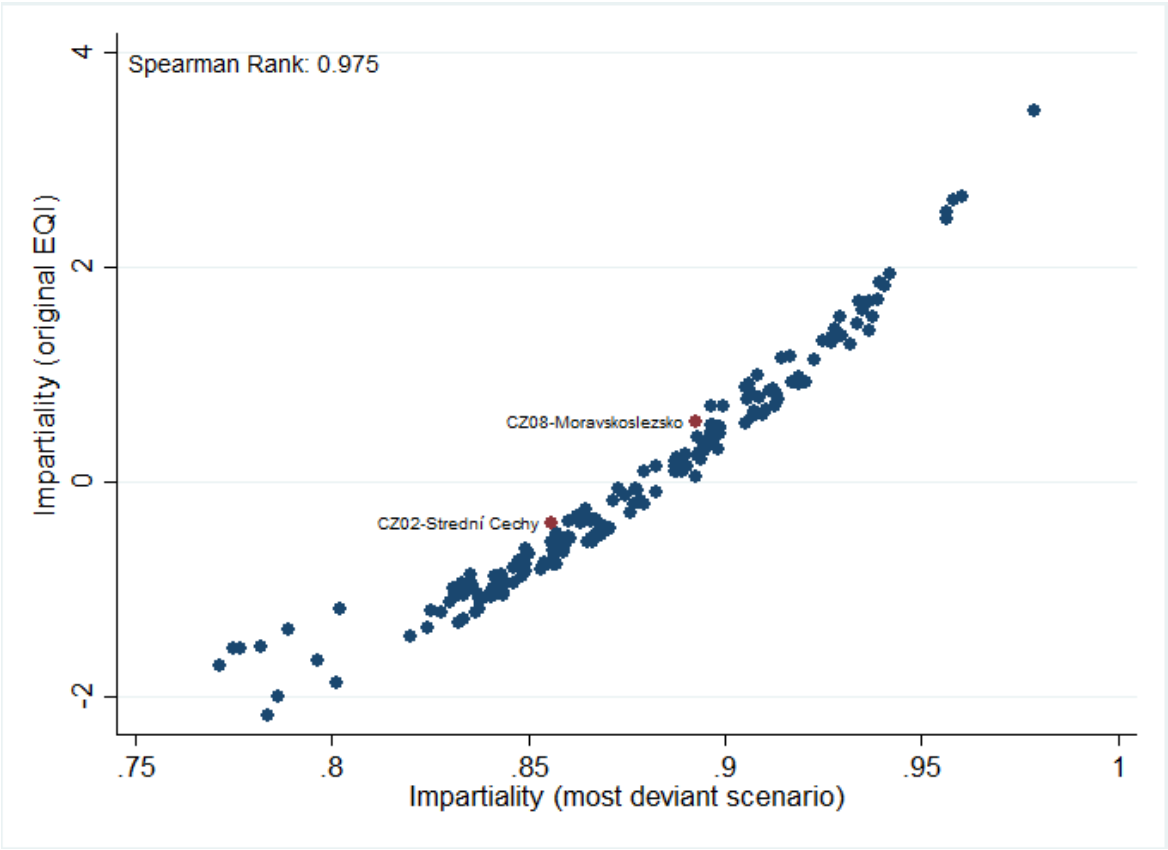
Table 6: Results of Sensitivity Testing for Regional Level Data in Impartiality Pillar

Rank	Aggregation method	Weighting	Removed Indicator	Micro-macro adjustment	Standardization Method	Median shift	Max shift	Max Region	Spearman Rank Coefficient
Reg. Corruption Pillar	Arithmetic	Equal	none	none	z-score	0	0	0	1
1	Arithmetic	Factor	Edimpart2	none	min-max	5	27 (-)	Střední Cechy (CZ)	0.975
2	Arithmetic	Equal	TaxImpart	none	min-max	5	31(-)	Severoiztochen (BG)	0.981
3	Arithmetic	Equal	Edimpart2	none	min-max	5	17 (-)	Nisia Aigaiou, Kriti (EL)	0.982
4	Arithmetic	Equal	LawImpart1	Gender & age weights	z-score	4	24 (+)	Nord Vest (RO)	0.982
5	Arithmetic	Equal	Edimpart2	none	z-score	5	20 (+)	Észak-Alföld (HU)	0.982
6	Arithmetic	Equal	TaxImpart	none	z-score	4	28 (-)	Yugoiztochen (BG)	0.982
7	Arithmetic	Factor	TaxImpart	none	min-max	4	30 (-)	Yugoiztochen (BG)	0.982
8	Arithmetic	Equal	LawImpart1	none	min-max	4	21 (+)	Nord Vest (RO)	0.984
9	Arithmetic	Equal	LawImpart1	none	min-max	5	22 (+)	Nord Vest (RO)	0.984
10	Arithmetic	Factor	LawImpart2	none	min-max	4	22 (+)	Brussels (BE)	0.985

Note: total of 193 regions, with 1st scenario representing the final index. These are the 10 scenarios LEAST like the aggregated regional Impartiality index used to build the EQI. Median shift is absolute median shift.

Table 6 reports a similar rank table of the ten most divergent cases from the original impartiality pillar. In this pillar, we observe much more stability than in corruption. All Spearman rank coefficient are 0.975 or above, and the median shifts are all between four and five places for the ten most divergent cases. The most drastic shift occurs for the region Severoiztochen (BG33), which drops 31 places when dropping the tax authority impartiality item (TaxImpart) and using min-max standardization. Otherwise, even the max shift does not exceed 30 places in most scenarios. Figure X shows the scatterplot with original and most divergent impartiality scenario, highlighting the two regions which shifted 25 places or more in the rankings.

Figure 4 : Most Deviant Scenario : Impartiality Pillar



6.3 Quality

Table 7: Results of Sensitivity Testing for Regional Level Data in Quality Pillar

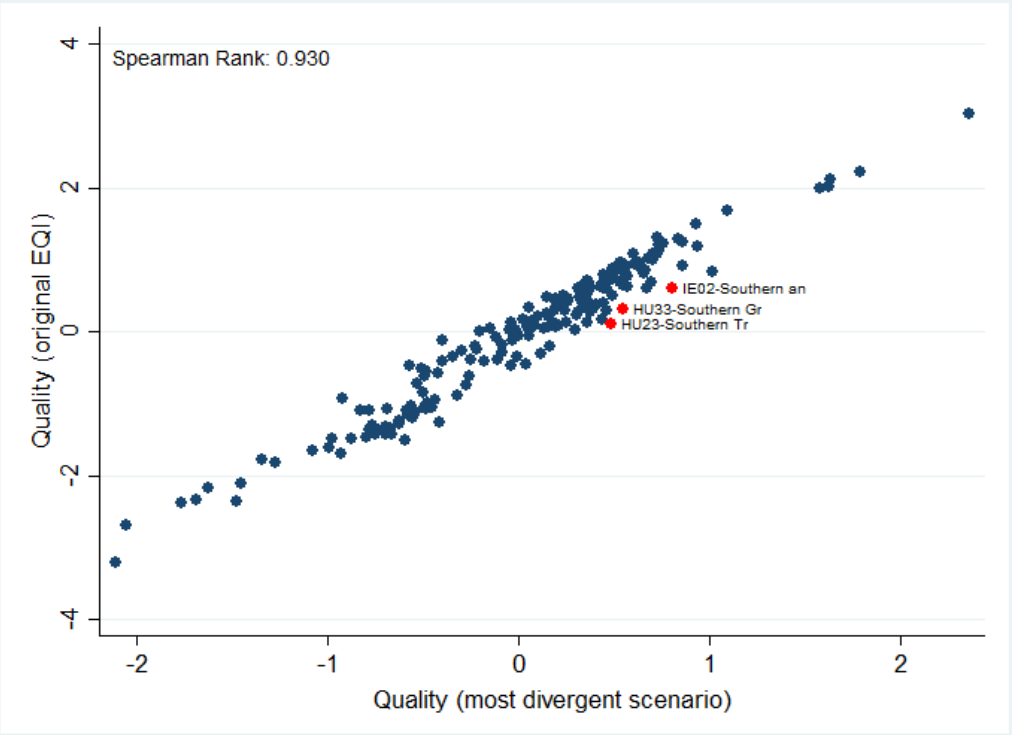
Scenario Rank	Aggregation	Weighting	Excluded Indicator	micro-macro adjustment	Normalization Method	Median shift	Max shift	Max Region	Spearman Rank Coefficient
Reg. Quality Pillar	Arithmetic	Equal	none	none	z-score	0	0	0	1
1	Arithmetic	Equal	HelQual	gender & age weights	z-score	7	56 (+)	Dél-Dunántúl (HU)	0.930
2	Arithmetic	Factor	HelQual	none	min-max	9	50 (+)	Dél-Alföld (HU)	0.930
3	Arithmetic	Equal	EdQual	gender & age weights	z-score	7	96 (-)	Border, Midland & Western (IE)	0.931
4	Arithmetic	Equal	HelQual	none	min-max	8	50 (+)	Dél-Alföld (HU)	0.931
5	Arithmetic	Equal	HelQual	none	z-score	8	48 (+)	Southern & Eastern (IE)	0.934
6	Arithmetic	Equal	EdQual	none	min-max	8	94 (-)	Border, Midland & Western (IE)	0.941
7	Arithmetic	Factor	EdQual	none	min-max	8	94 (-)	Border, Midland & Western (IE)	0.941
8	Arithmetic	Factor	EdQual	none	z-score	8	93 (-)	Border, Midland & Western (IE)	0.947
9	Arithmetic	Factor	LawQual	none	min-max	8	42 (-)	Dél-Alföld (HU)	0.949
10	Arithmetic	Equal	LawQual	gender & age weights	z-score	8	41 (-)	Dél-Alföld (HU)	0.951

Note: total of 193 regions, with 1st scenario representing the final index. These are the 10 scenarios LEAST like the aggregated regional Quality index used to build the EQI. Median shift is absolute median shift.

Table 7 shows the summary of the ten most divergent cases for the quality pillar. On whole the quality pillar is slightly more sensitive to the alterations, most likely due to the fact there are only three items that make up the pillar, compared with seven impartiality and eight corruption items respectively. Thus the removal of one of the indicators represents a larger proportional changes in the underlying data than any removal of a single item from the previous two pillars.

On whole the Spearman Rank coefficient shows quite similar rankings compared with the original EQI pillar, with the two most divergent scenarios dropping to roughly 0.93. All others are above 0.93 however. The median shifts range between 7-9 places for these ten most diverging scenarios, with the two Irish regions showing the most sensitivity to the alterations, along with the Hungarian region of Dél-Alföld (HU33) and the capital region of Madrid making significant shifts at times as well. Figure X shows the most divergent scenario and labels regions with a shift of 40 or more places from the original ranking.

Figure 5 : Most Deviant Scenario : Quality Pillar



Finally, as respondents were contact via two forms of telephone – landlines and mobile phones, we examine the extent to which one's type of telephone contact has any systematic relationship with higher or lower repsonses to the main questions.

Table 8 shows the proportion of mobile rspondents per country, ranging from 0.237 (23.7%) in Germany to 1 (all respondents) in Slovakia, Czech Republic and Hungary. While cannot investiage the effects of telephone-type in the latter three member states, in which all repsondents were mobile users, we can do so in the other countries where we have variation.

Table 8 : Proportion of mobile respondents by country

country	proportion mobil respondents
Austria	0.521
Belgium	0.453
Bulgaria	0.796
Croatia	0.482
Czech Republic	**1.000**
Denmark	0.957
Finland	0.982
France	0.647
Germany	0.237
Greece	0.519
Hungary	**1.000**
Ireland	0.382
Italy	0.643
Netherlands	0.552
Poland	0.900
Portugal	0.745
Romania	0.611
Slovakia	**1.000**
Spain	0.641
Sweden	0.905
UK	0.244

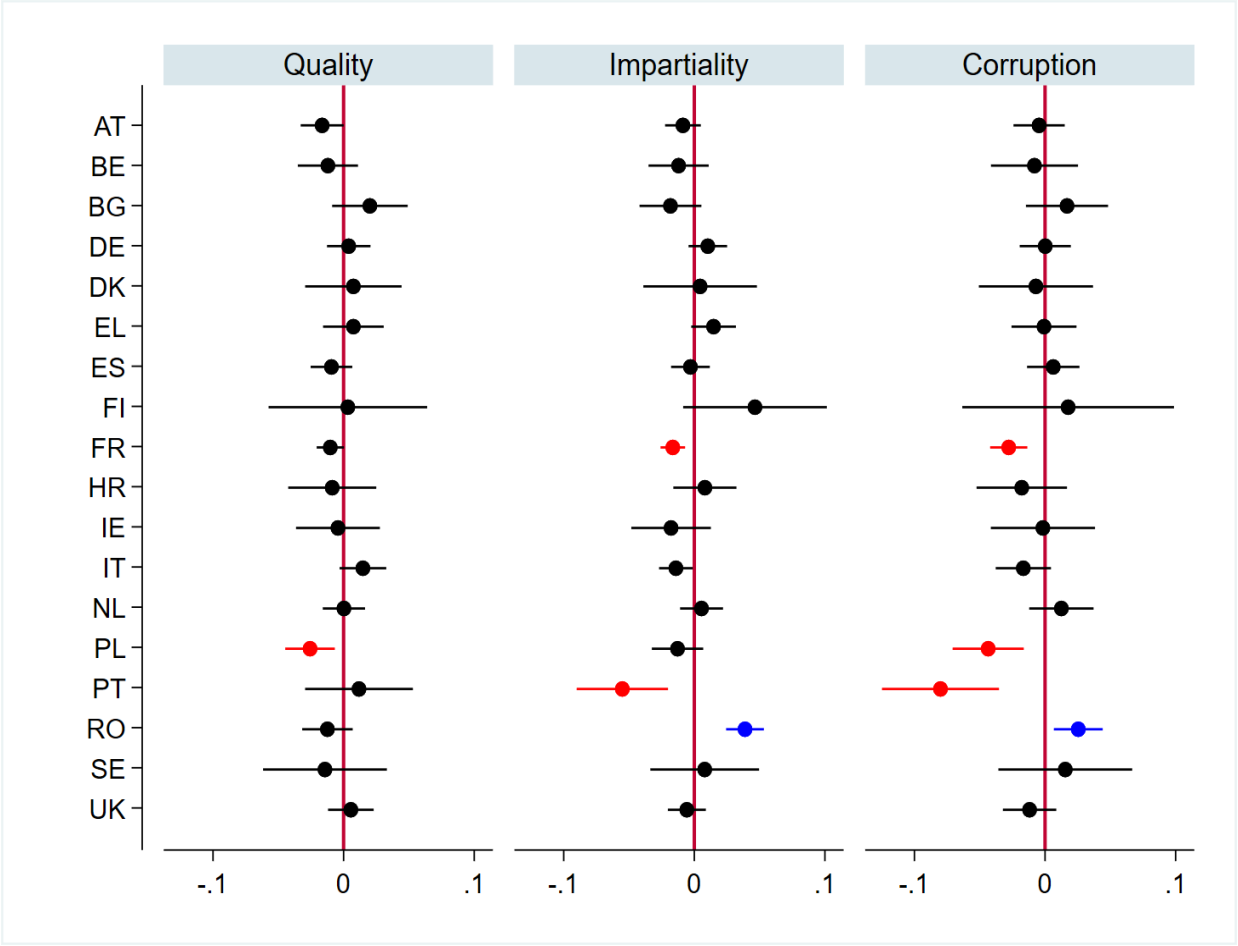
In Figure 6, we show the summary results of multiple regression analyses, in which we test whether the binary variable 'mobile' has a systematic effect on individual's repsonses to the EQI questions. For the sake of parsimony, we combine the questions to the pillar level – quality, impartilaity and corruption - using equal weighting, such that the scores are continuous range between 0.1 to 1, with higher scores equating to higher QoG assessments in all cases.

To avoid potentially misleading results, we include a number of potentially confounding covariates at the individual level and include regional dummy variable and survey design weights. Further, for more precision, we analysis the data by country. The model we test is the following:

$$QoG_i = \alpha + \beta_1(mobile) + \beta_{2..n}(controls) + \varphi_r + \varepsilon_i$$

Whereby an individual's assessment of the three QoG pillars - quality, impartiality and corruption – are a function of their telephone type, a set of individual level standard controls (gender, age, education, income, population of residence and employment status) along with regional fixed effects at the NUTS level sampled in each country φ_r and model error ε_i. β_1 is the main parameter of interest.

Figure 6 : Summary of Telephone-type on QoG assessments by pillar and country



Note : dots are estimated marginal effects of mobile contact (landline=reference category). Lines are 95% confidence intervals around the estimate from robust standard errors. Larger confidence intervals are due to sample size and percentage mobile use. Lines that cross the red horizontal lines (at '0') imply that the responses are statistically indistinguishable between landline and mobile respondents.

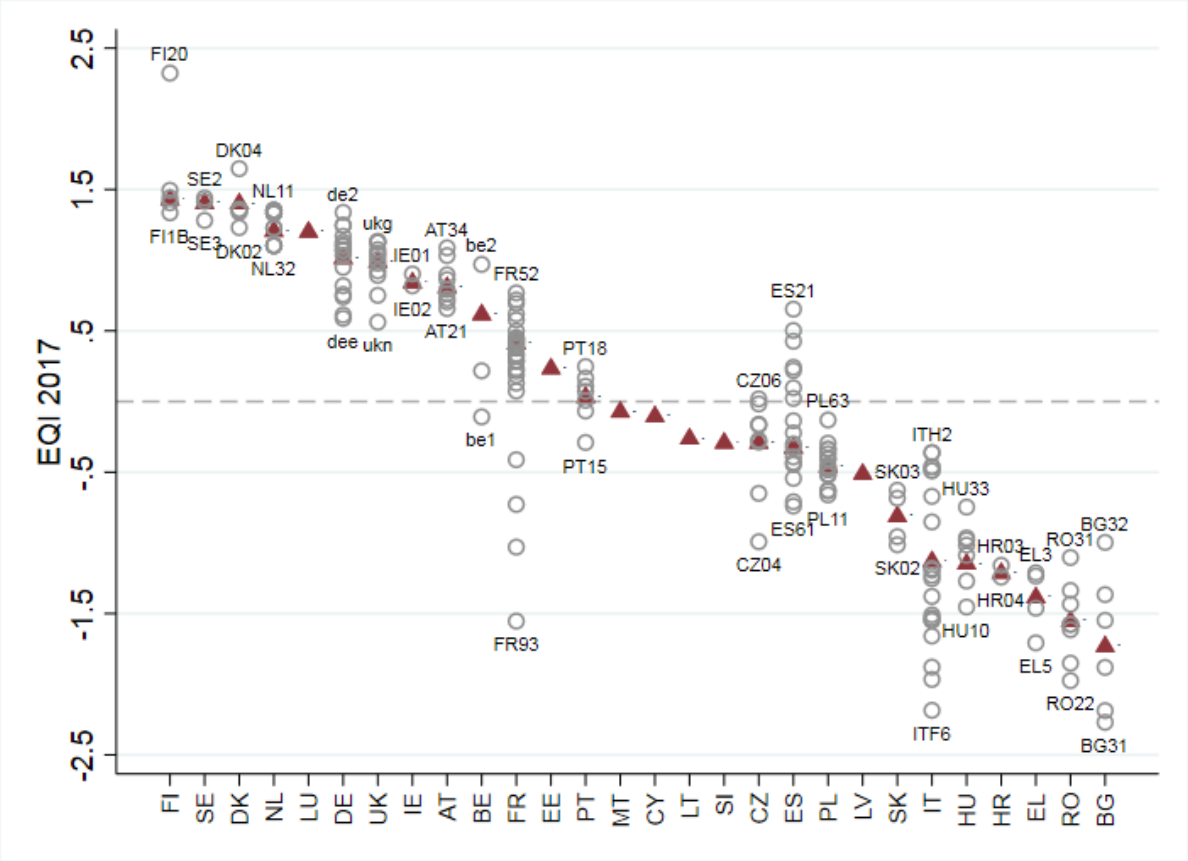
The Figure shows the results of 54 OLS models, whereby the dots show the marginal effect of mobile telephone-type on the combined set of EQI pillar questions by pillar. Estimates that are positive (negative) imply that mobile uses assessed higher (lower) QoG on average for that respective pillar. The estimates have a 95% confidence interval, which if it crosses the red horizontal line at '0', implies that the effect is negliable.

We find that in the vast majority of cases, telephone type plays no role on QoG assessments. Of the 54 models estimated, we find that in 85% of the cases (46 of 54, or in 14 of the 18 countries tested), the effect is insignificant (e.g. p>0.05). In eight cases, the effect of mobile use is shown to have a significant association with QoG assessments. The effect is not uniform however. The estimates colored in red show a significant negative effect, while those in blue show a positive one. We observe the case of the quality pillar, only mobile users in Poland rate the quality signifncatly lower (β_1 = -0.025). French and Portuguese mobile respondents tend to score their services as less impartial and more corrupt on average, while Polish mobile users also rate their services as more corrupt than landline users. On the oher hand, mobile repsondents in Romania tend to rate their services as more impartila and less corrupt than those who repsonded via landline.

7. Final Index: Regional variation of EQI and External Valididty Checks

For the sake of space, all EQI, pillar and margin of error estimates are listed in Table A2 in the appendix of this document. Figure 6 summarizes the final index; showing the countries in rank order from top to bottom on the y-axis and regional variation on the x-axis. As with the 2013 EQI index, the Swedish speaking Finish island region of Åland is an outlier on the top of the index ranking.

Figure 7: Countries in Rank Order and Regional Variation of 2017 EQI



Note: highest regional score in each country with regional data labeled via NUTS code.

The following three figures show the results of the EQI index for the three years of data. The previous two years have been re-calculated with the current methodology and sample of the 2017 EQI for more direct comparison over time.

Figure 8: EQI 2017

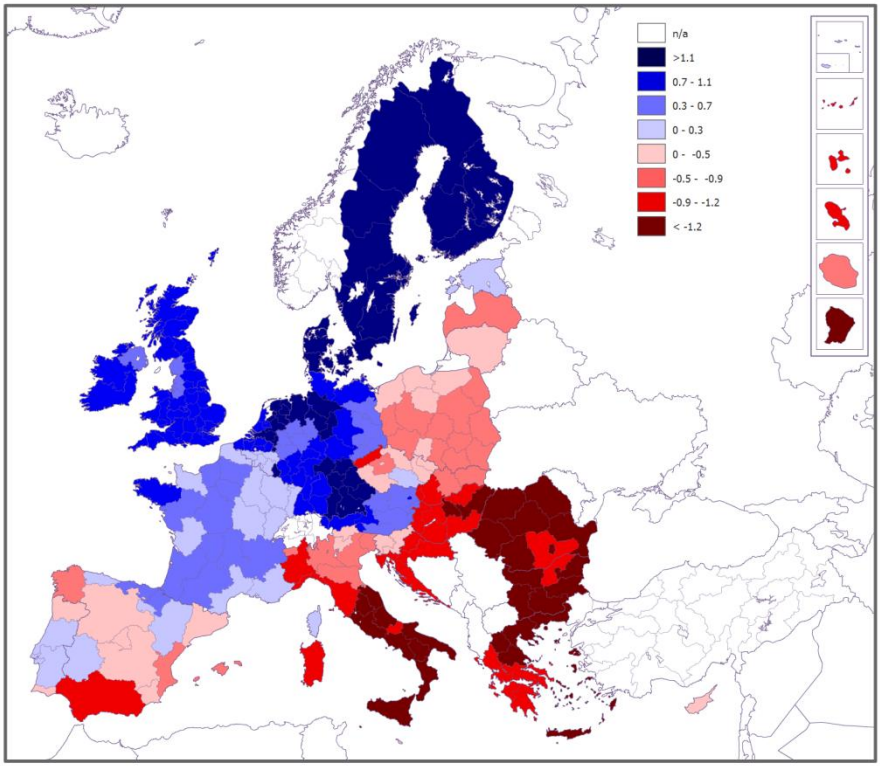


Figure 9: EQI 2013

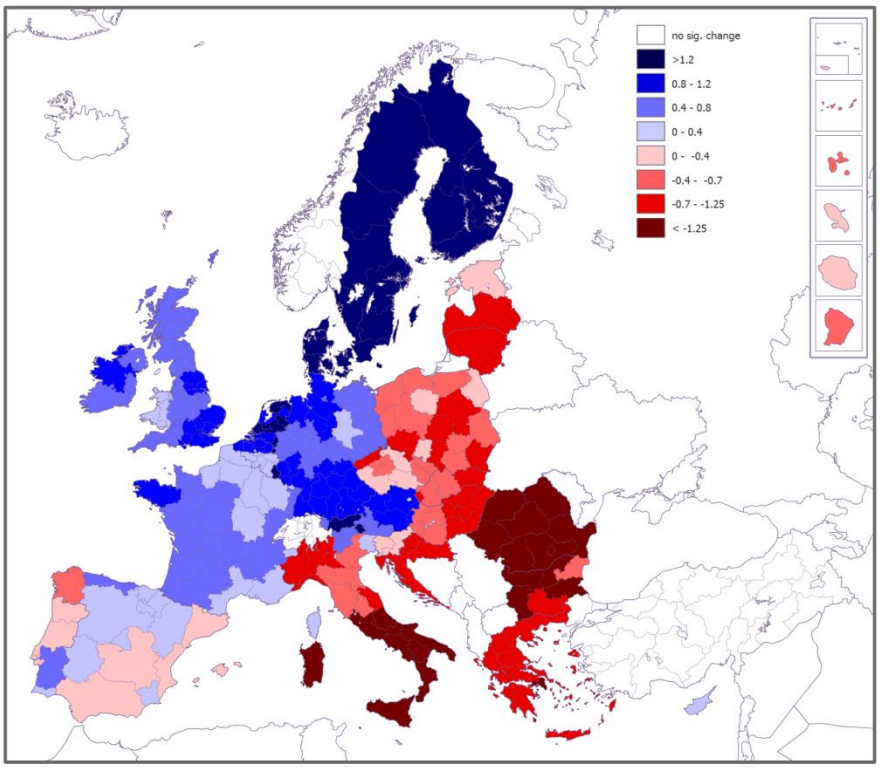
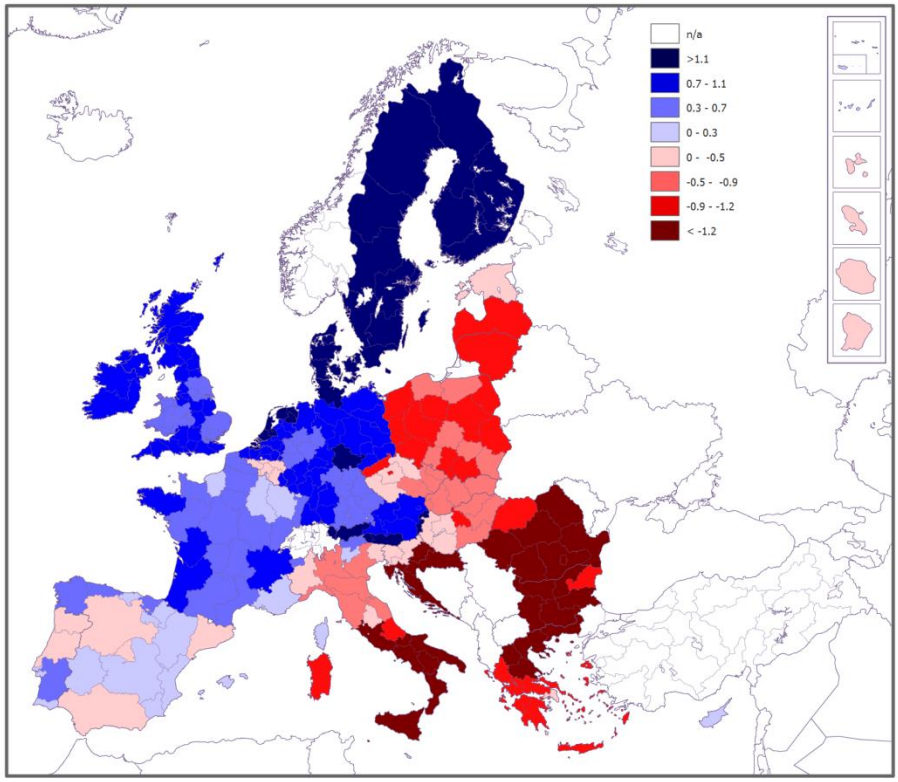


Figure 10: EQI 2010



In Table 8 we report results from a simple pairwise correlation test with the EQI, its pillars and several alternative measures with which we would expect the EQI to correlate. The first group of measures are that which also measure some aspect of institutional quality at the regional level. One, we take the OECD's' Regions at a Glance' report (2016) which tracks the percentage of citizens who believe their government is corrupt from surveys since 2006-2014. The CRI and '% single bids' come from Fazekas and Koscis (2017) which track the risk of grand corruption in public procurement and have aggregated their data to the exact regional level in the EQI sample. The final measure is one that tracks the extent to which civil servants rate their place of employment as meritocratic (as opposed to clientalist) at the regional level in EU countries, from 2013 (Charron et al 2013).

Next, we check the correlation with likely covariates from the literature – namely, the proportion of people in a region that 'trust others' (social trust, from Charron and Rothstein 2018), gender equality in the form of the percentage of women in local parliaments by region (Sundström 2014), the percentage of residents who are at risk of poverty and the level of economic development (PPP per capita, logged from 2012), the latter two measures are taken from Eurostat.

We find strong evidence of external validity for the measure. In particular, we see strong correlation with the alternative measure of corruption perceptions from the OECD, both the EQI measure on whole and especially in the EQI's corruption pillar (0.85). The measures of grand corruption risk also are highly correlated and significant with the EQI and all pillars ($p<0.001$). The measure of public sector meritocracy correlates with the EQI at 0.69.

In addition, we find that the outside covariates of other socio-economic indicators are all significantly correlated with the EQI and in the expected direction. Regions with higher social trust, gender equality and economic development tend to have higher

quality government institutions, while the EQI and its pillars are negatively correlated with risk of poverty.

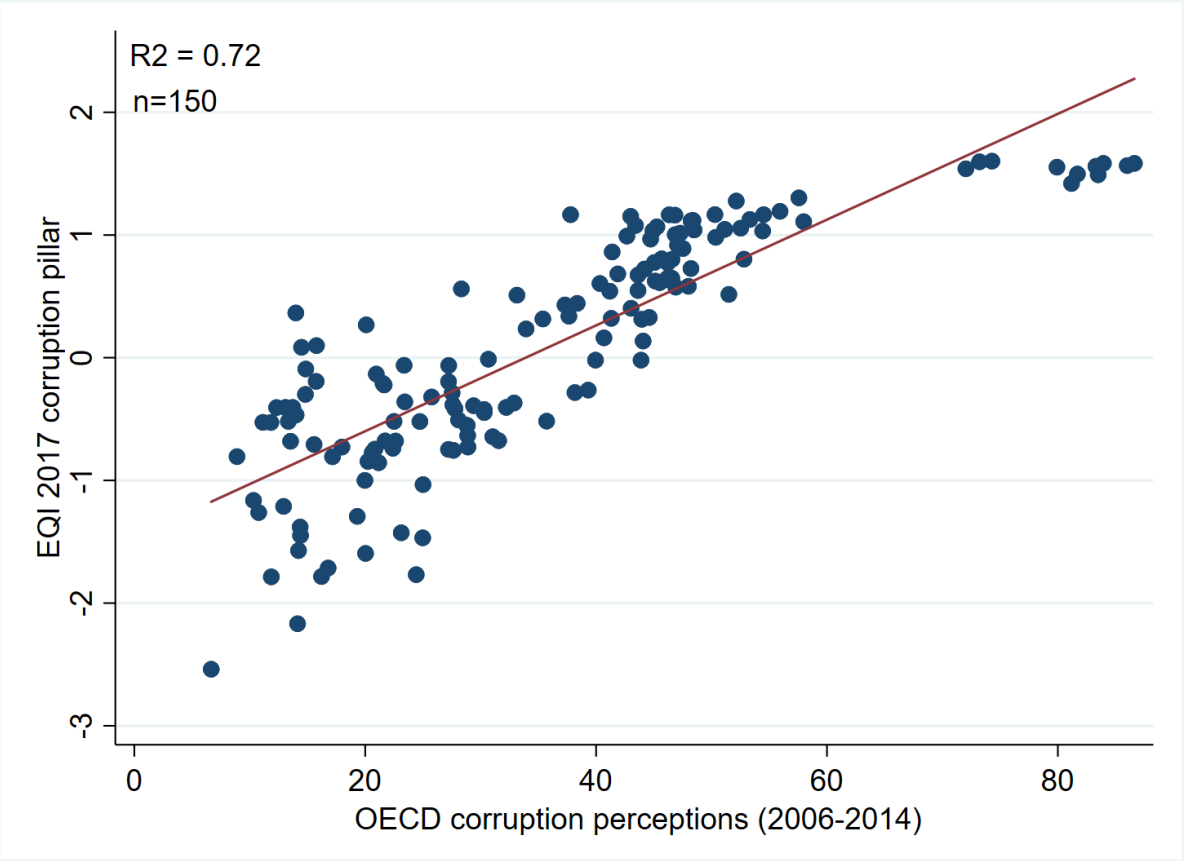
Table 9: Pairwise correlations of EQI and Pillar with Additional Measures

variable	EQI 2017	Quality	Impartiality	Corruption
2017 EQI and Pillar data				
EQI	1.00			
Quality	0.95	1.00		
Impartiality	0.97	0.89	1.00	
Corruption	0.96	0.87	0.92	1.00
alternative measures of regional QoG				
corruption perceptions (OECD)	0.81	0.72	0.76	0.85
corruption risk indicator (CRI)	-0.55	-0.52	-0.51	-0.55
% single bids	-0.65	-0.59	-0.63	-0.66
meritocracy in public sector	0.69	0.65	0.67	0.66
socio-economic covariates				
social trust (2013)	0.50	0.44	0.50	0.50
% women in local parl.	0.44	0.47	0.40	0.41
% poverty risk	-0.42	-0.44	-0.43	-0.35
PPP per capita (logged, 2012)	0.60	0.61	0.58	0.53

Note : pairwise Pearson correlation coeffiecnets reported.

Figure 11 highlights the relationship between the OECD's measure of corruption perceptions (citizen based) and our EQI corruption pillar via a scatterplot. The OECD's measure, which is temporally prior and focus only on one aspect of corruption – whether the government is perceived as corruption – explains roughly 72% of the variation in the EQI corruption pillar.

Figure 11 : the EQI's corruption pillar and OECD measure of corruption perceptions



8. General Observable patters over time

QoG tends to be stable over time. EQI index correlations coefficients across years are all over 0.9, as shown in Table 9. Moreover, the correlations among the pillars are also above 0.80. Further analysis in the subsequent section show that just 11.5% and 16.9% of units in the sample have had a significant change ($p<0.05$ or $p<0.10$ respectively) in score (positive or negative) during the time span. This finding is quite consistent with country level data that shows that time trends in governance are remarkably 'sticky' (Andersson and Heywood 2009). However, we observe that the EQI of 2017 and 2010 are least correlated of the pairs, showing some signs of change over time.

Table 10: Pairwise Correlations of EQI and Pillars across time

variable	EQI 2017	quality 2017	impartity 2017	corruption 2017	EQI 2013	quality 2013	impartity 2013	corruption 2013	EQI 2010	quality 2010	impartity 2010
quality 2017	0.955										
impartity 2017	0.973	0.893									
corruption 2017	0.965	0.870	0.920								
EQI 2013	0.938	0.894	0.914	0.907							
quality 2013	0.906	0.887	0.875	0.859	0.971						
impartity 2013	0.919	0.868	0.907	0.883	0.978	0.927					
corruption 2013	0.918	0.858	0.889	0.909	0.973	0.913	0.934				
EQI 2010	0.913	0.862	0.903	0.875	0.953	0.922	0.936	0.927			
quality 2010	0.873	0.843	0.858	0.824	0.928	0.922	0.902	0.887	0.967		
impartity 2010	0.885	0.827	0.887	0.844	0.907	0.863	0.914	0.873	0.973	0.910	
corruption 2010	0.900	0.839	0.884	0.880	0.939	0.898	0.909	0.939	0.971	0.905	0.922

Note: Pearson's pairwise correlation coefficient reported. All correlations sig $p<0.001$

Geography still matters: yet a bit less so in 2017 than in 2010. In the earliest round of the EQI, we observed a clear East-West pattern whereby all regions and countries of the former socialist bloc were below the EU28 mean in the EQI, with southern EU15 states and regions (albeit more spread out in some cases) in the next group, followed by a group of strong performing northern countries and regions. While this pattern to a large degree persists, there are several cases where we observe that areas from newer member state (NMS13) have risen above the mean score: the Czech regions of Jihovychod (CZ06), Stredni Morava (CZ07) and the country of Estonia (EE). Moreover, several other regions have made considerable progress in governance convergence, namely Prague region (CZ01); several regions in Poland and Lithuania have all progressed near the EU28 average. On the other hand, while the Northern parts of the EU28 have remained strong, the south of Europe has slid, led by decline in Italian, Greek and some Spanish regions, yet Portugal has made some slight increases since 2010.

Countries with lower QoG tend to have wider divergence of QoG at the sub-national level. This is an observed trend that has remained since 2010. Top performers, such as Finland, Denmark, Sweden and the Netherlands show no significant regional variation (Åland (FI20) is an exception as it is an outlier in scoring so high). And despite being federal countries, places like Germany and Austria have much less regional variation in their QoG than countries like Bulgaria or Czech Republic which are more politically and fiscally centralized (Hooghe, Marks and Schakel 2010). Countries at or below the EU mean for the EQI tend to be the ones with the largest regional

variation – Italy, Spain, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Portugal (in some cases), with Belgium and France being somewhat exceptional in this case. A counter example is also Poland, which has 16 provinces with political significance, clear East/West/South historical differences in culture and development, yet has consistently shown moderate levels of regional variation. However, the northern region of Pomorskie (PL63) has made improvements and is significantly stronger than most other Polish provinces in the data.

Countries with persistent and large gaps in QoG: Italy, Belgium and France. In these cases, there is a clear geographic divide - north-south In Italy and Belgium in particular - that persists in each of the three rounds and is highly significant according to our margin of error calculations. In Belgium in all cases, the Flemish speaking region of Vlaams Gewest (BE2) outperforms the Wallonie (BE3) region as well as the capital region of Brussels (BE1). BE2 stands out in particular with citizen satisfaction of the quality of public services and how they are delivered impartiality, as this region is an EU28 leader on several indicators, while the other two regions are near or below the EU mean on such indicators. In the case of Italy, the south is a consistent low performer both within Italy and throughout the EU28, while the Northern regions, in particular the smaller Alpine regions of Trento, Bolzano, Friuli and Valle d'Aosta, are consistently higher performers on all underlying items and are above or just below the EU28 mean score. Although in the 2017 round we do observe a small trend of convergence, as the northern regions show a modest decline. In France we observe a stand-out region in each of the three rounds: Bretagne, with the western part of the country in the next group of region, followed by the northeast and southern regions with the overseas regions lagging significantly behind.

Countries with growing divergence in QoG: Spain and Czech Republic. The 2017 data show a widening gap in the regions of the Czech Republic, and even more so in Spain. For the latter, Spain is now the country with the second most regional variation in the data (behind Italy). In fact, while the country average in the WGI declined by 0.27 (resulting in a drop of 6 places in the national rankings) and many regions showed declining score in particular in the south (Andalucía, Valencia), several northern regions showed improvement in their EQI scores (Cantabria, Navarra, Pais Vasco). Czech Republic showed several regions with significant improvement – Prague (CZ01), Jihovychod (CZ06), Stredni Morava (CZ07), while the border region of Severozapd (CZ04) has consistently lagged behind and

9. Systematic Tests of Time Trends

In this section, we seek to identify if units have shown a significant trend in a positive or negative direction in the data over time. This is useful to identify potentially interesting case studies and to investigate policy ideas from recent success cases. The data have been organized into a panel dataset for all regions covered with three years each. While three years in a panel data set per observation is of course difficult to identify a clear trend, even based on limited observations, we can do a simple test that can help us reveal and possible time trends in the data. We begin with a simple analysis of variance (ANOVA) test in Table 10 to determine whether significant changes have occurred within groups over time. For this, we run an ANOVA test with an interaction term between the year and a dummy variable for each region (along with the two constituent terms) to determine if any trends within regions are significant.

Table 11: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test

Observations	573			R2	0.987
Root MSE	0.203			Adj. R2	0.960
Source	Partial Sum of squares (SS)	Degrees of freedom (df)	MS	F-stat.	Prob>F
Model	571.589	382	1.496	36.48	0.000
Year	0.024	2	0.012	0.30	0.744
Regional dummy	15.685	190	0.083	2.01	0.000
Reg. dummy#year	15.673	190	0.082	2.01	0.000
Residual	7.793	190	0.041		
Total	579.381	572	1.013		

The results in the above table show that there is significant variance within the regions over time, as the interaction term between regional dummy variables and time is significant (p=0.000). We now proceed to time series data regression in order to elucidate which regions in fact have made such significant changes and in which direction the change was made.

The regression model is specified as the following:

$$EQI_{rt} = \varphi_r N_r + \theta_r t + \beta_r (N_r * t) + \varepsilon_{rt} \quad (1)$$

Where EQI is the index used to capture institutional quality in region (or country) r in the year t (r = 1, 2,…. r, and t = 0, 1, and 2, which equate to 2010, 2013 and 2017), and where N_r = 1 for region r and 0 if otherwise, and ε_{rt} the error term. The constant term is omitted. This model can be estimated with simple ordinary least squares (OLS) regression, where $\varphi_r$elucidates fixed spatial differences in levels of the EQI and θ_r captures the fixed time effects (e.g. a year count). The interaction term $(N_r * t)$ thus captures temporal trends in the EQI for each region. As regards time trends within regions over time, the null hypothesis states that there are no significant time trends (e.g. $\beta_r$is insignificant). Where we observe significant trends (positive or negative) from the baseline year, such regions can be considered to have made a significant change in governance. The interpretation of β_r is thus the average marginal change in the EQI for each region over the two years since the baseline year of 2010.

Table 12 reports the results for those regions where we observe a positive significant result (p <0.10). Regions in darker blue shade have made a positive trend at p<0.05, while regions in lighter blue shade have made a change at the 90% level of confidence. We observe that 14 regions made a significant positive change at the 95% level of confidence (or greater) and eight regions made a change at the 90%

level of confidence. Several Bulgarian and Romanian regions have made positive advances in the data over time, mainly due to their very low rank in the first year. For example, Bucharest had the second lowest score (-2.84) in 2010, and increase to -2.46 and -1.58 in 2013 and 2017 respectively. While this constitutes an increase by about 1.25 standard deviations, the region still remains in the bottom 10 percentile of regions in the sample. Similar patterns also describe the other Romanian and Bulgarian regions on this list. Other regions, such as Prague, Pomorskie, Lithuania and Jihovychod, have made more substantial climbs in the data. Prague, for example has moved from -1.02 to -0.55 to -0.14 in the three respective years, going from the bottom 15th%ile to near the median. Lithuania is the only country to make a significant advance in this time period according to the data, an improvement that certainly warrants further investigation. Several regions from the EU15 are also on this top list, including Bayern, London, West Midlands and Hessen.

Near the 90% level of significance is also the region of Navarra (not shown), which is one of the most interesting. Despite the negative trend in country average of Spain over time, as well as the negative decline in many of the (Southern) Spanish regions, Navarra (as well as Cantabria and Pais Vasco), has in fact shown steady improvement over time from 0.07 to 0.26 to 0.51 in the three years of the data.

Table 12: list of regions with significant positive changes in EQI

Source	sum of squares	d.f.	MS
model	589.17	399	1.48
residual	8.49	200	0.042
total	597.66		

obs	600
F (399, 200)	34.76
pr > F	0.0000
R2	0.9858
Adj R2	0.9574
Root MSE	0.2061

number	Nuts code	Region name	Beta	t-score	p value
1	RO32	Bucharesti	0.671	3.95	0.000
2	BG32	Severen tsentralen	0.642	3.78	0.000
3	CZ01	Prague	0.468	2.75	0.003
4	RO42	Vest	0.467	2.75	0.003
5	PL63	Pomorskie	0.420	2.47	0.010
6	LT	Lithuania	0.404	2.38	0.010
7	DE2	Bayern	0.385	2.27	0.016
8	RO31	Sud-Muntenia	0.373	2.19	0.016
9	CZ07	Střední Morava	0.369	2.17	0.021
10	PL22	Slaskie	0.361	2.13	0.024
11	PL61	Kujawsko-Pomorskie	0.360	2.12	0.024
12	PL51	Dolnoslaskie	0.359	2.11	0.033
13	UKI	London	0.357	2.10	0.034
14	CZ06	Jihovychod	0.348	2.05	0.037
15	PL41	Wielkopolskie	0.317	1.86	0.059
16	PL42	Zachodniopomorskie	0.313	1.84	0.067
17	PL43	Lubuskie	0.309	1.82	0.070
18	PL34	Podlaskie	0.301	1.77	0.073
19	PL21	Małopolskie	0.296	1.74	0.079
20	DE7	Hessen	0.291	1.71	0.082
21	PL12	Mazowieckie	0.286	1.68	0.085
22	UKG	W. Midlands	0.284	1.67	0.089

On the other side of the coin, nine regions made a negative change at the 90% level of confidence or greater, shown in Table 13. We see a significant decline in governance assessments in several Italian regions, mostly in the north and central part of the country. In addition, Hungary, Spain and France (overseas regions) and the Greek capital region of Athens have regions that have seen a significant decline in their EQI scores over time, with the overseas French region of Guyane showing the largest decline in the data.

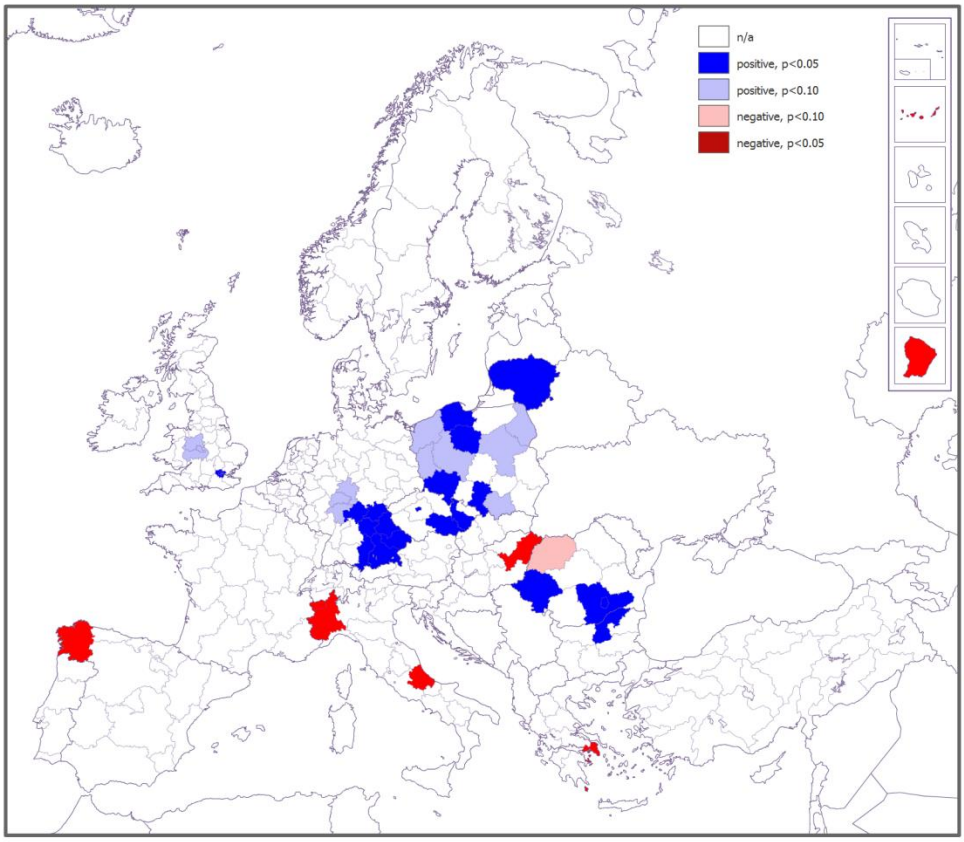
Table 13: list of regions with significant negative changes in EQI

Source	sum of squares	d.f.	MS		
model	589.17	399	1.48	obs	600
residual	8.49	200	0.042	F (399, 200)	34.76
total	597.66			pr > F	0.0000
				R2	0.9858
				Adj R2	0.9574
				Root MSE	0.2061

Number	Nuts code	Region name	Beta	t-score	p value
1	FR93	Guyane	-0.512	-3.02	0.000
2	ITC2	Valle d'Aosta	-0.499	-2.93	0.000
3	ITF1	Abruzzo	-0.431	-2.54	0.001
4	ITC1	Piemonte	-0.394	-2.32	0.003
5	ES70	Canarias	-0.396	-2.33	0.004
6	EL3	Athens	-0.394	-2.32	0.005
7	ES11	Galicia	-0.391	-2.3	0.005
8	HU32	Észak-Alföld	-0.333	-1.96	0.009
9	RO11	Nord Vest	-0.287	-1.69	0.033

Figure 12 highlights the results of the previous two tables in the map below. In the darker (lighter) blue shades, are the regions with a p-value for positive significance of β_r at 0.05 (0.10) or less. In the darker (lighter) red shaded regions are the regions with a p-value negative significance of β_r at 0.05 (0.10) or less.

Figure 12: map of regions with a significant change in EQI



In the next two tables, we highlight all significant changes – positive and negative respectively – in the three pillars. Similar color shades are used to distinguish significance levels for the regions in each pillar.

Table 14: Positive Changes in individual EQI pillars

	Nuts code	Region name	Beta	t-score	p value
QUALITY					
	BG32	Severen tsentralen	0.816	3.69	0.000
	DE2	Bayern	0.594	2.69	0.008
	ITC4	Lombardia	0.514	2.32	0.021
	ES30	Madrid	0.499	2.26	0.025
	ES23	La Rioja	0.471	2.13	0.034
	BG34	Yugoiztochen	0.452	2.04	0.042
	UKI	London	0.122	2.32	0.022
	LT	Lithuania	0.388	1.76	0.080
	CZ01	Prague	0.388	1.75	0.081
	PL34	Podlaskie	0.381	1.72	0.086
	ITF4	Puglia	0.381	1.72	0.087
	RO31	Sud-Muntenia	0.379	1.71	0.088
IMPARTIALITY					
	RO42	Vest	0.793	3.34	0.001
	RO32	Bucharesti	0.762	3.21	0.002
	PL63	Pomorskie	0.684	2.88	0.004
	PL61	Kujawsko-Pomorskie	0.631	2.66	0.008
	CZ07	Střední Morava	0.603	2.54	0.012
	BG32	Severen tsentralen	0.566	2.39	0.018
	CZ06	Jihovychod	0.527	2.22	0.027
	ITF2	Molise	0.489	2.06	0.040
	CZ01	Prague	0.479	2.02	0.045
	DE7	Hessen	0.478	2.02	0.045
	PL51	Dolnoslaskie	0.476	2.01	0.046
	PL22	Slaskie	0.462	1.95	0.053
	PL43	Lubuskie	0.459	1.93	0.055
	CZ05	Severovýchod	0.450	1.90	0.059
	UK22	Wales	0.437	1.84	0.067

	ES13	Cantabria	0.431	1.82	0.071
	PL22	Slaskie	0.431	1.82	0.071
	PL62	Warmińsko-mazurskie	0.428	1.80	0.073
	BG41	Yugozapaden	0.427	1.80	0.073
	DE2	Bayern	0.400	1.69	0.093
	BE1	Brussels	0.394	1.66	0.098
CORRUPTION					
	RO32	Bucharesti	0.989	4.79	0.000
	BG32	Severen tsentralen	0.496	2.40	0.017
	CZ01	Prague	0.494	2.39	0.018
	PL42	Zachodniopomorskie	0.448	2.17	0.031
	LT	Lithuania	0.430	2.08	0.038
	PL41	Wielkopolskie	0.420	2.03	0.043
	PL22	Slaskie	0.415	2.01	0.046
	ITF6	Calabria	0.410	1.98	0.049
	RO42	Vest	0.387	1.87	0.063
	BE3	Wallonie	0.385	1.86	0.064
	RO31	Sud-Muntenia	0.365	1.77	0.078
	UKI	London	0.362	1.75	0.081
	BE1	Brussels	0.358	1.74	0.084
	CZ06	Jihovychod	0.350	1.69	0.092
	PL43	Lubuskie	0.344	1.67	0.097

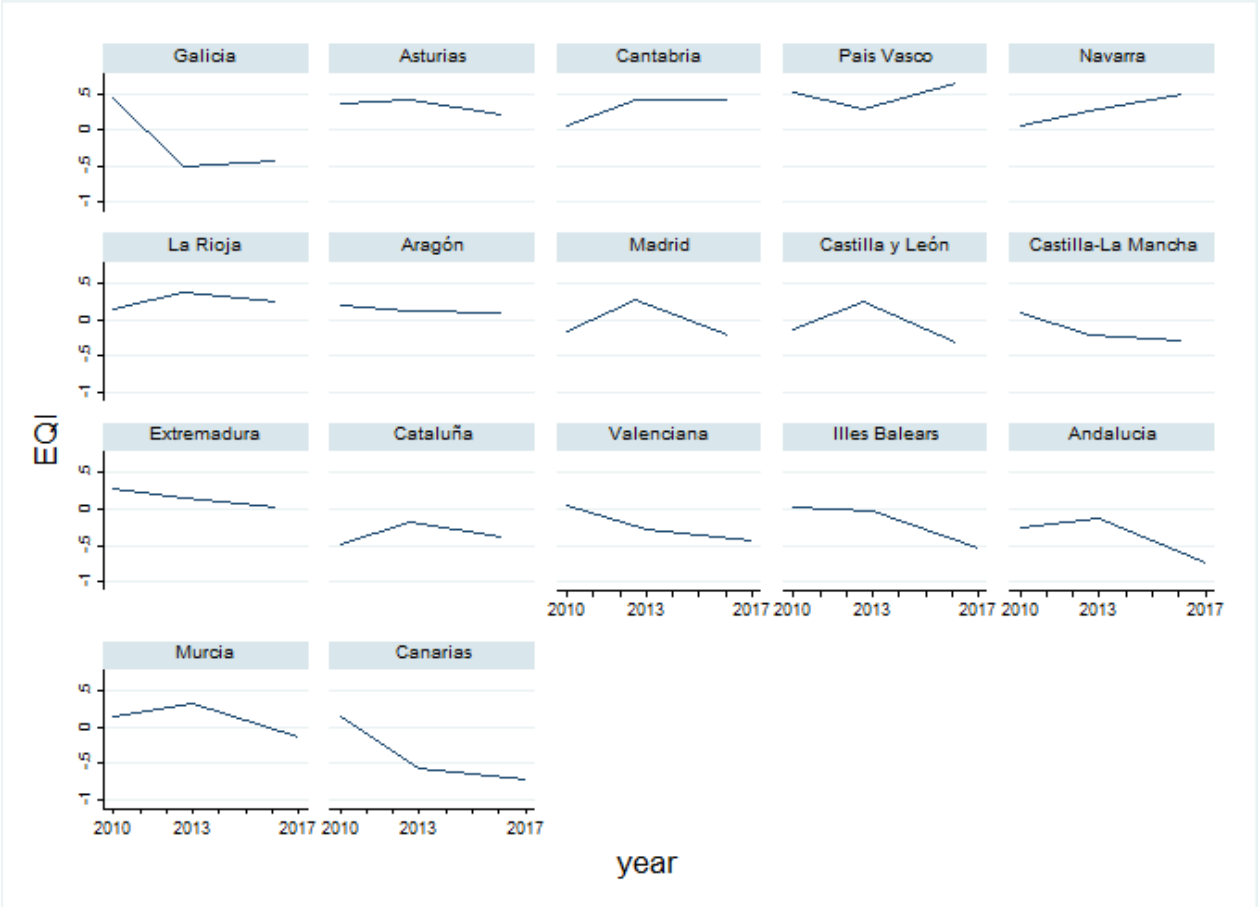
Table 15: Negative Changes in individual EQI pillars

	Nuts code	Region name	Beta	t-score	p value
QUALITY					
	FR93	Guyane	-1.210	-5.47	0.000
	ITC2	Valle d'Aosta	-1.139	-5.15	0.000
	ITF1	Abruzzo	-0.803	-3.63	0.000
	HU31	Észak-Magyarország	-0.542	-2.45	0.015
	AT11	Burgenland	-0.533	-2.41	0.017
	UKN	N. Ireland	-0.506	-2.29	0.023
	DE3	Berlin	-0.531	-2.40	0.017
	FR91	Martinique	-0.486	-2.20	0.029
	FR92	Guyane	-0.479	-2.17	0.031
	HU21	Közép-Dunántúl	-0.406	-1.84	0.068
	ES70	Canarias	-0.432	-1.96	0.052
	BG33	Severoiztochen	-0.387	-1.75	0.081
	FR22	Picardie	-0.379	-1.71	0.088
	FR43	Franche-Comté	-0.376	-1.70	0.091
IMPARTIALITY					
	FR93	Guyane	-0.639	-2.70	0.008
	HU32	Észak-Alföld	-0.468	-1.97	0.050
	ITC1	Piemonte	-0.452	-1.91	0.058
	ES11	Galacia	-0.410	-1.73	0.085
CORRUPTION					
	ITF1	Abruzzo	-0.756	-3.66	0.000
	ES11	Galacia	-0.580	-2.81	0.005
	ITC3	Liguria	-0.493	-2.39	0.018
	ES30	Madrid	-0.484	-2.34	0.020
	ITF5	Basilicata	-0.460	-2.23	0.027
	ES70	Canarias	-0.437	-2.11	0.036
	BG34	Yugoiztochen	-0.425	-2.06	0.041
	ITG2	Sardegna	-0.417	-2.02	0.045

ITC2	Valle d'Aosta	-0.416	-2.02	0.045
RO11	Nord Vest	-0.408	-1.97	0.050
AT21	Kärnten	-0.354	-1.72	0.088
ES53	Illes Balears	-0.351	-1.70	0.091
ITF2	Molise	-0.344	-1.67	0.097

Figure 13 shows the trend lines of the EQI for the country with the largest increase in within-country disparities from 2010 to 2017, Spain. As the country average of Spain on the WGI has dropped six total places (from 13 to 19) from 2010 to 2017 within the EU28, this clearly has implication for the EQI scores of the Spanish regions in an EU comparative perspective, as regional scores are centered on national ones. While we observe significant and negative time trends in several regions as shown previously – Canarias, Galicia, Andalucía and Illes Balears for example – we see opposite trends in the regions in the north, such as Navarre, La Rioja, Pais Vasco and Cantabria. While the individual regions at the top of Spain's rank order did not show significant and positive changes in the full analysis, this divergence is clearly interesting and possibly worth deeper investigation.

Figure 13: Regional Trends in the EQI in Spanish Regions



10. Exploring potential case study regions

Based on the analysis above, we provide a list of potentially interesting case study regions for further investigation. For the purposes of possibly drawing out policy recommendations and 'best practices', we focus mainly on regions that have made notable positive changes. We then perform a basic analysis showing changes in socio-economic indicators over the time period for which we have EQI data to compare the QoG trends with trends in other data.

In all, the data highlights many potentially interesting case studies, from many of the EU areas and in both older member states and newer ones. In the table below, 15 possible regions are highlighted. Most come from the new member states, such as the Czech Republic, Poland, Bulgaria and Romania, as these areas have made substantial increases in their overall score over time. It is worth noting that several other Polish regions have also made significant positive increases, yet the two on the list below were the most apparent candidates. Moreover, the country of Lithuania is present, as it has made the most significant increase in governance scores of all member states during this time. Yet two German regions – Bayern and Hessen –show significant improvements as well[13]. In addition to the results of the significance tests, three Spanish regions are also of interest as they have trended upward away from the rest of their country's regions in the data. The French region of Bretagne is also included for consideration due to its consistent top ranking within the French regions as well as being in the top 15-20% of EU regions in each of the years.

[13] The region of London also made significant improvements over time in several areas as well as the EQI on whole. It was left of this list of possible case studies due to the unique status of London as a wealthy financial global city region which is also likely to have left the EU by the end of this project.

Table 16: List of potential case study regions

country	NUTS	region name	total change in EQI since 2010	area of sig. change	politically relevant?	reason
Bulgaria						
	BG32	Severen tsentralen	1.20	All	no - 5 provinces within region	Second largest change in EQI over time. Highest ranked RO or BG region
Czech Rep.						
	CZ06	Jihovychod	0.62	EQI, Imp, Corr	no - 2 Kraj within region	highest ranked region in NMS after EE and over EU average, steady improvement
	CZ01	Prague	0.85	EQI, Qual, Corr	yes	highest ranked capital in NMS, increase in almost 1 s.d. in EQI data over time
	CZ07	Střední Morava	0.66	EQI, Imp	no - 2 Kraj within region	strong improvements, over EU mean in Imp
Germany						
	DE2	Bayern	0.69	EQI, Qual, Imp	yes	Highest ranked DE region, strong improvements each year. 2nd highest EU region in service quality
	DE7	Hessen	0.50	EQI	yes	steady increase each year in EQI
France						
	FRHO	Bretegne	-0.19	none	yes	strong overall EQI performer, consistently highest in FR. drop in 2017 due mainly to FR country drop
Lithuania						
	LT	Lithuania	0.73	EQI, Qual, Corr	yes	country with most significant positive change over time

Poland						
	PL63	Pomorskie	0.76	EQI, Qual, Imp	yes	highest ranked region in PL, steady improvement each round
	PL22	Slaskie	0.64	EQI, Corr, Imp	yes	
Spain						
	ES22	Navarra	0.43	none	yes	change just under 90% level of confidence, steady increase in EQI despite strong ES average decline
	ES23	La Rioja	0.10	Qual	yes	sig increase in Qual, remains high EQI despite strong ES average decline
	ES13	Cantabria	0.38	Imp	yes	steady increase in EQI despite strong ES average decline
Romania						
	RO32	Bucharest	1.26	EQI, Imp, Cor	no - 2 counties within region	largest pos. change in EQI over timespan (although started in second lowest spot)
	RO31	Sud-Muntenia	0.66	EQI, Qual, Corr	no - 7 counties within region	highest ranked RO region, increase of 0.75 s.d. since 2013

We then examine these regions' trend lines on two variables taken from Eurostat for a relevant time period around EQI measurement – GDP per capita (PPP in in EU28 average) and the unemployment rate. In addition, we show national trends in both variables so as to provide some context for the regional development.

Table 17: Changes in GDP per capita and unemployment over time

	Country level		Regional level			
year	GDPpc	Unemployment	GDPpc	Unemployment	GDPpc	Unemployment
	CZ		CZ06		CZ07	
2007	84.3	5.2	74	5.1	64	5.9
2008	81.8	4.3	72	4	64	4.8
2009	83.3	6.5	74	6.4	66	7.3
2010	81.4	7.2	73	7.5	64	8.7
2011	83.1	6.6	75	7	67	7.4
2012	82.2	6.8	76	7.4	66	7.4
2013	83.3	6.9	79	6.7	67	7.9
2014	84.7	6.1	79	5.8	70	6.7
2015		5.0		4.8		5.2
	PL		PL22		PL63	
2007	49.8	9.8	56	8	52	9.4
2008	51.2	7.2	58	6.4	52	5.4
2009	55.3	8.5	63	6.6	58	6.4
2010	57.8	9.8	66	9.1	59	9.1
2011	60.0	9.8	69	9	62	8.3
2012	62.0	10.2	70	9.3	65	9.4
2013	62.3	10.5	70	9.6	64	9.9
2014	63.0	9.1	70	8.5	64	8.5
2015		7.6		7.1		6.5
	ES		ES22		ES23	
2007	100.4	8.3	127	4.5	110	5.3
2008	99.3	10.7	126	6.3	109	7.3
2009	98.7	16.6	125	10.1	108	11.8
2010	95.1	18.6	120	11.5	105	13.4

2011	91.8	20.2	117	12.6	101	16.4
2012	89.4	23.9	113	15.9	98	20.1
2013	88.4	25.3	112	17.6	98	19.7
2014	88.7	23.6	113	15.1	100	17.7
2015		21.4		13.5		14.9

	DE		DE2		DE7	
2007	113.5	10.3	133	5.2	144	7.2
2008	114.2	9.0	131	4.2	143	6.4
2009	112.6	9.0	132	5	140	6.3
2010	117.2	7.9	138	4.3	144	5.7
2011	119.6	6.8	142	3.2	145	4.6
2012	119.8	6.4	143	3	143	4.7
2013	119.9	6.1	143	3	143	4.3
2014	121.2	5.8	145	2.8	145	4.3
2015		5.3		2.9		4

	BG		BG32	
2007	38.6	7.2	29	10.2
2008	41.3	5.9	30	8.4
2009	41.7	7.0	30	7.9
2010	40.9	10.5	29	11.4
2011	41.4	11.6	30	12.5
2012	42.7	12.6	32	14
2013	42.4	13.3	32	15.2
2014	43.2	11.8	34	13.1
2015		9.5	.	10.5

	FR		FR52/FRH0	
2007	91.6	9.4	94	6.5
2008	89.8	9.0	89	4.8

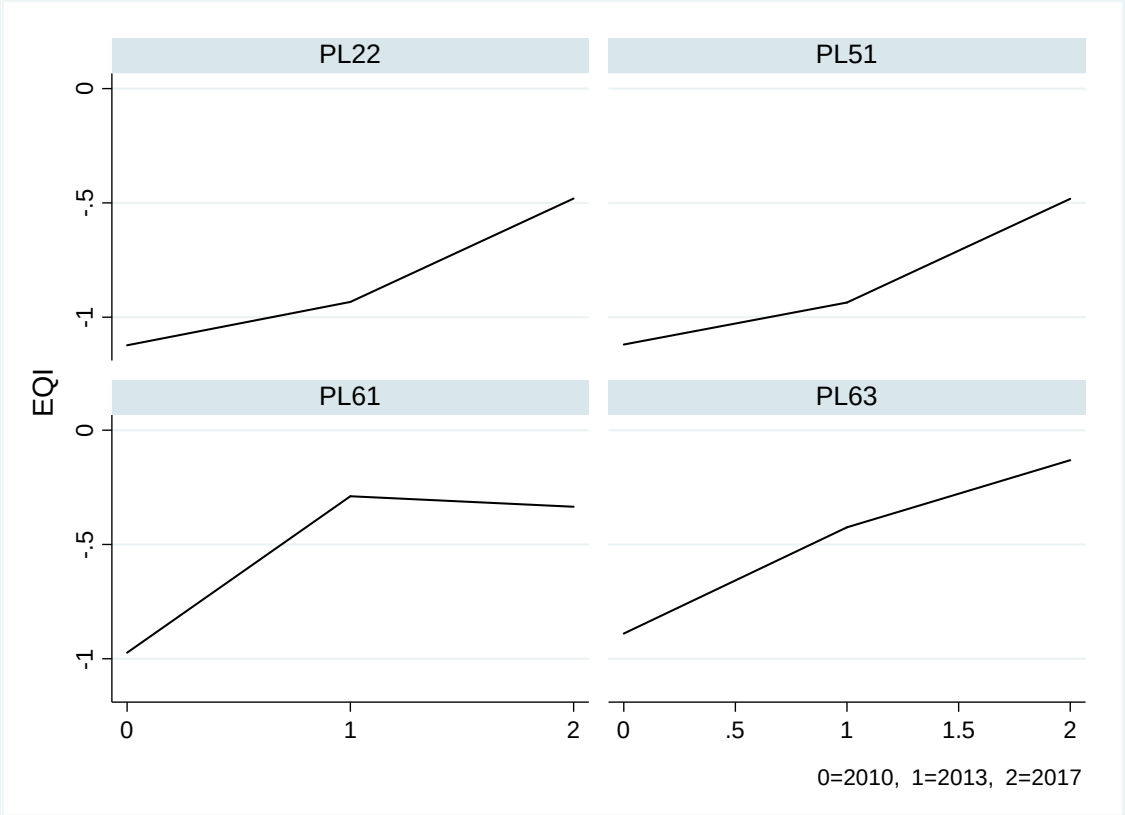
2009	91.6	10.5	90	5.3
2010	91.2	10.6	89	6.5
2011	91.5	10.7	90	6.8
2012	90.5	11.3	89	7.7
2013	91.8	11.9	90	7.6
2014	90.5	11.8	88	7.1
2015		11.8		7.4

	RO		RO31		RO32	
2007	42.8	6.2	33	8.2	97	3.8
2008	49.8	5.6	39	6.6	122	3.2
2009	50.3	6.7	41	7.9	116	3.6
2010	51.4	7.0	41	7.7	121	4.5
2011	52.8	7.2	42	10	131	5.2
2012	54.8	6.7	41	9.5	126	6.4
2013	55.1	7.1	43	9.5	127	8
2014	56.2	6.7	43	8.8	129	6.9
2015		6.8		10.1		5.2

	LT	
2007	60	4.2
2008	63	5.7
2009	56	13.7
2010	60	17.8
2011	65	15.4
2012	70	13.5
2013	73	11.9
2014	75	10.8
2015		9.2

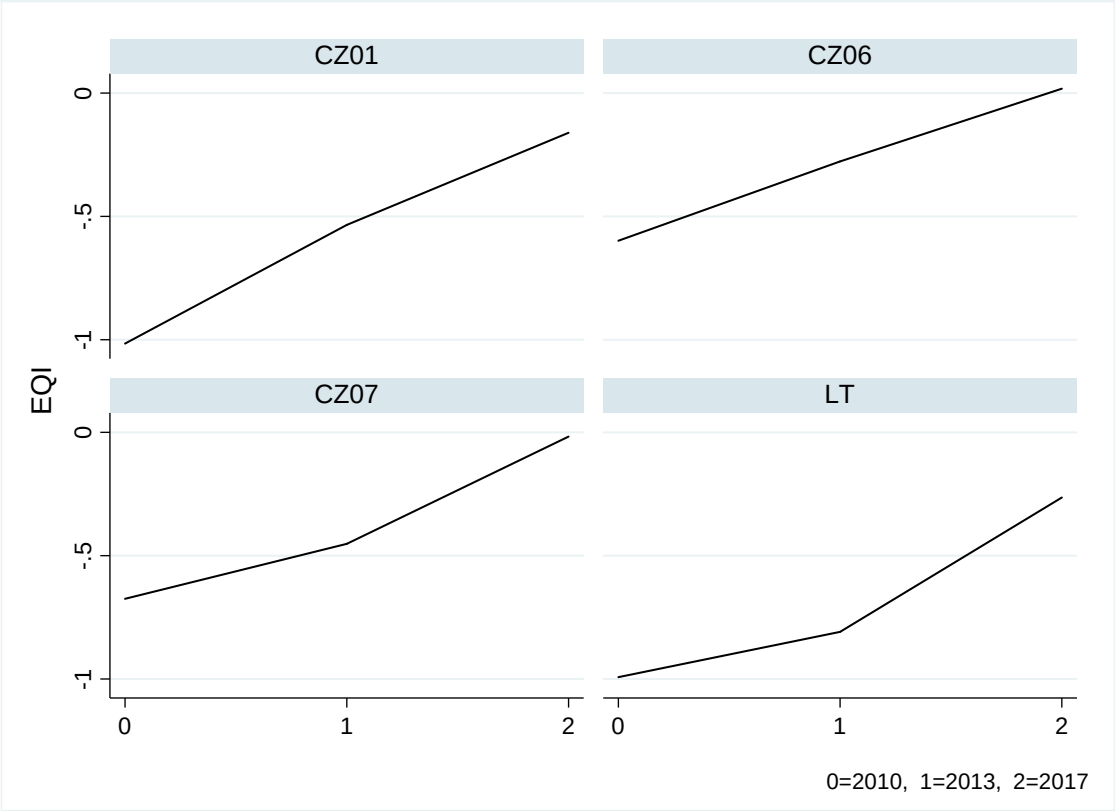
Below, we show visual trends of the EQI for the regions discussed (see previous figure for Spanish regions). Regions are group based on the similar starting points of the EQI scores in 2010 for purposes of comparison.

Figure 14: Trends in EQI among potential case study regions: Polish regions



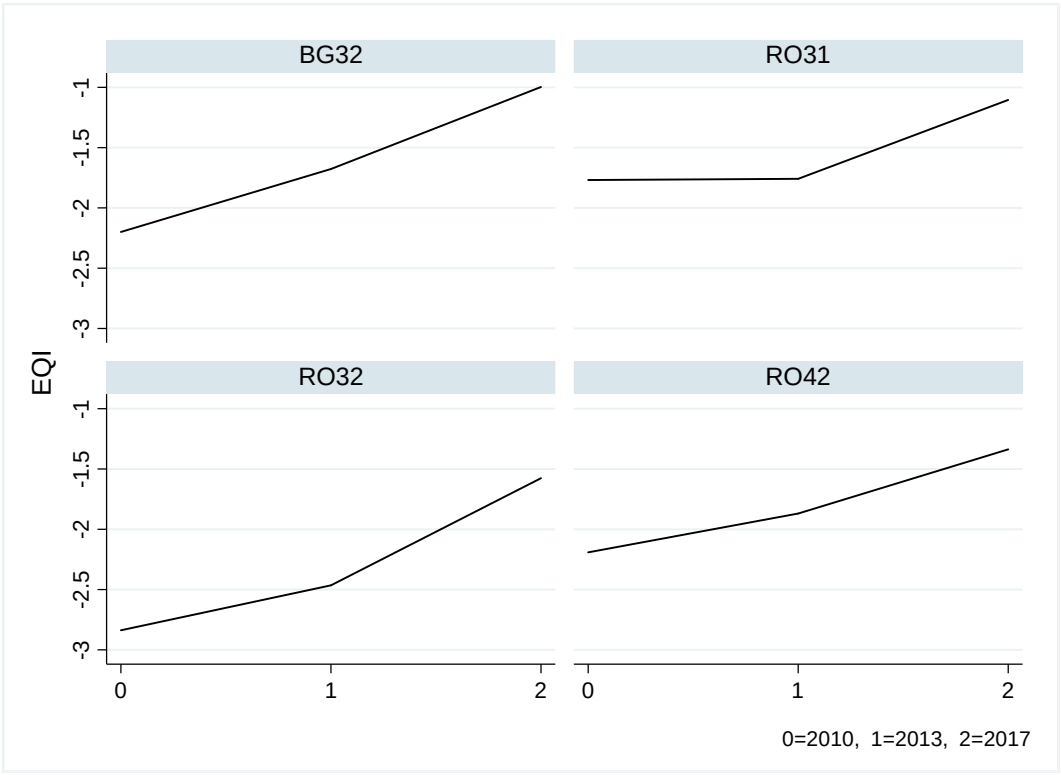
Here in Figure 14 we see a distinction between PL61 (Kujawsko-Pomorskie) which had one spike in the EQI from 2010 to 2013, yet a slight decrease from 2013-2017, and the other three regions, which show more steady increases. The most consistent is PL63 (Pomorskie), which now ranks as Poland's highest region in the EQI 2017.

Figure 15 : Trends in EQI among potential case study regions: Czech regions and Lithuania



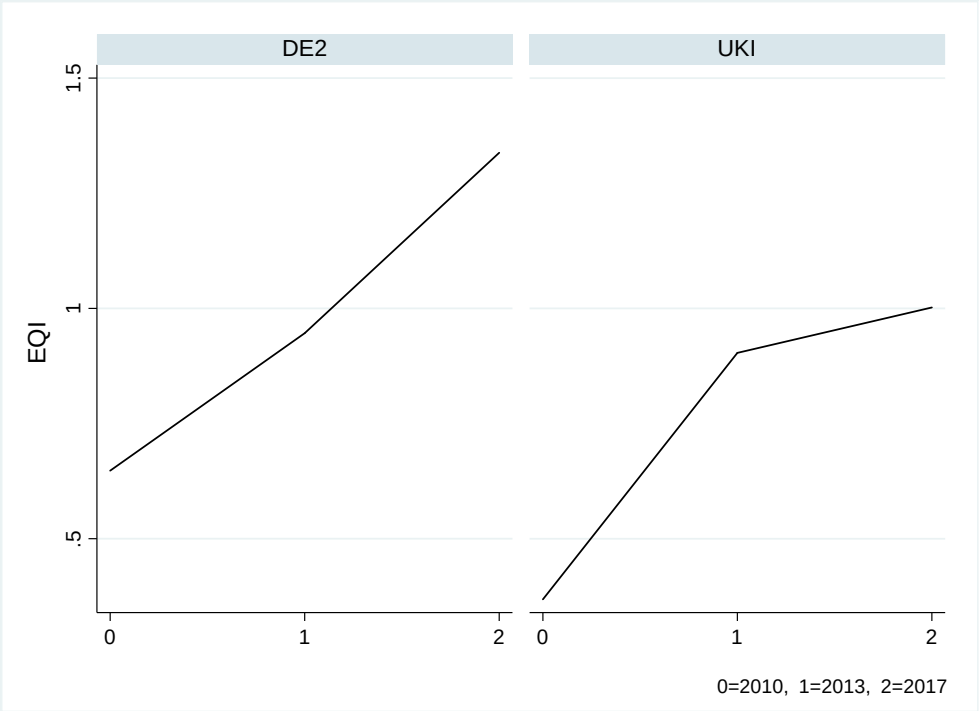
As per Czech Republic and Lithuania most linear progression over time is that of CZ06 (Jihovýchod), yet there is also consistent progress as well in the other two Czech regions. Lithuania saw more of a mild increase between the first two years (from -0.99 in 2010 to -0.81 in 2013), only to make a much larger one (-0.81 to -0.26) from 2013 to 2017.

Figure 16: Trends in EQI: Romanian and Bulgarian Regions



The starting point of the Bulgarian and Romanian regions is considerably lower than the other regions in this discussion, so room for marginal gains in the EQI over time is much greater. Given this, it is clear the BG32 (Severen Tsentralen) , which made a total gain of roughly 1.2 standard deviations in the data over time has been most consistent – moving from -2.20 in 2010 to -1.67 in 2013, then to -0.99 in 2017. Bucarest (RO32) which saw the largest leap – about 1.3 standard deviations, mostly made gains between 2013 and 2017 (an increase of +0.9 standard deviations).

Figure 17: Trends in EQI: Bayern and London



Between the two regions that started above the EQI mean in 2010 – Bayern and London, we see clearly from the figure above that Bayern in Germany has made the steadiest gains in the data over time – from 0.64 in 2010, to 0.95 in 2013 to 1.38 in 2017. Whereas London, which has increased about 0.7 standard deviations, mostly gained from 2010 to 2013.

PART II: Qualitative Report on Quality of Government in EU regions

A study of Lubelskie and Pomorskie regions in Poland, and Catalonia and Navarra in Spain

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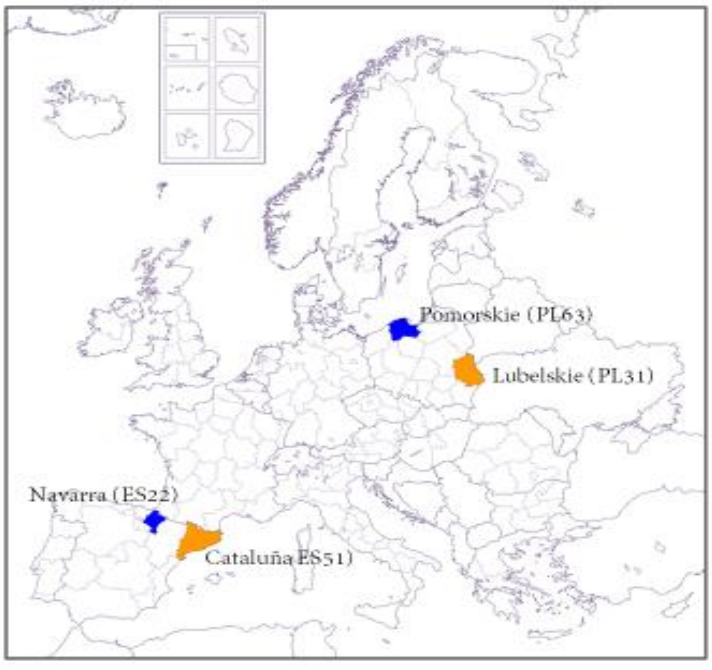
11. Introduction: country and case selection

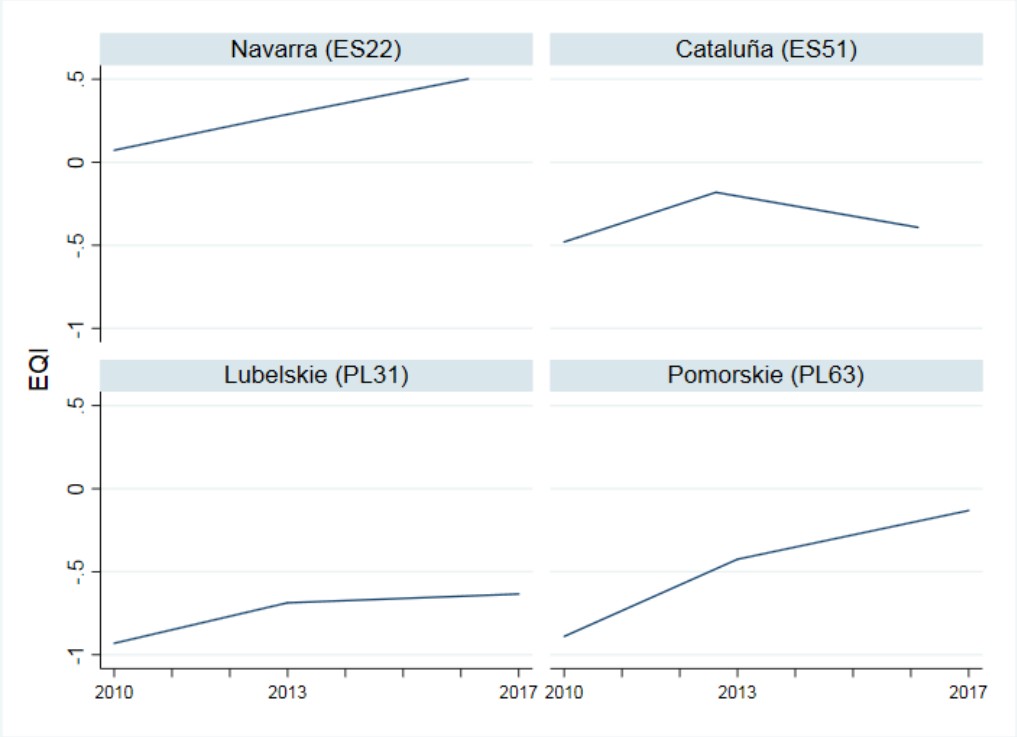
In this qualitative report, we conduct a research in two medium-large EU member states: Spain and Poland. One is an older member, the other a newer one. One is from the West, the other from the East. Within each country we have selected two regions: one that has experienced a notable improvement in (perceived) quality of government since the first EQI (2010) to the latest (2017), and one that acts as "control" because it does not seem to have experienced the same degree of upgrading. Pomorskie (PL63) and Navarra (ES22) fall within the former category, and Lubelskie (PL31) and Catalonia (ES51) within the latter.

Figure 18 Regions selected for the study.



As we can see in Figure 18, both Pomorskie (PL63) and Navarra (ES22) started in 2010 with a slight (in the Polish case) or remarkable (in the Spanish one) advantage over Lubelskie (PL31) and Catalonia (ES51) in terms of (again, perceived) levels of quality of government. Theoretically, and as we will see in the subsequent chapters on the Polish and Spanish regions, it could expected that Pomorskie could have a lead – in terms of good government – over Lubelskie, due to their different historical trajectories. Yet, as we can see in Figure 1.2, in the first place, that historical difference does not translate into a significantly better position for Pomorskie in the EQI 2010. The scores of Pomorskie and Lubelskie were virtually identical. What the evolution of the EQI indicator reveals is that, during the latest years, there seems to have been a divergent pattern in terms of levels of quality of government in the regions. At least, that is what the citizens in those regions perceive. And, as we will see in this report, this popular view by the citizens seems to fit quite well with the expert view by the key actors interviewed in these regions.

Figure 19. Evolution of the EQI in the selected regions.



In the second place, if historical differences mattered hugely, we would probably observe an advantage, in the Spanish case, of Catalonia, one of the, and definitely the iconic, industrial powerhouse of Spain since the 19th century. Yet, on the contrary, Navarra exhibits a significantly higher quality of government already in 2010 than Catalonia. And, if any, the evolution of the EQI indicates a growing gap between these two Spanish regions.

As we have noted several times, the measurement of the EQI in a given region is based on the subjective views of their citizens in a given moment in time. And particular events may deteriorate those opinions. For instance, one argument used to criticize the poor performance of Catalonia in the 2010 EQI – when Catalonia was Spain's worst performing region, and shocked numerous media and influential observers – was that, when the survey was conducted in December 2009, several high-profile corruption scandals in the region were unveiled. Consequently, these

notorious events could have led many Catalan respondents to underrate the quality of government in their region. Yet, almost a decade – and many corruption scandals uncovered all over Spain – afterwards, Catalonia still performs relatively poorly. In particular, the distance with high-performing Spanish regions, such as the Basque Country or Navarra, has not diminished, but, on the contrary, increased in recent years. The question is thus what explains those divergent paths within EU member states?

An encompassing answer to that question is out of the scope of this report, but, in the following two chapters, we explore the differences between these higher- and poorer-performing regions based on the views of experts active in these four regions. The methodology employed is interviews with public officials, and representatives of business, media and civil society in the regions. We asked about, first, their evaluation of the quality of government in the region. And, as we will see, they largely agree with the position their region gets in the EQI. Secondly, we questioned them on which are, according to their views, the reasons behind the high (or low) quality of government in the administrations operating in their region. As in the rest of the EQI study, it is important to remark here that we are not assessing the quality of the regional government, but the quality of the governments operating in the region, irrespective of whether they depend on national, regional or local authorities. We are concerned about what happens in the regions, not whose responsibility it is.

12. Study of Lubelskie and Pomorskie regions in Poland

By Paweł Chmieliński and Barbara Wieliczko

1. Introduction

Selection of regions and methodology

The European Quality of Government Index (EQI), 2017 edition, developed by the Quality of Government Institute of Gothenburg University, shows that the Polish regions still lag behind most of the EU-15 counterparts. Yet, within Poland there are certain differences in the value of the EQI and its changes over time.

Pomorskie region (PL63) was chosen for the case study as it was among the most dynamically and positively changing regions in Poland and Central and Eastern Europe. Total current rating of this region is 46.5 points, which translates into 109 places among 202 European regions. It is one of the best result among the regions in Poland, especially compared to 2013, the position of the region clearly increased. Pomorskie has the highest EQI in Poland (tab. 18).

Lubelskie region (PL31) was chosen for the case study due to the fact that its level of EQI did not change in the period 2013-2017. Its score is 35.7 and it ranks 147th among 202 EU regions . Lubelskie has to lowest EQI in Poland.

Table 18. EQI2017 in Lubelskie and Pomorskie

Specification	Lubelskie		Pomorskie	
	Score	Rank	Score	Rank
Quality pillar	50.7	131	56.3	110
Impartiality pillar	38.1	159	58.0	101
Corruption pillar	38.0	140	41.7	126
EQI2017	35.7	147	46.5	109

Source: Own elaboration based on
http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/information/maps/quality_of_governance#2

The next two chapters of the report concern the two case study regions and they present the key characteristics of them. Chapter 2 is devoted to Lubelskie region, while chapter 3 to Pomorskie region.

The finding of the survey conducted in Lubelskie and Pomorskie are analysed in chapter 4. The analysis of the factors contributing to the level of regional quality of governance presented in this chapter was conducted by looking at following dimensions of regional status quo:

- Institutions: Politics & political parties.
- Institutions: Public Administration.
- Institutions: judiciary.
- Media.
- Civil society.
- Impact of the EU.

The report finishes with conclusions on the factors contributing to the observed differences in quality of governance in the two analysed Polish regions.

Figure 20. Poland and case study regions

Source: https://www.google.pl/search?q=mapa+polski+wojew%C3%B3dztwa&tbm=isch&source=iu&ictx=1&fir=W1DFo0Fk2oEEFM%253A%252C13VGe9nA31uWlM%252C_&usg=__48Jahv07m89s43Ib3LxVludOqlk%3D&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj8xva-2PDbAhVCOJoKHSNWAtkQ9QEIKjAA#imgrc=W1DFo0Fk2oEEFM:

2. Description of Lubelskie region

Polish regions in their current boarders and powers granted to regions were established in 1999 after the administrative reform which significantly changes the responsibilities and powers of non-central authorities. In the period 1975-1998 there were 49 regions (voivodships) in Poland. Since 1999 there have been only 16 of them.

1. Historical background

The history of the region as part of Poland started already in middle ages. Lublin, the region's capital, was founded in 1317. It remained part of Poland until the 3rd partition of Poland in 1795 when it became part of Austria.

The high degree of regional inequalities in Poland has its historical roots dating back to the 19th century. Poland was divided between Prussia, Austro-Hungary and Russia. Separate development conditions of these three territories have left deep traces that have manifested itself in the level of economic growth, infrastructure networks (roads, railways), the level of urbanization, the legal system, the level of education, the behaviour of the population and the cultural landscape. These differences were not offset by the Second Polish Republic, especially as the modernization efforts undertaken in the east were interrupted by the Second World War.

With regard to agriculture and rural areas, the nature of regional diversity is also rooted in the agrarian changes taking place over almost 200 years of the turbulent history of Poland. Reforms giving the peasants ownership of land were the beginning

of the process of transformation of agriculture from the feudal era and the capitalist economy changing the agrarian structure. These reforms took place during more than 100-year period of partitions, where individual parts of the country were incorporated into various state organisms. The effect was that these reforms were carried out not only in three different periods of the nineteenth century (the appropriation took place over 50 years), but also took into account the differences in the law of the three invader countries. The conditions for running a farm in various parts of Poland were under the agricultural law of Prussia, Austria and Russia. Also, the development and character of agriculture in the areas of particular annexations was conditioned by the culture and the model of the agriculture prevailing in a given country. In the Prussian area, the appropriation was associated with concentration in agriculture, and thus with the creation of a smaller number of farms operating on large areas of land (over 67% of agricultural land was concentrated in farms with an area of over 20 ha). In the other regions the appropriation of land to peasants did not bring any changes in the agrarian structure, which was characterized by agrarian fragmentation and overpopulation. In the Austrian part of Poland the land use status characterized by a mosaic of small plots of land; while in the Russian part a polar structure began to form: on the one hand, small farms of appropriated peasants, and on the other, arable farms owned by the gentry. The policy of the invaders in the Polish lands, the manner and different dates of the enfranchisement reform carried out also affected agricultural culture and production efficiency in particular areas. In the Prussian partition, where the reform took place at the earliest, patterns of capitalism and agricultural culture characteristic of Western Europe were disseminated, while in the Russian partition, where the reform was carried out at the latest, the authorities sought to minimize land ownership by the privileged gentry[14].

Differences in the way the land reform was carried out in individual parts of Poland permanently set the limits for post-partition diversification of agriculture in Poland. The effects of it are visible not only in the modern agrarian structure, but also in the regional differences of the socio-economic level of development[15].

A significant impact on the scale of diversification in the socio-economic structure of rural areas in Poland was caused by changes in borders as a result of the Potsdam Conference of 1945. From the point of view of agricultural development, it should be emphasized that the amount of land used for agriculture in Poland decreased by 15.5% (up to 21,656 thousand ha), with up to a third of all agricultural land in the newly connected western and northern territories to Poland. With these changes, the post-war map of Europe involved a massive resettlement action of about 3 million Germans and about 1.5 million Poles from the territories of the then USSR.

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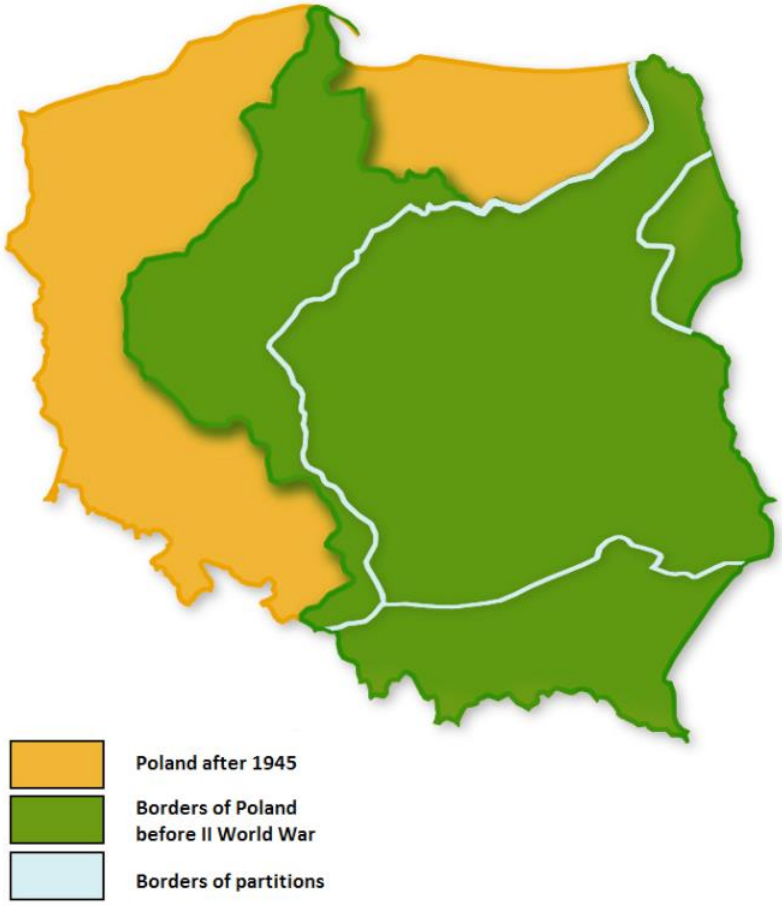
[14] B. M. Wawrzyniak: Przemiany struktury agrarnej w rolnictwie polskim (Transformation of the agrarian structure in Polish agriculture), WTN, Włocławek 2004, 25-27.

[15] See: E. Gorzelak, Sytuacja ekonomiczna gospodarstw rolnych w ujęciu przestrzennym przed i po zjednoczeniu Polski z Unią Europejską [The economic situation of farms before and after the unification of Poland with the European Union], In: Dostosowywanie polskiego rynku rolnego do wymogów Unii Europejskiej [Adjusting the Polish agricultural market to the requirements of the European Union], A. Kowalski (ed.), IAFE, Warsaw 2003, pp. 77-79.

Figure 22. Historical regions in Poland



Source: Chmieliński (2006).

After the Second World War, the state policy aimed at creating a centrally controlled economy resulted in the creation and promotion of the development of state-owned farms and agricultural production cooperatives. This is a subject that goes beyond the scope of this study, nevertheless to show the sources of spatial diversity of agriculture in the country, undoubtedly affecting the development of rural areas.

Lubelskie was also active in the process leading to the system transformation in Poland. In July 1980 this were the factories in this region where the strike broke out and in August 1980 were followed up by workers in other regions.

Due to historic developments and its peripheral position the region remains one of the poorest Polish regions. Today, it is classified by the Commission as a 'lagging region'[16]

[16] https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/information/publications/reports/2017/economic-challenges-of-lagging-regions

2. *Structural conditions*

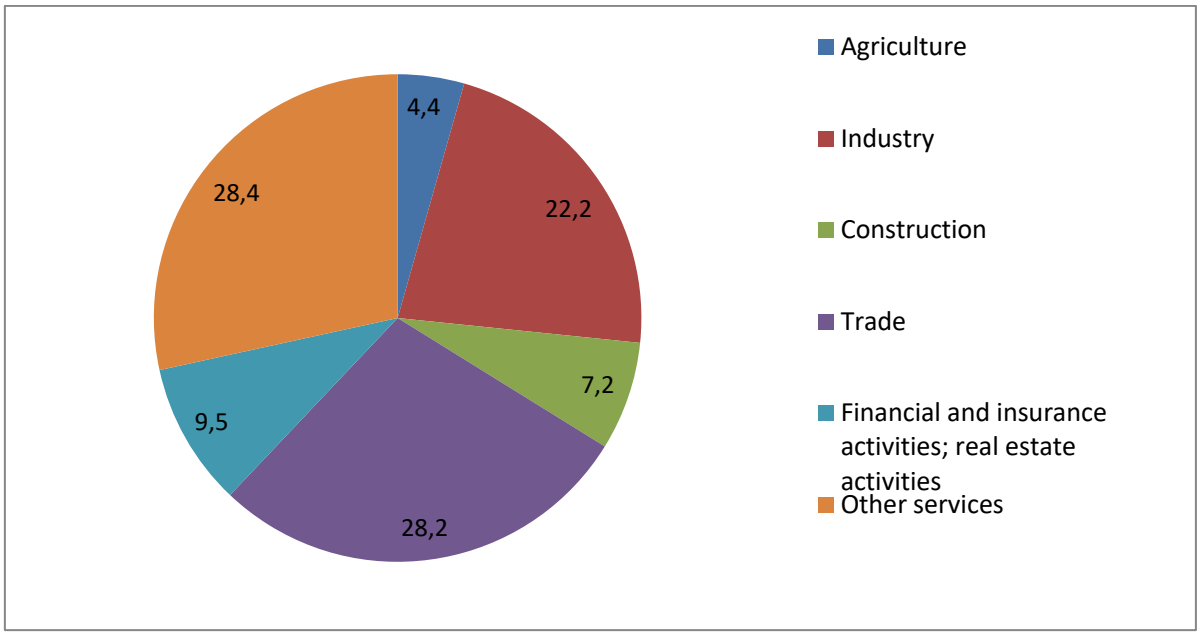
Lubelskie is located in eastern part of Poland. Its eastern border is Poland's state boarder. It boarders with Ukraine and Belarus – both non-EU countries.

The current area of the region consists of the former Lublin, Chełm, Zamość, Biała Podlaska and (partially) Tarnobrzeg and Siedlce Voivodeships.

The area of Lubelskie region is 25,122 km2 which amounts to 8% of Poland's area, which gives it 3rd place in the ranking of regions based on their area. In 2016 the number of its inhabitants was 1.017 million. The density is much lower than the Polish average – 85 and 123 people per 1 km2, respectively.

Lubelskie region's share in the Polish GDP amounts to 3.8%. Service sector constitutes the most impoartant contributer to the region's GDP. Agriculture's share in the GDP amounts to 4.4%, while industries to 22.2% (fig. 23).

Figure 23. Structure of the GDP in Lubelskie region



Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Lubelskie Voivodship 2017.

The fact that the region lags behind most of other Polish regions is clearly visible in the GDP per capita. Despite the gradual increase in the GDP per capita in the period 2010-2015, the region did not reduced the gap between its GDP per capita and the national average (tab. 19).

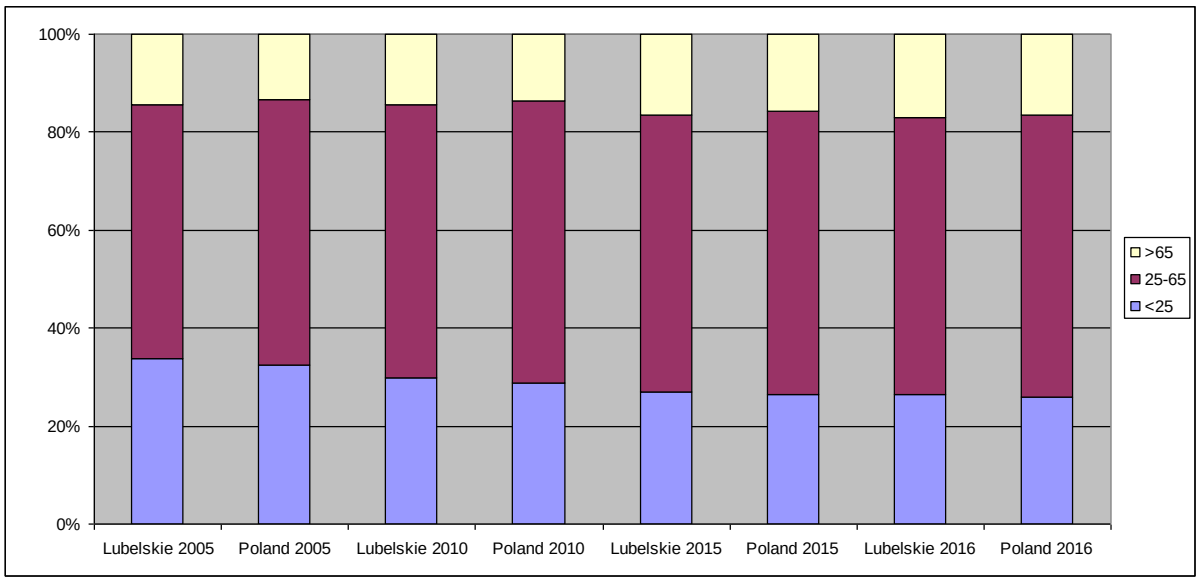
Table 19. GDP per capita in current prices in Lubelskie region

	in EUR			Poland = 100		
Region	2010	2014	2015	2010	2014	2015
Lubelskie	6,469	7,797	8,019	69.0	69.8	68.5
Poland	9,381	11,172	11,698	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The age structure of the region's population is similar to the national average. During the recent decade it kept a slightly higher share of the population of less than 25 years, which is related to a higher than the national average share of rural population characterised in the whole country by a higher share of young people. Yet, at the same time the region has a bit higher share of people over 65 years which can be attributed to outmigration of the people in the search for employment (fig. 24).

Figure 24. Structure of the population in Lubelskie region, by age



Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The structure of the employment in Lubelskie region is not similar to the Polish average structure. The importance of the agricultural sector is the most vivid and distinctive characteristic of this region making it the most agricultural region. The share of agriculture amounts to over 37%, which is over twice the Polish average (tab. 20). At the same time the share of industry in the employment is significantly lower than the country average amounting to only 17.5% while the national average is 26.5%.

Table 20. Structure of the employment in Lubelskie region and Poland (in 2016)

Sector	Poland	Lubelskie
agriculture, forestry and fishing	16.0	37.2
industry and construction	26.5	17.5
trade	25.0	18.4
financial & insurance and real estate services	3.8	2.5
other services	28.7	24.4

Trade also includes: repair of motor vehicles; transportation and storage; accommodation and catering; information and communication
Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

In the last decade the unemployment rate in the region showed a different trend than in Poland as a whole. In 2005, the unemployment rate in the region was lower than the national average which can be attributed to the importance of agriculture in employment and the related to it phenomenon of the hidden unemployment. Yet, the growth of the region's economy did not keep pace with the national average and this is reflected in the higher unemployment rate as compared with the Polish average (tab. 21).

Table 21. Unemployment rate in Lubelskie and Poland (in %)

Region	2005	2010	2015	2016
Lubelskie	17.0	13.1	11.7	10.3
Poland	19.2	12.3	8.9	7.1

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

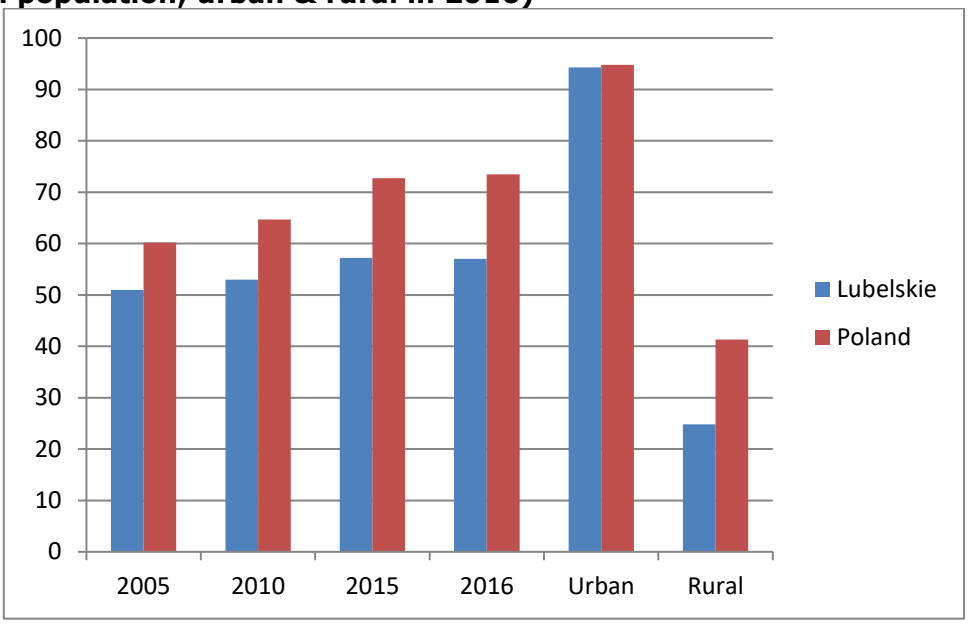
Lubelskie region is characterised by a higher share of people under extreme poverty line which is set on the basis of the subsistence minimum estimated by the household expenditures. In the period 2005-2016 it fell by almost a half, but the drop in the share of people experiencing extreme poverty in Poland was even bigger thus increasing the gap between the Polish average and Lubelskie region (fig. 25).

Figure 25. Share of population under extreme poverty line in Lubelskie

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The development of the region can be expressed also by the changes in environmental protection. As an important indicator the share of people connected to wastewater treatment can be named. In the period 2005-2016 the share of population connected to wastewater treatment in Lubelskie region grew but the growth was much lower than in the Polish average. Moreover, it started from a significantly lower base. This means that Lubelskie still lags behind the rest of Poland when it comes to wastewater treatment. Yet, when we take into account only the urban population the share of people connected to wastewater treatment is almost the same as the national average. The problem is the share of connected rural population which is not much more than a half of the Polish average (fig. 26).

Figure 26. Share of population connected to wastewater treatment (per cent of total population; urban & rural in 2016)



Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

3. Regional autonomy and funding

The responsibilities of different administrative levels in Poland vary. Therefore, the scale of their revenue and expenditure, as well as their structure vary. Regions (voivodships) are divided into powiats and cities with powiat status, while there are divided into gminas. For an analysis of the scale of funds in the region it is worth comparing the per capita revenues and expenditure between the region and national average.

Gminas in lubelskie have lower revenue per capita than the Polish average and the same applies to expenditure. This is a result of the economic situation of the region which is even more visible when we compare the share of own revenue in the total revenue. It is app. a quarter lower than the Polish average showing that the economic potential of the region lags behind the Polish average.

The same applies to the next level of administrative system – powiats and cities with powiat status. Both revenue and expenditure at this level is lower in Lubelskie region than the Polish average.

Only in the case of voivodship – the region the situation is different. The per capita revenue is by almost 9 p.p. higher than the Polish average. This is a result of the EU funds directed at the region. Lubelskie not only has its EU co-financed regional programme, but it also benefits from the Eastern Poland EU co-financed programme that is targeted at five Polish eastern regions that are characterised by much lower socio-economic development compared to the Polish average (tab. 22).

Table 22. Revenue and expenditure per capita at different administrative levels in Lubelskie region

Administration level	Indicator	Lubelskie	Poland
Gminas	Revenue per capita in EUR	917	986
	Poland = 100	93.0	100.0
	total own revenue per capita in EUR	312	437
	of the total - own revenue in % of total revenue	34.0	44.3
	Expenditure in EUR	886	951
	Poland = 100	93.2	100.0
Cities with powiat status	Revenue in EUR	1,315	1,475
	Poland = 100	89.2	100.0
	Expenditure in EUR	1,311	1,426
	Poland = 100	91.9	100.0
Powiats	Revenue in EUR	225	232
	Poland = 100	97.1	100.0
	Expenditure in EUR	221	226
	Poland = 100	97.8	100.0
Voivodship	Revenue in EUR	96	88
	Poland = 100	108.7	100
	Expenditure in EUR	86	82
	Poland = 100	104.8	100.0

Expenditure in EUR: exchange rate: 1 EUR = 4 PLN
Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

It is also worth to analyse the structure of funds at the gminas level. There are two key categories of these funds – own revenues and transfers from the state budget. Generally in Poland over 59% of funds in the gminas bugets are the money transferred from the state budget. In Lubelskie the own revenue amount to app. 31% of the gminas budgets which means that the share of own revenue is by almost a quarter lower than the Polish average. This is due to a much lower role played by the funds stemming from gminas' share in the taxes collected in the region (tab. 23).

Table 23. Structure of gminas budgets in Lubelskie region and in Poland (%)

Source of funds	Lubelskie	Poland	
Own revenue	CIT	0.47	0.84
	PIT	13.60	18.00
	tax on real estate	9.16	13.68
	agricultural tax	2.81	1.62
	tax on means of transport	0.64	0.79
	tax on civil law transactions	0.83	1.05
	stamp duty	0.16	0.18
	revenue from property	1.55	3.10
	revenue from services	1.54	1.64
Targeted grants from the state budget	for government administration tasks	29.83	25.88
	for own tasks	5.17	4.67
General subvention from the state budget	educational part	22.40	21.24
	remaining part	11.83	7.32

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

3. Description of Pomorskie region

1. Historical background

The region became part of Poland already in 960 during the reign of the Poland's first historic ruler – Mieszko I. The beginning of the 14th century, the Brandenburg army took over the region. Polish king asked for help the Teutonic Knights for help. However, they took the land. The region was in the hands of the Teutonic Knights for many years. Strengthening their position and rule in the lands they gained, they built castles. The most magnificent was in Malbork. Until the mid-15th century, it served as the capital of the monastic state.

After the Thirteen Years' War, which ended in 1466, the region returned to Poland. In the 16th and 17th centuries, Gdańsk became the most wealthy land of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. A center of culture, art and above all crafts. Gdańsk prevailed, endowed with many economic and self-government privileges. The city set trends in Polish trade and step by step it became a monopoly in this field.

In 1772 there was the First Partition of Poland. Most of the region was taken by Prussia. In the Second Partition of Poland (1793), among others Gdańsk and Toruń became part of Prussia.

After the World War I Gdańsk became a Free City under the protectorate of the League of Nations. The Treaty of Versailles restored Poland to a part of the region with a small 72-kilometer access to the Baltic Sea. Poland, having no real access to the port in Gdańsk, built a new port in the neighboring Gdynia.

After the World War II many of the Germans left the region, while numerous Poles from the regions which became part of the Soviet Union came to life in Pomorskie Region.

During the socialist era in Poland (1945-1989) the region was an important industrial hub specialized in such branches of the industry as: electromachinery, energy, chemicals, furniture and food. The concentration of workers was partly responsible for the fact that Gdańsk and Gdynia were among the cities where the Polish 1970 protests

took place. In December 1970 the government suddenly announced massive increases in the prices of basic foodstuffs. The public reacted with a protest. People gathered at rallies, demanding the authorities to withdraw the increase in prices, to regulate the pay system (in particular, the rules for calculating bonuses), and finally to remove the authorities responsible for the increase. The government used the army and other military forces to pacify the protesters. As a result there were many people injured and over 40 people killed – in Pomorskie region 24.

In August 1980 the shipyard in Gdańsk played a key role in the strikes taking place in numerous Polish cities. The strikes, as in December 1970, were a response to the government's authorization of the increase in food prices. This time the government did not use military force to pacify the protesters and The Gdańsk Agreement (or Gdańsk Social Accord(s) or August Agreement(s) was signed in the Gdańsk shipyard by the leader of the Solidarity movement, Lech Wałęsa. It was an accord reached as a direct result of the strikes.

The Gdańsk shipyard is considered to be the cradle of the Solidarity movement.

2. Structural conditions

Pomorskie Region is located in north-western Poland at the Baltic sea. The provincial capital is Gdańsk. It includes former voivodeships of Gdańsk, Elbląg (partially), Słupsk (partially) and Bydgoszcz (partially).

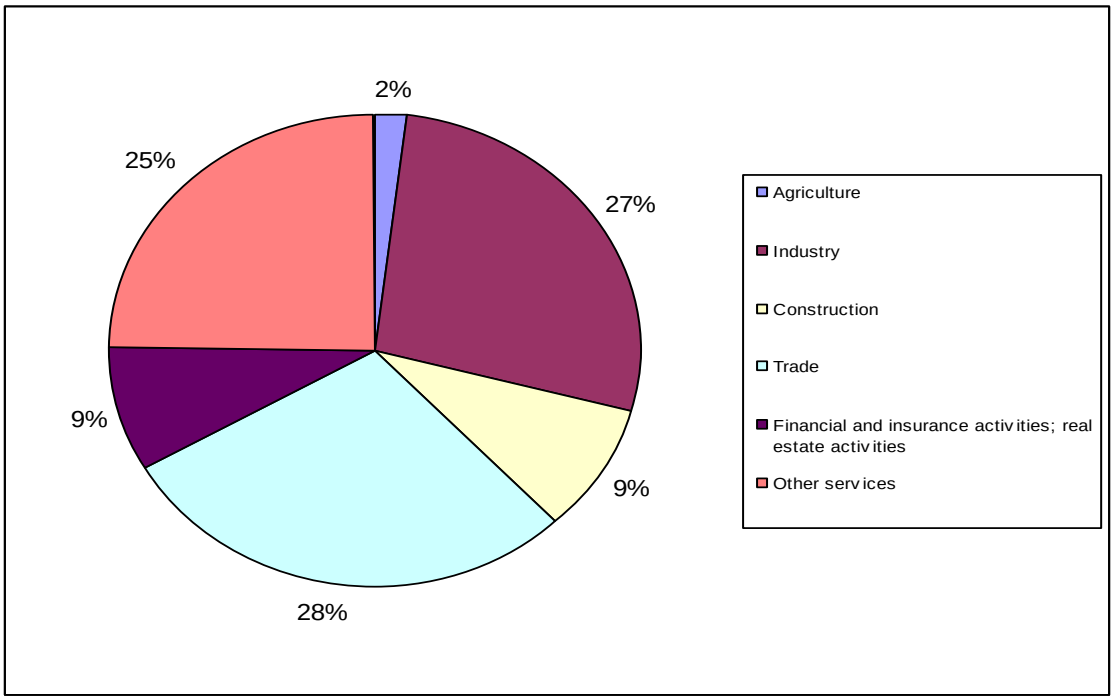
A province of rich cultural heritage. The Tricity urban area, consisting of Gdańsk, Gdynia and Sopot, is one of the main cultural, commercial and educational centres of Poland. Gdańsk and Gdynia are two of the major Polish seaports.

Depending on the estimates, app. 500,000 people living in Pomorskie Region are the representatives of the ethnic group Kashubians. They speak the Kashubian language, which is classified either as a separate language closely related to Polish, or as a Polish dialect. Among larger cities, Gdynia has the largest proportion of people declaring Kashubian origin. Over 80% of the people in towns such as Linia, Sierakowice, Szemud, Kartuzy, Chmielno and Żukowo are of Kashubian descent.

Pomorskie Region has an area of 18,310 km2, that is 5.9% of the whole area of Poland. This gives Pomorskie the 8th place in the ranking of regions. At the end of 2016 it was inhabited by 2,315,600 people (6% of the Polish total population). Over 64% of the region's population lives in urban areas. Population density is slightly higher than for Poland – 126 persons/km2 (123 in Poland).

The regions share in the Polish GDP is 5.8%. The region's GDP structure shows that services constitute the most important part of the region's economy (fig. 27). Agriculture is responsible for only 2% of the region's GDP, while industry for 27%.

Figure 27. Structure of the GDP in Pomorskie region and Poland



Trade also includes: repair of motor vehicles; transportation and storage; accommodation and catering; information and communication
Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Pomorskie Voivodship 2017.

GDP per capita in Pomorskie region in the period 2010-2015 was gradually growing, but it remained lower than the national average (tab. 24).

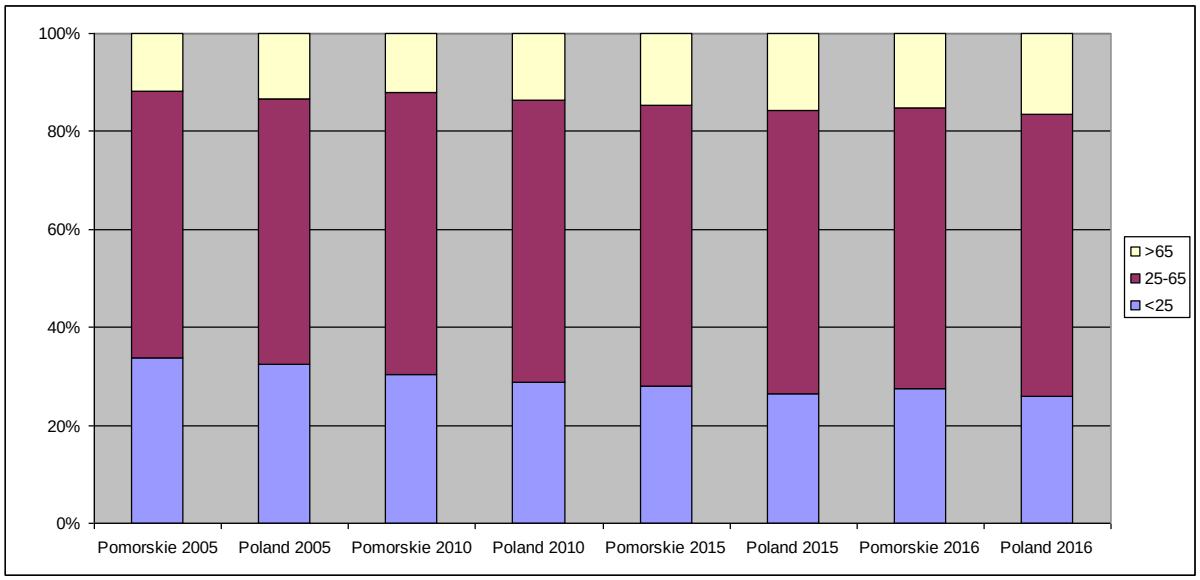
Table 24. GDP per capita in current prices in Pomorskie region

	in EUR			Poland = 100		
Region	2010	2014	2015	2010	2014	2015
Pomorskie	9,004	10,640	11,239	96.0	95.2	96.1
Poland	9,381	11,172	11,698	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The age structure of the population in the region is similar to the Polish average. Yet, the region has a slightly better structure of the population than the country as a whole, because the share of people over 65 is lower. However, in recent decade this group's share increased in Pomorskie region more significantly than in Poland (fig. 28).

Figure 28. Structure of the population in Pomorskie region, by age



Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The structure of employment in the region differs from the Polish average. The most important difference is the much lower share of agriculture in total employment. It amounts to 8.1% which means that it is app. a half of the figure for Poland. At the same time the share of all the other sectors is in Pomorskie a bit higher than the national average (tab. 25).

Table 25. Structure of the employment in Pomorskie region and Poland (in 2016)

Sector	Poland	Pomorskie
agriculture, forestry and fishing	16.0	8.1
industry and construction	26.5	29.0
trade	25.0	27.8
financial & insurance and real estate services	3.8	4.4
other services	28.7	30.7

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The unemployment rate in region used to be higher than the Polish average due to the closure of numerous factories. Yet, gradually, the region made bigger use of its development potential and currently, the unemployment rate is lower than the Polish average – 7.1% (8.2% in Poland) (tab. 26).

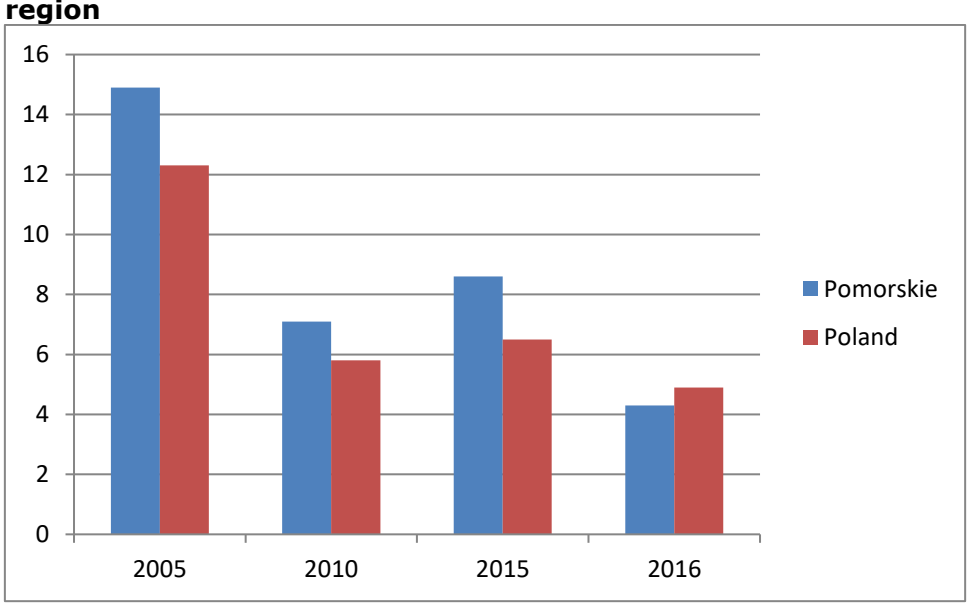
Table 26. Unemployment rate in Pomorskie and Poland (in %)

Year	2005	2010	2015	2016
Pomorskie	19.2	12.3	8.9	7.1
Poland	17.6	12.4	9.7	8.2

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

In 2005 the share of people experiencing extreme poverty in Pomorskie region was higher than the average for Poland which is in line with the higher unemployment rate observed in the region at that time as compared with Poland as a whole. Yet, the reduction in unemployment rate was not fully followed by Pomorskie in the reduction of the share of people classified to the extreme poverty group. Yet, in 2016 the region finally managed to reduce its share of people under poverty line to the one lower than the Polish average (fig. 29).

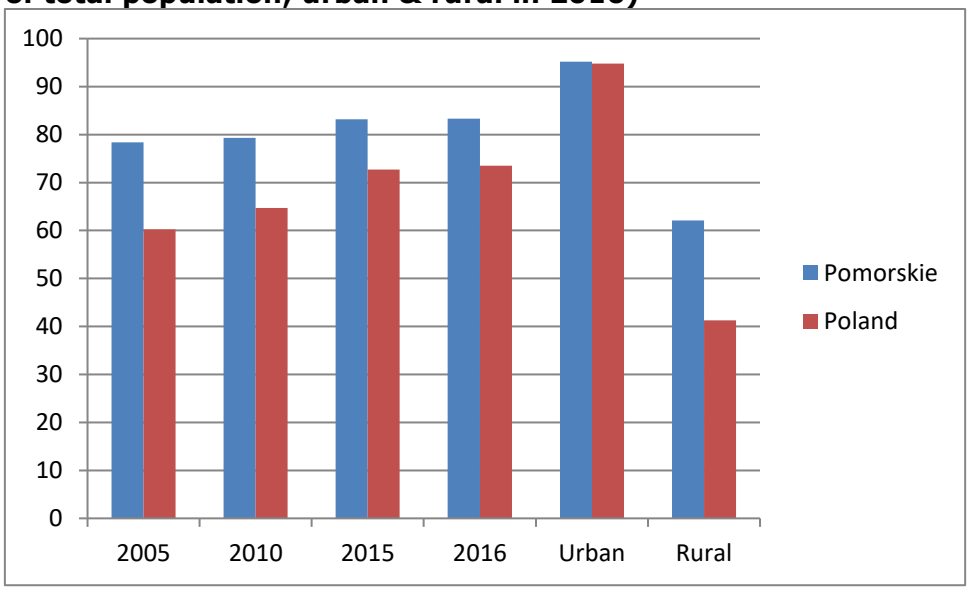
Figure 29. Share of population under extreme poverty line in Pomorskie region



Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

The development of the region can be expressed also by the changes in environmental protection. As an important indicator the share of people connected to wastewater treatment can be named. The share of population connected to wastewater treatment in Pomorskie region was significantly higher than the national average all through the period 2005-2016. Yet, the difference between Pomorskie and the Polish average decreased showing that other regions made bigger progress than Pomorskie. Yet, it must be emphasized that the region is characterized by much higher than the national average share of rural population connected to wastewater treatment. This is important also due to the fact that costal part of the region is an important summer destination for tourists (fig. 30).

Figure 30. Share of population connected to wastewater treatment (per cent of total population; urban & rural in 2016)



Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

3. Regional autonomy and funding

All Polish regions have the same status. Poland is a unitary state and the regions do not have much room for undertaking their own political agenda. Yet, the administrative reform implemented in 1999 gave them more power on managing their affairs and development.

Administrative power in the Polish regions is exercised by both the regional self-government and government and bodies of central government administration. The self-government operates on the basis of the Act of 5 June 1998 on the voivodship self-government. There is a regional assembly (Sejmik) elected in general and direct election for a period of time 4 years . The Marshal's Office, headed by a marshal elected by the regional assembly, serves as the regional executive branch of authority.

The central authorities are represented by the regional office, headed by a voivode appointed by the prime minister who exercises supervision over the legality of operation voivodship self-government.

The basic task and goal of the self-government is to define the voivodship development strategy and conduct the regional development policy. The local government cooperates in this area, among others with local self-government units (municipal offices, cities, starosts), voivode as a representative of state power, non-governmental and voluntary organizations, universities and scientific and research units, other voivodships, as well as with organizations and regions of other countries.

The assembly of Pomorskie region consists of 33 councilors. In Lubelskie there are also 33 councilors. The number of councilors depends on the number of inhabitants of the voivodship. In regions with a population of less than 2 million, there are 30 councilors for each additional 500 thousand there are three more councilors.

The key competences of the regional assembly include:

- drafting local law, in particular: statute of the voivodship, principles of managing region's property, rules and mode of using regional facilities and public utilities;

- adopting the region's development strategy and multi-annual regional programmes;
- adopting a spatial development plan;
- adopting a resolution regarding the mode of work on the draft budget resolution;
- adopting a resolution regarding the detailed implementation of the region's budget;
- adopting the region's budget;
- defining the rules for granting subsidies from the region's budget;
- adopting regulations regarding taxes and local fees;
- adopting resolutions on entrusting tasks of the voivodship self-government to other local government units;
- adopting priorities of foreign cooperation of the region;
- undertaking decisions concerning issuing bonds and taking long-term loans and credits as well as determining the maximum amount of short-term loans and credits taken by the voivodship board and the maximum amount of loans and guarantees granted by the voivodship board.

The five-person board, headed by the region's marshal, is the executive body. The Board also consists of one or two deputy speakers and three or two members of the board. All are elected by the regional councillors, but they do not have to belong to it - they may come from outside of the regional council.

The responsibilities of different administrative levels in Poland vary. Therefore, the scale of their revenue and expenditure, as well as their structure vary. Regions (voivodships) are divided into powiats and cities with powiat status, while there are divided into gminas. For an analysis of the scale of funds in the region it is worth comparing the per capita revenues and expenditure between the region and national average.

In the case of Pomorskie region the per capita revenue and expenditure of gminas is significantly higher than the Polish average, yet the share of own revenue in the total revenue was slightly lower than the country average.

In the case of cities with powiat status the situation in Pomorskie region was almost the same as the Polish average, while in the case of powiats both the revenue and expenditure was substantially higher than the Polish average. At the voivodeship the level of revenue and expenditure was lower than the Polish average. This indicates a mixed financial situation of the region as a whole in comparison with the Polish average (tab. 27).

Table 27. Revenue and expenditure at different administrative levels in region

Administration level	Indicator	Pomorskie	Poland
Gminas	per capita in EUR	1,092	986
	Poland = 100	110.8	100.0
	total own revenue per capita in EUR	456	437
	of the total - own revenue in % of total revenue	41.8	44.3
	Expenditure in EUR	1,052	951
	Poland = 100	110.6	100.0
Cities with powiat status	Revenue in EUR	1,476	1,475
	Poland = 100	100.1	100.0
	Expenditure in EUR	1,409	1,426
	Poland = 100	98.8	100.0
Powiats	Revenue in EUR	248	232
	Poland = 100	106.7	100.0
	Expenditure in EUR	244	226
	Poland = 100	108.1	100.0
Voivodships	Revenue in EUR	79	88
	Poland = 100	89.8	100
	Expenditure in EUR	76	82
	Poland = 100	93.0	100.0

Expenditure in EUR: exchange rate: 1 EUR = 4 PLN
Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

It is also worth to analyse the structure of funds at the gminas level. There are two key categories of these funds – own revenues and transfers from the state budget. Generally in Poland over 59% of funds in the gminas bugets are the money transferred from the state budget. In Pomorskie the share of own revenue in the gminas budgets is 34%, which means it is by almost 7 p.p. lower than the Polish average. This is due to a much lower role played by the funds stemming from gminas' share in the taxes collected in the region (tab. 28).

Table 28. Structure of gminas budgets in Lubelskie Pomorskie region and in Poland (%)

Source of funds		Lubelskie	Pomorskie	Poland
Own revenue	CIT	0.47	0.60	0.84
	PIT	13.60	14.04	18.00
	tax on real estate	9.16	11.49	13.68
	agricultural tax	2.81	1.22	1.62
	tax on means of transport	0.64	0.69	0.79
	tax on civil law transactions	0.83	1.12	1.05
	stamp duty	0.16	0.16	0.18
	revenue from property	1.55	3.32	3.10
	revenue from services	1.54	1.35	1.64
Targeted grants from the state budget	for government administration tasks	29.83	25.24	25.88
	for own tasks	5.17	3.82	4.67
General subvention from the state budget	educational part	22.40	20.45	21.24
	remaining part	11.83	16.49	7.32

Source: Own elaboration based on Statistical Yearbook of the Regions – Poland, 2017.

4. Comparative analysis

The study involved people involved in the socio-economic life of the regions: Pomorskie and Lubelskie. In individual regions, interviews covered respectively: 17 people in Lubelskie and 18 in Pomorskie. The respondents were representatives of many professions: economist, brewer, marketing manager, communication officer, pensioner; founder of the NGO and chairman of the board, HR manager, culture animator, manager, entrepreneur, pensioner, consultant, beautician, lawyer, assistant to the director, marketer, engineer, sailor, public officer and others. The study was conducted in the period May-June 2018 using the direct interview method, supplemented with a questionnaire survey.

This part presents a comparative analysis of the results of the questionnaire addressed to the participants of the socio-economic life of both selected regions.

In Lubelskie, 10 out of 17 respondents strongly agreed with the relatively negative result of the assessment of their region in the QoG ranking in relation to the position of Poland and other regions, one person indicated that it partially agrees, and up to 5 people could not formulate an opinion in this respect.

In Pomorskie, as many as 15 out of 18 people agreed with the positive assessment of their region, one respondent pointed to the lack of sufficiently extensive analysis of factors affecting the situation in other regions of the country, and another 2 respondents agreed with the need for further improvements and only one person could not formulate the opinion. Generally all respondents in Pomorskie confirmed the assessment of their region in QoG study. The approach to the state (government) resulting from the historical conditions of the region's development, which has its

roots in different influences of influence during (XVIII and XIX century) Poland's partitions (the influence of the Russians in Lubelskie and German in Pomorskie) and the varying degree of influence of the Catholic church in particular, is of great importance in the perception of local and regional authorities (clearly greater influence of religion on social life in the Lubelskie region).

1. Institutions

It should be emphasised that in the Pomeranian region respondents relatively better perceive public institutions in the region both in terms of level of their impartiality, as well as effectiveness in providing public services. Also in the Pomorskie region, the situation regarding the level of corruption in public administration was definitely better assessed.

Amongst the main reasons for the situation in Pomorskie region, good public management and close cooperation with stakeholders were highlighted. According to respondents HR issues were of great importance in good management.

One of the interviewee expressed the opinion that:

"Pomorskie is known for its very high assessment of its local governments - especially the so called Tricity (Gdansk, Sopot and Gdynia – agglomeration cities in the region) has been breaking records of support for its three presidents of cities in local government elections. Presidents have been in office for several terms. Therefore, high region's ratings may result from high self-government work assessments."

One also emphasized well-functioning local government, economic and social traditions, relatively high economic resources, as well as transparency and level of social capital, as well as great involvement in civil affairs, which translates into a strong position of NGOs in the region.

In turn, in the Lubelskie the position of the region in the ranking was motivated by a low level of social capital and economic conditions (low level of physical capital and underdeveloped infrastructure). As one of the respondents emphasized:

"The weak influence of civil society, certain social behaviours that have been perpetuated over the years are not conducive to the development of civil society. The weak economic development of the region is also significant, which is related to the fact that the region's potential is not used, which causes the outflow of population to other, more developed regions, especially young people."

The low level of economic development is combined with a low level of human capital, especially outside larger cities, which intensifies a large outflow of inhabitants to other regions, especially young and well-educated people. In the Lubelskie region concentration of human capital is interrupted in the capital city of the region. This translates into the quality of power and legislation characterized by politicization and lack of transparency.

As the respondent pointed out:

"The entire bureaucracy process hinders the implementation of basic access to public goods. Maybe not well-trained team of people who have direct contact with customers and clients. Legislation also laps and often tries to explain procedures for the implementation of specific tasks in an intricate and complicated way. Work culture also often deviates from high quality customer service standards. If not to explain such a situation for a long time, it is still economic issues that dominate the situation the most."

The above-mentioned characteristics of the relationship between the community and local centers of administration power translate into the level of trust in individual institutions of public life. Therefore, respondents in the Pomeranian region are more inclined to trust the police, local media or health service than in the case of the inhabitants of the Lublin region.

In both cases, trust in political parties is very low, which has its reasons in the generally negative assessment of the level of political debate in Poland.

It should also be emphasized that the general low level of public trust in the Lubelskie region translates into a more distrustful attitude to economic activity (business) in the region than in the case of respondents from the Pomeranian region. This has its impact on the way the administration cooperates with local entrepreneurs and translates into general conditions for running a business.

2. Media

Due to the growing general perception of the dependence and connections between the media and public administration in Poland, the respondents of both surveyed regions showed a general lack of trust in the media as an institution that stands for the proper implementation of the policy and respect to the law. While the level of confidence in public television was very low in both regions, the level of trust in the case of local public TV stations was slightly higher, as it was in the case of national private media. In general, the opinion was that the media had too large economic ties with representatives of the authorities, primarily through advertising and public administration, which are a significant position in the broadcasters' budgets, especially at the local level. It should be pointed out that the Pomorskie region is of the opinion that due to the relatively higher level of civic society, regional television remains under social (public) control (that is mainly reflected in the audience) to a higher degree than in the Lublin region, and "forces" a more objective approach to materials and topic coverage.

In the case of radio and newspapers, the situation is similar, but the radio enjoys a relatively greater social trust than television. Interestingly, in Lubelskie definitely more people trusted the messages of national public radio than in the Pomeranian region, where in turn local radio stations had a relatively greater confidence.

Also, internet sources had a low level of trust, which is connected with the fact that the sources of information for respondents were primarily online portals of nationwide and regional newspapers.

The attitude to the media as a source of opinion and observatory medium of the actions of government is well characterized by a commentary on the results of the latest edition of the World Press Freedom 2018, where Poland was ranked at 58th position (among 180 countries) in terms of press freedom.

Respondents from the Lublin region commenting on this result emphasized, among others, that there are no real restrictions on the press, however, the quality and ethical standards and much lower than one-two decades ago. While public media are largely dependent on politics (according to interviewee due to "targeting of advertisements and announcements from state and local government offices to selected media", thus generating additional revenues to government-friendly entities), private media plan their information policies based on economic calculations, regardless of political sympathies, which is why they do not always have an interest in an objective approach to information, other respondents emphasize dependence of several media on foreign capital.

One of the respondents assessed the situation of the media in the Lubelski region in this way:

"*It is difficult for me to answer this question because I have no evidence to say that the regional press is biased. I do not try to read political information, I do not like exaggerated advertising, my luggage is not realized by politicians. For me, the information I can use directly in my favour is important. For example: what are the projects in the region, in which event I can participate, what investments are currently implemented or planned in the region, or interiors fragrances appreciating our region. (I appreciate) reportage with a local bakery or an ornithologist presenting birds of existence only in my region. As for residents in the press there is too much policy and so-called butter in butter (tautological statement). That's why it does not subscribe to logs*."

Another person stressed that "*The freedom of expression is already blocked all over the country. (This is a) preparation for censorship. Words are taken away from their original meaning. For example, substantive discussion means now nodding public authority. Our own opinion is a denial of today's understanding of the subject matter. It is common to take meaning away from words*."

Also in the Pomorskie region political connections of media were called, as: politicization of journalists. In recent years in Poland, some representatives of the national media openly admit their political sympathies, which was reflected in the respondents' opinion sharing their motivation: "*I think that there is no such idea as freedom of the press.*"

Respondent's opinion: "*The freedom of the press is influenced by large corporations or media entities that have appropriated the entire media space with their narrative. Thus, in the "market" way, they limit the possibility of breaking through to other heterogeneous and smaller media.*"

Respondent's opinion: "*Obstacles to freedom of the press, of course, exist, Some press titles are financed (and even issued) by affiliates of a political party / cooperating with a political party. Such a press is nothing but a propaganda tube*."

An interesting picture of current situation is described in relation to the situation twenty years ago. In the Lublin region, the participants of the face-to-face interviews were divided in opinions, if now is better situation or worse, pointing to the development of technologies and related opportunities, while underlining the significantly lower level of journalism and the quality of information as compared to the situation two decades before.

In another case, the relatively higher media's dependence on politics was stressed:

Twenty years ago, the free press was just beginning to shape. It has come a long way. Total freedom, of course, never is achieved. Now there are restrictions and, above all, fear of the authorities' reaction. The media belong to the sphere of broadly understood culture, while this is the most delicate element and the most susceptible to the brutality of language and the primitivism of views. We already see the systematic replacement of experienced people with political statements. And there is no remedy for this.

In the Pomorskie region it was emphasized that there is a greater choice of newspapers and magazines, but this does not necessarily translate into the freedom of their message.

Similarly to the Lubelskie region, respondents pointed to the low morale of people working in the media, due to the excessive economic dependence of the press on public administration:

"*There is less freedom of the press in the sense that currently there are entire publishing houses that are on the services of the ruling party. Some of these*

publications come from the Tricity - we know people who work there. So it's not like "bad private media make us water from the brain and slander state media", only we know people who work in the propaganda press and we know from the first mouth what's going on. Most people professionally practicing party propaganda do so only because they have to work somewhere."

To sum up, it should be emphasized that the study shows a clear relationship between the quality of social capital in a given region, as well as civil society on the quality of media functioning. The media control the actions of the authorities, while they count with the public opinion, which essentially affects the popularity and revenues from advertisements.

5. Civil society

When applying for positions in public administration and related units, respondents in both regions indicated the importance of political and personal connections in getting the job. In Lubelskie region, where 14 out of 17 interviewed person shared opinion on importance of personal connections, one of interviewees highlighted:

"*Unfortunately, mainly political and personal connections are decisive, it almost does not happen that these positions include people because of their skills and competences*."

Another one stressed that: "*They (key public officers) are only representatives of ruling parties or struggling for influence, even if they are not, to maintain their position they must be loyal to their superiors from the provincial or governmental administration.*"

This problem also appears in the Pomeranian region, although to a much lesser extent, where only 5 people out of 18 indicated that personal contacts and political connections are of great importance in obtaining work in the public sector, additionally there were definitely more indications that only competences or a mix of competences and connections:

"This is not a problem, the level of qualifications is a problem - nowadays the management staff is more competent than it used to be in the past, although nepotism often occurs."

This situation changes with the change of approach at the national level - respondents indicate that in the face of the growing devaluation of the public administration at the national level, also at the regional level, this process is growing, as stated by the Pomeranian citizen:

"It seems to me that in the public sector it is currently the case that a person with political connections gets a position, but probably so far the majority of positions are still with the people recruited years before, based on the competences."

Similarly, the answers regarding employment at lower levels of public administration are distributed - if this process in the Lubelskie region is largely related to the candidate's personal connections and current policy, in the Pomeranian region the recruitment process is based more on the assessment of competences then personal connections. Interestingly, in both cases, the majority of respondents indicate that the situation in their region does not differ significantly from the situation in other regions of the country.

In turn, when asked whether officials would inform superiors about irregularities detected in their unit, in both cases the respondents were not able to express their opinion on this topic. Also in both cases, the majority of respondents indicated that employee could be afraid of repercussions if he/she decides to disclose the case. This

goes hand in hand with the opinion that at the regional level there is no clear strategy in order to enforce compliance with the rules and employees of public institutions. In both regions, respondents basically were unable to point to anti-corruption regulations, in some cases they pointed to central regulations, work ethics or the institution of the Central Anticorruption Bureau (CAB, investigating body) operating at the national level.

In the case of Lubelskie region, public opinion (citizens) are less often expressly related to media activity.

In the Pomorski region, public opinion is much more likely to react to the case of corruption, pointing to numerous cases of social dissatisfaction with public-private scandals. There is a clear difference between the regions here, and the public opinion in the Pomeranian region responds very strongly to irregularities, although this is not always effective, in Lubelskie to a much lesser extent. *"Citizens - if they are active - can enforce a lot of changes. The inhabitants of the Tricity are very active on the Internet."* or: *"Public opinion often reacts but its reaction and outrage is not taken into account"* (Pomorski region).

In both cases, attention is paid to the importance of the media in tracking and publishing cases of irregularities.

6. Impact of the EU

In Pomorskie region relatively greater share of respondents expressed their opinion that they observe a significant change in the quality of public services since joining the EU, than in Lubelskie region.

In both cases, there are reservations, although there is an opinion that the introduction of polic-making principles based on EU regulations has helped introduce higher standards in this area. In the Lubelskie region, the majority of respondents still think that there is a lot to do in this area, while in Pomerania there is a fear that changes at the central level will adversely affect the quality of public life in their region. In the Lubelskie region the EU membership, apart from the positive aspects, was strongly perceived as the reason of the increase of bureaucracy in administration.

In the case of both regions, still almost half of interviewees maintained that wealthy people have a broader range of access to healthcare services (eg schools for children, preferences in access to healthcare, running a business). Social inequalities remain a major challenge at the local level, but with the development of civil society, these differences are decreasing. Only few respondents could recall loud issues related to irregularities in public administration. In the Pomeranian region, the respondent gave the following example: *"The control of the Central Anticorruption Bureau at the Marshal's Office in Gdańsk (completed in March 2017) showed that the Pomeranian Voivodeship Board violated the Public Procurement Law in the submission of false declarations regarding impartiality by members of the Board when selecting the contractor. It is a Pomeranian Development Agency SA, a public institution whose 100-percent shareholder is Pomorskie Voivodeship. ARP SA was selected in a competitive mode, in accordance with the PPL act as a service provider within the Pomeranian Smart-Up project evaluated the offers, only formally approved the outcome of the work of the tender committee, and it should be noted that the members of the Pomorskie Voivodship Board act within a collegial body, rather than individually, it is difficult to recognize that members of the Voivodship Board could obtain any benefit by selecting a public institution. On the one hand, members of the Management Board who signed a declaration of impartiality in connection with the approval of the tender were accused of doing so, and on the other hand a member of the Management Board absent at the meeting because of the delegation was accused of not having signed the statement. Office, comments on public procurement have no legal and factual basis - they result from the erroneous interpretation of the law by the*

CAB and in the incorrect analysis and synthesis of the collected evidence. I think the likelihood of this situation reoccurring is small."

W Lubelskie region responded gave an following example:

"*The court in Suwałki impartially handed down the verdict acquitting people who opposed the campaign of Mr. Anders in the museum. Now the authorities muttered and probably some judge would abolish this verdict. This is just a loud example*."

Summing up, in Poland accession to the EU introduced the framework of policy making, and the regulations regarding spending public funds, supported from the EU budget, introduced new rules for qualification and distribution of public support, which generally had a positive effect on the quality of the administration, however in different regions it took place to varying degrees. In the Pomeranian region to a greater extent the principles of transparency were enforced by the media and society, in Lubelskie, due to the lower civic engagement, this situation was relatively worse.

Conclusions

Polish regions are still characterised by a low level of EQI as compared with most of the EU-15 regions, excluding the many regions of Spain, Italy and Greece. The low level of EQI is in Poland accompanies by much lower level of GDP per capita.

The level of EQI in both of the Polish regions analysed seems to reflect both the current economic situation of these regions as well as their historical and cultural backgrounds. Different development pathways these regions went through during the Polish partition period left a still visible mark on the current quality of governance. These differences still have an influence on the way the culture, including functioning of regional administration and relations between different institutions and citizens.

This is reflected in the conducted study, which showed a relatively lower effectiveness and quality of public institutions' functioning, which is reflected in the social characteristics and civic participation of residents. In the Pomorskie region, where historically social values were based on Western culture (associated with Protestant roots and ties with Western countries), the culture of public administration is greater - to a large extent it is dictated by a higher level of social capital and civil society, which affects the level of media objectivity and greater social control over local authority.

In the subject literature in Poland, differences in mentality, socio-economic development in particular regions of the country are widely commented, which has its causes due to different historical conditions (especially those related to the impact of eastern and western culture). These divisions are evident, for example, during the parliamentary elections, also in this study. With outlined differences in the perception of various aspects of regional socio-political life, membership in the EU had an unambiguously positive effect on the level of law-making, and currently the level of governance is an increasingly important determinant of the development of a given area.

13. Study of Navarre and Catalonia regions in Spain

1. Introduction

1. Regional QoG performance in the country

Spain is a paradigmatic example of the complexity and very diverse levels of quality of government (QoG) that can be found within the same country, to the point that the actual performance of the Spanish state cannot be properly captured by exclusively looking at the central government. On the contrary, the existence of significant interregional differences recommends gathering information at sub-state level, so to provide a more accurate picture of QoG within the country.

All throughout the period covered by the investigation on regional QoG (2009-2017), Spain has obtained nation-wide EQI scores close to the EU average. But this apparent stability conceals a decline in Spanish QoG, especially when compared to other countries. In the first round of the analysis, Spain was ranked 15th out of the 27 EU member states and clustered together with France, Belgium, Malta, Portugal, Cyprus, Estonia and Slovenia. When the study was replicated four years later, Spain climbed up to the 14th spot, thus experiencing a slight improvement (See Charron, Lapuente and Rothstein 2018: table 1); but it then had a great fall, down to the 19th position in the last round (See Charron and Lapuente 2018: table 2A). As a result, Spain now looks less like some Western -or even Southern- European countries with which it was initially grouped, and it is currently much closer to new EU member states from Eastern and Central Europe, such as Lithuania, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, Poland and Latvia.

Most importantly for the purposes of this qualitative analysis, great spatial and temporal differences can be found between Spanish regions[17], while the gap across them has broadened over time, too. Let's see these differences in further details:

- First of all, Spain is the only country that includes regions both, above the mean EQI score at EU level -such as Cantabria, the Basque Country and Navarre- and below it -such as Madrid, Galicia, Andalusia and the Canary Islands; while the number of regions with EQI scores below the European mean has risen from four in 2010, to six in 2013 and to ten in 2017. ACs with EQI scores under the EU average are rather spread throughout the territory of the country, whereas most regions performing over the EU average are in the North of the country[18]. This suggests some connection between territorial location and quality of government[19].

[17] In the Spanish context, the terms "region" and "autonomous community (AC)" are often used interchangeably. Both of them refer to the intermediate territorial level between the centra state and the local entities; yet, the first one constitutes mainly a geographical concept, whereas the second one highlights the political-institutional dimension and is the legal form the Spanish regions adopted as a result of assuming the autonomy granted by the 1978 Spanish constitution.

[18] Extremadura seemed to be the only exception in 2017.

[19] As a matter of fact, some sort of territorial pattern has become apparent over time, because the number of Northern regions with poor EQI results and Southern regions with good ones is smaller in 2017 than it was in 2013 and 2010.

- Second of all, Spain is, after Italy, the country with the widest divergence of QoG at sub-national level; and this divergence has grown over time. In 2010, more than twenty-four points set the Basque Country (the best performing region at the time, with an EQI100 score of 76.63) apart from Catalonia (the worst performing region, with an EQI100 score of 52.07). The gap between the regions respectively at the top and at the bottom of the ranking narrowed down to eighteen points in 2013; only to broaden once again in 2017. As a result, there is nowadays a thirty points-gap between the AC with the highest score -the Basque Country (63.3)- and the AC with the lowest one -Andalusia (33.2).
- Third of all, Spanish regions vary greatly in their evolution over time. In line with a common trend within Southern Europe, most ACs have experienced a deterioration in their quality of government in recent years: Twelve of them showed worse EQI scores in 2017 than they did in 2010; besides, in some particular cases -such as Galicia, Castile La Mancha, Valencia or the Balearic Island- this decline have entailed a jump from a position above the European average to a position below it. On the other hand, the Basque Country, Cantabria, La Rioja and Navarre, all regions in Northern Spain, have experienced the opposite development: they had scores over the EU average already in 2010 and have improved since then.

2. Selection of regions and methodology

As it has just been pointed out, Spain features one the greatest levels of inter-regional variation in quality of government. Taking this into consideration, the main selection criterion for this qualitative report was choosing one 'high QoG' region -Navarre (ES22)- and another 'low QoG' region -Catalonia (ES51).

Since the first Quality of Government Index (QoG Index) was published, Navarre has consistently registered values above the Spanish and European averages; and it has also experienced a steady progress, relative to the rest of Spanish ACs. More specifically, Navarre has gone from the 10th position in 2010, to the 6th and 2nd positions respectively in 2013 and 2017. And it is currently among the top 35% European regions, with similar scores to, for example, Saxony-Anhalt (Germany) or Ile-de-France (France).

Catalonia's performance in governance (at least as citizens perceive it) is quite different to Navarre's. In 2010, Catalonia received the worst result of all Spanish regions and was also below the European average. After some improvement in 2013, Catalonia's position deteriorated once again in 2017, when it fell down to the 12th position within Spain. Consequently, it remains in the middle-low zone of European regions, with similar scores to Moravskoslezsko or Jihozapad (Czech Republic) and most Polish regions.

Table 29. EQI2017 in Catalonia and Navarre

Specification	Catalonia		Navarre	
	Score	Rank	Score	Rank
Quality pillar	53.5	120	72.5	56
Impartiality pillar	47.1	129	65.9	75
Corruption pillar	40.2	133	55.1	89
EQI2017	40.8	127	60.3	73

Source: Own elaboration based on http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/information/maps/quality_of_governance#2

Ultimately, it can be said that citizens in Navarre are largely satisfied with their public sector and they believe that public administration in their territory works in a more impartial, more effective and less corrupt way than most ACs. Conversely, citizens in Catalonia consider that Catalan institutions have performed in all three dimensions assessed in the QoG Index far less satisfactorily[20].

These differences between Catalonia and Navarre become particularly striking if we take into consideration that both are Northern and economically better-off regions within Spain.

As for methodology, this work is based on information collected through a series of personal interviews with experts in different academic and professional fields conducted during the month of April 2018; this was complemented with official data and other secondary sources. The remaining of the chapter is structured as follows: sections two and three deal with one region each and pay attention to their key historical, institutional and socio-structural features. Section four focuses on aspects such as political parties, civil service or the media, in an attempt to provide a provisional explanation of Catalonia's and Navarre's divergent results in quality of government. Section five offers some concluding remarks.

2. Catalonia

1. Structural conditions (geographical & economic features)

Catalonia is Spain's most North-eastern region. It is bordered by France and Andorra to the north, the Mediterranean Sea to the east, the AC of Valencia to the south, and the AC of Aragon to the west. Its surface is just over thirty-two thousand square metres, thus amounting to about six percent of the Spanish territory. The Catalan population reached seven and a half million inhabitants in 2017, which represents over sixteen per cent of the Spanish population. This makes of Catalonia the second biggest AC in population size, after Andalusia.

[20] The only similarity seems to be that both regions perform better in the quality pillar followed, in this order, by the dimensions of impartiality in the provision of public services and control of corruption (See Table 1).

As for the economy, Catalonia slightly reduced its weight within the national economy during the crisis; but it has more recently reached its historical peaks. As a result, it currently constitutes the largest regional economy in the country, with a share around nineteen percent of the Spanish economy (see table 30).

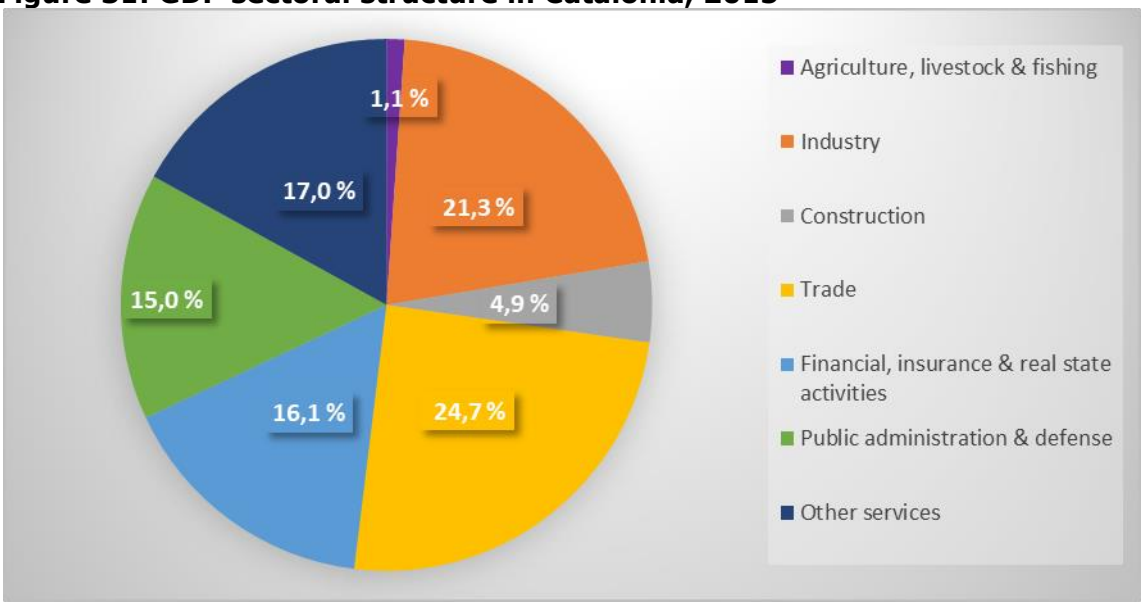
Table 30. Size of regional economy, Catalonia

	GDP per capita						GDP (% of country)		
	2010		2013		2016*		2010	2013	2016*
	Euros	%	Euros	%	Euros	%			
Catalonia	27.192	117,1	25.945	117,9	28.845	119,8	18,8	18,8	19,1
Spain	23.215	100,0	22.014	100,0	24.085	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INE: https://www.ine.es/dyngs/INEbase/es/operacion.htm?c=Estadistica_C&cid=1254736167628&menu=resultados&idp=1254735576581

Catalonia is also one of the most highly industrialised parts of the country, where the industrial sector contributes around four percentage points more than it does in the country as a whole. It has traditionally featured a strong textile industry. Since the process of diversification set off in the 1950s, however, metalworking, food-processing, pharmaceutical, and chemical industries have gained more prominence; furthermore, services (particularly those related to tourism and transportation) are highly developed, too. Additional data illustrate Catalonia's weight in the Spanish economy: according to the National Institute of Statistics (Instituto Nacional de Estadística-INE), in 2016 Catalan exports accounted for 25.6 percent of all Spanish exports; its industries represented 22.7 percent of the Spanish industrial sector; and the region received over 24 percent of foreign tourists who visited Spain.

Figure 31: GDP sectoral structure in Catalonia, 2015



Source: Own elaboration with data from INE.

Catalonia is also a wealthy region, with a GDP per capita well above the Spanish average (see table 2); in fact, it has consistently ranked among the four best ACs in the country. Catalonia has also performed well in employment, with unemployment rates between three and four percentage points lower than the Spanish average, which have also experienced a positive evolution from 19 percent in 2015 to about 12.6 percent in late 2017. Since employment and GDP per capita stand as good indicators of quality of life, then Catalan inhabitants are among the Spaniards who enjoy the best living standards.

3. Navarre

1. Structural conditions (geographical & economic features)

Navarre is located in the North of Spain, in the western end of the Pyrenees. It is bordered by France to the North, the Basque Country to the West, the ACs of La Rioja to the Southwest and the ACs of Aragon to the South and East. With an area of just under ten and a half thousand square metres, it is the fourth smallest region in the country. The Navarrese population was about six hundred forty thousand inhabitants in 2017, which represents under one and a half per cent of the Spanish population. This makes of Navarre the fourth smallest AC in population size.

As for the size of the Navarrese economy, it contributes 1,7 percent of the Spanish GDP; this percentage has remained rather constant over time and it constitutes a slightly larger contribution by the region to the Spanish economy than its share in the Spanish population (see table 31).

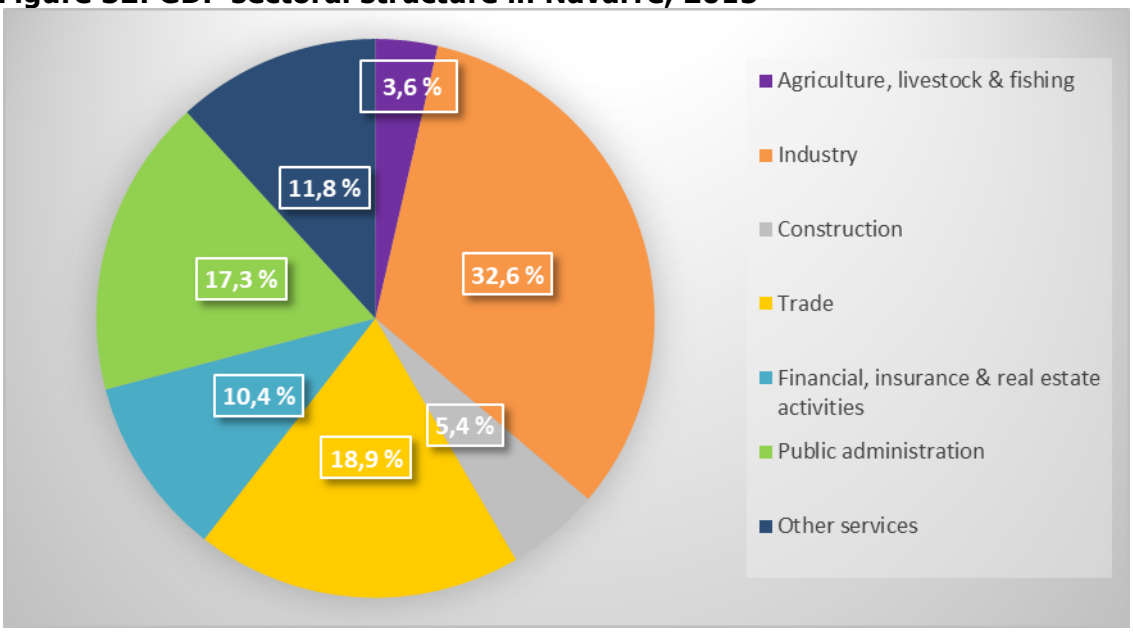
Table 31. Regional economy, Navarre

	GDP per capita						GDP (% of country)		
	2010		2013		2016*		2010	2013	2016*
	Euros	%	Euros	%	Euros	%			
Navarre	28.752	123,9	27.442	124,7	29.859	124,0	1,7	1,7	1,7
Spain	23.215	100,0	22.014	100,0	24.085	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INE:
https://www.ine.es/dyngs/INEbase/es/operacion.htm?c=Estadistica_C&cid=1254736167628&menu=resultados&idp=1254735576581

Navarre's agricultural output has been kept relatively; yet, above the Spanish average. Apart from that, the regional economy is clearly oriented towards industry and exports. In fact, the industrial sector represents about a third of the regional GDP, well above the national average, and with a specific weight of the car industry and auxiliary sectors, as well as machinery, house appliances, processed foods and beverages, and paper. Moreover, exports constitute over 40 percent of the regional GDP, which almost doubles the weight of imports into the region. Services are also important and concentrated in Pamplona, which is the commercial centre of Navarra.

Figure 32: GDP sectoral structure in Navarre, 2015



Source: Own elaboration with data from INE.

According to INE, Navarre had the lowest regional unemployment rate in 2017, with 9.6 percent; that is, 6 percentage points lower than the national average of 16.6 percent. As for GDP per capita, it occupies the 3rd place in the ranking of ACs. It also enjoys one of the lowest regional public debts. All these figures show that Navarrese are among the Spaniards with the best living standards within the country.

4. Comparative analysis

This section offers an analysis of nineteen in-depth personal interviews conducted either face to face or over the phone, during the month of April 2018. Twelve interviewees came from Catalonia and the remaining seven were from Navarre[21]. As many as fourteen interviewees had public responsibilities as politicians, civil servants or employees either at the regional level or in various Catalan and Navarrese municipalities; three interviews were addressed to scholars in government and public administration or in the legal field; and two more interviewees came from the private sector (see Annex for the professional profile of interviewees).

As it will be shown next, the results suggest that the variation between Catalonia's and Navarre's performance in quality of government may have to do both with structural conditions, and political-institutional and/or administrative choices.

1. Expert assessment on the regions' ranking and their evolution over time

Experts were split in their evaluations of Catalonia. In fact, the only clear agreement among them was about the distorting effects that the territorial conflict and the social division over the issue of independence was likely to have both on the citizens' perceptions and on their own views.

[21] The difference in the number of interviews carried out in each region was largely junctural, since it was easier the access to potential interviewees in Catalonia than in Navarre.

Some of them expressed a very critical position, thus in line with the results of the citizens' survey. According to interview 10, for example, Catalonia has for long benefited from its "apparent modernity" and, for a while, it even served as an example to other administrations. However, "issues related to institutional quality and institutional organization have never been high in the agenda of the regional government"; so that, after the surface is scrubbed out, internal contradictions and a rather mediocre situation are revealed.

On the other side, most interviewees shared the view that Catalonia might be lagging behind the smaller regions in the North of Spain (particularly the Basque Country and Navarre), but it was still performing better than most of the remaining ACs. They, thus, found it difficult to understand Catalonia's EQI scores -that set their region apart from a Northern pattern- and the reasons why Catalan citizens have consistently ranked it so low over time. For some experts within this group, the way citizens perceive the functioning of public administration and the quality of services in Catalonia might have experienced a reversal especially due to major cases of corruption, that are somehow associated to problems of impartiality, too. But, it was further argued that these corruption cases recently known and/or judicialized are in fact old ones, go many years back and do not necessarily reflect the current situation; whereas a deeper inquiry suggests the existence of a great difference between "perceiving" corruption and "experiencing" it (Interview 4)[22]. Moreover, the Generalitat of Catalonia is deploying efforts in implementing and developing transparency measures at the present time, that seem to have less influence on citizens' perceptions (Interviews 4 and 7).

In contrast to Catalonia, the experts' assessment was more homogeneous concerning Navarre. Interviewees broadly agreed with the results of the citizens' survey, that places their region at the top of the ranking of ACs and well above the European average scores in all three dimensions under examination. Most of them were also proud to highlighting that Navarre's good governance has remained quite stable over time, to the point that the economic crisis seemed to have affected the region only very slightly (see specially Interviews 9 and 17).

As a matter of fact, the people interviewed shared the view that public services are provided with high efficiency in Navarre; they considered their regional government to be more efficient than the central one; and that corruption was mainly a problem associated to the central government or to other regions[23]. If anything, some of them warned that the change in government brought about by the regional elections held in 2015 might affect impartiality in the process of decision-making, although the brief period elapsed since then could explain that it was not reflected in the citizens' survey yet.

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[22] According to the barometer conducted by the Catalan Antifraud Office in 2018, over 70 percent of Catalans perceive that there is much corruption and it is a very serious problem, but less than 30 percent of them affirm to have witnessed actual cases of corruption, pity corruption or inappropriate conducts. See "*La corrupción en Cataluña: percepciones y actitudes Ciudadanas" (available at: https://www.antifrau.cat/es/barometro-2018.html).*

[23] As one expert pointed out, the only single conviction for corruption dates back to the late 1980s (Interview 5). This idea has been reinforced in the media where many pieces of news can be lately found stressing that Navarra is the only AC under no investigation for suspected political or administrative corruption (See, for example, Elia, N. "La burbuja de la corrupción pincha en Navarra", *eldiario.es*, June 17th, 2017 (https://www.eldiario.es/norte/navarra/burbuja-corrupcion-pincha-Navarra_0_655484787.html)).

2. Contributing factors of the regional QoG

The main factors identified that seem to be contributing to the variation in regional QoG can be organised in four main categories: (1) socio-structural factors, including aspects of the civil society, public opinion and political culture; (2) factors related to the institutional setting, including the employment and hiring practices in the public sector; (3) factors related to the political parties' ideologies and dynamics; and (4) the role played by the media.

a. Socio-structural factors

Interviewees from Navarre were quick and unanimous to suggest that the small size of the region and its municipalities[24] has a positive impact upon the quality of government, through a series of direct and undirect mechanisms, that one interviewee referred to as "informal anti-corruption controls" (Interview 16): First of all, the very size of the region leads to a public administration of equally small size that leaves little room for discretional appointments. As one interviewee illustrated it, whereas in many ACs there used to be five or six discretional appointees between the regional ministry and the general director, in most departments in Navarre there were none (Interview 11). Second of all, the closeness and proximity between citizens and administrators enables the former to more easily watch over the later what, in turn, "makes it hard, if not impossible, to take decisions according to ideological, political or personal interests" (Interview 17).

Finally, its small size has also facilitated the knowledge and spreading of good practices, a healthy competition and processes of imitation not only among public institutions but also between the public and private sectors. In two key policy fields such as health and education, for example, there are renowned private institutions that constitute a "close reference" and even a "challenge" for the public institutions to become more self-demanding and to aspire to similar performance levels (Interview 11).

Importantly, however, this provisional relationship between size and QoG can only be established in the case of small regions, whereas no disadvantage can be necessarily derived from being a large region; and no interviewee from Catalonia has suggested that any consequence could be derived from this very feature.

As for the role of the citizenship, there was a broad agreement both in Catalonia and Navarre about the (theoretical) importance of having an active and assertive civil society that may serve as an appropriate context and fertile ground for the development of a more transparent public action and a higher quality public administration. In fact, Navarrese society was described as being very demanding, to the point that "citizens were used to watch over even minor issues like the way of tiling the pavement, so that public institutions couldn't afford to do things wrongly" (Interview 11). Ideally, then, "the society should always act as the first sword and the politician as a pawn" (Interview 18). However, doubts were also raised on the type of civil society that exists in Catalonia and Navarre and/or their actual impact on public management.

On the one hand, both ACs feature a powerful and dynamic "social fabric", with many associations that are very involved in social and cultural issues. And these associations have a decisive influence over public policies in their respective fields, particularly at

[24] According to the official data for 2017, Navarre has just under six hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, which represents less than 1,5 percent of the whole Spanish population. Most importantly, almost half the Navarrese population lives in municipalities smaller than 2000 inhabitants whereas, on the other side, only twelve percent of the people live in municipalities larger than 20000 inhabitants (See: National Institute of Statistics, https://www.ine.es/jaxiT3/Tabla.htm?t=2917&L=0).

local level (Interviews 1, 2, 6, 12 and 18). Moreover, organisations of the civil society defending transparency and open data have proliferated in Spain over the last years, such as 'Civio', 'Access Info Europe', 'Qué hacen los diputados' or 'Openkratio' that, autonomously or in coordination, have demanded the adoption of transparency laws in line with international standards (Magallón et al., 2017: 62-63). This recent culture of open data has pushed for the creation of open data projects at various territorial levels, as it has happened in Catalonia and Navarre (Interviews 5 and 15).

Beyond this, most associations are not primarily oriented towards good public management or they are highly dependent on public funding; and both factors seem to have ultimately limited the capacity of organisations of the civil society to watch over political parties, individual politicians and the functioning of public administrations. In the case of Catalonia, for instance, having a small public administration has led to an increase of concerted policies. And these have opened an arena of confluence between the private and public spheres, where counterproductive exchanges or even corruption are more likely to occur. According to one interviewee, Catalan civil society "has not contributed to cut corruption down; on the contrary, it has got used to coexist with institutionalized corruption" (Interview 13).

In both ACs, moreover, citizens and civil organizations are spilt over the issues of nationalism and territorial identity and, somehow, they are ideologically-biased when performing their overseeing role. Specifically, they are more willing to voice criticisms against opposition parties and more willing to tolerate kindred ones (Interviews 12, 13 and 18).

b. Institutional setting

To start with, many interviews mentioned one element of the general institutional framework of the State of Autonomies. The financing system established for the Spanish ACs results in a clear asymmetry between Catalonia and Navarre, that some Catalan interviewees and all Navarrese ones has argued to wield a non-negligible influence on their performance in terms of quality of government. The common financial system that applies to most ACs, in practice leaves Catalonia with fewer resources that it would enjoy under a model with greater fiscal autonomy. This imposes budgetary constraints upon the Catalan Generalitat that are likely to affect public services there (Interviews 6 and 7).

By contrast, its own "Foral system" allows Navarre to levy all the taxes in its territory and to pay a compensation to the central government later, in order to finance the expenses this had incurred in the Navarrese region. Navarre's financial regime, coupled with the fact of being one of the wealthiest ACs, translates into more economic resources what, in turn, contributes to the provision of high-quality public services. As one expert from Navarre pointed out, "we tend to consider ourselves to be better; but, of course, it is difficult to do with 3000 euros per student the same as one does having 6000" (Interview 11; see also interview 9).

More importantly, although at first glance the abundance of resources might create no pressure for the regional administration to work creatively and in an efficient manner, the greater fiscal responsibility derived from the Navarrese fiscal autonomy does. In fact, fiscal responsibility seems to matter more than wealth because it develops and strengthens a larger sense of ownership both among citizens and within the public administration: On the one hand, Navarrese people are more willing to contribute to the regional treasury -which they consider to be their own and to which they feel somehow emotionally linked- than they would if taxes were levied by the central government (Interview 16). On the other hand, since the Navarrese government has almost no economic reliance on the central government, it becomes more conscious and stricter about its taxation system and how its revenues are spent (Interview 16).

Apart from this, the experts intervieweed largely shared the opinion that good governance is inevitably linked to the principles of transparency, accountability, participation or integrity. Yet, they immediately conceded that Spain lacks a long public culture of transparency and integrity. In fact, the first Spanish Law on Transparency only goes back to 2013[25], and it was preceded -and in some cases also improved and surpassed in its contents- by the regulations at regional level. These are particularly the cases of Catalonia and Navarre, that passed their own laws on this matter respectively in 2014[26] and 2011[27].

In both ACs, the monitoring role over the working of public institutions have traditionally been carried out by general bodies such as comptrollers, public prosecutors, regional Courts of Audit and regional Ombudsmen, as it was pointed out by many interviewees (Interviews 3, 15 and 16). Furthermore, based on their respective regulatory frameworks, each region has created (or is currently preparing) specific bodies and instruments for the management and control of transparency, participation and good governance; among them, there are ethical codes for civil servants and senior officials[28], regional and local registries of activities and interests[29] and transparency portals at regional and local levels[30]. Finally, Catalonia and Navarre have also established an institution specifically devoted to the prevention and control of corruption and any other fraudulent practices, namely, the regional anticorruption office[31]. As it will be shown next, the assessment of all these instruments appears to be far from unanimous.

Experts from Navarre demonstrated little knowledge of the existence of the various mechanisms dedicated to controlling corruption and some of them even doubted about their necessity. According to interviewee 11, "Navarre works very well, regardless of

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25 See the Spanish Act 19/2013, of December 9th, on Transparency, Access to Public Information, and Good Governance (available at: http://transparencia.gob.es/transparencia/dam/jcr:2fcd5d26-cf51-4775-8d44-6683586f1ee9/ley-de-transparencia-ingles.pdf).

26 See the Catalan Act 19/2014, of December 29th, on Transparency, Access to Public Information and Good Governance (available at: https://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2015/01/21/pdfs/BOE-A-2015-470.pdf).

27 Navarre was one of the first ACs to legally address this issue, and it approved its Foral Act 2/2011 establishing a Code of Good Government on March 17th 2011 (available at: http://www.lexnavarra.navarra.es/detalle.asp?r=12243). A year later, the Foral Act 11/2012, of June 21st on Transparency and Open Government was approved and subsequently modified in 2016 (available at: https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2012-9370). Finally, on May 17th 2018, the regional Parliament passed a new Foral Act 5/2018 on Transparency, Access to Public Information and Good Governance, that is far more comprehensive and largely abolishes the previous one (available at: https://www.boe.es/diario_boe/txt.php?id=BOE-A-2018-7642).

28 Although most ACs have not approved these codes yet, exceptions can be found for example in Barcelona town council (https://ajuntament.barcelona.cat/transparencia/es/codigo-conducta), whereas the Ethical Code of the Public Service of Catalonia is also in the making.

29 See, for example, the registry of Barcelona Provincial Council: (https://www.diba.cat/es/web/secretaria/registre-interessos) and the registry of the Catalan *Generalitat* (https://web.gencat.cat/es/tramits/tramits-temes/registre-grups-interes).

30 To mention just a few: "*Gobierno Abierto de Navarra*" (http://gobiernoabierto.navarra.es/es), the Generalitat of Catalonia (http://governobert.gencat.cat/ca/transparencia/), and most large municipalities, such as Pamplona (http://www.pamplona.es/VerPagina.asp?IdPag=1936&Idioma=1), Tudela (https://tudela.transparencialocal.gob.es/), Barcelona (http://governobert.gencat.cat/ca/transparencia/), Girona (http://www.girona.cat/transparencia/cat/index.php#&panel1-1) or Lleida (http://www.paeria.cat/transparencia/es/).

31 See the *Oficina Antifrau de Catalunya* (https://www.antifrau.cat/es/), in operation from 2009 and the most recent Navarrese Good Practices and Anticorruption Office, created in April 2018 but not implemented at the time interviews were conducted.

the inexistence of this type of bodies. Here, an anti-corruption office would have very little work and I wish that by not having one -simply because we do not need it here- Navarre is not ranked lower than other regions where anti-corruption offices exist because they are needed" (see also Interview 16).

In the case of Catalonia, the regional law on transparency is one of the most demanding, but some experts have denounced that few effective resources have been invested in this matter, either because it was not high in the government's list of priorities or due to budgetary constraints (Interview 5). As for the Oficina Antifrau de Catalunya, three main features have been praised: (1) its institutional dependency on the regional parliament (rather than the regional government); (2) its scope of action that encompasses all Catalan public sector, including the regional and local governments, public universities and public enterprises; and (3) its two-headed nature with functions of prevention as well as investigation, in some sort of "carrot and stick approach" (Interview 3).

From the point of view of prevention, the Catalan Office is a service-provider institution that acts as a public consultancy and can make recommendations and allegations to reform procedures and regulations. It has also developed awareness campaigns about acceptable and non-acceptable behaviours addressed to public employees. It writes reports and studies; publishes a barometer on corruption every other year; responds to queries; and offers advice and training on its own initiative or under request. However, some interviewees regretted that the institution does not always have enough resources or case-oriented expertise to give advice on key undertakings like designing an ethical code within a framework of institutional integrity, what entails more than talking about ethics and values in a broad sense. As they put it, "at local level we often deal with 'ethical dilemmas' of little relevance if compared to major cases of political corruption, such as a janitor leaving the facility where he works half an hour earlier, or a member from the administrative staff taking office material home. Yet, when we sought the Oficina Antifrau's help, we were simply given some photocopies from a book or a journal article" (Interviews 1 and 2).

Regarding the second dimension of investigation and control, the Antifraud Office is not a judicial institution, neither it has any sanctioning powers; therefore, if an investigation reveals solid facts, the case must be brought before the competent administrative authority, the prosecutor's office or the court. Moreover, the starting point for most of its investigations are alleged misbehaviours or fraudulent actions reported by citizens or public employees through an anonymous box of complaints. If only because of the negligible results of the Office in this area, most experts have focused their criticism here.

For example, it has been pointed out that the Office does not include a proper investigation unit, and it has only uncovered one or two prosecutable cases since it was created (Interview 5). Worries were also raised about the double-sword nature of anonymity, for it can lead to the unlawful use of complaints. In fact, "for the system to work properly, it is essential to protect the identity of the complainant, but also to provide enough guarantees for the defendant's rights" (Interview 2). Moreover, there seems to be some blur of roles between institutions, that "sometimes makes it difficult to establish who does what" (Interview 1). Ultimately, since the Office's main goal has always been "building an anti-corruption culture", it has performed an important pedagogical task, but it has failed to achieve a good balance between the prevention and control functions (Interviews 10 and 12).

The ethical codes have been valued as a positive instrument, but their usefulness and practical effects ultimately rest on their enactment and implementation. According to some interviewees, it is essential that they are built in a bottom-up fashion, because having officials and public employees involved in the elaboration of their own regulations facilitates that they become socialised into the appropriate values and practices. "Based on a top-down approach, however, many of these codes have been

made by a commission of experts; this was the case of the Catalan regional police forces, what left the mossos d'esquadra irritated and disengaged" (Interview 7).

Regarding the issue of employment and hiring practices in the public sector, there is a broadly accepted view that public employees are fundamental for the development and promotion of governance. Therefore, it is essential a good model of human resources management, recruitment and selection that focuses on attracting the best candidates as well as retaining and enhancing talented workers already within the public administration (García, 2018). Moreover, the professionalization of public employees is considered an effective mechanism to fight corruption (Ibid).

Taking this into consideration, most experts recognised the shortcoming of some widespread hiring practices of public employees that can be found at all territorial levels in Spain. Arguably, "although street-level bureaucrats tend to enter public administration through a clean selection process, the system was designed over a century ago and it, thus, seems no longer appropriate for the public administration of the 21st century" (Interview 2). At higher-ranked positions, where most discretionary appointments take place, there is a second trend that prioritises personal and political connections over professional capabilities and merits; or as it has been put in a more refined argument, "merits and capabilities do not necessarily guarantee reaching the top positions at public administration" (Interview 1). This is a typical problem for the bulk of state enterprises and foundations, where discretionary appointments are very significant, too. Even if the economic crisis has allowed a reduction in the number of discretionary positions, the common practice remains of hiring relatives, acquaintances, liked-minded people or those loyal to the political cause" (Ibid).

As many interviewees have pointed out, Spanish ACs and municipalities -including Catalonia and Navarre- need meritocratic reforms to modify and modernize what can be considered an obsolete system of provision of public employment. Specifically, "it is necessary to develop a professional career that allows to keep public employees motivated, promotes an objective assessment of their merits and achievements and takes the latter into account for their promotion, as a means to retain talent and to contribute to the professionalization of public employees (Interview 6).

14. Summary of Conclusions of the 2017 EQI Report

This report has presented the findings of the third round of the European Quality of Government Index (EQI), which is based on a large citizen survey of perceptions and experiences with their local and regional public services and institutions. In addition, we presented the improvements vis-à-vis previous rounds of the index (2010 and 2013) and demonstrated how the index was retrospectively changed to make valid comparisons of regional governance across and within countries and over time. Adjustments were made via several analyses of previous rounds of the data that pointed to areas of possible improvement (see Annoni and Charron 2018). The data was presented over time to show trends associated with regional quality of government in Europe. Finally, we sought to corroborate and better understand some of the mechanisms for divergent changes in QoG within regions in the same country. Two in depth case study analyses were done following up the results of the third round of the QoG data – in Poland and Spain, where we observed positive trends over time in two regions (Pomorskie and Navarre) and more stagnant patterns in two other regions (Catalonia and Lubelske).

As this report has shown through the European Quality of Government Index (EQI), – i.e. QoG defined as exercising power and implementing policies in an impartial, non-corrupt, and efficient way – is still wide across both European countries and regions. And that the EQI is highly related with socio-economic development across space and

time. On the one hand, the findings of this paper seem in line with the pessimistic literature noting that, instead of regional convergence, Europe is experiencing, if any, an increase in regional divergence in terms of economic growth, productivity, and employment (Farole, Rodríguez-Pose and Storper 2011:1090).

On the other hand, there is also a more optimistic interpretation of the data. A principal finding of this study is the relatively high stability in quality of government, as measured by the index. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the old, mainly geographic dividing lines in quality of government, between Northern and Southern Europe, and very particularly, between Western and Eastern Europe, do seem to be, even if slowly, blurring. The divergences in the EQI are not as stark in 2017 as they were in 2010. For instance, we have high-performing Eastern regions that have surpassed many Western regions in quality of government, such as Jihovychod (CZ06), or Stredni Morava (CZ07) in the Czech Republic, and the country of Estonia (EE). In addition, the list of regions with the most significant improvements in quality of government in the period under study is dominated by Eastern regions, such as Bucharesti, (RO32) in Romania, Severen Tsentralen (BG32) in Bulgaria, Prague (CZ01) in the Czech Republic, or Pomorskie (PL63) in Poland.

In contrast it is regions in Western Europe that are the ones demonstrating the most noticeable declines in quality of government, such as Guyane (FR93) in France, Valle d'Aosta (ITC2), Abruzzo (ITF1), or Piemonte (ITC1) in Italy, Canarias (ES70) in Spain, or Athens (EL3) in Greece. Yet regions in Western Europe are quite heterogeneous in terms of QoG. While most regions in Northern Europe have remained among the top performers, recent years have seen a fall of numerous Southern regions, particularly in Italy, Greece and Spain. At the same time, most regions in Portugal, as well as some Spanish ones in the northern part of the country, have shown improvements since 2010. In other words, geographic and historical legacies do matter, but they do not fully determine the quality of government in a region. In line with the literature, QoG is a generally stable characteristic of the region, but there are also notable changes.

These results were largely confirmed by the expert interviewees in the four case study regions. Mechanisms that were proposed to explain the variation in the regions within the same country were – differences in administrative practices, media culture, civil society, fiscal autonomy, and historical legacies. These mechanisms can surely aid in crafting policy recomendations for improving the quality of government in more regions within Europe.

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Appendix

Table A1 : Factor analysis: Principle component of regional items

Factor analysis/correlation	Number	of		obs	=	185
Method:	principal-component	factors	Retained	factors	=	3
Rotation:	(unrotated)	Number	of	params	=	51

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
Factor1	9.95408	7.47533	0.553	0.553
Factor2	2.47874	0.66645	0.1377	0.6907
Factor3	1.8123	0.98815	0.1007	0.7914
Factor4	0.82415	0.08842	0.0458	0.8372
Factor5	0.73572	0.25103	0.0409	0.8781
Factor6	0.48469	0.07526	0.0269	0.905
Factor7	0.40943	0.10651	0.0227	0.9277
Factor8	0.30292	0.00838	0.0168	0.9446
Factor9	0.29455	0.06119	0.0164	0.9609
Factor10	0.23336	0.05689	0.013	0.9739
Factor11	0.17647	0.08582	0.0098	0.9837
Factor12	0.09065	0.01669	0.005	0.9887
Factor13	0.07396	0.02978	0.0041	0.9928
Factor14	0.04418	0.015	0.0025	0.9953
Factor15	0.02918	0.00836	0.0016	0.9969
Factor16	0.02082	0.00188	0.0012	0.9981
Factor17	0.01894	0.00309	0.0011	0.9991
Factor18	0.01585	.	0.0009	1

LR test: chi2(153)=4911.15, prob>chi2=0.0000

Table A2 : Rotated factor loadings: Verimax

Variable	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Uniqueness
EdQual	0.0528	0.7574	0.4037	0.2606
HelQual	0.3066	0.868	0.0477	0.1503
LawQual	0.1132	0.875	0.1042	0.2107
EdImpart1	0.5677	-0.0431	0.6974	0.1894
HelImpart1	0.6584	0.2272	0.438	0.3229
LawImpart1	0.7937	0.2326	0.3713	0.1781
EdImpart2	0.1679	0.4976	0.712	0.2174
HelImpart2	0.3809	0.7072	0.2935	0.2686
LawImpart2	0.429	0.5469	0.5404	0.2247
EdCorr	0.8807	0.1168	0.2202	0.1621
HelCorr	0.8747	0.3448	0.0602	0.1124
LawCorr	0.8935	0.1975	0.2641	0.0929
NeedCorr	0.8776	0.2907	0.245	0.0852
GreedCorr	0.8438	0.2109	0.1914	0.2069
ElecCorr	0.4602	0.1315	0.6798	0.3088
TaxImpart	0.3186	0.0523	0.8164	0.2292
noAskB_any	0.4693	0.7085	-0.1338	0.2599
noPayB_any	0.4774	0.5517	-0.4393	0.2747

Table A3 : Pairwise correlations

	StEd Qual	StHel Qual	stLaw Qual	stEd Impart1	stHel Impart1	StLaw Impart1	stEd Impart2	StHel Impart2
stEdQual								
stHelQual	0.641							
stLawQual	0.711	0.818						
stEdImpart1	0.310	0.177	0.139					
stHelImpart1	0.346	0.430	0.270	0.729				
stLawImpart1	0.391	0.466	0.427	0.755	0.776			
stEdImpart2	0.628	0.469	0.399	0.566	0.497	0.415		
stHelImpart2	0.592	0.794	0.573	0.352	0.744	0.528	0.655	
stLawImpart2	0.545	0.575	0.601	0.559	0.618	0.730	0.750	0.675
stEdCorr	0.322	0.384	0.251	0.674	0.608	0.778	0.381	0.434
stHelCorr	0.392	0.604	0.393	0.507	0.737	0.776	0.334	0.684
stLawCorr	0.355	0.444	0.373	0.682	0.680	0.907	0.392	0.492
stNeedCorr	0.305	0.557	0.383	0.618	0.675	0.810	0.494	0.581
stGreedCorr	0.261	0.451	0.243	0.512	0.637	0.718	0.450	0.517
stElecCorr	0.362	0.250	0.238	0.606	0.502	0.551	0.626	0.392
stTaxImpart	0.376	0.213	0.153	0.686	0.510	0.523	0.611	0.367
stnoAskB_any	0.494	0.673	0.651	0.175	0.311	0.452	0.355	0.535
stnoPayB_any	0.243	0.520	0.375	-0.063	0.250	0.283	0.157	0.418

	stLaw Impart2	StEd Corr	stHel Corr	StLaw Corr	stNeed Corr	StGreed Corr	stElec Corr	StTax Impart	Stno AskB_any
stHelImpart2									
stLawImpart2									
stEdCorr	0.467								
stHelCorr	0.510	0.881							
stLawCorr	0.666	0.917	0.874						
stNeedCorr	0.702	0.840	0.842	0.891					
stGreedCorr	0.611	0.727	0.775	0.792	0.906				
stElecCorr	0.646	0.557	0.432	0.589	0.671	0.631			
stTaxImpart	0.540	0.459	0.348	0.483	0.509	0.468	0.745		
stnoAskB_any	0.515	0.509	0.585	0.533	0.597	0.456	0.309	0.136	
stnoPayB_any	0.304	0.308	0.497	0.333	0.477	0.537	0.067	-0.111	0.695

Table A4 : 2017 EQI and Pillar Estimates with Past Data Retroactively Changed

nuts	name	**eqi2017**	quality_17	impartiality_17	corruption_17	**eqi2013**	**eqi2010**
AT	Austria	0.805	0.674	1.000	0.654	0.820	1.063
AT11	Burgenland	0.787	0.385	1.315	0.575	0.945	1.310
AT12	Niederöstrerreich	0.724	0.448	1.064	0.582	0.998	1.062
AT13	Wien	0.860	0.709	1.050	0.727	0.391	1.088
AT21	Kärnten	0.653	0.355	0.993	0.542	0.778	1.213
AT22	Steiermark	0.760	0.611	0.952	0.637	1.010	0.936
AT31	Oberösterreich	0.705	0.713	0.701	0.625	0.886	0.984
AT32	Salzburg	0.894	0.833	1.031	0.723	0.778	0.964
AT33	Tirol	1.032	1.271	1.066	0.647	1.247	1.192
AT34	Voralberg	1.084	0.844	1.373	0.917	0.452	1.135
BE	Belgium	0.616	0.635	0.383	0.762	0.629	0.345
BE1	Brussels	-0.105	-0.343	-0.477	0.516	0.043	-0.416
BE2	Vlaams Gewest	0.969	1.125	0.875	0.802	1.088	0.733
BE3	Wallonie	0.221	0.082	-0.215	0.772	0.001	-0.098
BG	Bulgaria	-1.731	-1.635	-1.854	-1.519	-1.860	-1.902
BG31	Severozapaden	-2.264	-2.113	-2.781	-1.654	-2.270	-2.655
BG32	Severen Tsentralen	-0.997	-1.581	-0.955	-0.347	-1.677	-2.200
BG33	Severoiztochen	-1.364	-1.317	-1.524	-1.104	-0.467	-1.195
BG34	Yugoiztochen	-2.189	-1.814	-1.957	-2.561	-1.860	-2.275
BG41	Yugozapaden	-1.882	-1.778	-1.676	-1.992	-2.817	-2.016
BG42	Yuzhen Tsentralen	-1.541	-1.272	-2.264	-0.921	-1.245	-1.344
CY	Cyprus	-0.106	-0.134	-0.215	0.044	0.011	0.198
CZ	Czech Rep.	-0.296	-0.142	-0.051	-0.663	-0.498	-0.582
CZ01	Praha	-0.163	0.153	0.104	-0.728	-0.534	-1.016
CZ02	Stredni Cechy	-0.647	-0.075	-0.940	-0.856	-0.486	-0.410
CZ03	Jihozapad	-0.291	-0.250	0.115	-0.707	-0.344	-0.212
CZ04	Severozapad	-0.992	-0.740	-0.869	-1.262	-0.989	-1.007
CZ05	Severovychod	-0.171	-0.247	0.280	-0.527	-0.388	-0.302
CZ06	Jihovychod	0.015	0.066	0.382	-0.406	-0.277	-0.598
CZ07	Stedni Morava	-0.023	-0.081	0.315	-0.299	-0.452	-0.675
CZ08	Moravskoslezsko	-0.276	-0.085	-0.031	-0.681	-0.662	-0.527
DE	Germany	1.013	0.980	0.904	1.047	0.770	0.773
DE1	Baden Wuttemberg	1.076	1.238	0.833	1.041	0.889	0.877
DE2	Bavaria	1.343	1.924	0.809	1.152	0.946	0.648
DE3	Berlin	0.610	0.008	0.742	1.015	0.410	0.869
DE4	Brandenburg	0.738	0.372	0.874	0.890	0.511	0.864
DE5	Bremen	1.094	0.632	1.407	1.127	0.753	0.847
DE6	Hamburg	1.247	1.316	1.096	1.193	0.688	0.853
DE7	Hessen	1.064	0.888	1.145	1.046	0.755	0.565
DE8	Mecklenburg-Vorpommen	1.167	0.975	1.333	1.067	0.750	0.840
DE9	Lower Saxony	1.247	1.200	1.286	1.119	0.965	0.830
DEA	North Rhine Westphalia	0.757	0.483	0.704	1.003	0.636	0.648

DEB	Rhineland-Palatinate	1.128	1.205	1.025	1.035	0.931	0.732
DEC	Saarland	1.036	0.984	0.847	1.166	0.927	0.932
DED	Saxony	0.819	0.615	0.787	0.967	0.710	0.969
DEE	Saxony-Anhalt	0.588	0.288	0.636	0.776	0.322	0.771
DEF	Schleswig-Holstein	1.107	0.875	1.249	1.078	0.995	1.129
DEG	Thuringia	0.949	0.871	0.885	0.991	0.425	1.181
DK	Denmark	1.400	1.231	1.280	1.539	1.545	1.549
DK01	Hovedstaden	1.341	1.097	1.197	1.584	1.518	1.431
DK02	Sjaelland	1.230	0.861	1.145	1.553	1.347	1.557
DK03	Syddanmark	1.362	1.239	1.209	1.491	1.576	1.542
DK04	Midtylland	1.648	1.674	1.528	1.566	1.638	1.762
DK05	Nordjylland	1.350	1.164	1.322	1.420	1.636	1.441
EE	Estonia	0.231	0.054	0.248	0.369	-0.052	-0.103
ES	Spain	-0.327	-0.013	-0.381	-0.553	-0.047	-0.054
ES11	Galicia	-0.432	-0.194	-0.309	-0.747	-0.511	0.432
ES12	Principado de Asturias	0.218	0.529	0.387	-0.286	0.423	0.371
ES13	Cantabria	0.423	0.631	0.726	-0.133	0.407	0.048
ES21	Pais Vasco	0.652	0.948	0.672	0.268	0.283	0.511
ES22	Navarra	0.502	0.732	0.486	0.235	0.263	0.073
ES23	La Rioja	0.244	0.885	0.104	-0.284	0.368	0.137
ES24	Aragón	0.098	0.380	0.097	-0.195	0.111	0.204
ES30	Comunidad de Madrid	-0.220	0.494	-0.452	-0.679	0.262	-0.153
ES41	Castilla y León	-0.322	0.309	-0.689	-0.552	0.243	-0.130
ES42	Castilla-La Mancha	-0.301	-0.127	-0.223	-0.519	-0.221	0.107
ES43	Extremadura	0.023	0.353	-0.023	-0.264	0.144	0.289
ES51	Cataluña	-0.392	-0.168	-0.445	-0.520	-0.181	-0.480
ES52	Comunidad Valenciana	-0.445	-0.046	-0.564	-0.678	-0.275	0.053
ES53	Illes Balears	-0.545	-0.429	-0.411	-0.738	-0.026	0.019
ES61	Andalucia	-0.739	-0.606	-0.805	-0.728	-0.119	-0.251
ES62	Región de Murcia	-0.136	0.302	-0.143	-0.551	0.326	0.164
ES63	Ceuta (ES)						
ES64	Melilla (ES)						
ES70	Canarias (ES)	-0.711	-0.814	-0.471	-0.773	-0.574	0.163
FI	Finland	1.428	1.195	1.328	1.608	1.497	1.398
FI13	Itä-Suomi					1.419	1.398
FI18	Etelä-Suomi					1.525	1.398
FI19	Länsi-Suomi	1.336	1.106	1.218	1.540	1.496	1.398
FI1A	Pohjois-Suomi					1.521	1.398
FI20	Åland	2.323	2.033	2.176	2.512	2.639	1.398
FI1B	Helsinki-Uusimaa	1.495	1.315	1.407	1.602		1.398
FI1C	Etelä-Suomi	1.406	1.203	1.269	1.597		1.398
FI1D	Pohjois- ja Itä-Suomi	1.442	1.114	1.380	1.676		1.398
FR	France	0.409	0.424	0.361	0.397	0.421	0.690
FR10	Ile-de-France	0.498	0.343	0.486	0.612	0.401	0.536
FR21	Champagne-Ardenne	0.338	0.464	0.175	0.338	0.258	0.211
FR22	Picardie	0.407	0.194	0.377	0.605	0.258	0.463

FR23	Haute-Normandie	0.454	0.524	0.280	0.510	0.319	0.153
FR24	Centre	0.420	0.328	0.443	0.443	0.774	0.595
FR25	Basse-Normandie	0.390	0.304	0.495	0.328	0.683	0.496
FR26	Bourgogne	0.283	0.162	0.228	0.430	0.289	0.474
FR30	Nord - Pas-de-Calais	0.293	0.637	0.074	0.136	0.145	0.531
FR41	Lorraine	0.238	0.479	-0.109	0.316	0.359	0.262
FR42	Alsace	0.380	0.648	0.128	0.321	0.555	0.468
FR43	Franche-Comte	0.185	0.164	0.209	0.162	0.511	0.483
FR51	Pays de la Loire	0.719	0.694	0.712	0.674	0.577	0.362
FR52	Bretagne	0.769	0.795	0.744	0.683	0.961	0.973
FR53	Poitou-Charentes	0.321	0.446	0.169	0.313	0.723	0.733
FR61	Aquitaine	0.695	0.850	0.513	0.648	0.767	0.779
FR62	Midi-Pyrenees	0.434	0.381	0.471	0.403	0.722	0.394
FR63	Limousin	0.619	0.587	0.642	0.561	0.546	0.692
FR71	Rhone-Alpes	0.578	0.635	0.489	0.548	0.624	0.752
FR72	Auvergne	0.441	0.490	0.370	0.416	0.693	0.550
FR81	Languedoc-Roussillon	0.130	0.225	0.162	-0.012	0.369	0.522
FR82	Provence-Alpes-Cote d'Azur	0.213	0.259	0.377	-0.020	0.058	0.232
FR83	Corse	0.072	-0.091	0.318	-0.020	0.180	0.152
FR91	Guadeloupe	-1.030	-1.294	-1.014	-0.672	-0.402	-0.484
FR92	Martinique	-0.726	-0.835	-0.886	-0.379	-0.101	-0.358
FR93	Guyane	-1.557	-2.700	-1.191	-0.613	-0.617	-0.449
FR94	Reunion	-0.413	-0.221	-0.322	-0.651	-0.100	-0.106
EL	Greece	-1.387	-1.397	-1.324	-1.293	-0.326	-0.300
EL5	Voreia Ellada	-1.707	-1.756	-1.737	-1.445	-1.142	-1.333
EL6	Kentriki Ellada	-1.236	-1.181	-1.069	-1.325	-1.213	-1.040
EL3	Attica	-1.212	-1.302	-1.153	-1.053	-1.297	-0.343
EL4	Nisia Aigaiou-Kriti	-1.462	-1.262	-1.378	-1.590	-0.906	-0.909
HR	Croatia	-1.211	-1.224	-1.381	-0.899	-1.003	-0.997
HR03	Jadranska Hrvatska	-1.156	-1.225	-1.282	-0.839	-1.503	-1.494
HR04	Kontinentalna Hrvatska	-1.239	-1.224	-1.431	-0.929	-1.294	-1.494
HU	Hungary	-1.150	-1.227	-1.092	-1.008	-0.794	-0.647
HU10	Közép-Magyarország	-1.455	-1.469	-1.312	-1.427	-0.972	-1.046
HU21	Közép-Dunántúl	-0.969	-1.334	-0.660	-0.807	-0.607	-0.417
HU22	Nyugat-Dunántúl	-1.016	-1.237	-1.010	-0.693	-0.607	-0.417
HU23	Dél-Dunántúl	-0.980	-0.961	-0.956	-0.917	-0.607	-0.417
HU31	Észak-Magyarország	-1.089	-1.481	-0.925	-0.745	-0.802	-0.524
HU32	Észak-Alföld	-1.266	-1.019	-1.565	-1.080	-0.802	-0.524
HU33	Dél-Alföld	-0.748	-0.769	-0.717	-0.677	-0.802	-0.524
IE	Ireland	0.839	0.693	0.914	0.821	0.738	0.797
IE01	Border, Midland and Western	0.901	0.844	0.901	0.862	0.844	0.797
IE02	Southern and Eastern	0.817	0.639	0.918	0.806	0.700	0.797
IT	Italy	-1.130	-0.759	-1.315	-1.195	-1.162	-1.079
ITC1	Piemonte	-1.190	-0.769	-1.509	-1.163	-0.878	-0.324
ITC2	Valle d'Aosta	-0.677	-1.417	-0.098	-0.444	0.354	0.407

ITC3	Ligura	-1.251	-0.589	-1.433	-1.595	-1.057	-0.665
ITC4	Lombardia	-0.481	0.512	-1.098	-0.806	-0.773	-0.781
ITH1	Bolzano	-0.364	-0.496	-0.151	-0.405	0.686	0.526
ITH2	Trento	-0.364	-0.496	-0.151	-0.405	0.720	0.268
ITH3	Veneto	-0.459	0.399	-0.728	-1.000	-0.433	-0.621
ITH4	Friuli-Venezia Giulia	-0.488	-0.353	-0.540	-0.519	0.092	-0.037
ITH5	Emilia-Romagna	-0.457	-0.028	-0.766	-0.528	-0.464	-0.518
ITI1	Toscana	-0.849	-0.942	-1.049	-0.466	-0.760	-0.704
ITI2	Umbria	-1.510	-1.418	-1.481	-1.468	-0.725	-0.383
ITI3	Marche	-1.383	-1.398	-0.890	-1.714	-0.760	-0.624
ITI4	Lazio	-1.530	-1.353	-1.691	-1.380	-1.679	-1.340
ITF1	Abruzzo	-1.978	-2.404	-0.779	-2.539	-1.291	-1.023
ITF2	Molise	-1.183	-0.787	-0.868	-1.768	-1.822	-1.308
ITF3	Campania	-1.877	-1.642	-2.004	-1.783	-2.370	-2.284
ITF4	Puglia	-1.545	-1.096	-1.587	-1.786	-1.771	-1.756
ITF5	Basilicata	-1.668	-1.766	-0.889	-2.168	-1.602	-1.333
ITF6	Calabria	-2.183	-2.574	-2.293	-1.449	-1.845	-2.167
ITG1	Sicilia	-1.544	-1.381	-1.875	-1.212	-1.749	-1.843
ITG2	Sardegna	-1.234	-1.186	-0.813	-1.572	-1.488	-0.999
LT	Lithuania	-0.263	-0.043	-0.253	-0.467	-0.809	-0.992
LU	Luxembourgh	1.200	1.051	1.019	1.401	1.223	1.031
LV	Latvia	-0.513	-0.298	-0.533	-0.654	-0.885	-0.937
MT	Malta	-0.075	-0.179	-0.003	-0.034	0.028	0.297
NL	Netherlands	1.205	1.224	1.125	1.136	1.236	1.096
NL11	Groningen	1.351	1.357	1.426	1.127	1.296	1.430
NL12	Friesland (NL)	1.351	1.357	1.426	1.127	1.333	1.430
NL13	Drenthe	1.351	1.357	1.426	1.127	1.120	1.430
NL21	Overijssel	1.331	1.273	1.362	1.214	1.530	1.030
NL22	Gelderland	1.331	1.273	1.362	1.214	1.226	1.030
NL23	Flevoland	1.331	1.273	1.362	1.214	1.191	1.030
NL31	Utrecht	1.105	1.081	0.981	1.132	1.333	1.122
NL32	Noord-Holland	1.105	1.081	0.981	1.132	1.114	1.122
NL33	Zuid-Holland	1.105	1.081	0.981	1.132	1.274	1.122
NL34	Zeeland	1.105	1.081	0.981	1.132	1.173	1.122
NL41	Noord-Brabant	1.228	1.420	1.060	1.071	1.154	0.945
NL42	Limburg (NL)	1.228	1.420	1.060	1.071	1.210	0.945
PL	Poland	-0.461	-0.373	-0.523	-0.437	-0.679	-0.964
PL11	Lodzkie	-0.660	-0.474	-0.757	-0.676	-0.782	-0.878
PL12	Mazowieckie	-0.522	-0.477	-0.648	-0.384	-0.826	-1.014
PL21	Malopolskie	-0.401	-0.267	-0.472	-0.422	-0.567	-0.913
PL22	Slaskie	-0.480	-0.390	-0.594	-0.405	-0.933	-1.123
PL31	Lubelskie	-0.632	-0.300	-0.891	-0.635	-0.687	-0.931
PL32	Podkarpackie	-0.626	-0.332	-0.725	-0.755	-0.801	-0.886
PL33	Swietokrzyskie	-0.511	-0.407	-0.680	-0.391	-0.731	-0.842
PL34	Podlaskie	-0.456	-0.075	-0.727	-0.517	-0.399	-0.979
PL41	Wielkopolskie	-0.464	-0.364	-0.754	-0.222	-0.666	-1.019
PL42	Zachodniopomorskie	-0.367	-0.178	-0.565	-0.320	-0.543	-0.907

PL43	Lubuskie	-0.411	-0.711	-0.267	-0.210	-0.433	-0.955
PL51	Dolnoslaskie	-0.482	-0.509	-0.380	-0.507	-0.936	-1.120
PL52	Opolskie	-0.298	-0.379	-0.065	-0.416	-0.250	-0.672
PL61	Kujawsko-Pomorskie	-0.338	-0.535	-0.082	-0.360	-0.289	-0.973
PL62	Warminsko-Mazurskie	-0.342	-0.423	-0.199	-0.369	-0.500	-0.723
PL63	Pomorskie	-0.133	-0.034	0.096	-0.447	-0.425	-0.890
PT	Portugal	0.032	0.148	-0.022	-0.034	-0.125	-0.124
PT11	Norte	-0.063	0.368	-0.359	-0.193	-0.295	-0.411
PT15	Algarve	-0.292	-0.891	-0.040	0.085	0.148	0.073
PT16	Centro	0.070	-0.014	0.307	-0.092	-0.131	-0.153
PT17	Lisboa	0.108	0.123	0.091	0.099	-0.231	0.005
PT18	Alentejo	0.247	0.056	0.292	0.365	0.777	0.535
PT20	Açores	0.009	0.200	-0.112	-0.062	0.406	0.337
PT30	Madeira	0.169	0.745	-0.192	-0.063	-0.066	0.124
RO	Romania	-1.555	-1.856	-1.449	-1.194	-1.924	-1.874
RO11	Nord-Vest	-1.849	-1.811	-2.015	-1.523	-1.907	-1.197
RO12	Centru	-1.434	-1.591	-1.430	-1.127	-1.369	-1.596
RO21	Nord-Est	-1.580	-1.803	-1.237	-1.531	-1.940	-1.986
RO22	Sud-Est	-1.973	-1.896	-2.141	-1.669	-2.186	-2.001
RO31	Sud-Muntenia	-1.104	-1.538	-1.079	-0.577	-1.758	-1.768
RO32	Bucuresti-Ilfov	-1.578	-2.422	-1.237	-0.908	-2.465	-2.838
RO41	Sud-Vest Oltenia	-1.615	-2.046	-1.524	-1.100	-1.932	-1.504
RO42	Vest	-1.341	-1.910	-0.909	-1.059	-1.869	-2.191
SE	Sweden	1.403	1.220	1.280	1.558	1.432	1.302
SE1	Östra Sverige	1.417	1.260	1.253	1.584	1.468	1.289
SE2	Södra Sverige	1.440	1.238	1.366	1.560	1.443	1.361
SE3	Norra Sverige	1.282	1.083	1.128	1.497	1.323	1.186
SI	Slovenia	-0.293	-0.297	-0.292	-0.260	-0.200	-0.196
SK	Slovakia	-0.811	-0.413	-0.977	-0.958	-0.824	-0.813
SK01	Bratislavský kraj	-0.954	-0.605	-1.121	-1.034	-0.920	-0.632
SK02	Západné Slovensko	-1.013	-0.531	-1.106	-1.293	-0.721	-0.889
SK03	Stredné Slovensko	-0.626	-0.202	-0.765	-0.845	-0.728	-0.802
SK04	Východné Slovensko	-0.681	-0.379	-0.949	-0.644	-0.981	-0.808
UK	United Kingdom	0.986	0.814	0.933	1.106	0.720	0.748
UKC	Northeast England	1.129	1.167	1.068	1.033	0.625	0.751
UKD	Northwest England	0.753	0.829	0.545	0.803	0.766	0.858
UKE	Yorkshire-Humber	0.926	0.859	0.763	1.056	0.841	0.520
UKF	East Midland England	0.894	0.706	0.713	1.167	0.609	1.045
UKG	West Midland England	1.133	0.920	1.241	1.116	0.577	0.647
UKH	East of England	1.074	0.836	0.994	1.277	0.813	0.617
UKI	London	1.004	0.972	0.823	1.109	0.903	0.368
UKJ	South East England	1.034	0.895	0.930	1.166	0.963	0.903
UKK	South West England	1.124	0.738	1.210	1.303	0.451	0.908
UKL	Wales	1.046	0.541	1.320	1.165	0.331	0.656
UKM	Scotland	0.977	0.772	1.073	0.981	0.543	1.071
UKN	N. Ireland	0.559	-0.331	0.787	1.162	0.651	0.768

Note: country estimates for member states included in the EQI survey (e.g. those with regional data) are calculated via population weighted averages after computing the final index so as to avoid 'double counting'

Table A5 : The structure of the case-study questionnaire (English version)

Profession
Position, grade, title
Sector
Sex
Age
1. Do you agree with the assessment of your region in the above mentioned ranking against the background of your country and the EU? Do you think that the province XXXXX distinguishes the quality of public services, the level of corruption or equality in the treatment of citizens, if not, why? //
2. How do you perceive public institutions operating in your region (regardless of whether they are dependent on local, regional or national authorities) in terms of: [a) Level of their impartiality]
2. How do you perceive public institutions operating in your region (regardless of whether they depend on local, regional or national authorities) in terms of: [b) The level of their effectiveness in providing public services]
2. How do you perceive public institutions operating in your region (regardless of whether they are dependent on local, regional or national authorities) in terms of: [c) Level of their corruption]
2a. In your opinion, how should public institutions in your region be evaluated in comparison to other regions in Poland/Spain? Are you better or worse?
3. In your opinion, what are the main reasons for your region's position compared to other regions of Poland/Spain? Is this a matter of economic resources? Is this related to which political parties rule in the region? Is this related to the role played by civil society (e.g. business associations, trade unions, non-governmental organizations)?
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [A) Police]
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [B) Media]
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [c) Marshal's Office]
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [d) Regional Office]
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [e) Political parties]
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [F) Business]
4. What is the level of your trust in each of these institutions? [G) Hospitals]
4. What is the level of your trust for each of these institutions? [H) Army]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found on: [Public Television]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found on: [Regional Public Television]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found on: [Private Television]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found on: [Regional Television]
5. What is the level of your trust in the news that can be found on: [Public radio (nationwide stations)]
5. What is the level of your trust in the news that can be found on: [Private radio

(nationwide)]
5. What is the level of your trust in the news that can be found on: [Local (public) radio]
5. What is the level of your trust in the news that can be found on: [Local radio (non-public)]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found in: [nationwide newspapers]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found in: [Local newspapers]
5. What is the level of your confidence in the news that can be found in: [Internet (news portals)]
6. In the latest edition of World Press Freedom 2018 Poland/Spain ranked in the Xth position (among 180 countries) in terms of press freedom. Do you think that there are obstacles to freedom of the press in your region? Which of them are the most important in your opinion? Is there any specific factor or entity that negatively affects the freedom of the press today?
7. Do you think that news presented in local media really reflect what is happening in the region?
7a. Are any events hidden or presented in an exaggerated way?
8. How independent are the media in your region?
9. Is the media entirely free to present what is happening on the following issues: [a) Corruption]
9. Are the media entirely free to present what is happening on the following issues: [b) Security]
9. Are the media entirely free to present what is happening on the following issues: [c) Economy]
9. Are the media entirely free to present what is happening on the following issues: [d) Politics]
9. Are the media entirely free to present what is happening on the following issues: [e) Public health]
10a. Do you think that the media protect or attack the authorities (regional office)?
10b. Do you think that the media protect or attack the authorities (Marshal's office)?
11. Which media do you consider more credible: state or private ones? Why?
12. Do you think that today there is more press freedom than twenty years ago? Why?
13. Focusing primarily on people at the head of public sector organizations (hospital directors, school heads, directors of other public entities), what is the most important, in your opinion, to get these positions: personal / political connections? Or maybe skills and experience?
13a. Do you think this way of recruitment for the highest positions in the administration is similar to that in other regions of Poland/Spain?
14. Looking at the rest of the employees of public institutions (e.g. policemen, school teachers, doctors, lower-level officials), what is the most important to get the employment: personal / political connections? Or maybe experience and skills?
14a. Do you think this way of recruiting for lower positions in administration is similar to the one functioning in other regions of Poland/Spain?

15. In general, what do you think is the most important for a successful career in the public sector in the region: personal / political connections or maybe skills and experience of candidates?
Do you think that this pattern is similar to that existing in other regions of Poland/Spain?
16. Imagine that an employee of a public institution discovers that something is wrong in their organization (eg that the superior or politician has been involved in suspicious business or plans to do so), what do you think they would do? Would they report it to the media, the relevant authority or the judiciary?
17. Will this employee be afraid of repercussions if he/she decides to disclose the case?
18. Do you think that there is adequate protection against unjustified sanctions against public employees who, in the public interest, report instances of corruption or other malfunctioning to relevant institutions or media?
19. What strategy is applied in your region in order to enforce compliance with the rules and good conduct of employees of public institutions?
20. Can you give examples of measures implemented to enforce good behaviour of public authorities? For example, do you know if there is an ethical code for officials and / or elected regional authorities?
21. Do you think public opinion (citizens) express their dissatisfaction when they see cases of corruption? Can this public opinion act as a restraint for the authorities? Is public pressure present and effective in enforcing good behaviour of public officials? Is the public opinion "tolerant" or "indifferent" to corruption scandals?
22. Who discovers corruption scandals in your region? Are these media? Judicial authorities?
23. Is there any public body involved in prosecuting corruption? Has anything changed in the last 10-15 years (for better / worse)? Why?
24. Have you observed a significant change in the quality of public services since joining the EU? If so, please provide the scale of changes:
25. Do you expect a change in government quality in the next five years (for better or for worse)?
26. Please specify the level of improvement of services provided by the following public institutions after the EU accession/the financial crisis: [a. school]
26. Please specify the level of improvement of services provided by the following public institutions after the EU accession/the financial crisis: [b. universities]
26. Please specify the level of improvement of services provided by the following public institutions after the EU accession/the financial crisis: [c. hospitals]
26. Please specify the level of improvement of services provided by the following public institutions after the EU accession/the financial crisis: [d. courts]
26. Please specify the level of improvement of services provided by the following public institutions after the EU accession/the financial crisis: [e. Police]
27. What are the positive and negative aspects of the functioning of public administration in the last 10 years in your region?
28. With regard to various public services (health care services, education, law enforcement, business license, etc.). To what extent, in your opinion: [... people with appropriate political connections seem to have the possibility of preferential access to services (e.g. schools for children, preferences in access to healthcare, running a business)?]

28. With regard to various public services (health care services, education, law enforcement, business license, etc.). To what extent, in your opinion: [... people with personal or family connections seem to have preferential access to services (e.g. schools for children, preferences in access to healthcare, running a business)?]
28. With regard to various public services (health care services, education, law enforcement, business license, etc.). To what extent, in your opinion: [... wealthy people seem to have preferential access to services (e.g. schools for children, preferences in access to healthcare, running a business)?]
28. With regard to various public services (health care services, education, law enforcement, business license, etc.). To what extent, in your opinion: [... people who have a certain ethnic / linguistic origin seem to have preferential access to services (e.g. schools for children, preferences in access to health care, running a business)?]
29. Do you recall any matter (presented in the media or elsewhere) where the public institution in your region (whether of national, regional or local administration level) has been accused of favoring or violating impartiality? What happened? In your opinion, what is the probability that this situation will happen again? Smaller, bigger, the same?

Annex: Interviewees (Spain)

Interview 1:	High civil servant at local level. Catalonia.
Interview 2:	Local government employee. Catalonia.
Interview 3:	Member of a regional anti-corruption body.
Interview 4:	High civil servant at local level. Catalonia.
Interview 5:	Businessman. Navarra.
Interview 6:	High civil servant at local and regional level. Catalonia.
Interview 7:	High civil servant at regional level; department responsible for transparency and open government. Catalonia.
Interview 8:	Member of the regional government. Catalonia.
Interview 9:	Journalist. Navarra.
Interview 10:	Political scientist.
Interview 11:	Former member of the regional government. Navarra.
Interview 12:	Political scientist.
Interview 13:	Former member of the regional government. Catalonia.
Interview 14:	Civil servant at local level. Catalonia.
Interview 15:	High civil servant at local level. Catalonia.
Interview 16:	Former member of the regional government. Navarra.
Interview 17:	Representative of a civil society organization. Navarra.
Interview 18:	Legal scholar.
Interview 19:	Local government employee. Navarra.

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