



Does the Winner Take It All? Redistributive Policies and Political Extremism

Gianmarco Daniele
Amedeo Piolatto
Willem Sas

This versión: January 2021
(February 2020)

Barcelona GSE Working Paper Series

Working Paper n° 1157

Does the Winner Take It All?

Redistributive Policies and Political Extremism

Gianmarco Daniele^a

University of Milan & Bocconi & IEB & CEPR

Amedeo Piolatto^b

UAB & BGSE & IEB

Willem Sas^c

University of Stirling & KU Leuven & CESifo

Abstract

The impact of federal policies often depends on fixed regional differences (economic, historical, geographical). Certain regions can therefore be seen as permanently benefitting from the federation and others as losing. We show that this distorts voting behaviour in two ways. First, voters strategically elect federal representatives that are extremely protective of regional interests. Second, they suboptimally invest in locally funded goods. This distortion is U-shaped in expected federal benefits. Lastly, we do not observe the usual race to be included in the federal coalition, which would reduce the distortion. We test these predictions on national and European Parliamentary elections since 1990, and find that extreme voting is indeed U-shaped: winning and losing states distort more than those in the middle. We conclude that federal political structures foment political polarisation, especially when federal decisions require large consensus. Loosening the ties between representatives and their constituency may mitigate this problem.

JEL Classification: D72, H11, H7.

Keywords: Federalism, Strategic Delegation, Political Extremism, Euroscepticism, Populism, Distorted Public Provision, EU Elections, Suboptimal Political Equilibrium.

Acknowledgements: We are grateful to our colleagues and friends for their helpful comments and suggestions. This work was presented at the ASSA (Chicago), APET (Strasbourg), ASSET (Florence), IIPF (Glasgow), LAGV (Marseille 2019), Urban Economic Society (Philadelphia) and SAEe (Madrid) meetings, at the BGSE Summer Forum 2019, Bruneck Workshop 2018, as well as seminars at UAB (Barcelona), Bocconi U. (Milan), CEU (Budapest), Collegio Carlo Alberto (Turin), CUNEF (Madrid), Freiburg U., Humboldt U. (Berlin), KU Leuven, LMU (Munich), Max Planck Institute (Munich), Tilburg U., TSE (Toulouse), UC-Irvine and UQAM (Montreal): we thank organisers and attendants.

Funding: A. Piolatto acknowledges the financial support from Barcelona GSE (Seed Grant SG2018-07), the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (Severo Ochoa Programme for Centres of Excellence in R&D CEX2019-000915-S, Ramón y Cajal programme RYC-2016-19371 and grant PGC2018-094348), and the Regional Government of Catalonia (2017SGR711). W. Sas is grateful for the financial support from the ESRC ('Between two Unions' project).

This draft: 5th January 2021.

^aUniversity of Milan. E-mail: gianmarco.daniele@unimi.it

^b*Corresponding author* Autonomous U. of Barcelona (UAB), Barcelona Graduate School of Economics (BGSE) and Barcelona Institute of Economics (IEB). E-mail: amedeo.piolatto@uab.es

^cEconomics Division, University of Stirling & Department of Economics, KU Leuven. E-mail: willem.sas@stir.ac.uk

1 Introduction

Federal systems of government have not been immune to the political instability that is increasingly putting democratic institutions under pressure. Polarisation and extremism are on the rise in the EU, the US, but also Brazil or India. Explanations have so far focused on the economic and cultural insecurity of voters rather than institutional factors.¹ While these are certainly important drivers, we will argue that additional and more strategic motives are at play in federal contexts.

We look for these strategic motives in the specific way a federal, or multi-level system of government is set up, and this for two reasons. First, voters have to cast their vote for different levels of government, which gives them more options to pick their battles strategically. Second, lower-level voting districts (henceforth, regions) are inevitably affected by nationwide policies introduced by the higher (federal) level. This gives voters good reason to think strategically if the regional heterogeneity in underlying fundamentals – e.g. economic history, natural resources or social capital – is brought to the surface by a salient federal policy, such as migration policies, transfer schemes or market regulation. In other words, certain federal policies often imply a persistent redistribution across regions, if only in voters’ minds, which they may want to push in their favour.

Our theoretical model explains why voters indeed have the strategic incentive to elect what we will call ‘extremely protectionist’ politicians: to defend their regional interests within federal institutions. They do so even when electing such a tough negotiator comes at an ideological cost, or increases the risk of not being included in the ruling coalition. Whether they believe their region is benefitting or losing from a federal policy turns out to be irrelevant for the decision to behave strategically. What voters care about is the magnitude of the policy: whilst winners want to scale up the policy and losers want to scale it back, both types elect extremely protective politicians to bring this about. Interestingly, regions do not engage into a race to belong to the ruling coalition, which would inevitably put a cap on the distortion. Voters have another card up their sleeve: they sub-optimally invest in locally funded goods in ways that make their bargaining position stronger. All of these elements set our model apart from previous work.

We validate our results comparing national and European Parliamentary elections. Our analysis confirms a U-shaped relationship predicted by the model: *benefitting* and *harmed* member states are indeed more likely to vote for extremely protective parties than the states in the middle. We complement our analysis with a small-size survey that was run in Finland, France and Italy, which confirms the presence of strategic voting attempts to steer federal

¹Voters demand more short-term protection, the argument goes, when they start feeling insecure because of economic shocks, migration, austerity or automation. We discuss the relevant literature below.

negotiations.

We identify two lines of policies that could reduce the welfare losses from extreme voting. The first one is to cut (or to minimise) the district ties of the federal legislature, for example by introducing a union-wide electoral district or, at least, increasing the size of districts.² The alternative one is to decrease the ex-ante pivotal character of elected representatives, by reducing the required qualification for a majority to act.

The fact that some regions will gain from certain higher-level policies whilst others lose out, is true in many different contexts. This kind of ‘stickiness’ depends on the policy in question. For example, if migrant workers pay local taxes, attractive regions will benefit from any federal policy supporting the free movement of workers. Less attractive regions facing labour outflows will be harmed. Migration, illustrated in the left panel of Figure 1 for the EU, has indeed lead to regional disparities (Goldin et al., 2018). Countries such as Germany and the UK (in green) have seen relatively high net within-EU migration inflows, whilst Romania, Poland and Portugal (in red) are in the opposite camp.³ Or take the credit ratings of EU countries as a second example, shown in the central panel of Figure 1. Periphery countries (in red) would clearly find themselves on the winning side of any debt mutualisation policy, such as Eurobonds, because of their lower rating. The opposite goes for the core countries (in green). A similar divide opens up in the right panel of Figure 1, thirdly, when considering EU cohesion and agricultural funding. Again the periphery countries stand to gain as net recipients (in red) from such a transfer scheme, whilst the core countries are contributors (in green). The same demarcations have emerged during the Eurocrisis in 2012-2015, and again in the handling of the COVID-19 crisis.⁴

In these and many other examples, including environmental and energy policies, certain regions are (perceived as) benefitting or losing because of persistent spatial heterogeneity, which at best only changes in the medium to long run. Such underlying fundamentals are usually economic and geographical – related to the divide between ‘rust belt’ or rural areas on the one side, and successful urban agglomerations on the other. They could also be related to regionally concentrated natural resources or other endowments such as social and human capital, or follow from a complex set of national laws and regulations or institutional drift.⁵

One key innovation of our model is that this spatial heterogeneity of underlying funda-

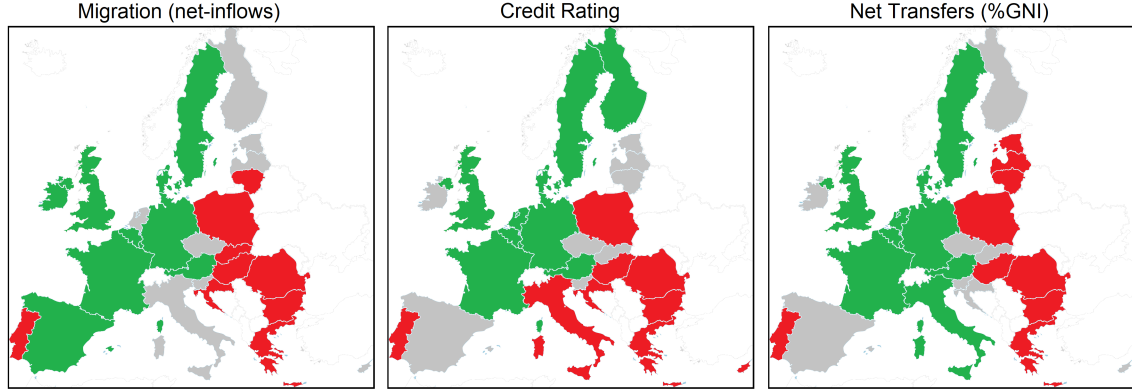
²See e.g. Stojanović and Bonotti (2020). We discuss this and other reforms in more detail in our conclusion.

³Computations of net flows are based on table 30 in (Fries-Tersch et al., 2018).

⁴The current situation in Europe may even be seen as a result of the voting behaviour we describe: representatives of southern member states are in favour of radical EU stimulus and mutualising incurred debts to cushion the COVID-19 shock, whilst delegates of northern ‘frugal’ countries are slow to accept these proposals.

⁵These are all factors which are very hard to change even in the medium run. For example, federal regulation aimed at promoting pro-civic or social behaviour comes at the cost of restricting individual freedoms, and also has high enforcement costs. The level of social capital of a region then implies that the regulation may be beneficial or just costly and redundant.

Figure 1: Maps of the EU depending on Mobility (left), Credit Rating (middle), EU Net-Transfers (right)



The 28 countries are divided into 3 groups: 10 Green, 9 Gray, and 9 Red. Red and Green countries are at each extreme of the spectrum, while Grey refers to countries in the middle. Workers' mobility (net inflow - Green highest) is computed from Fries-Tersch et al. (2018). S&P credit rating (Green highest) is taken from www.countryeconomy.com/ratings. EU net-transfers (Red - highest) are computed as a % of GNI in the period 2000-2015 (see section 3 for more details).

mentals directly maps into the impact of a federal policy: a region either benefits or is harmed, possibly to different degrees. This drastically changes bargaining at the federal level and, in turn, voting behaviour as well. Indeed, when the set of benefitting and losing districts from a given federal policy is fixed (or, at least, perceived to be so), federal negotiations on the policy are entirely centred on its magnitude. Setting the size of the pie is what matters most, so to speak, instead of deciding how it is shared.

Both in benefitting and harmed regions, the median voter then has similar incentives to elect extremely protective federal representatives: staking out a stronger bargaining position at the higher level to influence the size of the pie. For benefitting regions this means more pronounced support of the federal policy in question, and vice-versa for the losing regions. As a result, voters are willing to incur the ideological, reputational and efficiency costs of electing a tough negotiator with more extreme preferences than their own. In equilibrium, all regions are trapped in a kind of prisoner's dilemma: they keep each other in check once inside the coalition, serving as each other's counterweight.

In our model, citizens in each region cast their vote both in regional and federal elections, in a 'citizen-candidate' setting. The federal government is a coalition of regionally elected politicians. Policy decisions are made in a cooperative way: coalition members reach a mutually advantageous agreement, defending the interests of their respective regions. Bargaining in the federal legislation thus reflects regional considerations, which is often observed in real-world federations (Rodden et al., 2003).⁶ Indeed, whenever decisions taken on the federal

⁶Carozzi and Repetto (2016); Fiva and Halse (2016) show (using Italian and Norwegian data, respectively) that indeed politicians care about their place of origin even beyond any electoral consideration.

level follow more from consensus than a simple majority voting rule, and when locally elected federal politicians start behaving as regional representatives, we can expect region-oriented bargaining to direct most of distributive federal policy-making.⁷ Our setting also allows regions to tax and provide public services, which may be complementary to, or substitutive of the federal government’s policy. Then, anticipating how this policy is negotiated, regional politicians and voters alike are in a position to take advantage of the higher-level policies. Hence, they make (socially) inefficient decisions such as over- or under-spending because it is in their strategic interest.

This outcome is entirely due to the strategic motive to improve welfare in one’s own region. Our argument is based on the belief that the sum-total of federal policy works in favour of a fixed set of regions, and against some others,⁸ unlike theories that rely on a shift in self-categorisation into an identity⁹ – which would then be centred on the regional identity dimension. We demonstrate that the strategic motive persists when voters are not sure their representative will be part of the federal coalition. In particular, we show that voters do not engage in a race to enter the coalition that could reduce or eliminate the distortion. It is never profitable to elect a more moderate representative with the sole objective of entering the coalition, as long as the coalition includes representatives from both winning and losing regions. The usual incentive, commonly observed in the pork-barrel literature, to elect a more accommodating representative to improve chances of making it into the coalition, therefore disappears.

To test our theory we focus on the world’s largest ongoing experiment of multi-level government: the European Union (EU).¹⁰ In this context it is relatively easy to identify the extremely protective political parties as well as the benefitting and harmed regions. To proxy the latter we use the net contributions of each member state to the overall EU budget, and cluster EU member states in three intuitive groups (marked in the right panel of Figure 1): main contributors as ‘harmed’ (green), main recipients as ‘benefitting’ (red), and those

⁷The direct representation of regions in any central government can also be seen as an automatic product of the electoral process. Nationwide political parties will always consist of candidates elected in all regions of the federation, hence any coalition formed on the federal level to a certain extent represents each region when it comes to making decisions on federal taxation and transfers. This also goes for countries with region-specific parties, such as Belgium, Spain or Canada. If such parties are part of the federal government their region is automatically represented as well.

⁸Our model only considers one federal policy: its impact then immediately defines which region is a winner, a loser or in the neutral middle. The model easily extends to a vector of policies (transfers, migration, environmental policies.), so that voters build their perception on gains or losses for their district from *each* policy, and on the relative weight assigned to each of them.

⁹See Gennaioli and Tabellini (2019) and the references therein.

¹⁰The EU is the world biggest supranational political union, where representatives of member states continuously bargain over common policies in the European Parliament (EP), ranging from regulation of labour migration to a common budget – which in 2018 amounted to 160 billion Euros – to the integration of bailout mechanisms such as the European Stability Mechanism (ESM) into Community law.

in between as neutral (grey). For instance, net transfers received from the EU represented 3,53% of GNI for Lithuania, 2,9% for Bulgaria and 2,11% for Poland (in 2000-2015). The Netherlands and Germany were the main net contributors.

Since the benefits from the EU Single Market are not necessarily well understood by the general public, we argue that our three clusters capture winning/losing perceptions of EU policies quite well. Indeed, the same demarcations have emerged during the Eurocrisis in 2012-2015 and again in the handling of the COVID-19 crisis. In our model, voters' perception about winning or losing positions are crucial, and these would still be true even if they were incongruent with reality.¹¹ For robustness, we replicate our results using Eurobarometer survey data, grouping countries according to average beliefs of benefitting from EU membership.

To identify political parties which are extremely protective of their own national interests, we use the categorisation of Eurosceptic parties from Algan et al. (2017). Such parties usually campaign on a platform of protecting the interests of the member state in question (Colantone et al. 2019).¹² We then analyse party performances from 1990 onward and compare European Parliament (EP) elections to national elections. The EP then corresponds to the federal layer of our model, whilst member states correspond to regions in the model. Following our theoretical predictions, we expect strategic voting behaviour to mark EP elections but leave national elections unaffected.

First of all, the prediction that voters elect relatively more Eurosceptic delegates to the European parliament as compared to national elections, is confirmed. These results apply to both sides of the political spectrum and are robust to different specifications, definitions of the key variables and a broad set of controls. Crucially, and fully in line with our predictions, we only find this Eurosceptic support differential in net losing and net winning member states, but *not* in countries where EU benefits and contributions are more or less balanced. We thus uncover a U-shaped relationship between the degree of (perceived) gains from EU membership and the Eurosceptic vote.

Finally, we investigate whether people voting for different parties are doing so because of the strategic reasons we propose: our online survey, rolled out in Italy, France and Finland, suggests that this explanation is at play.

In what follows, Section 2 presents the theoretical model, whilst the empirical analysis is reported in Section 3. The online survey results are set out in Section 4, while Section 5 concludes. Appendices A and B extend the theoretical model, proofs are all in Appendix C.

¹¹It is often argued that the benefits enjoyed by core countries of being part of the single market far outweigh the costs of contributing to the EU budget. Our main assumption is then that the former are far more salient than the latter. Second, and similar to external migration of which most citizens have rooted opinions (Alesina et al., 2018), EU within-migration still casts receiving countries as 'losers'.

¹²Think for example of Syriza (Greece), Podemos (Spain), AfD (Germany), Front National (France), or Lega (Italy).

Finally, Appendix D complements and extends the empirical analysis. Before moving to the presentation of the model, we review the related literature and underline what differentiates our work from it.

Related literature

Our model rationalises why we observe more strategically-protective voting behaviour in elections for higher layers of government as compared to lower levels. The existing literature on this issue is quite thin. In the EU context, there is some evidence suggesting that voters vote for different parties at the national and European level. Studying regularities first observed by Reif and Schmitt (1980), the ‘Second-Order’ conjecture suggests that voters send signals to their representatives using elections that they consider to be of second-order relevance. This could rationalise most odd voting behaviours at any election. Schulte-Cloos (2018) and the literature therein support the second-order conjecture in an empirically non-causal manner. We propose a solid theoretical framework that provides a complementary explanation for why voters should act differently depending on the type of election. Our empirical test suggests that data are compatible with our predictions, including the U-shaped distortion that the second-order theory is not able to explain. In our empirical analysis we control for the tenets of the second-order theory and show that results are not driven by them.

A similar pattern has been observed in the US by Bafumi and Herron (2010), who documents that elected members of Congress are more extreme than their constituency. The authors mainly focus on the lack of convergence towards the median voter, showing that extremists are over-represented on both sides of the spectrum. The authors neither relate their results to the second-order conjecture nor to any specific attitude or characteristic of voters. The theoretical analysis in Krasa and Polborn (2018) explains the difference in extremism between local and national policy positions when the end-goal of voters is securing a national majority. Inversely, in our model the strategic reflex of voters is to mitigate the objectives of federal coalition partners that are in an opposite camp. The two driving forces nicely complement each other. Our predictions coincide with those of Enikolopov and Zhuravskaya (2007) to the extent that stronger national parties undercut the regional ties of federal representatives. This kind of stronger political centralisation would indeed better align local political incentives with national interests, as federal legislators in our model become less malleable to regional electoral pressures.

Second, our work relates closely to the rich theoretical literature on federalism, legislative bargaining and strategic delegation.¹³ Most of the relevant-to-us literature belongs to either

¹³Within the literature on federalism, interested readers may look at Alonso et al. (2008); Kessler et al. (2011); Gancia et al. (2020) and the literature therein. Strategic delegation has been studied in many different

of two strands: the first includes the bargaining-oriented papers that, following the seminal paper of Schelling (1956),¹⁴ focus on the bargaining process once a given coalition forms. The second includes the majoritarian-decision work where, following Ferejohn et al. (1987) and Chari et al. (1997),¹⁵ the question is rather how a certain coalition is formed to begin with. In the first strand, a strong relative position is vital: voters have an incentive to delegate to an extreme negotiator that is more likely to obtain a good deal. In the second strand, voters tend to select milder negotiators which are more likely to be selected by the formateur to join the winning coalition. Harstad (2010) and Christiansen (2013) bridge the two strands. The tension between what one can obtain in the coalition and the likelihood of being part of it is the crucial trade-off there.¹⁶

While our results coincide with the first, bargaining-oriented strand in that the selected delegate is a more extreme negotiator, our mechanism is different in one crucial way. Both previous strands of literature consider an environment where being part of the coalition is essential: policies are tailored to ensure that all members in the coalition benefit from them (possibly to different extents), while excluded regions do not benefit from them (or only marginally). In our model we take a very different approach: the set of regions that benefits or loses is orthogonal to the coalition composition, but is instead an attribute of the policy. As a result, coalition members may have opposite objectives, yet share similar objectives with some regions that are excluded from the coalition. For instance, countries will either benefit or lose from an open migration policy, regardless of their inclusion in the ruling coalition.

In that case, some districts in the coalition would accidentally protect the interest of those that do not belong to it. District are, therefore, equally protected as long as they belong to the coalition or another district with aligned interests does instead. Crucially, and even though choosing a milder negotiator would still increase the chances of being part of the coalition, it is no longer essential. Indeed, when we consider the coalition formation process, the race to choose a mild negotiator is bounded. In sum, in a setting that is close to the family of majoritarian-decision papers, we still find a tendency to select more extreme delegates.

contexts. A parallelism exists between our results and Rogoff (1985) where, in the context of the selection of a central banker, the author finds a rationale to distort the selection of the banker in order to pre-commit to a given type of policy. The introduction in Coate and Milton (2019) provides an interesting overlook of the general literature on strategic delegation.

¹⁴For example, see Bowen et al. (2014); Kessler (2014); Beath et al. (2016); Loeper (2017); Simon and Valasek (2017); Mattozzi and Snowberg (2018); Bouton et al. (2020) and the literature therein.

¹⁵See, for example, Besley and Coate (2003); Knight (2008); Buisseret and Bernhardt (2018); Coate and Milton (2019) and the literature therein.

¹⁶In Harstad (2010), the strategic motive to vote progressively is to enhance a given delegate's chances to be included in the coalition, of which all members share the same goal: the expropriation of non-coalition members. Christiansen (2013), adding a delegation stage to the model of Volden and Wiseman (2007), studies strategic voting when legislators face a trade-off between public goods provision and targeted spending on pork projects. In our model there is no such trade-off, as redistributive shares are fixed whilst the budget is endogenous, so that side-payments in the form of particularistic spending are ruled out.

Further differences between our setting and the literature include that strategic incentives in Besley and Coate (2003) only materialise when the grand coalition is assumed to form, while in our model the size of the coalition doesn't matter. Buisseret and Bernhardt (2018) focuses on international agreements and assumes no commitment: agreements can be re-negotiated.¹⁷

Our paper also links into the recent literature on populism,¹⁸ by providing an additional and complementary rationale for why voters might elect politically extreme candidates and, hence, why populism is on the rise. The current literature on populism includes, as a possible explanation, both economic and non-economic explanations. These include globalisation (Colantone and Stanig, 2018), austerity (Fetzer, 2019), public finance mismanagement (Daniele et al., 2018), recessions and financial crises (Algan et al., 2017), historical heritage and identity (Cantoni et al., 2019; Edo et al., 2019), immigration (Edo et al., 2019) or a combination of many of them (Guriev, 2018; Rodrik, 2018a). Additionally, all of these sources of economic insecurity can foment cultural insecurity as well (Margalit, 2019; Guiso et al., 2020). In any case, once populist demand is rising, parties on both sides of the political spectrum are formed or re-positioned to jump into the niche (Rodrik, 2018b).¹⁹ In our model, we provide a complementary explanation, where demand for extremely protectionist delegates is a direct consequence of the multi-level governance that provides incentives to voters to reward more extreme politicians.

Finally, our paper also links into the literature on strategic voting (see Kawai and Watanabe, 2013, and the literature therein). We estimate the magnitude of the incentive to vote strategically in our empirical section which, according to the definition in Kawai and Watanabe (2013), is a measure of the degree of misaligned voting.²⁰ Our estimates are consistent with those in the literature, which are in the order of magnitude of 1 to 3%.

2 The model

We consider a federation where each region $r \in R$ is inhabited by a unit mass of citizens. Per capita income Y_r is exogenous and homogeneous within each region r .²¹ Citizens of r care

¹⁷Our result that voting also has a strategic element, to constrain the options of federal negotiators in the future, is similar to the findings of Hatfield and Padró i Miquel (2012). In their model, however, voters adjust the federal structure of the constitution to partially tie their own hands ex-ante, to rein in their ex-post desire for federal policies.

¹⁸See Rovira Kaltwasser (2018) for a concise survey on populism.

¹⁹If this is done successfully, and social stigma attached to radical ideologies is mitigated as a result, demand for such platforms can moreover be reinforced, as shown by Bursztyn et al. (2020) and Cantoni et al. (2019).

²⁰Misaligned voters are the subset of strategic voters that in equilibrium find it optimal to distort their vote. Hence, it excludes those strategic voters for whom the best strategic behaviour implies voting their preferred candidate.

²¹Given the normalisation of regional population, public provision could entail a local public good, but also publicly provided private goods.

about consumption of a private good C_r and a publicly provided one, which has both a local component, G_r^ℓ , and a federal one, G_r^f .

Each agent j in region r has a type θ_r^j defining the relative primacy of public provision in their utility. Agents' type can be heterogeneous within and across regions and can follow any distribution with weakly positive support. Agents' utility also depends on the distance D_r between their type and the one of the politician that represents them.

The utility of voter j living in region r is then:

$$U_r^j = c(C_r) + \theta_r^j g(G_r^\ell, G_r^f) + D_r, \quad (1)$$

where the utility from consumption and public provision, respectively $c(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$, are increasing and strictly concave functions.

Regions levy a proportional income-tax t_r that finances the local component of the publicly provided good G_r^ℓ . Private consumption C_r is equal to the after-tax disposable income.

$$C_r = (1 - t_r) Y_r, \quad (2)$$

$$G_r^\ell = t_r Y_r. \quad (3)$$

The federal component G_r^f has a much wider interpretation: we remain agnostic as to its concrete nature, which could be either material or immaterial (any federal law, regulation, policy or intervention affecting the value of the local component). G_r^f affects the value of public provision either positively or negatively.²² We use $\sigma = \{b, h\}$ to refer to regions that benefit from ($\sigma = b$) or are harmed by ($\sigma = h$) the federal component. Then, $R^\sigma = \{R^b, R^h\}$ represents the (nonempty) subset of regions that either benefits or is harmed by the federal policy, with $R^b \cup R^h = R$. With a slight abuse of notation, subset R^σ has cardinality $|R^\sigma| = \sigma$. The federal component, as defined by Eq. (4), includes an intensive margin γ and an extensive margin Δ_r .

$$G_r^f = \gamma \Delta_r. \quad (4)$$

The intensive margin γ captures the magnitude of the federal policy and it is endogenously selected by the federal government. The extensive margin is positive ($\Delta_r = \Delta^b > 0$) for $r \in R^b$ and negative ($\Delta_r = -\Delta^h < 0$) for $r \in R^h$.

Voters' dislike for being represented by politicians with type different from their own enters the utility function - Eq. (1) - as the distance D_r between the type of the agent (θ_r^j)

²²Federal and local policies may complement or crowd out each other (Knight, 2002). Federal grants are a typical example of substitute policies. Instead, federal investment in infrastructure that increases the marginal value of local infrastructure would represent a complementary policy. Identically, environmental policies may be a complement to local policies to promote tourism.

and the one of their federal representative ($\hat{\theta}_r$):

$$D_r = -\eta_r \left(\hat{\theta}_r - \theta_r^j \right)^2. \quad (5)$$

Hence, D_r describes the disutility of the political match as the distance between an agent's type and the type of their elected representative.²³ Parameter η_r measures political pragmatism: when small, voters are opportunistic (they care mostly about policies, not who implements them). Conversely, when large, voters are ideological and dislike very much being represented by someone with whom they do not share the same political views.²⁴

Timing Closing the model, we turn to the timing of electoral and policy decisions.

Agents in each region act first: each region marks a constituency where every citizen directly votes over the local tax rate t_r , which determines both consumption C_r and the regional contribution to the local public good G_r^ℓ . Every single voter is also a potential federal candidate, running to represent the interest of the region within the federal government. Agents in each region cast, together with the vote over t_r , also a vote over who should represent their region on the federal level: the elected candidate in region r has type $\hat{\theta}_r$.

The federal government moves second: a coalition of federal representatives bargains on the level of parameter γ , which indirectly defines the federal policy G_r^f according to Eq. (4). We allow for a randomly selected formateur to steer the formation process. Once the federal coalition is formed, decisions are taken cooperatively so that the federal policy maximises the joint utility of the coalition members. We denote by $K \subseteq R$ the set of regions that belong to the federal coalition. When $K = R$, a grand coalition forms that includes all regions, which can be thought the result of a specified institutional arrangement or the product of the political constellation at hand. In any case, cooperative bargaining is driven by a threat point that we conceive as the risk of re-election after a continued disagreement, with the eventual loss of power as a result. This translates into the disutility of losing political benefits, wages, or more generally, all possible kinds of (ego)rents enjoyed simply by staying in office.

2.1 The Grand-Coalition Setting

Here we consider the grand coalition case ($K = R$), whilst Section 2.2 considers the case when one region remains out of it. We solve the model backward, starting with the choice of the federal coalition (Section 2.1.1), after which we analyse the equilibrium in each region r (Section 2.1.2) and discuss the findings (Section 2.1.3).

²³See also Krasa and Polborn (2018) for similar modelling assumptions.

²⁴Since regional policies are decided via direct democracy, Eq. (5) only captures the potential mismatch occurring at the federal level.

2.1.1 The Federal Government

We assume the federal government will seek the weighted utilitarian bargaining solution to decide on the magnitude γ of the federal intervention and, therefore, maximises:

$$\max_{\gamma} \sum_{k \in K} \omega_k \left(\hat{U}_k - \Psi_k \right) = \sum_{k \in K} \omega_k \left(c(C_k) + \hat{\theta}_k g \left(G_k^\ell, G_k^f \right) - \Psi_k \right), \quad (6)$$

where \hat{U}_k is the utility of the representative elected in region k , that is obtained by rewriting Eq. (1) for $\theta_k = \hat{\theta}_k$. The weight of region k in the bargaining process is ω_k , while F_k represents the cost, for an elected politician, of not being able to form a coalition and hence the threat of losing power and its associated benefits, with $\Psi_k = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if a coalition is formed} \\ \bar{\Psi}_k, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$. We assume $\bar{\Psi}_k$ to be sufficiently large for coalitions to always form. Should this not be the case, the solution of the model is isomorphic to the case of no federal government that is analysed at the end of Section 2.1.2.

How a specific candidate rose to power in region k in period 1, in other words why they were elected, will be dealt with in Section 2.1.2, where we discuss the local voting mechanism. For now, it suffices to see that the utility of an elected legislator \hat{U}_k is defined by their appreciation of public and private consumption in their constituency, where $\hat{\theta}_k$ in Eq. (6) defines the relative weight assigned to the public good.

Deriving and rewriting the first order conditions of the optimisation problem defined by Eq. (6) and subject to Eqs. (2) to (4), the optimal intensive margin parameter γ is implicitly expressed by

$$\sum_{k \in K} \omega_k \Delta_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f = 0. \quad (7)$$

which leads to

$$\Delta^b \sum_{k \in R^b} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f = \Delta^h \sum_{k \in R^h} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f. \quad (8)$$

Eq. (8) implicitly captures how the federal intensive margin γ responds to regional decisions. This will prove to be an important relation: indeed, based on it, Lemmas 1 and 2 show how the choice of γ responds to a change local taxes t_k and on the type of the regional representatives $\hat{\theta}_k$. The nature of such links depends on whether regional and federal policies are strategic complements ($g''_{\ell f} > 0$) or substitutes ($g''_{\ell f} < 0$).

Lemma 1. *Given the optimal intensity of the federal policy γ , defined by Eq. (8), for any region $k \in K$ we find that*

$$\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} = \frac{\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k Y_k}{\phi''_{\gamma}} \Delta_k g''_{\ell f}, \quad (9)$$

where ϕ''_γ is the second derivative with respect to γ of the federal maximisation problem in Eq. (6), taken in absolute value.²⁵ It follows immediately that

$$\text{sgn} \left(\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} \right) = \text{sgn} (\Delta_k g''_{\ell f}) \quad (10)$$

Whenever regional and federal policies are strategic complements ($g''_{\ell f} > 0$), an increase of local public provision (G_k^L) in the benefitting (/harmed) region pushes the federal government to reinforce (/temper) its policy γ . All the opposite is true when regional and federal policies are strategic substitutes ($g''_{\ell f} < 0$).

Proof. See Appendix C. □

Lemma 1 shows when it is optimal for the federal government to boost the intensity of its policy (γ) following an increase in regional spending to finance the publicly provided good. Since regional spending erodes consumption (Eq. 2), the federal government compensates for the welfare loss when a region increases its local spending. This results in an increase of the federal policy when either i) the region benefits from it ($\sigma = b$) and the policies are strategic complements ($g''_{\ell f} > 0$) or ii) the region is harmed from it ($\sigma = h$) and the policies are strategic substitutes ($g''_{\ell f} < 0$). The federal policy decreases otherwise.

Lemma 2. *Given the equilibrium intensity of federal public policy defined by Eq. (8), for any region $k \in K$ we find that*

$$\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} = \frac{\omega_k}{\phi''_\gamma} \Delta_k g'_f, \quad (11)$$

with $\text{sgn} \left(\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} \right) = \text{sgn} (\Delta_k)$. Hence, any increase in the taste for public provision of the representatives elected in a benefitting (/harmed) region, leads to an increase (/reduction) in the intensity of the equilibrium federal policy.

Proof. See Appendix C. □

The intuition here is that representatives that find public provision more important, will generally want to steer federal policy making in that direction. They will be tougher negotiators in the federal bargaining process, and hence intensify (/soften) the federal policy if they represent a benefitting (/harmed) region.²⁶ Of course, the question at this point becomes whether a more extreme preference type will emerge from the election process. Section 2.1.2 provides us with an answer.

²⁵Its value, obtained in the proof, is $\phi''_\gamma = - \left(\sum_{s=\{b,h\}} (\Delta^s)^2 \sum_{k \in R^s} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g''_{ff} \right)$.

²⁶A similar dynamic can be found in the ongoing work by Kartik et al. (2020), although in the different context of veto bargaining: there too, extreme politicians tend to negotiate better deals.

2.1.2 Elections and Government

Local elections define the quantity of public good G_k to be produced in each region, as well as the local tax t_k that partially finances the public good. Voters also select the representative $\hat{\theta}_k$ who joins the federal government and negotiates γ in the name of region k , staying true to their preference type as is the common assumption in citizen-candidate settings.

The voters' objective function, defined by Eq. (1), is optimised under constraints imposed by Eqs. (2) to (5). Clearly, Eq. (1) meets all the requirements in Gans and Smart (1996) and therefore the median voter theorem applies. Lemma 3 presents the results of the maximisation.²⁷

Lemma 3. *Eqs. (12) and (13) implicitly define the preferences of the median voter in region k , in terms of the local tax t_k (Eq. 12) and of the representative $\hat{\theta}_k$ selected to join the federal legislature (Eq. 13).*

$$\frac{c'(C_k)}{\theta_k^m} = g'_\ell + \frac{(\Delta_k)^2 \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f g''_{\ell f}}{\phi''_\gamma} \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{(\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)}{\theta_k^m} = \frac{\omega_k}{2\eta_k \phi''_\gamma} (\Delta_k g'_f)^2. \quad (13)$$

Proof. See Appendix C. □

2.1.3 Analysis and discussion

Here we analyse the previous results and discuss their policy implications, starting with the choice of local taxes. We then look at the distortion in the choice of federal representatives and finally move to the analysis of the possible consequences of entry, exit and gerrymandering.

Local tax distortion Eq. (12) implicitly defines the preferred tax to finance local provision of the good. In our model agents are sophisticated, as they are able to fully understand and anticipate the mechanism. We now compute two benchmarks that we will use for comparison with our equilibrium.

The first benchmark corresponds to the case of myopic voters. Here, voters ignore completely all mechanisms at work at the federal level and act as if γ were fixed. This case is particularly interesting because it coincides with the case of no federal intervention or if federal policies are set in stone in the constitution.

The second benchmark represents naive voters, who understand how local taxation (t_r) affects the choice of γ , yet they do not anticipate that the choice of the elected politician ($\hat{\theta}_r$)

²⁷Notice that in Eqs. (12) to (13) both $\hat{\theta}_\alpha$ and θ_α^m appear. This is because the median voter is decisive in the election, hence the presence of θ_α^m . Yet voters also anticipate the strategic role of politicians at the federal level, so that $\hat{\theta}_\alpha$ follows from the strategic and forward looking behaviour of the local median voter.

is also affecting γ . This could happen if voters, for example, misunderstand the competence of different federal institutions.

From Eq. (12), the ‘sophisticated’ (t_k^s), ‘naive’ (t_k^n) and ‘myopic’ (t_k^m) tax rate are set implicitly by:

$$c'(C_k) - \theta_k^m g_\ell' = \begin{cases} \frac{\theta_k^m \hat{\theta}_k}{\phi_\gamma''(\theta_k)} \omega_k (\Delta_k)^2 g_f' g_{\ell f}'' & \text{if sophisticated} \\ \frac{(\theta_k^m)^2}{\phi_\gamma''(\theta_k^m)} \omega_k (\Delta_k)^2 g_f' g_{\ell f}'' & \text{if naive} \\ 0 & \text{if myopic} \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

Proposition 1 (Distortion in local taxes). *Both in benefitting and harmed regions, the distortion of local taxes is always more pronounced with sophisticated voters than with naive ones, when taking the case of exogenous federal policy (myopic equilibrium) as a benchmark.*

Corollary 1. *Both in benefitting and harmed regions, when local and federal policy are strategic complements ($g_{\ell f}'' > 0$), sophisticated voters raise more local taxes than the naive ones: $t_\alpha^s > t_\alpha^n > t_\alpha^m$. Conversely, when local and federal policy are strategic substitutes ($g_{\ell f}'' < 0$), sophisticated voters choose to under-tax locally, again to a larger extent than naive voters: $t_\alpha^m > t_\alpha^n > t_\alpha^s$.*

Proof. See Appendix C. □

Eq. (14) and Proposition 1 show that while the cost of distorting the vote is the same for everyone, sophisticated voters fully anticipate its marginal benefit and optimally calibrate the distortion. Naive voters underestimate the benefit. Myopic voters do not anticipate any benefit at all, hence they do not distort their vote.²⁸

When the federal policy is exogenous, the benefit from distorting local taxes disappears. As a consequence, the myopic benchmark corresponds to the case of exogenous federal policy.

While Proposition 1 stresses the magnitude of the distortion, maximal for strategic voters and minimal for the myopic ones, Corollary 1 focuses on the direction of the distortion. When federal and local policy are complements, the benefit comes from inflating the local tax, hence if voters in a region are strategic they will vote for a larger local tax. Conversely, when policies are substitutes, the benefit is obtained by reducing the local tax. Then naive voters will reduce it compared to myopic voters, but strategic voters will reduce it even more.

It is important to notice that all regions behave (qualitatively) in the same way. That is, the sign of the distortion (too much or too little local provision) and the fact that strategic

²⁸Taking the naive behaviour as a benchmark, we implicitly suggested that this is the neutral behaviour and that any deviation represents a distortion. Nonetheless, other distortions may also materialise (Harstad, 2007), in which case it may well be that the distortion due to strategic voting partially offsets other distortions, leading to a superior equilibrium.

voters distort more than naive voters are both independent of the type of region (hence, the sign of Δ_k). The reason of the distortion is also the same for both types: regional choices are aimed at tying the hands of the federal representative, by increasing their incentive to obtain a better deal.

Selection of federal representatives Eq. (13) implicitly measures the distortion that materialises in terms of the type of the elected regional representative at the federal government. Suppose that a cooperative legislature of regionally elected representatives has to bargain over the intensity (γ) of federal policies (G_k^f): Proposition 2 and its corollary reveal the incentive to strategically delegate to more extreme federal representatives.

Proposition 2 (Strategic delegation). *In all regions where the federal policy directly affects the utility of public provision ($\Delta_k \neq 0$), voters strategically elect candidates with a preference for public provision strictly stronger than their own ($\hat{\theta}_k > \theta_k^m$). If a region neither benefits nor loses from the federal policy ($\Delta_k = 0$) then local elections are not distorted by strategic voting ($\hat{\theta}_k = \theta_k^m$).*

Corollary 2. *Consider regions α and β and denote by $\mu(\theta_k) = (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)/\theta_k^m$ the mark-up in terms of θ_k , that is, the percentage increase in θ_k from the median voter to the federal representative in region k . The strategic voting of the two median voters are characterised by*

$$\frac{\mu(\theta_\alpha)}{\mu(\theta_\beta)} = \frac{\omega_\alpha(\Delta_\alpha g_f')^2/\eta_\alpha}{\omega_\beta(\Delta_\beta g_f')^2/\eta_\beta}, \quad (15)$$

Proof. See Appendix C. □

In line with the literature on strategic delegation, Proposition 2 shows that elected federal representatives always have a strictly-stronger preference for public provision than the median voter.²⁹ The median voter in each region is bound to select a representative with preferences different from theirs, despite the fact that their utility depends negatively on the distance between their type and the elected representative type.

Indeed, the median voter anticipates the federal bargaining process. Lemma 2 states that the federal policy intensity γ is increasing in the type ($\hat{\theta}_k$) of the representatives from benefitting regions and decreasing in the type of the representatives from harmed regions. From the median voter's perspective therefore, the cost of being represented by an extreme politician is offset by the increase in utility from public provision $g(\cdot)$. Higher $\hat{\theta}_k$ types more gladly negotiate for higher, or lower federal intervention γ to bring the utility from public good

²⁹Conditional on their region's welfare being at stake.

consumption up. Knowing this in advance, voters turn this behaviour to their advantage by voting in precisely such types. Hence, median voters pre-commit to a more extreme stand to manoeuvre their representative in a – at least for them – more favourable bargaining position at the outset of negotiations.³⁰

Importantly, the strategic voting predicted by Proposition 2 occurs both in winning and losing districts, but for different reasons. In the winning region voters will distort federal elections to guarantee more federal support through higher intervention, whilst the losing region strategically sends a representative keen on lowering federal support. Proposition 2 further shows that when federal policy has no consequence on the value of locally provided goods ($\Delta_k = 0$), the level of federal intervention loses its strategic appeal to voters who will then vote sincerely. In the presence of some externalities of the federal policy, however, the question becomes which region will distort the elections the most, and why.

Proposition 2 corollary further studies the political distortion, computed as the mark-up on θ_k . In particular, Eq. (15) compares the mark-ups between two regions. This allows to help us understanding the determinants of the distortion. A first element to discuss is the ratio ω_k/η_k . Remember that ω_k reflects the bargaining power of a region within the federal coalition, while η_k represents the political opportunism of a region, that is, how much a region is willing to sacrifice their political preferences in exchange for a better deal. Clearly, a higher bargaining power (larger ω) implies higher returns when distorting the type of federal representatives and, hence, larger incentives to do so. Similarly, higher political opportunism (smaller η_k) implies lower costs of distorting the type of representatives and, hence, again larger incentives to distort.

Eq. (15) also leads to another interesting conclusion: suppose that regions α and β are of the same type (hence, $\Delta_\alpha = \Delta_\beta$) and exhibit the same ratio ω_k/η_k . Eq. (15) simplifies to $\frac{\mu(\theta_\alpha)}{\mu(\theta_\beta)} = (g'_f(\alpha)/g'_f(\beta))^2$. It is immediate to conclude that, when goods are strategic complements ($g''_{\ell f} > 0$) the political distortion is increasing in local public provision G_k^ℓ while the opposite is true for strategic substitute goods ($g''_{\ell f} < 0$). The intuition for that goes along the same line as before: if G_k^ℓ and G_k^f are complements, an increase in local provision is increasing the benefits of influencing the federal policy, hence there's a stronger incentive to distort the type of the representative.³¹

Proposition 2 already showed that the distortions disappear when $\Delta_k = 0$, that is, when a region is neither benefitting nor harmed by the federal policy. However, it is not explicit

³⁰The empirical analyses in Kedar (2005) and Lachat (2018) support Proposition 2, albeit with generally descriptive evidence. Indeed, in both cases results suggest that voters support more extreme parties, with the hope to steer expected government policy closer to their bliss point.

³¹A typical example of strategic substitutability is when the federal policy is a transfer of money across regions. Then, Eq. (15) suggests that the poorest region will be more aggressive in the choice of the federal representative.

about how the distortion varies, depending on the magnitude of benefits/costs. Proposition 3 sheds some light on that.

Proposition 3 (Non-linearity). *Relative distortion across jurisdictions is U-shaped in Δ_k if relative risk aversion of $g(\cdot)$ is less than 1: $-\frac{\gamma\Delta_k g''_{ff}}{g'_f} < 1$. Otherwise, the relative distortion is decreasing in Δ_k .*

Proof. See Appendix C. □

Proposition 3 indicates the conditions, in terms of convexity of function $g(\cdot)$, that determine whether strategic delegation is U-shaped (increasing more than proportionally in benefits/costs). In particular, when the Relative Risk Aversion (RRA) of $g(\cdot)$ is small (less than 1), the distortion is U-shaped. With unitary RRA, the distortion is linear, while with large RRA (above 1), the distortion is Bell-shaped.

The empirical analysis (Fig. 5 and columns 5-8 in Table 1) will show that, at least in our sample, the distortion is clearly U-shaped, suggesting that the RRA is then small. When the distortion is U-shaped in benefits/costs, the federation faces a direct threat: the larger its power and, therefore, the more effective and the more active it is, the stronger the incentives for members to elect more extreme, populist, candidates that may undermine the survival of the federation. As a consequence, any increase in competence, reach or budget of the federation should be accompanied by a change in decision mechanisms to balance the potential raise in extremism. Our final remarks (Section 5) include some policy recommendations.

Entry, exit and gerrymandering within the federation Our results show that multi-level governments can – at least partially – explain the rise of political extremism in the form of strategic protectionism at higher levels of government. Several components determine the proportion of this phenomenon: 1) the relative bargaining power of regions within the federal government (ω) is a primitive of the model that can hardly be modified by the legislator; 2) the level of interregional redistribution (Δ_k) and the concavity of the federal objective function (ϕ''_γ) depend on the institutional setting and can be modified by the legislator but often it is a politically very costly task, however they may change (in quite unpredictable ways) when a jurisdiction changes in size or composition, or when new jurisdictions enter or exit the federation; 3) several attributes of the median voter in each jurisdiction (their preferences θ , the slope and concavity of their preferences over the publicly provided good, their income and their disutility from political diversity).

Changes in the boundaries of electoral constituencies (including practices such as malapportionment or gerrymandering) is a common practice in several countries, including the UK and the US. In the case of unions, such as the EU, it is less likely to expect a change

in boundaries, however entry and exit of members is possible. Our model is not equipped to directly deal with such events. Nonetheless, it provides us with some partial insights that we discuss here.

Any change in the shape, size or number of electoral constituencies is likely to affect in unpredictable ways 3 elements of our model: ω_k , Δ_k and ϕ''_γ . The weight of each constituency within the federal government (ω_k) is bound to change for each member of the government, every time that a change of districts occurs: we cannot say if it diminishes or increases for a given district, nor we have reason to think that the change will be similar across districts in sign or magnitude. The extensive margin of the federal policy (Δ_k) may also move in any possible direction: in the presence of spillovers across jurisdictions, the entry of a new player or the change in the internal boundaries may increase or decrease those spillovers. Finally, the curvature (ϕ''_γ) of the federal problem (Eq. 6) is the weighted average of the curvature of $g(\cdot)$ for each jurisdiction, hence any new region or a change in the existing ones would change ϕ''_γ .

Summing up, any change in jurisdictions has unpredictable consequences on the value of ω_k , Δ_k and ϕ''_γ . Yet, we can learn something by looking at the consequences of a change in those parameters, even if we cannot specify how events trigger the change.

Suppose that ω_k increases for one region. From Eqs. (12), (13) and (15) we immediately conclude that the direct effect of it is an increase in the mark-up (distortion of the type of the representative). Furthermore, local provision of goods (G_k^ℓ) increases if and only if local and federal provision are complements ($g''_{\ell f} > 0$).³² To understand the effect on G_k^ℓ , notice that an increase in ω_k reinforces the channels of the model, increasing the incentive to distort local provision (upward when goods are complement and downward when they are substitute).³³

Suppose, instead, that a change in jurisdictions affects Δ_k . Lemma 4 reveals how the equilibrium intensity of the federal policy γ changes with Δ_k .

Lemma 4. *The intensive margin γ is increasing in Δ_k if and only if relative risk aversion of $g(\cdot)$ is less than 1: $-\frac{\gamma \Delta_k g''_{ff}}{g'_f} < 1$.*

Proof. See Appendix C. □

Hence, as long as relative risk aversion remains small enough, if entry/exit leads to an increase in Δ_k , then the intensity of the federal policy increases in equilibrium.

³²For the effect on G_k^ℓ , notice that an increase in the right hand side of Eq. (12) implies a decrease in consumption of the private good, which is achieved by increasing the income tax that finances the local good.

³³Mathematically, an increase in the right side of Eq. (12) calls for an increase in the left side, which is obtained by a decrease in consumption C_k and, hence, by an increase in the tax rate that finances the local public good.

Proposition 3 already unveiled the U-shaped relationship between Δ_k and the mark-up. One alternative way to understand its meaning is that, as long as relative risk aversion is less than unitary,³⁴ any exogenous event (say entry or exit of a region) increases the political distortion in all regions if it makes $|\Delta_k|$ increase, which corresponds to an increase of the extensive margin both for benefitting and harmed regions, i.e. an increase in both Δ^b and Δ^h . An example of a case in which $|\Delta_k|$ increases would be the entry of a new poor member that produces positive externalities to already benefitting regions (e.g. market expansion or cheap labour force) while it negatively affects already harmed regions (e.g. fiercer competition).

Notice also that a change in the number of jurisdiction $|R|$ is inevitably affecting the degree of concavity of the federal objective function, ϕ''_γ . Looking at Eq. (13), when the curvature of the function decreases the distortion of representatives increases in all jurisdictions, and vice-versa when the curvature increases.

Consequently, we can conclude that a change in the federal composition increases the degree of political distortion in all regions if and only if either a) it increases $|\Delta_k|$, with $g(\cdot)$ showing less than unitary relative risk aversion,³⁵ or b) it decreases ϕ''_γ .

Conditions a) and b) imply that all regions within the federation react in a similar way (in terms of strategic delegation) to a change in the number of districts. Indeed, our empirical analysis in Section 3.3.3 shows, indeed, that the enlargement of the European Union provoked a similar change in strategic delegation in all countries, suggesting that a) or b) hold.

The theoretical model remains agnostic on the sign of the change in Δ_k , ω_k or ϕ''_γ that a change in jurisdictions may trigger. As such, whether entry of new members increases or decreases polarisation remains a purely empirical question that we try to address in the empirical section. In the specific case of the European Union, the analysis in Section 3.3.3 suggests that the expansion toward the East of the Union in the early 2000's led to an increase in strategic delegation across all EU countries.

Now, politicians in power often have the authority to, quite arbitrarily, modify the geographical boundaries of jurisdictions. This is usually done in order to modify the composition of the electorate within a jurisdiction and, hence, enhance the chances of being re-elected. Such practice is known as gerrymandering. Common wisdom suggests that gerrymandering may increase polarisation because districts become safer and hence there is less need to at-

³⁴We focus, in our main discussion, on the case of small Relative Risk Aversion, which is in line with our empirical results. Should relative risk aversion be more than unitary, any exogenous event (say entry or exit of a region) increases the political distortion in all regions if it makes Δ_k decrease, which corresponds to an increase of the extensive margin both for benefitting and harmed regions, i.e. a decrease in both Δ^b and $-\Delta^h$. As an example, think of a policy consisting in some financial redistribution. The entry of a new poor region may imply simultaneously an increase in the contribution of rich regions (decrease in $-\Delta^h$) and a decrease in the benefit of the other poor regions (decrease in Δ^b).

³⁵The corresponding condition, under more-than-unitary relative risk aversion would be that it decreases Δ_k .

tract the moderate voters. By realigning the electoral base, gerrymandering may affect the identity of the median voter who, in turn, is the ultimate cause of the undesired distortions.³⁶ This leads us to conclude that, should indeed gerrymandering cause a change in the identity of the median voter, who becomes more extreme, then the effects highlighted in our model may be amplified. At the same time, a benevolent legislator may also use gerrymandering to instead reduce the distortion produced by strategic delegation. Either way, should one be willing to estimate the costs and benefits of gerrymandering, we claim that our channel, that operates through strategic delegation, should not be ignored.

2.2 Extensions

The R-1 coalition We extend here the analysis by considering the case in which region q is excluded from the coalition: $K = R \setminus \{q\}$. We abstract here from the discussion or formal analysis of why a given coalition forms: we come back to this point in Appendices A and B, where we test the robustness of our model against that. We assume that $|R^b| > 1$ and $|R^h| > 1$, which guarantees that the coalition is never formed by only regions of one type.

The maximisation problem of the federal government looks the same as with the grand coalition (Eq. 6), the only difference being that set K doesn't include $\{q\}$ any longer. Hence, denoting the first derivative by ϕ'_γ , we can immediately compare the first order condition and, hence, the equilibrium value for γ under the two scenarios.

Proposition 4 (Coalition size). *The equilibrium value under the grand coalition setting (γ) is larger than when the R-1 coalition forms ($\underline{\gamma}$), if and only if the excluded region benefits from the federal policy ($\Delta_q > 0$).*

Corollary 3. *Whenever a region is excluded from the coalition, the marginal return from distorting local policies (t_k and $\hat{\theta}_k$) increases. Indeed, taking the absolute values $\left| \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} \right|$ and $\left| \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} \right|$, their magnitude increases when a region leaves the coalition.*

Proof. See Appendix C. □

Fig. 2 depicts the result of Proposition 4. On the horizontal axis we have the sum of the marginal benefits from γ of all the regions other than q . On the vertical axis we find the extensive margin of region q . The red line that cuts quadrants 2 and 4 corresponds to the welfare maximising federal policy. Along the red line, moving top-left corresponds to larger values of γ^* . The point at the crossing of axis, of coordinates (0,0), corresponds to the equilibrium level of γ when region q is excluded from the coalition. It follows immediately

³⁶The empirical tests in McCarty et al. (2009) suggest that the impact of gerrymandering on the identity of the decisive voter are quite small. Krasa and Polborn (2018) suggests that results in McCarty et al. (2009) may be downward biased and that the effect may be larger.

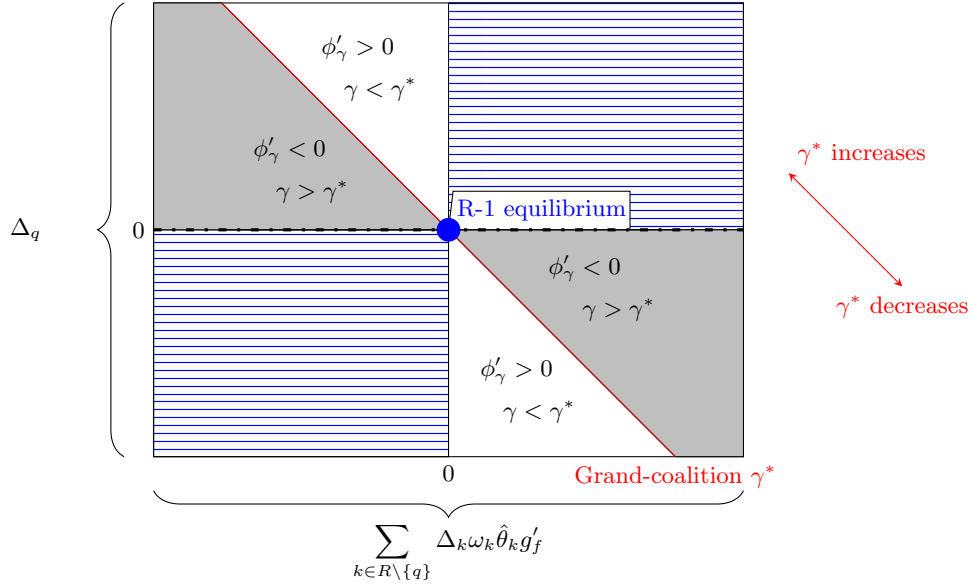


Figure 2: Intensive margin with grand coalition and with R-1 coalition

that γ^* is larger when q belongs to the coalition if and only if $\Delta_q > 0$. The white and grey areas coincide with off-equilibrium values of γ . Proposition 4 focuses on the choice γ of the federal government when region q is excluded from the coalition. The federal decision is taken by representatives with opposing interests, yet decisions are taken in a cooperative way. Not surprisingly, when one region is excluded from the negotiation process, the bargaining position of one side is weakened. In particular, when the excluded region benefits from the federal policy, its exclusion leads to a decrease in federal intervention. On the opposite, when the excluded region is harmed by the policy, not being sitting at the negotiation table implies that the implemented policy will expand.

With $R-1$ regions in the coalition, the interest of region q is represented within the federal government by other regions that share the same view, but their weight in the final decision is diminished: the externality that the policy produces on region q is no longer internalised in the federal choice. This leads to the result behind Proposition 4.

Corollary 3 shows that once a region leaves the coalition, the remaining regions have an increased incentive to distort, however, the change in incentives affects all regions equally. This is why, when looking at Eq. (15), the relative mark-up when comparing two regions is not changing as a consequence of q being left out of the coalition.

When looking at local elections, it is immediate to notice that voting in the excluded region q corresponds to the case of no federal government (which, as previously discussed, corresponds to the myopic case). Hence $c'(C_q) - \theta_q^m g'_\ell = 0$ and $\hat{\theta}_q = \theta_q^m$.

Strategic Behaviour and Beliefs Our main framework assumes that elected delegates have a certain say in federal negotiations, and that agents are fully rational, in the sense that they perfectly understand the institutional setting and act strategically, thus taking advantage of the system as much as possible. In Appendix A we relax both assumptions and assume that agents assign a region-specific probability p_k to the fact that their elected politician will be able to impact federal policy-making, and thus the federal policy intensity γ as previously described. With probability $1 - p_k$, instead, they will not influence the federal government's decisions at all and the federal policy will be exogenously set at $\hat{\gamma}$.

There can be several ways to rationalise such beliefs. Amongst others, voters may believe that $1 - p_k$ is the probability that a coalition forms, but with their own representative kept out of the formation process.³⁷

In Appendix A we show that this has no qualitative impact on results. However, if agents believe that their choice does not always have an impact, their expected benefit from manipulating their behaviour is reduced and, following Lemma 5, they distort t_k and $\hat{\theta}_k$ less.

Coalition formation In Appendix B we add more structure and study the coalition-formation process. This makes the model more realistic and smoothly links our grand-coalition and R-1 coalition setting with the extension on beliefs (Appendix A).

Indeed, the endogenous coalition formation setup boils down to a set of probabilities of being part of the coalition, which only partially reduces the incentive to distort.

From this extension, we better understand four aspects of the model:

1. contrary to other types of models, regions here have no incentive to undercut each other.
2. the marginal benefit of distorting is increasing in the size of the coalition. Hence, the larger the coalition, the more pronounced the distortion in equilibrium;
3. mixed strategy cannot be optimal. This is because the level of distortion is inversely related to the probability of belonging to the coalition;

The first outcome depends on the fact that regions are only interested in having someone that safeguards their interest, hence they care about the value of γ , but they do not care about being part of the coalition per se. Therefore, there is no race to the bottom in this context.

The second outcome suggests that qualified majorities or an increase of the number of jurisdictions may lead to an increase in the level of distortion.

³⁷We work out this micro-foundation of beliefs in Appendix B.

3 Empirical Analysis: European vs National Elections

In this section, we provide evidence on some of our key predictions. When elections are organised at multiple levels, the model shows that citizens select candidates for the upper level with more extremely protective preferences than their own. Conversely, we do not expect such distortion to characterise elections at lower levels of jurisdiction, in which case citizens will vote more sincerely. Importantly, the strategic effect occurs both in winning and losing districts, but not in those where benefits and costs of the upper-jurisdiction policies are of similar magnitude. Finally, the model predicts such distortion to be non-linear (U-shaped).

3.1 Hypothesis

We assess these predictions focusing on elections in the European Union (EU). This is an ideal setting for our model as: i) the EU is the world’s largest supra-national federation, enveloping the policies of 27 different countries with respect to justice, home affairs, trade, agriculture and regional development and ii) EU citizens are called to elect national as well as European delegates, where the former correspond to regional politicians while the latter match federal politicians in our model. As a proxy for the extremely protective political type in the model, we consider the performances of Eurosceptic as compared to non-Eurosceptic parties. Specifically, following Proposition 1, our main hypothesis is that voters anticipate the bargaining over EU policy-making taking place in Brussels and, consequently, favour Eurosceptic parties relatively more at the European (federal) than they do at the national (regional) level.

Our use of the Eurosceptic classification as a measure of extremely protective political parties is rooted in the notion of ‘economic nationalism’, described by Colantone and Stanig (2019) as on the rise in Europe. As a policy platform, economic nationalism bundles isolationist and nationalist narratives, where the former consists of mainly protectionist positions and the latter is centred on the goal of ‘taking back control’ of the country in question. This platform then aligns perfectly with the extremely protective type described in our model and matches it to the Eurosceptic proxy we use. Indeed, our Eurosceptic classification stems from an appeal to national sovereignty and critique of EU institutions and can be linked to nationalism and protectionism.³⁸

The European setting thus forms a welcome testing ground for our predictions. As discussed in Section 1, previous studies have focused on differences in party performances between national and supranational elections. The most established approach is based on the idea that European elections are of ‘second-order’ importance, hence citizens cast their vote based on

³⁸Differently from Colantone and Stanig (2019), our definition does not include economic conservative parties, as this dimension is not part of the model.

domestic preferences. Its tenets are: i) turnout is lower in European than in national elections; ii) citizens prefer smaller parties at the European level, and iii) they tend to penalise parties which are part of their respective national government. This leads to a general punishment of the governing parties, especially when the European elections take place during the mid-term of the national election cycle. In the empirical analysis, we include covariates to exclude the possibility that our findings might be driven by this ‘second-order’ theory.

A peculiarity of the EU setting is the presence of Eurosceptic parties, which in some cases are openly advocating the dissolution of the EU. Therefore, voting for Eurosceptic parties might be considered as casting a preference for politicians who aim to undermine the European integration project as a whole, rather than bringing about more favourable conditions for their constituencies – which is our interpretation here. However, those are opposite sides of the same coin, if we consider that the most extreme parties are pursuing a hard (and potentially fatal for the union) bargaining strategy precisely to obtain more favourable conditions for their countries. Indeed, many analysts argue that most Eurosceptics are not out to destroy EU institutions and funding mechanisms, but rather want to turn these to their advantage (Vasilopoulou, 2013).³⁹

3.2 Data

First, we built a data set including the vote share of all parties at national and European elections, for parties running at least at one national and one European election.⁴⁰ The data are based on the ‘Election and Referendum Database’, which provides election results for European countries, starting from 1990. Second, parties were classified as either Eurosceptic or not-Eurosceptic based following Algan et al. (2017) that, in turn, is based on the Chapel Hill Expert Survey (CHES), an established source estimating party positioning on European integration and ideology.⁴¹ Algan et al. (2017) extends CHES including some brand-new and small parties. In our dataset, parties classified as Eurosceptic following Algan et al. (2017) show a 60% correlation with parties marked as ‘populist’, further validating our choice of proxy as the populist classification is based on CHES’ protectionist and nationalist categories.

While elections for the EU parliament take place every 5 years, national elections have an heterogeneous schedule across EU countries: most of the time European and national elections take place in different years. Therefore, we consider 5-year time windows for each political party and calculate the difference between a party vote share at the European and

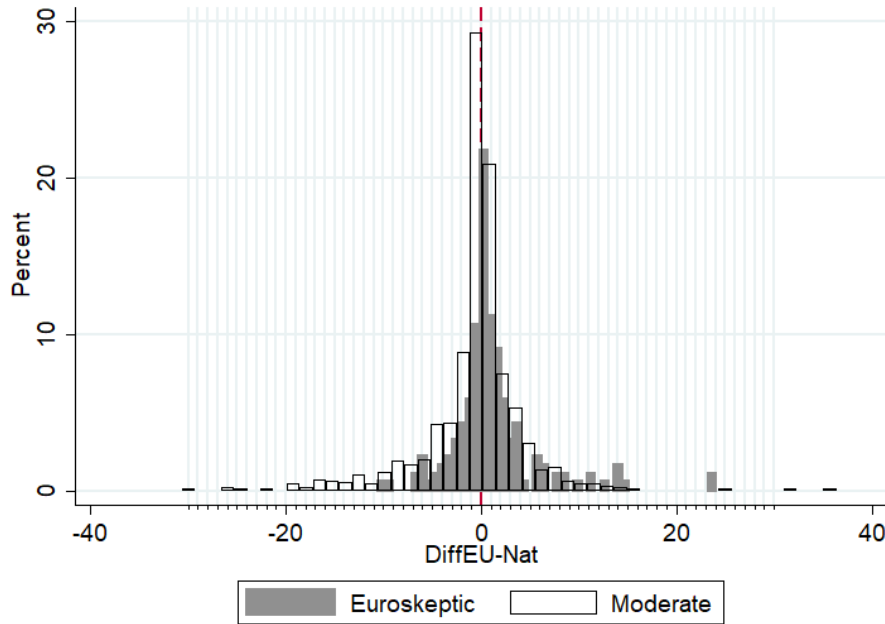
³⁹The UK clearly represents an exception to this reasoning. Interestingly, after the Brexit referendum, continental Eurosceptic parties have generally shifted their position away from advocating the dissolution of the EU.

⁴⁰A clear limitation of this approach is that we cannot detect parties’ performances when they enter a coalition, as we only observe the overall coalition votes share. This leads to an overall smaller sample size.

⁴¹www.chesdata.eu/

at the national elections within each window ($DiffEU-Nat$). Positive (/negative) values imply that a party gets higher vote shares at the European (/national) elections. If more than one national election took place within a same window, we consider the party's average vote share. Within a window, should a party run for one type of election (national or European) but not the other, we would have a missing observation. In our main analysis, the first 5-year windows ends in 1994, corresponding with the first European election in our data set. Therefore, the periods are 1990-94; 1995-99; 2000-04; 2005-09; 2010-14. Different time windows do not affect our findings: in Appendix D, Table 8 replicates our main findings considering a different 5-year window, centred at the EU elections (1992-96; 1997-01; 2002-06; 2007-11; 2012-16), while Table 9 considers a 10-year time window. Our results are very similar, we prefer the 5-year window as this maximises the number of observations in our sample.

Figure 3: Differences in Voting between EU and National Elections across Eurosceptic and not-Eurosceptic Parties



The figure shows the distributions of votes for parties participating in European and National elections in the period 1990-2013, differentiating between Eurosceptic and non-Eurosceptic Parties.

Fig. 3 reports the distribution of our dependent variable ($DiffEU-Nat$). The figure highlights a different distribution for parties considered as Eurosceptic, which generally obtain a higher vote share in European than in national elections.⁴² To validate this descriptive evidence, we estimate the following OLS model:

$$DiffEU - Nat_{jit} = \delta_i + \lambda_t + \beta_1 \text{Eurosceptic}_{ji} + \gamma \mathbf{X}_{jit} + \epsilon_{jit} \quad (16)$$

⁴²Fig. 7 in the appendix highlights a very similar pattern when considering a 10-year time window.

in which the dependent variable is the above-mentioned variable $DiffEU - Nat_{jit}$, i.e. the difference between a party vote share at the European and at the national elections within a 5-year period. j refers to a party, i refers to a country and t refers to a 5-year period. The main explanatory variable is $Eurosceptic_{ji}$, a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties, based on Algan et al. (2017). To control for differences across countries and common time trends, we include (5-year) time-windows (λ_t) and country fixed effects (δ_i). In some specifications, we include time-country fixed effects to control for all potential country level time-varying changes. X_{jit} includes a set of control variables, which we explain in the next paragraph.

The ‘second-order’ conjecture might affect these estimates in several ways, as explained above. First, Eurosceptic parties are often small ones: if small parties are more likely to be voted for at the European level, we might just be capturing this effect. Therefore, we include a variable measuring the average vote share of a party in both national and EU elections during the previous 5-year time window. Note that this might be an endogenous control variable since, according to our model, small Eurosceptic parties are rewarded in European elections in the first place. Second, Eurosceptic parties might be systematically punished (/rewarded) if they are part of the incumbent (/opposition) coalition. To reduce this concern, we include a dummy set equal to 1 for the most voted for party in each country-time window period. Third, lower turnout at the European elections might differently affect Eurosceptic parties. In turn, we control for turnout differences between national and European elections.⁴³

Another potential source of bias is related and inherent to differences in electoral systems across levels of government. Some countries, holding national elections under a majoritarian system and European elections under a proportional system, might differentially reward small and/or Eurosceptic parties across the two types of elections.⁴⁴ We tackle this issue in two alternative ways: i) we compute an index of disproportionality of the electoral system and use it as a control in our estimation;⁴⁵ ii) Table 2 reports our findings dropping countries with a mixed or a majoritarian system at the national elections.

⁴³Those data are collected from the Chapel Hill Expert Survey.

⁴⁴Conversely, all EU countries, in the period of interest, held European elections under some form of proportional representation.

⁴⁵The index is a “contest success function”, already defined by Theil (1969), and used in (Taagepera, 1973; Piolatto, 2011; Morelli et al., 2016; Matakos et al., 2016; Bol et al., 2019), it is also known as “cube rule” for the main parameter should take value 3 in two-party First Past The Post systems. It would take value 0 if an electoral system assigned seats equally to all parties, regardless of the share of votes. It reaches value one for proportional systems. Values above one represent systems, such as First Past The Post, where larger parties obtain a share of seats that is larger than the proportion of collected votes. The larger the value of the parameter, the larger the premium for large parties.

3.3 Results

We report our main findings in Table 1 and Table 2, in Columns 1 to 4, in which we gradually include our set of controls. In Columns 5 to 8 we report a heterogeneity analysis, which we discuss in Section 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Baseline Results

Table 1: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.869*** (0.562) | 1.892*** (0.557) | 2.017*** (0.617) | 1.781*** (0.610) | 2.242** (0.861) | 2.274** (0.854) | 2.644*** (0.908) | 2.144** (0.810) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | 0.607 (0.465) | 0.582 (0.476) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | -0.0920 (0.485) | -0.0533 (0.486) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -2.466** (0.973) | -2.478** (0.972) | -2.887*** (1.038) | -2.450** (1.089) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 1.096 (1.159) | 1.070 (1.157) | 0.653 (1.340) | 1.285 (1.420) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.0129 (0.00969) | -0.0120 (0.00980) | 0.00846 (0.0135) | | -0.0136 (0.0101) | -0.0121 (0.0101) | 0.00895 (0.0136) | |
| Proportional Voting | 0.441 (0.964) | 0.494 (0.944) | | | 0.409 (1.042) | 0.478 (1.019) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0911** (0.0355) | | | | -0.0925** (0.0350) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.635 (1.180) | | | | -0.582 (1.169) |
| Observations | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,140 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,140 |
| R-squared | 0.019 | 0.022 | 0.042 | 0.128 | 0.028 | 0.032 | 0.051 | 0.137 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time FE | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* splits countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Across the board, our results in Table 1 strongly suggest that Eurosceptic parties are more likely to be elected to the European parliament than to its national counterpart, as predicted by Proposition 2. This effect is sizeable (up to 2 ppt., i.e. 40% of the standard deviation) and statistically significant across all models. In the Appendix, Table 7 considers a winsorised version at 99% of the dependent variable, while we test the same specification using alternative time windows in Tables 8 and 9. In all cases our results are confirmed.

Party Size appears to be statistically significant: smaller parties are more likely to perform

Table 2: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections - without Majoritarian/Mixed Systems

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.668*** (0.534) | 1.685*** (0.530) | 1.637*** (0.557) | 1.441** (0.581) | 2.665*** (0.844) | 2.676*** (0.850) | 2.962*** (0.928) | 2.535** (0.924) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | 0.884* (0.438) | 0.800* (0.449) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | 0.267 (0.476) | 0.236 (0.485) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -2.890*** (0.964) | -2.877*** (0.975) | -3.192*** (1.050) | -2.840** (1.172) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 0.174 (1.057) | 0.171 (1.076) | -0.562 (1.181) | -0.196 (1.174) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.0132 (0.00925) | -0.0154 (0.00909) | 0.000119 (0.0227) | | -0.0138 (0.00905) | -0.0151 (0.00929) | 0.000526 (0.0228) | |
| Proportional Voting | -0.135 (0.978) | -0.199 (0.945) | | | 0.0866 (0.902) | 0.0123 (0.881) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0840*** (0.0295) | | | | -0.0860*** (0.0291) |
| Incumbent | | | | -1.399 (1.331) | | | | -1.270 (1.329) |
| Observations | 825 | 825 | 833 | 835 | 825 | 825 | 833 | 835 |
| R-squared | 0.016 | 0.021 | 0.043 | 0.149 | 0.029 | 0.033 | 0.054 | 0.158 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time FE | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of disproportionality of the electoral system; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* split countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

better at EU elections. Although this is in line with the ‘second-order’ theory, our results are not driven by it. Indeed, the other control variables do not play an important role: the *Incumbent* coefficient is never significant, which suggests that protest voting against the incumbent is not an alternative channel for our findings. Differences in turnout (*Diff Turnout*) also do not seem to matter much.⁴⁶ Of course, this does not mean our mechanism cannot co-exist with other explanations. Rather, and given our controls, we can conclude that our mechanism persists even after filtering out potential ‘second order’ channels.

Next, different electoral systems do not seem to affect our proposed mechanism either. This downplays the importance of yet another source of bias: the fact that citizens may be more likely to vote strategically at the national level in majoritarian voting system, hence favouring moderate and/or pro-Europe parties, whilst expressing their ideological preferences

⁴⁶Note the *Proportional Voting* coefficient is not estimated when introducing country fixed effects. Similarly, the *Diff Turnout* coefficient cannot be estimated when introducing Country-Time fixed effects.

at the European elections which are proportional. In Table 1 we control for the ‘proportional voting’ index (described in Footnote 45) which is never statistically significant. In Table 2 we test the robustness of our findings dropping from our sample countries holding a mixed or a majoritarian electoral system at the national level. This classification is based on the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (International IDEA). At the European level, all countries use a proportional system with national specificities.

Lastly, our approach highlights that a Eurosceptic party profile is a salient dimension to determine differential strategic voting at the EU level. An alternative approach could be to consider the traditional ideological dimension, comparing moderate and extreme right/left parties, as a proxy for strategic voting. However, our intuition is that the extreme protection of national interests in the current European political scenario can be best captured by the fracture between Eurosceptic and Pro-European parties. To validate this reasoning, we replicate our findings (Columns 1 to 4) in Table 10 (Appendix D), controlling for whether a party is classified as extreme on the ideological spectrum (note that only 50% of Eurosceptic parties are classified as extreme ones). While our findings are unaffected by this control, the extreme dummy is never statistically significant.

3.3.2 Heterogeneous Effects

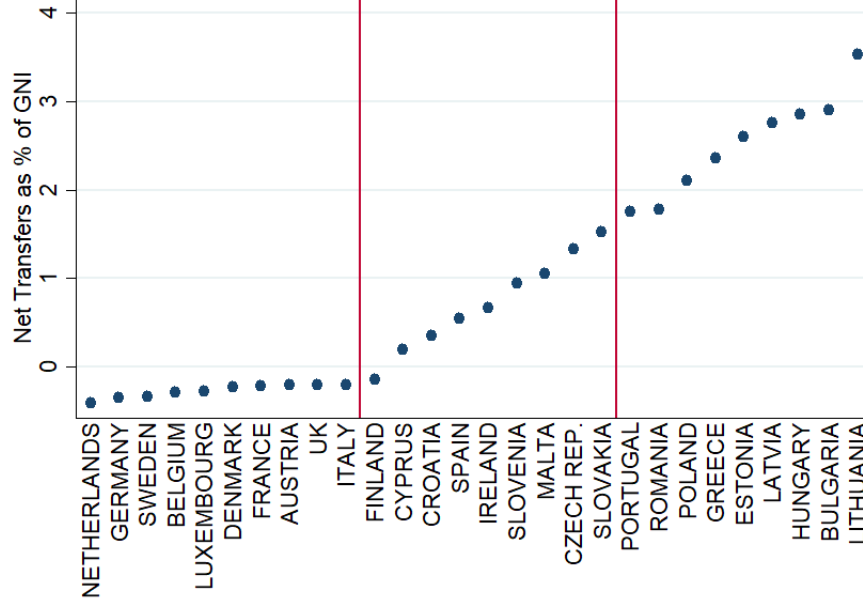
Similarly to our model in which there are winning and losing jurisdictions, EU countries can be classified into winners, losers and neutral in terms of EU status. An objective way to approximate this is to use the net-contributions of each member state to the overall EU budget.

The EU budget, which in 2015 was 145 billion Euros, represents a crucial source of financing for the poorest EU members, as well as for firms in several economic sectors (e.g. energy and agriculture) across all EU countries. Some countries – such as Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden – are net contributors to the EU budget, others are net receiving members and others contribute as much as they receive. For instance, in the period 2000-2015, the net transfers received from the EU represented 3,53% of the GNI for Lithuania, 2,9% for Bulgaria and 2,11% for Poland.⁴⁷ Conversely, based on this measure, the Netherlands was the main EU net contributor (-0.41% of GNI). Fig. 4 shows net-transfers from the EU as a share of GNI for each EU member.

Following the model, we expect support for Eurosceptic parties to be differentially stronger at the European elections (compared to national elections) both in net contributing member states and also in net receiving ones. Such effect should vanish, according to Proposition 2,

⁴⁷These data are available on the website of the European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/budget/financialreport/2015/revenue/index_en.html

Figure 4: Net Transfers *from* the EU as % of GNI (2000-2015)



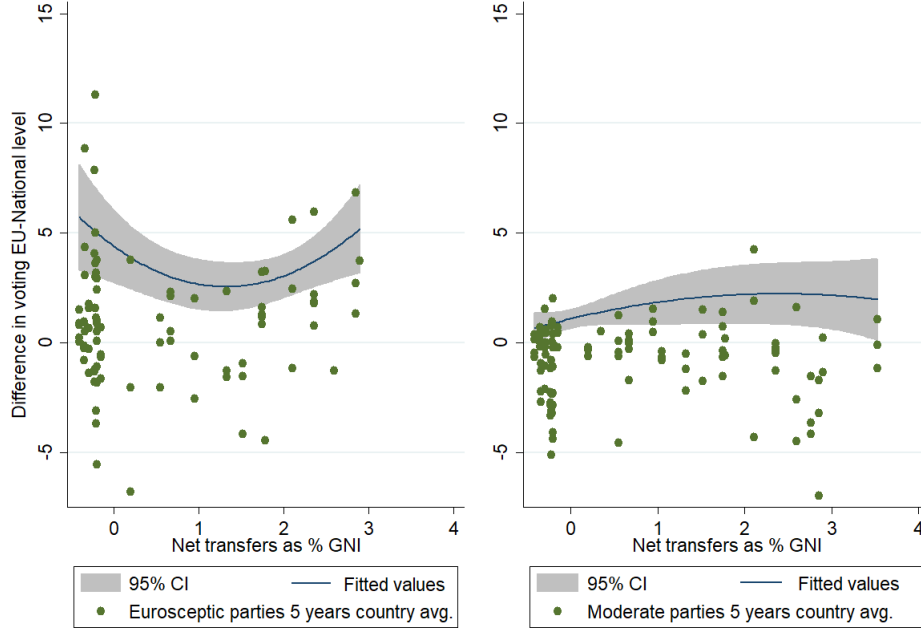
The figure shows the net transfers received from the EU budget as % of GNI in the period 2000-2015 for each EU country: the two red lines split countries in three tertiles.

in countries contributing about as much as they receive. Proposition 3 predicts that the distortion should be U-shaped in the benefit.

As a first graphical evidence, we plot our data differentiating between Eurosceptic and moderate parties. Specifically, in Fig. 5, on the vertical axis, we plot the country level 5-year average of the dependent variable ($DiffEU-Nat$) for the two groups of parties: on the left (right) side Eurosceptic (Moderate) parties. On the horizontal axis, we plot the net transfers as % of GNI similarly to Fig. 4. As in Table 7, we use a winsorised version of the dependent variable to exclude outliers. The figure quite clearly shows the U-shaped pattern for the Eurosceptic plot (the quadratic term is statistically significant, p -value=0.002), whereas no clear trend is visible on the right side for moderate parties.

To formally test the predictions of Propositions 2 and 3 we consider the share of EU net contributions as a percentage of the gross national income (GNI) in the period 2000-2015. We then split countries in three groups, as depicted in Fig. 4, in which the top 33% includes the most generous net-contributors, such as the Netherlands, Germany and Sweden, and the bottom 33% the largest net receivers. We expect a stronger effect both in the 1st tertile (net-contributors) and in the 3rd tertile (net-receivers), while strategic Eurosceptic voting should matter less in the 2nd tertile, which includes countries for which contributions-to and

Figure 5: Scatter plot by type of party



On the vertical axis, we plot the country-level 5-year average of the dependent variable ($DiffEU-Nat$) for Euroseptic(moderate) parties on left(right) side. Moderate includes all parties not classified as Euroseptic. On the horizontal axis, the figure shows the net transfers as % of GNI similarly to Figure Fig. 4.

transfers-from the EU are quite balanced.

In Columns 5 to 8 of Table 1, we interact the *Euroseptic* dummy with the categorical variable *tertile*. The coefficient *Euroseptic* represents the effect of the omitted base category, i.e. the 1st tertile (top 33% net contributor countries). Results confirm our predictions. The effect materialises both in the 1st and 3rd tertile (lines 1 and 7), while there is no such effect for Euroseptic parties in the 2nd tertile (line 6): these countries represent an ideal control group, as they receive more or less as much from the EU budget as they contribute to it. Specifically, our baseline variable *Euroseptic* suggests that belonging to the 1st tertile explains a better performance of Euroseptic parties at European elections (as opposed to national ones) by more than 2ppt, and such increase is significant. The 3rd tertile is not statistically different from the 1st one, hence, also for net-receiving countries the performance of Euroseptic parties is statistically superior at the EU level than at the national one. Conversely, this effect disappears when focusing on the 2nd tertile. A similar pattern emerges in our robustness Tables 2 and 10 (again Columns 5 to 8).⁴⁸

⁴⁸Note that in Table 2 this test is highly demanding as four out of six countries holding (at least for some years) a mixed or majoritarian system are in the first tertile, i.e. France, Germany, Italy and United Kingdom. The other two are Hungary and Lithuania.

3.3.3 A Bigger Federation

EU integration was a staggered process which started out from a small set of just six countries, to end up about 60 years later as a union of 27 member states. This evolution can be interpreted in the light of Section 2.1.3, where we discuss the possible effects of entry, exit and gerrymandering of voting districts, and Appendix A, where we investigate the potential role of beliefs over political effectiveness.

More specifically, in Section 2.1.3 we show that a change in the extensive margin of the federal policy (Δ_k) or the concavity of the objective function of the federal government (ϕ''_γ) would affect the degree of strategic delegation in equilibrium. Furthermore, we discuss how those two elements of the model are likely to change when voting districts change (gerrymandering) or some regions enter or exit the federation.

Appendix A, instead, looks at the change in voters' behaviour depending on the beliefs about how relevant a district is in shaping the federal policy. This depends on (the beliefs about) the political weight of their region within the federal coalition and the probability of belonging to the ruling coalition (for that, look also at Appendix B). Clearly, both these elements may depend on the number of districts in the federation.

The model is able to track the consequences of a change in its primitives but it remains agnostic on how the entry of new members affects such primitives. Plausible stories could suggest movements in either direction and the definitive direction of the change is ultimately an empirical question that, in this section, we try to answer.

Applied to our setting of EU enlargement, entry of new members could lead to a dilution of power, benefits and costs, therefore to less incentives to distort and a decrease in strategic delegation. However, it could also be that EU political processes are perceived as potentially stacked in favour of the initial member states, as they enjoyed quite some leverage when the initial rules were set. Besides, older members may have some influence on the politics of new members, in which case the perceived probability for these representatives to steer EU decisions could come out reinforced post-expansion. Importantly, the expansion towards the East implies a more powerful union, the internalisation of externalities and, more generally, a (more than proportionally) larger pie to share. All of this would explain an increase in benefits and costs related to the union and, hence, a stronger justification for strategic delegation.

Here, we consider the 2004 discontinuity when the EU moved from 15 to 25 (and then 27 in 2007) countries: the biggest expansion in European history, which, indeed, took place in the middle of our sample period. Then, we look at whether our main results change before/after 2004.⁴⁹ We report this test in Table 3. We code a dummy equals 1 after 2004

⁴⁹For consistency, and because our analysis uses longitudinal data, we run this test using the same whole set of countries that we use in the main analysis. Results are qualitatively the same if we restrict the study to

(*Post 2004*). To facilitate the visualisation of the table, in this case, we focus on a dummy representing countries in the first and third tertile together ($1^{st}-3^{rd}$ tertiles), instead of two different dummies. Therefore the base category is represented by countries in the second tertile. We then create the triple interaction $Eurosceptic*1^{st}-3^{rd}tertiles*Post\ 2004$, to look at whether our effects change before/after 2004. Indeed, the positive sign of $Eurosceptic*1^{st}-3^{rd}tertiles*Post\ 2004$ suggests that our effects are mostly driven by countries in the first/third tertile in the period following the EU enlargement. Nevertheless, we find a positive effect also in the period before the enlargement, as shown by $Eurosceptic*1^{st}-3^{rd}tertiles$. Those results provide support for the idea that voters support even more Eurosceptic representatives after a federal expansion, reacting to an increased distance between local and federal preferences.⁵⁰

Table 3: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections: Effects Over Time

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.203*** (0.401) | 1.228*** (0.399) | 1.426*** (0.435) | 0.904** (0.442) | 1.466*** (0.463) | 1.489*** (0.464) | 1.755*** (0.514) | 1.231** (0.523) |
| Post 2004 | -0.147 (0.331) | | | | -0.264 (0.389) | | | |
| Eurosceptic*Post 2004 | 0.917 (0.623) | 0.914 (0.620) | 0.794 (0.653) | 1.222* (0.697) | 1.609** (0.761) | 1.606** (0.760) | 1.520* (0.804) | 1.893** (0.864) |
| $1^{st}-3^{rd}$ tertiles | | | | | -0.556 (0.472) | -0.533 (0.474) | | |
| $1^{st}-3^{rd}$ tertiles*Post 2004 | | | | | -0.206 (0.655) | -0.182 (0.659) | 0.0997 (0.813) | |
| $1^{st}-3^{rd}$ tertiles*Eurosceptic | | | | | 1.325 (0.871) | 1.317 (0.848) | 1.516* (0.875) | 1.544* (0.925) |
| Eurosceptic* $1^{st}-3^{rd}$ tertiles*Post 2004 | | | | | 2.079* (1.220) | 2.088* (1.209) | 2.151* (1.253) | 1.886 (1.341) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.0139 (0.0105) | -0.0131 (0.0106) | | | -0.0142 (0.0111) | -0.0132 (0.0112) | | |
| Cube Rule | 0.604 (0.958) | 0.648 (0.961) | | | 0.671 (0.955) | 0.725 (0.957) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0935*** (0.0282) | | | | -0.0939*** (0.0280) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.611 (1.027) | | | | -0.537 (1.027) |
| Observations | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,140 | 1,140 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,140 | 1,140 |
| R-squared | 0.020 | 0.023 | 0.041 | 0.129 | 0.030 | 0.033 | 0.052 | 0.138 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Cube Rule* is index of whether the electoral system is proportional/majoritarian; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. $1^{st}-3^{rd}$ tertiles considers countries in the first and third tertile based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the second tertile. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

the subset of countries that belonged to the union before 2004. Results are available upon request.

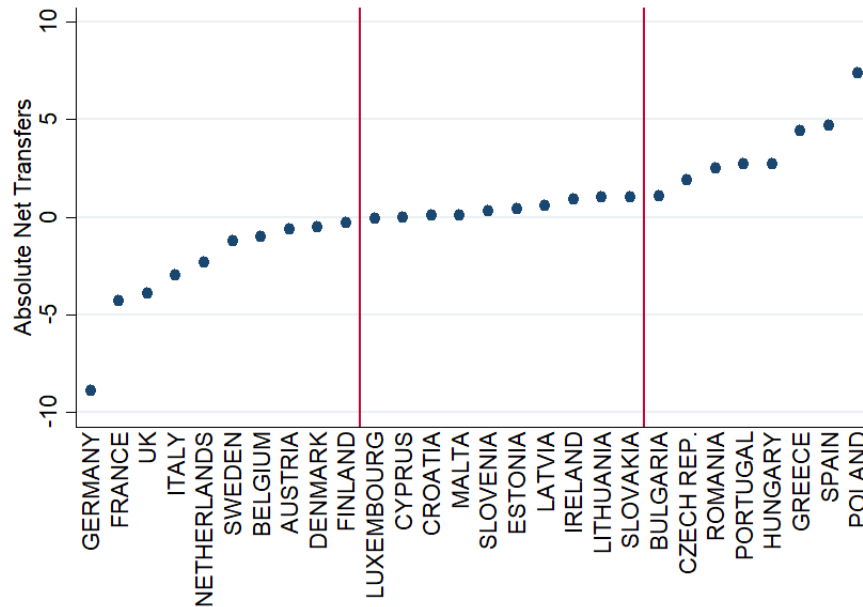
⁵⁰This finding holds also when considering tertiles based on absolute contributions to the EU (results available upon request).

3.3.4 Robustness tests

In this section, we briefly outline some robustness tests which validate our main findings.

First, in our main specification we group countries based on an objective measure: net transfers from the EU as a share of GNI. Table 4 proposes two alternatives to that: the first one relies on people’s perceptions, the other one is a different objective measure. In particular, in columns 1 to 4 we use the share of individuals agreeing with the statement “Taking everything in consideration, would you say your country has benefited from being a member of the European Union?”. The question was collected across EU countries (since 1983) by the Eurobarometer survey.⁵¹ We calculate the average response for each country over time. This classification allows a split in tertiles based on citizens’ perception of their country as benefitting from or being harmed by the EU project. In columns 5 to 8, we rely on an alternative objective economic measure: countries’ absolute average contribution in the period 2000-2015 (in this case, Germany is the top net-contributor with a yearly contribution of almost 9 billion Euros) depicted in Fig. 6.

Figure 6: Net Transfers *from* the EU in billion euros (2000-2015)



The figure shows the net transfers received from the EU budget in billion euros in the period 2000-2015 for each EU country: the two red lines split countries in three tertiles.

Table 11 (Appendix D) deals with a possible alternative explanation for our findings.

⁵¹www.gesis.org/eurobarometer-data-service/search-data-access/eb-trends-trend-files/list-of-trends/membership-benefit.

Table 4: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections: Benefit of EU membership (1-4) and Absolute Contributions (5-8)

| | Benefit EU | | | | Abs. Contributions | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|------------------------|
| Eurosceptic | 2.726*** (0.593) | 2.745*** (0.598) | 2.891*** (0.657) | 2.620*** (0.667) | 1.920*** (0.491) | 1.950*** (0.491) | 2.211*** (0.528) | 1.740*** (0.520) |
| 2 nd tertile | 0.726* (0.400) | 0.678* (0.399) | | | 0.240 (0.545) | 0.230 (0.554) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | 0.471 (0.491) | 0.449 (0.490) | | | -0.0226 (0.345) | -0.0359 (0.348) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | -2.219*** (0.795) | -2.225*** (0.798) | -2.299*** (0.841) | -2.128** (0.862) | -2.193** (0.893) | -2.199** (0.901) | -2.936*** (0.934) | -2.504** (1.004) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | -0.664 (0.973) | -0.648 (0.976) | -0.653 (1.043) | -0.667 (1.035) | 0.708 (0.846) | 0.683 (0.850) | 0.475 (0.895) | 1.122 (0.907) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.00999 (0.0110) | -0.00936 (0.0114) | 0.0145 (0.0109) | | -0.0114 (0.0102) | -0.0105 (0.0106) | 0.0139 (0.0111) | |
| Proportional Voting | 0.391 (1.085) | 0.481 (1.090) | | | 0.408 (0.991) | 0.465 (0.994) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0889*** (0.0282) | | | | -0.0940*** (0.0284) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.678 (1.025) | | | | -0.600 (1.031) |
| Observations | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,140 | 1,140 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,140 | 1,140 |
| R-squared | 0.025 | 0.028 | 0.046 | 0.132 | 0.023 | 0.026 | 0.047 | 0.134 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system;; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* split countries in three groups based on share of people agreeing their country has benefited of being a EU member (columns 1 to 4); their level of net EU transfers in absolute values (columns 5 to 8). The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Eurosceptic parties might be more successful at the EU elections simply because their manifesto is built around EU topics, which are naturally more salient right before EU elections. This might provide them with higher media exposure and in turn, more votes. However, this would also have to be true for strongly pro-EU political parties. Therefore, to reduce concerns related to this reasoning, in Table 11 we restrict the sample to these two groups of parties (pro-EU and Eurosceptic ones). Similarly to our main definition of Eurosceptic parties, we classify pro-EU parties using the Chapel Hill Expert Survey.⁵² Our main findings are confirmed also in this case, although the estimated coefficients are considerably more noisy: this is not surprising considering that we are dropping the majority of the observations.

In Section 3.3.3, we investigate whether both our baseline and heterogeneity results depend

⁵²Specifically, to classify pro-EU parties, we consider the question: ‘Overall orientation of the party leadership towards European integration’ (whose replies go from 1 – Strongly opposed – to 7 – strongly in favour –). We classify as pro-EU, parties scoring 6 or 7. The question is available in the period 1999–2014.

on the size of the federation, focusing on the EU enlargement in 2004. Our results hold, and are even stronger in the period post-enlargement. Linking these results back to our previous discussion about entry, exit and gerrymandering, we also offer some explanations for this trend.

Finally, in Figs. 8 and 9 (Appendix D) we validate an important assumption of our analysis, i.e. that a country position in a certain tertile is rather stable over time, as it reflects underlying spatial heterogeneity. First, for each 5-year period, we split countries into tertiles depending on their net-transfers to the EU (in the period 2000-2015) or the perceived benefits from being into the EU (in the period 1983-2011). Then, we calculate each country's average position across tertiles in the entire period (blue dots) and the standard deviation (red dots). Both figures report very low values of the standard deviations, in absolute as well as relative terms compared to the mean, which highlights countries' stickiness to a specific tertile across time. Specifically, in the case of Fig. 8, several countries are placed in all 5-year periods within the same tertile, while some others change tertile at most once. In the case of Fig. 9, most countries are always placed in the same tertile or they switch tertile at most once. Only three countries change tertile twice (i.e. Denmark, Greece and Spain).⁵³

4 Survey Evidence: Strategic Eurosceptic Voting

In the previous section, we show that Europeans tend to vote more for Eurosceptic parties at the European level than at the national level, especially when they live in net receiving or contributing countries. Our key prediction is that this pattern is due to strategic considerations, with rational voters trying to steer federal/EU negotiations in their national favour. Testing this prediction, we used Eurosceptic parties as a proxy for parties that are extremely protective of national interests in federal negotiations.

To further validate this prediction we ran an online survey in cooperation with Qualtrics XM. Our aim was to fully understand the reasons why some individuals would vote differently depending on the level of government, and whether these reasons were strategic in nature. More precisely, we queried why respondents voted for a Eurosceptic party during the last EU parliamentary elections (26th May 2019) and for a moderate party in the most recent national/subnational elections. We could not rely on existing surveys for this since, to the best of our knowledge, there is no survey including both: i) respondents' voting behaviour in national and European elections; ii) and data on voter intentions or motives when voting for specific parties.

Our final sample includes 341 such respondents: 51 from Finland, 209 from France and

⁵³Greece and Spain tertile change takes place during the 2008 economic crisis, due to a decline in the perceived benefit of being in the EU.

81 from the Italian region of Piedmont.⁵⁴ The choice of areas where to run the survey was made taking into account the time lag between European and national/subnational elections. While the election of the European Parliament took place on 26th May 2019 in all three areas, at the national/subnational level we registered voting behaviour for the Finnish Parliament (14th April 2019) and President (28th January 2018), the French Parliament (11th June 2017) and President (23rd April 2017) and, in the case of Italy, the Piedmontese Parliament, whose elections took place on the same day as the European Parliament elections (26th May 2019), hence, our Italian respondents voted simultaneously for both European and regional elections and, yet, they voted for different parties.

We first screened respondents by asking for which party they voted at the above mentioned elections. Individuals were selected only if they split their vote, by choosing a Eurosceptic party at the EU elections and a moderate party at least in one of the other elections. The survey continued with some additional questions, aimed at understanding why they cast their vote in favour of a Eurosceptic party only at the European elections.

Specifically, we asked them how much they agreed with the following statements on a scale from 1 (fully disagree) to 7 (fully agree):

1. whether the Eurosceptic party they voted will be able to better:
 - a) protect the interests of their country at the European Level
 - b) attract more European funds to their country
 - c) lead their country out of the European Union
2. whether they voted the Eurosceptic party to express their discontent with the current national government and/or president.

Questions 1a) and 1b) are aimed at capturing our mechanism, i.e. the idea that voters might strategically vote for Eurosceptic parties only at the EU level, since they expect a better deal for their member state in all kinds of EU level negotiations by electing them. Questions 1c) and 2) are intended to capture alternative reasons for voting for such parties only at the EU level. Furthermore, for each of the voted parties, we asked which party represents their views better, as compared to other parties. The order of questions was randomised.

Finally, we collected the answers to a set of standard demographic questions and a few questions on media use and interest in politics. The survey, with a duration of approximately 10 minutes, was translated in each of the respective national languages. We coded Eurosceptic and moderate parties based on the same methodology outlined in the previous section.

⁵⁴The relatively small sample size is due to the effort in selecting individuals with such specific voting requirements.

We report our results in Table 5. The first four lines represent the above four options. The fifth line represents the difference in support between the voted Eurosceptic and the voted moderate party(ies). Positive (/negative) values imply higher support for the Eurosceptic (/moderate) party(ies). The table reports the total number of observations for each question (columns 1 and 3) and the average support for each statement (columns 2 and 4), distinguishing by the level of political interest (low interest in columns 1 and 2, high interest in 3 and 4). We highlight this differential, as it appears to be the only dimension along which preferences seem to consistently change across individuals. Column 5 shows the difference (4-2), that is, by how much preferences are more intense for agents with a high interest in politics. The last columns reports a t-test comparing the two groups.⁵⁵

We find that respondents with high levels of political interest tend to agree more with all four statements, while they are not different in terms of their support for Eurosceptic parties.⁵⁶ However, such differences are higher and statistically more significant for the two strategic statements, both if we conceptualise it in abstract terms (protecting the national interest) or in more concrete terms (attracting EU funds). Fig. 10 (Appendix D) shows the average support for each statement differentiating by country and levels of political interest.

Overall, these results suggest that strategic voting plays a role in this decision-making process and that such sophisticated voting behaviour is indeed typical of voters more involved in the political arena and its discourse.

Table 5: Online survey: descriptive statistics and t-test by political interest

| | N Low-Int | Mean Low-Int | N High-Int | Mean High-Int | Diff. | p-value |
|---------------------|-----------|--------------|------------|---------------|-------|---------|
| National Interest | 136 | 4.24 | 170 | 5.01 | 0.775 | 0.000 |
| Attract EU Funds | 136 | 3.88 | 170 | 4.71 | 0.827 | 0.000 |
| Out of EU | 136 | 3.79 | 170 | 4.34 | 0.547 | 0.014 |
| National Discontent | 136 | 4.27 | 170 | 4.71 | 0.438 | 0.060 |
| Support Eurosceptic | 122 | .413 | 147 | 0.17 | -.243 | 0.323 |

Note: This table reports descriptive statistics on the online survey. We report the number of observations and the mean for the entire sample and differentiating between respondents with high and low political interest. The last two columns report a t-test comparing the average support for each statement between low and high respondents in terms of political interest.

5 Final remarks

We show that multi-layered governance, combined with policies with heterogeneous effects across voting-districts, creates an incentive favours the rise of political extremism at higher

⁵⁵Specifically, we consider as having high political interest those individuals replying 4 or above on a scale from 0 to 7. Conversely, we do not find any heterogeneity across other dimensions, such as gender, age, education, job status and media consumption.

⁵⁶This validates the idea that, on average, voters do not systematically feel closer to the Eurosceptic parties the more they are politically informed. Hence, it provides additional validation of the informed voter being even more strategic.

levels of government for strategic reasons.

Sophisticated voters anticipate the bargaining process that leads to the concession of federal support. Proposition 2 shows that they cast their ballot strategically, to steer the bargaining point for their benefit. In other words, elected delegates in each region have more extreme preferences than the corresponding median voters, which leads to an increase in political extremism. This is a strategic choice aimed at influencing the magnitude of federal intervention. Simultaneously, voters also manipulate local taxes (Proposition 1) with the same purpose of improving the outcome of negotiations. Section 2.2 and Appendices A and B show that any reduction in the probability of being included in the coalition (for example, when a smaller coalition has to form) decreases the incentive to distort, however, this doesn't entail a race to the bottom in which regions compete to enter the coalition. Therefore, the distortion is very persistent.

Proposition 3 proves that the incentives to strategically delegate are U-shaped in potential benefits or losses. This implies that the growth of a federation (in terms of competence, power or budget) induces a rise in extremism. Changes in the number or size of districts (e.g. because of gerrymandering) impact the level of distortion in many possible ways, instead (Propositions 4 and 5) a decrease in the qualification of the required majority clearly induces a reduction in distortions.

Some of the model predictions have direct and testable consequences on the level of polarisation and extremism. Our empirical analysis – consistent with the model's predictions – shows that citizens in the European Union have voted for more nationalist/protectionist parties in EU elections than they did for their own national elections (Section 3.3.1). This strategic effect, as expected, is heterogeneous across countries. We show that net receiving and net contributing member states distort more than countries where EU contributions and expenditures are more or less balanced and that, indeed, the distortion is U-shaped (Section 3.3.2).

Distortions come at a cost, which can range from the economic cost of over- or under provision of locally financed goods (Proposition 1) to the the psychological cost of voters electing politicians they (ideologically) disagree with (Proposition 2). Yet also the broader societal cost of political instability is relevant here, as populist polarisation can lead to intensification of conflict and even the potential break-up of the federation. A relevant question then becomes how a federation could prevent this outcome and mitigate the costs.

One obvious solution would be to weaken the regional ties of federal politicians, who would then have the incentive to design policies benefitting the entire federation and not just their own constituency. In the EU context, this might imply the creation of a pan-European voting district to elect some EU deputies and/or the requirement of a minimum number of countries

where a party should be forced to run. This would turn the EU into a mixed electoral system, similarly to other federal entities as Mexico, Germany, Italy or South Africa, in which both proportional and majoritarian electoral systems coexist.

Implementing this solution in the EU would certainly not be easy. Among other things, it would require politicians campaigning in different countries and different languages. The voters may lose interest if they cannot clearly identify with certain parties. However, on the plus side, it would put debates on the opportunities and challenges of the union squarely in the spotlight, which can only contribute to the creation of a shared political sphere any democracy relies on.

An additional way to reduce the distortions is to reduce the support required to take federal decisions. In particular, simple majority decisions should be preferred to qualified majority ones. However, this may entail other risks that should also be accounted for.

References

- Alesina, A., Miano, A., Stantcheva, S., 2018. Immigration and redistribution. NBER Working Paper 24733 .
- Algan, Y., Guriev, S., Papaioannou, E., Passari, E., 2017. The european trust crisis and the rise of populism. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity* 2017, 309–400.
- Alonso, R., Dessein, W., Matouschek, N., 2008. When does coordination require centralization? *The American Economic Review* 98, 145–179.
- Bafumi, J., Herron, M.C., 2010. Leapfrog representation and extremism: A study of American voters and their members in congress. *American Political Science Review* 104, 519–542.
- Beath, A., Christia, F., Egorov, G., Enikolopov, R., 2016. Electoral Rules and Political Selection: Theory and Evidence from a Field Experiment in Afghanistan. *The Review of Economic Studies* 83, 932–968.
- Besley, T., Coate, S., 2003. Centralized versus decentralized provision of local public goods: a political economy approach. *Journal of Public Economics* 87, 2611–2637.
- Bol, D., Matakos, K., Troumpounis, O., Xefteris, D., 2019. Electoral rules, strategic entry and polarization. *Journal of Public Economics* 178, 104065.
- Bouton, L., Lizzeri, A., Persico, N., 2020. The Political Economy of Debt and Entitlements. *The Review of Economic Studies* 87, 2568–2599.

- Bowen, T.R., Chen, Y., Eraslan, H., 2014. Mandatory versus discretionary spending: The status quo effect. *American Economic Review* 104, 2941–74.
- Buisseret, P., Bernhardt, D., 2018. Reelection and renegotiation: International agreements in the shadow of the polls. *American Political Science Review* 112, 1016–1035.
- Bursztyn, L., Egorov, G., Fiorin, S., 2020. From extreme to mainstream: The erosion of social norms. *American Economic Review* 110, 3522–3548.
- Cantoni, D., Hagemeister, F., Westcott, M., 2019. Persistence and activation of right-wing political ideology. *Rationality and Competition - Discussion Paper* 143 .
- Carozzi, F., Repetto, L., 2016. Sending the pork home: Birth town bias in transfers to Italian municipalities. *Journal of Public Economics* 134, 42 – 52.
- Chari, V., Jones, L.E., Marimon, R., 1997. The economics of split-ticket voting in representative democracies. *American Economic Review* 87, 957–976.
- Christiansen, N., 2013. Strategic delegation in a legislative bargaining model with pork and public goods. *Journal of Public Economics* 97, 217–229.
- Coate, S., Milton, R.T., 2019. Optimal fiscal limits with overrides. *Journal of Public Economics* 174, 76 – 92.
- Colantone, I., Stanig, P., 2018. The trade origins of economic nationalism: Import competition and voting behavior in western europe. *American Journal of Political Science* 62, 936–953.
- Colantone, I., Stanig, P., 2019. The surge of economic nationalism in western europe. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 33, 128–51.
- Daniele, G., Sartre, E., Vertier, P., 2018. Toxic loans and the entry of extreme candidates. SSRN 3209238 .
- Edo, A., Giesing, Y., Öztunc, J., Poutvaara, P., 2019. Immigration and electoral support for the far-left and the far-right. *European Economic Review* 115, 99 – 143.
- Enikolopov, R., Zhuravskaya, E., 2007. Decentralization and political institutions. *Journal of Public Economics* 91, 2261–2290.
- Ferejohn, J., Fiorina, M., McKelvey, R.D., 1987. Sophisticated voting and agenda independence in the distributive politics setting. *American Journal of Political Science* 31, 169–193.
- Fetzer, T., 2019. Did austerity cause brexit? *American Economic Review* 109, 3849–3886.

- Fiva, J.H., Halse, A.H., 2016. Local favoritism in at-large proportional representation systems. *Journal of Public Economics* 143, 15 – 26.
- Fries-Tersch, E., Tugran, T., Markowska, A., Jones, M., 2018. Annual report on intra-EU labour mobility. European Commission .
- Gancia, G., Ponzetto, G.A., Ventura, J., 2020. A theory of economic unions. *Journal of Monetary Economics* 109, 107 – 127.
- Gans, J.S., Smart, M., 1996. Majority voting with single-crossing preferences. *Journal of Public Economics* 59, 219–237.
- Gennaioli, N., Tabellini, G., 2019. Identity, beliefs, and political conflict. SSRN 3300726 .
- Goldin, I., Pitt, A., Nabarro, B., Boyle, K., 2018. Migration and the economy: Economic realities, social impacts and political choices. Citi and Oxford Martin report .
- Guiso, L., Herrera, H., Morelli, M., Sonno, T., et al., 2020. Economic Insecurity and the Demand of Populism in Europe. Mimeo.
- Guriev, S., 2018. Economic drivers of populism. *AEA Papers and Proceedings* 108, 200–203.
- Harstad, B., 2007. Harmonization and side payments in political cooperation. *American Economic Review* 97, 871–889.
- Harstad, B., 2010. Strategic delegation and voting rules. *Journal of Public Economics* 94, 102–113.
- Hatfield, J.W., Padró i Miquel, G., 2012. A political economy theory of partial decentralization. *Journal of the European Economic Association* 10, 605–633.
- Kartik, N., Kleiner, A., Van Weelden, R., 2020. Delegation in veto bargaining. Mimeo .
- Kawai, K., Watanabe, Y., 2013. Inferring strategic voting. *American Economic Review* 103, 624–662.
- Kedar, O., 2005. How diffusion of power in parliaments affects voter choice. *Political Analysis* 13, 410–429.
- Kessler, A.S., 2014. Communication in federal politics: Universalism, policy uniformity, and the optimal allocation of fiscal authority. *Journal of Political Economy* 122, 766–805.
- Kessler, A.S., Hansen, N.A., Lessmann, C., 2011. Interregional redistribution and mobility in federations: A positive approach. *The Review of Economic Studies* 78, 1345–1378.

- Knight, B., 2002. Endogenous federal grants and crowd-out of state government spending: Theory and evidence from the federal highway aid program. *American Economic Review* 92, 71–92.
- Knight, B., 2008. Legislative representation, bargaining power and the distribution of federal funds: evidence from the us congress. *Economic Journal* 118, 1785–1803.
- Krasa, S., Polborn, M.K., 2018. Political competition in legislative elections. *American Political Science Review* 112, 809–825.
- Lachat, R., 2018. Strategic voting under seat-maximizing and policy-maximizing incentives. Mimeo .
- Loeper, A., 2017. Cross-border externalities and cooperation among representative democracies. *European Economic Review* 91, 180 – 208.
- Margalit, Y., 2019. Economic insecurity and the causes of populism, reconsidered. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 33, 152–70.
- Matakos, K., Troumpounis, O., Xefteris, D., 2016. Electoral rule disproportionality and platform polarization. *American Journal of Political Science* 60, 1026–1043.
- Mattozzi, A., Snowberg, E., 2018. The right type of legislator: A theory of taxation and representation. *Journal of Public Economics* 159, 54–65.
- McCarty, N., Poole, K.T., Rosenthal, H., 2009. Does gerrymandering cause polarization? *American Journal of Political Science* 53, 666–680.
- Morelli, M., Herrera, H., Nunnari, S., 2016. Turnout across democracies. *American Journal of Political Science* 60, 607–624.
- Piolatto, A., 2011. Plurality versus proportional electoral rule: Which is most representative of voters? *European Journal of Political Economy* 27, 311 – 327.
- Reif, K., Schmitt, H., 1980. Nine second-order national elections—a conceptual framework for the analysis of european election results. *European journal of political research* 8, 3–44.
- Rodden, J., Eskeland, G.S., Litvack, J.I., 2003. Fiscal decentralization and the challenge of hard budget constraints. MIT press.
- Rodrik, D., 2018a. Is populism necessarily bad economics? *AEA Papers and Proceedings* 108, 196–99.

- Rodrik, D., 2018b. Populism and the economics of globalization. *Journal of International Business Policy* 1, 12–33.
- Rogoff, K., 1985. The optimal degree of commitment to an intermediate monetary target. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 100, 1169–1189.
- Rovira Kaltwasser, C., 2018. Studying the (economic) consequences of populism. *AEA Papers and Proceedings* 108, 204–07.
- Schelling, T.C., 1956. An essay on bargaining. *American Economic Review* 46, 281–306.
- Schulte-Cloos, J., 2018. Do european parliament elections foster challenger parties’ success on the national level? *European Union Politics* 19, 408–426.
- Simon, J., Valasek, J.M., 2017. Centralized fiscal spending by supranational unions. *Economica* 84, 78–103.
- Stojanović, N., Bonotti, M., 2020. Political parties in deeply multilingual polities: Institutional conditions and lessons for the EU. *Journal of Common Market Studies* 58, 599–615.
- Taagepera, R., 1973. Seats and votes: A generalization of the cube law of elections. *Social Science Research* 2, 257 – 275.
- Theil, H., 1969. The desired political entropy. *American Political Science Review* 63, 521–525.
- Thorlakson, L., 2009. Patterns of party integration, influence and autonomy in seven federations. *Party Politics* 15, 157–177.
- Vasilopoulou, S., 2013. Continuity and change in the study of euroscepticism: Plus ça change? *JCMS: Journal of Common Market Studies* 51, 153–168.
- Volden, C., Wiseman, A.E., 2007. Bargaining in legislatures over particularistic and collective goods. *American Political science review* 101, 79–92.

Appendix A Strategic Behaviour and Beliefs

Until now we assumed that elected delegates have a certain say in federal negotiations and that agents are fully rational, in the sense that they perfectly understand the institutional setting and act strategically, thus taking advantage of the system as much as possible. We could relax both assumptions by assuming that agents assign a region-specific probability p_k to the fact that their elected politician will be able to impact federal policy-making, and thus the federal policy intensity γ as previously described, whereas with probability $1 - p_k$ they will not influence the federal government's decisions at all. In this latter case the federal policy will consequently be exogenously set at $\hat{\gamma}$. Notice that at this point it does not matter whether these beliefs originate from voters not fully understanding the game at play, or whether they correctly anticipate that the local politician will not always have a say on the decision of γ .

There can be several ways to rationalise such beliefs. Voters may think – or correctly anticipate – that $1 - p_k$ is the probability that a coalition forms, but with their own representative kept out of the formation process.⁵⁷ Another possibility could be that voters believe the federal government has not full discretion over γ and with some probability another (possibly not directly elected) institution controls it. One more option could be that voters believe the political weight of their region within the coalition is such that their politician is not able to influence γ , or at least to a lesser degree. In this sense, voters are incorrectly anticipating ω , so that probabilities p_k express the perceived political weight of a representative, rather than the actual weight. This could be the case when their own politicians are less ideally positioned to pull the levers of policy-making because they have less insight in the various practices and rules involved. It could also be that the latter are perceived as potentially stacked in favour of other representatives enjoying more leverage when the rules are set. Lastly, the general opinion could be that once regional representatives are part of the national, higher-level establishment, they will lose interest in their own region, or will be pushed to do so.⁵⁸ Clearly, one may think that p_k – as interpreted above – could also vary through time in a more general dynamic setting. In order to keep our robustness check in this section distinct and clear, however, we keep the model static and study how results change when p_k varies.

Conditional on the politician being able to influence γ , and still solving backwards, results from period 2 in Section 2.1.1 go through in our extended setting here, as voter beliefs do not directly affect actual federal decision-making. However, and moving to period 1 when the federal representatives are elected, the maximisation problem of the median voter in region

⁵⁷We work out this micro-foundation of beliefs in Appendix B, where voters have to make conjectures for the likelihood of their representative being the formateur, who shapes the federal minimum winning coalition. We show that all possible combinations collapse into a formulation where p_k relates to endogenous federal decision-making and $1 - p_k$ to a setting where γ is exogenously set ($\hat{\gamma}$).

⁵⁸See e.g. Thorlakson (2009) and the references therein.

$k \in K$ now includes the additional constraint that γ is defined by Eq. (8) with probability p_k , and $\gamma = \hat{\gamma}$ with probability $1 - p_k$. Here then, Lemma 3 translates into the following lemma.

Lemma 5. *Eqs. (17) to (18) implicitly define the preferences of the median voter in region k , in terms of the local tax t_k (Eq. (17)) and of the representative selected to join the federal legislature $\hat{\theta}_k$ (Eq. (18)).*

$$\frac{c'(C_k)}{\theta_k^m} = p_k \left(g'_\ell(\gamma) + \frac{(\Delta_k)^2 \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f(\gamma) g''_{\ell f}(\gamma)}{\phi''_\gamma} \right) + (1 - p_k) g'_\ell(\hat{\gamma}) \quad (17)$$

$$\frac{(\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)}{\theta_k^m} = p_k \frac{\omega_k}{2\eta_k \phi''_\gamma} (\Delta_k g'_f(\gamma))^2. \quad (18)$$

Proof. See Appendix C. □

From Lemma 5, we immediately obtain that Proposition 2 still holds. Eq. (18) is identical to Eq. (13), with the exception that the right hand side of Eq. (18) is multiplied by $p_k \in [0, 1]$, from which we immediately conclude that the equilibrium distortion of θ_k is lower in this case. Indeed, agents expect the strategic mechanism to be at work only with probability p_k , so the incentive to manipulate the federal vote decreases and so does the distortion as a result.

Comparing these distortion across regions subsequently, in the more general setting allowing for varying voter beliefs previous Eq. (15) translates into

$$\frac{\mu(\theta_\alpha)}{\mu(\theta_\beta)} = \frac{p_\alpha \omega_\alpha (\Delta_\alpha g'_f)^2 / \eta_\alpha}{p_\beta \omega_\beta (\Delta_\beta g'_f)^2 / \eta_\beta}. \quad (19)$$

Eq. (19) sheds more light on how beliefs captured by p_k affect our previous results. The more voters expect their representatives to be influential (relative to others), the more they will distort their vote. In other words, the more pronounced the beliefs captured by p_α as compared to p_β , the higher the relative mark-up of distortion $\frac{\mu(\theta_\alpha)}{\mu(\theta_\beta)}$.

Appendix B Coalition formation

In this section, we add some structure to the 3-region setting of Section 2.2, by looking into how a coalition may form. The aim of this extension is twofold. First, we provide a plausible foundation for the 'R-1 coalition' setting of Section 2.2, where coalition formation was taken for granted and treated as a black box. Second, we link this section to Appendix A, where voters anticipate that with some probability their representative has no direct impact on federal decision making. Indeed, in what follows voters are put in a similar position of uncertainty, as they cannot be sure their own representative will be part of the coalition.

We introduce two simplifying assumptions:

- A) the minimum size of a coalition requires $|K| > \max\{|R^b|, |R^h|\}$.
- B) all regions of a same type are identical

Assumption A) guarantees that any coalition always includes at least some representatives from regions of both types. Assumption B) allows us to focus on symmetric equilibria. Relaxing assumption B) would lead to an asymmetric equilibrium that shares all the relevant features with the symmetric one. At the end of this section, without formally solving the asymmetric equilibrium, we provide a description of it.

Compared to the model in Section 2.1, we introduce a coalition formation stage. Once representatives have been elected, a randomly selected formateur of type σ forms a coalition. Since b - and h -regions have diverging interests in terms of γ , hence σ -formateurs always prefer regions of their own type and only include n^σ regions of opposite type, ensuring that $|R^\sigma| + n^\sigma$ is the minimum size necessary for a coalition to form. The σ -formateur cherry-picks the n^σ regions with the smallest value $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$, for those are the weakest regions in terms of negotiation. Under assumption B) all regions display the same equilibrium value $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$, hence they are all equally likely to be (randomly) picked.

The last stage of the game (conditional on $\hat{\theta}_k$ and the σ -formateur being selected) is isomorphic to the one in Section 2.1: $\max_{\gamma} \sum_{k \in K^\sigma} \omega_k (\hat{U}_k - \Psi_k)$, where K^σ is the coalition that a σ -formateur would form, and the first order condition implicitly defines the optimal policy γ^σ : $\sum_{k \in K^\sigma} \omega_k \Delta_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f = 0$.

The choice of $\hat{\theta}_k$ influences the probability of being part of the coalition and, therefore, the optimal delegation strategy in each region, instead, may be affected. At the time of local elections, agents don't know the type of the federal formateur and expect $\gamma = \gamma^\sigma$ to occur with probability $\frac{|R^\sigma|}{|R|}$. Consequently, the median voter of each region maximises their

expected utility, which boils down to

$$E(U_r^m) = c(C_r) + \theta_r^j g\left(G_r^\ell, \Delta_r E(\gamma)\right) + D_r. \quad (20)$$

From the perspective of each region, three scenarios are possible: 1) with probability $p_1 = \frac{|R^\sigma|}{|R|}$ the formateur is of the same type and the representative belongs to the coalition with certainty; 2) With probability p_2 the formateur is of opposite side and the representative belongs to the coalition; 3) With probability p_3 the formateur is of opposite side and the representative doesn't belong to the coalition.

We should notice that $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} = 0$ whenever region k doesn't belong to the coalition. This means that under scenario 3) a region has no incentive to distort t_k or $\hat{\theta}_k$ because this won't affect γ . The first order condition for a region of type b is⁵⁹

$$\frac{c'(C_k)}{\theta_k^m} = \left(p_1 g'_\ell(\gamma^b) + p_2 g'_\ell(\gamma^h) + p_3 g'_\ell(\gamma^h)\right) + \left(p_1 \frac{\partial \gamma^b}{\partial t_k} g'_f(\gamma^b) + p_2 \frac{\partial \gamma^h}{\partial t_k} g'_f(\gamma^h)\right) \quad (21)$$

$$\frac{(\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)}{\theta_k^m} = \frac{\Delta_k}{2\eta_k} \left(p_1 \frac{\partial \gamma^b}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} g'_f(\gamma^b) + p_2 \frac{\partial \gamma^h}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} g'_f(\gamma^h)\right). \quad (22)$$

The last term in both Eqs. (21) and (22) account for the distortion that takes place in a region with the objective of influencing the equilibrium γ , as such, they only appear when the representative belongs to the coalition.

It is very important to notice some important features of this game.

1. the mark-up is strictly increasing in p_2 , that is, the electoral distortion increases with the probability of being included in the federal coalition.
2. the probability p_2 is weakly decreasing in the distortion

From those features, it immediately follows that mixed-strategy equilibria are not admissible. Suppose that regions play a mixed strategy, they would select a low and a high value of distortion. However, the probability of belonging to the coalition endogenously decreases with the level of distortion. Hence, playing a mixed strategy a region would inevitably distort more when chances of being in the coalition are relatively small (hence, when it is optimal distort less) and would distort less when they have a relatively large chance of belonging to the coalition (hence, when it is optimal distort more).

Proposition 5. *When all regions of a same type are identical, there cannot be mixed-strategy equilibria.*

The distortion of local taxes and the strategic delegation mechanism remain, but their magnitude is reduced. Eqs. (21) and (22) define the choice of each b -region, with the equilibrium probabilities being $p_1 = \frac{|R^b|}{|R|}$, $p_2 = \frac{|R^h|n^h}{|R||R^b|}$ and $p_3 = \frac{|R^h|(|R^b|-n^h)}{|R||R^b|}$.

⁵⁹Inverting superscripts b and h would provide the first order condition for a region of type h .

The equilibrium for h -regions is obtained by simply inverting b and h superscripts in the equations.

Proof. See Appendix C. □

Proposition 5 solves the equilibrium for the symmetric case. We obtain four interesting results from the study of the symmetric case:

1. regions have no incentive to undercut each other, hence there is no race to the bottom in this context,
2. the marginal benefit of distorting is increasing in the size of the coalition, hence the distortion in equilibrium is less pronounced when the coalition is smaller,
3. it is never optimal to play a mixed strategy, because of the endogenous probability of being part of the coalition would imply that selection would play against the interest of the region,
4. in equilibrium, all regions of a same type have the same probability of belonging to the coalition.

Although we don't formally solve the asymmetric case, we provide the intuition for it. The asymmetric case is very similar in most respects to the symmetric case: results 1 to 3 hold, while result 4 is slightly different in a very intuitive way.

Let's consider again the perspective of b -regions. If the formateur is of type b , regions belong to the coalition for sure. Instead, an h -formateur includes n^h regions of type b , choosing those with the lowest $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$.

When the formateur is of type h , depending on the parameter values, three scenarios are possible, that we name 'natural separation', 'artificial separation' and 'partial pooling'.

'Natural separation' refers to the case in which n^h regions always belong to the coalition while the remaining regions are never included in the coalition. All regions optimally distort according to Eqs. (21) and (22): regions that are always included anticipate that $p_3 = 0$ for them, regions that are never included anticipate that $p_2 = 0$ for them.

'Artificial separation' differs from 'natural separation' in that regions that are always included are distorting less than what Eqs. (21) and (22) would suggest when $p_3 = 0$. Regions slightly decrease their level of distortion and this ensures that they are always selected into the coalition.

Finally, 'partial pooling' refers to the equilibrium in which two or more regions share the same value $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$ and the formateur randomly includes a subset of those regions in the coalition. Those regions have the same probability of being selected (strictly positive and

strictly less than 1). The symmetric equilibrium previously described is a special case of this one, in which all regions have the same value $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$. However, this scenario is compatible with some regions being always included or excluded from the coalition.

A ‘natural separation’ equilibrium can only occur when regions are sufficiently different from each other that the regions with the lowest value of $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$ can optimally distort and they are still more attractive, in the eyes of the formateur, than any other region, even if the excluded regions anticipate that $p_2 = 0$ for them. The presence of the formateur guarantees that the less extreme regions are selected into the coalition, but this is not providing incentives to regions that belong to the coalition to distort less. Hence, regions do not undercut each other.

‘Artificial separation’ occurs when the marginal region (the one with the largest value $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$ among those belonging to the coalition) is not too different from the first excluded.⁶⁰ The marginal region faces the following situation: distorting as if they belonged to the coalition with certainty would create a loop,⁶¹ but distorting as if they were selected with 50% chance (sharing it with the region ranked next), would imply that the region is selected with certainty. Since mixed strategies cannot be optimal, the only equilibrium in this case implies that the marginal region distorts the maximum feasible amount that still guarantees them to be included in the coalition with certainty.

‘Partial pooling’ occurs when the marginal region is even closer to the next one than under ‘artificial separation’.⁶² In this case, the two (or possibly even more) regions will distort in a way that they will share the same value $|\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f|$. In this case, there will be a multiplicity of equilibria.⁶³

⁶⁰Technically speaking, this occurs if the marginal-region’s optimal distortion with $p_2(n^h) = p_3(n^h)$ is less than the first-excluded-region optimal distortion with $p_2(n^h + 1) = 0$.

⁶¹If they distort that much they are not selected, but if they are not selected they don’t want to distort that much.

⁶²Technically speaking, this occurs if the marginal-region’s optimal distortion with $p_2(n^h) = p_3(n^h)$ is larger than the first-excluded-region optimal distortion with $p_2(n^h + 1) = 0$.

⁶³The minimum level of distortion would correspond to when the first-excluded-region selects the optimal distortion for $p_2(n^h + 1) = 0$, while the maximum level of distortion would correspond to when the marginal-region selects the optimal distortion for $p_2(n^h) = p_3(n^h)$.

Appendix C Proofs

Proof of Lemma 1 and Lemma 2. The federal optimisation problem in Section 2.1.1 can be summed up as

$$\max_{\gamma} \sum_{k \in K} \omega_k \left(\hat{U}_k - \Psi_k \right) = \sum_{k \in K} \omega_k \left(c(C_k) + \hat{\theta}_k g(G_k^\ell, G_k^f) - \Psi_k \right), \quad (23)$$

subject to

$$C_k = (1 - t_k) Y_k, \quad (24)$$

$$G_k^L = t_k Y_k, \quad (25)$$

$$G_k^F = \gamma \Delta_k. \quad (26)$$

so that we get the first order condition

$$\begin{aligned} \phi'_\gamma &= 0, \\ \text{with } \phi'_\gamma &\equiv \Delta^b \sum_{k \in R^b} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f - \Delta^h \sum_{k \in R^h} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

Further deriving and taking the absolute value, we obtain

$$\phi''_\gamma \equiv \left| \frac{\partial \phi'_\gamma}{\partial \gamma} \right| = - \left(\sum_{s=\{b,h\}} (\Delta^s)^2 \sum_{k \in R^s} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g''_{ff} \right), \quad (28)$$

where the sign, guaranteed by the concavity of $g(\cdot)$, ensures that the problem is well behaved.

Eq. (27) implicitly defines the equilibrium value for γ . Applying the implicit function theorem, we obtain for $k \in K$:

$$\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} = - \frac{\frac{\partial \phi'_\gamma}{\partial t_k}}{\frac{\partial \phi'_\gamma}{\partial \gamma}} = - \frac{\Delta_k \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k Y_k g''_{\ell f}}{\sum_{s=\{b,h\}} (\Delta^s)^2 \sum_{k \in R^s} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g''_{ff}} \quad (29)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} = - \frac{\frac{\partial \phi'_\gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k}}{\frac{\partial \phi'_\gamma}{\partial \gamma}} = - \frac{\Delta_k \omega_k g''_{\ell f}}{\sum_{s=\{b,h\}} (\Delta^s)^2 \sum_{k \in R^s} \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g''_{ff}} \quad (30)$$

The signs of Eqs. (29) and (30) are respectively $\text{sgn} \left(\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} \right) = \text{sgn} \left(\Delta_k g''_{\ell f} \right)$ and $\text{sgn} \left(\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} \right) = \text{sgn} (\Delta_k)$, because $g''_{ff} < 0$, while $\omega_k, \hat{\theta}_k$ and g'_f are all positive. \square

Proof of Lemma 3. The optimisation problem of the median voter in region $k \in K$ set out in Section 2.1.2 can be summed up as

$$\max_{t_k, \hat{\theta}_k} U_k = c(C_k) + \theta_k^m g(G_k^\ell, G_k^f) - \eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)^2, \quad (31)$$

subject to Eq. (27) and

$$C_k = (1 - t_k) Y_k \quad (32)$$

$$G_k^\ell = t_k Y_k \quad (33)$$

The first order condition for t_k is

$$-c'(C_k)Y_k + \theta_k^m Y_k g'_\ell + \theta_k^m \Delta_k \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k} g'_f = 0, \quad (34)$$

which, using Eq. (29), yields

$$-c'(C_k)Y_k + \theta_k^m Y_k g'_\ell + \theta_k^m \Delta_k \frac{\Delta_k \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k Y_k g''_{\ell f}}{\phi''_\gamma} g'_f = 0, \quad (35)$$

and, therefore,

$$g'_\ell + \frac{\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k}{\phi''_\gamma} (\Delta_k)^2 g'_f g''_{\ell f} = \frac{c'(C_k)}{\theta_k^m}. \quad (36)$$

The first order condition for $\hat{\theta}_k$ is

$$\theta_k^m g'_f \Delta_k \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} - 2\eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m) = 0, \quad (37)$$

which, using Eq. (30), yields

$$\theta_k^m g'_f \Delta_k \frac{\Delta_k \omega_k g'_f}{\phi''_\gamma} = 2\eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m), \quad (38)$$

and

$$\theta_k^m \frac{\omega_k}{\phi''_\gamma} (\Delta_k g'_f)^2 = 2\eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m). \quad (39)$$

□

Proof of Proposition 1 and its corollary. We look at different behaviours (or levels of sophistication) of the median voter in one region, keeping everything else equal. This means that, focusing on the median voter in region k , we assume that choices in all other regions are fixed.

The left hand side is the same in the three equations and is increasing in t_α . We show below that the right hand side (*RHS*) can be ranked as follow:

- $RHS^s > RHS^n > RHS^m = 0$ when $g''_{\ell f} > 0$,

- $0 = RHS^m > RHS^n > RHS^s$ when $g''_{\ell f} < 0$,

where RHS^s, RHS^n, RHS^m are the right hand side respectively for sophisticated, naive and myopic voters.

Since the left hand side is increasing in t_k , it immediately follows that $t_k^s > t_k^n > t_k^m$ if and only if $g''_{\ell f} > 0$, while $t_k^m > t_k^n > t_k^s$ if and only if $g''_{\ell f} < 0$.

To prove the ranking of the right hand side, first we isolate region k from the others in the equation of ϕ''_γ and obtain

$$\phi''_\gamma = - \left(\Delta_k^2 \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g''_{\ell f} + \sum_{i \neq k \in K} \Delta_i^2 \omega_i \hat{\theta}_i g''_{\ell f} \right).$$

Then, $RHS^s > RHS^n$ if $\frac{\theta_k^m \hat{\theta}_k}{\phi''_\gamma(\hat{\theta}_k)} \omega_k (\Delta_k)^2 g'_f g''_{\ell f} > \frac{(\theta_k^m)^2}{\phi''_\gamma(\theta_k^m)} \omega_k (\Delta_k)^2 g'_f g''_{\ell f}$. We solve here for the case $g''_{\ell f} > 0$, while the opposite case is omitted, being the same but with the inverted inequality. Then we can simplify to $\frac{\hat{\theta}_k}{\phi''_\gamma(\hat{\theta}_k)} > \frac{\theta_k^m}{\phi''_\gamma(\theta_k^m)}$. Using the expression for ϕ''_γ , we obtain

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_k}{-\left(\Delta_k^2 \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g''_{\ell f} + \sum_{i \neq k \in K} \Delta_i^2 \omega_i \hat{\theta}_i g''_{\ell f}\right)} > \frac{\theta_k^m}{-\left(\Delta_k^2 \omega_k \theta_k^m g''_{\ell f} + \sum_{i \neq k \in K} \Delta_i^2 \omega_i \theta_i^m g''_{\ell f}\right)}, \quad (40)$$

which simplifies to

$$-\hat{\theta}_k \sum_{i \neq k \in K} \Delta_i^2 \omega_i \hat{\theta}_i g''_{\ell f} > -\theta_k^m \left(\sum_{i \neq k \in K} \Delta_i^2 \omega_i \theta_i^m g''_{\ell f} \right), \quad (41)$$

which is clearly always verified. \square

Proof of Proposition 2 and its corollary. The first order condition with respect to $\hat{\theta}_k$, as shown in Eq. (39), is $\theta_k^m \frac{\omega_k}{\phi''_\gamma} (\Delta_k g'_f)^2 = 2\eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)$.

If a region neither benefits nor is harmed by the federal policy ($\Delta_k = 0$), then the previous condition reduces to $2\eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m) = 0$. For an equilibrium to exist, the elected federal representative and the median voter must have identical preferences for the public policy: $\hat{\theta}_k = \theta_k^m$. As a result, there will be no strategic voting.

As long as $\Delta_k \neq 0$, Eq. (39) can be written as

$$\frac{\omega_k}{\phi''_\gamma} (\Delta_k g'_f)^2 = \frac{2\eta_k (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)}{\theta_k^m}, \quad (42)$$

Because the left-hand side is always positive, a solution can only exist if $\hat{\theta}_k > \theta_k^m$. Hence, in equilibrium, the elected federal representative will always have a weakly stronger taste for the public policy than the median voter.

Defining $\mu(\theta_k) = \frac{(\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m)}{\theta_k^m}$, Eq. (15) is simply obtained by combining Eq. (42) computed for any two region α and β :

$$\frac{\mu(\theta_\alpha)}{\mu(\theta_\beta)} = \frac{\omega_\alpha(\Delta_\alpha g'_f)^2/\eta_\alpha}{\omega_\beta(\Delta_\beta g'_f)^2/\eta_\beta}, \quad (43)$$

Within the setting of the grand coalition, suppose that there's a change in the number of regions and study how the mark-up changes. □

Proof of Proposition 3. From Eq. (15), we can write $\frac{\mu(\theta_\alpha)}{\mu(\theta_\beta)} = a \left(\Delta_\alpha g'_f(\gamma \Delta_\alpha) \right)^2$, where $a = \frac{\omega_\alpha \eta_\beta}{\omega_\beta \eta_\alpha (\Delta_\beta g'_f(\gamma \Delta_\beta))^2} > 0$ does not depend on Δ_α .

Notice that $\frac{\partial(\Delta_\alpha g'_f(\gamma \Delta_\alpha))^2}{\partial \Delta_\alpha} = 2\Delta_\alpha g'_f(g'_f + \gamma \Delta_\alpha g''_{ff})$.

Suppose that $\Delta_\alpha < 0$, then $2\Delta_\alpha g'_f(g'_f + \gamma \Delta_\alpha g''_{ff}) < 0$ follows immediately.

Suppose that $\Delta_\alpha > 0$, then $2\Delta_\alpha g'_f(g'_f + \gamma \Delta_\alpha g''_{ff}) > 0$ if and only if $g'_f + \gamma \Delta_\alpha g''_{ff} > 0$, hence if $-\frac{\gamma \Delta_\alpha g''_{ff}}{g'_f} < 1$. □

Proof of Lemma 4. Deriving Eq. (8), it follows that $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \Delta_k} = -\frac{\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f + \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k \gamma \Delta_k g''_{ff}}{-\phi''_\gamma}$.

Therefore, $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \Delta_k} > 0$ either if and only if $\omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f + \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k \gamma \Delta_k g''_{ff} > 0$. This is true whenever either $\Delta_k < 0$ or $\Delta_k > 0$ and $-\frac{\gamma \Delta_k g''_{ff}}{g'_f} < 1$.

Notice that $-\frac{\gamma \Delta_k g''_{ff}}{g'_f} > 1$ requires $\Delta_k > 0$, therefore, condition $-\frac{\gamma \Delta_k g''_{ff}}{g'_f} < 1$ embeds the case of $\Delta_k < 0$ too. □

Proof of Proposition 4 and its corollary. When the grand coalition forms, we can write the first derivative (leading to the FOC) as $\phi'_\gamma = \sum_{k \in R \setminus \{q\}} \Delta_k \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f + \Delta_q \omega_q \hat{\theta}_q g'_f$. Instead, when q is excluded from the coalition, we have $\underline{\phi}'_\gamma = \sum_{k \in R \setminus \{q\}} \Delta_k \omega_k \hat{\theta}_k g'_f$. Since $\omega_q \hat{\theta}_q g'_f > 0$, it follows that $\phi'_\gamma > \underline{\phi}'_\gamma$ if and only if $\Delta_q > 0$.

Knowing that $-\phi''_\gamma < 0$, it follows that ϕ'_γ is decreasing in γ , hence, the equilibrium value for γ is larger with the grand coalition if $\Delta_q > 0$ and, vice versa, it is smaller with the grand coalition if $\Delta_q < 0$.

When looking at $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t_k}$ and $\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \theta_k}$, it is immediate to notice that in both cases the denominator depends on a sum of positive terms including $-\Delta_q^2 \omega_q \hat{\theta}_q g''_{ff}$. This term disappears when q is excluded from the coalition. Hence, the absolute value of the ratio decreases. □

Proof of Lemma 5. The maximisation problem of the median voter in region $k \in K$ set out in appendix A can be summed up as

$$\max_{t_k, \hat{\theta}_k} U_k = c(C_k) + p_k \theta_k^m x(G_k, X_k(\gamma^*)) + (1 - p_k) \theta_k^m x(G_k, X_k(\hat{\gamma})) - \eta_k \left(\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m \right)^2, \quad (44)$$

subject to

$$C_k = (1 - t_k^1) Y_k \quad (45)$$

$$C_k = t_k Y_k \quad (46)$$

where we use γ^* to denote the federal tax implicitly defined by Eq. (8), in order to distinguish it from $\hat{\gamma}$, which represents the federal tax when exogenously set.

The first order condition for t_k is

$$p_k \left(x'_1(G_k, X_k(\gamma^*)) + \frac{\Delta_k P'(\gamma^*) x'_2(G_k, X_k(\gamma^*))}{Y_k} \frac{\partial \gamma^*}{\partial t_k} \right) + (1 - p_k) x'_1(G_k, X_k(\hat{\gamma})) = \frac{c'(C_k)}{\theta_k^m}, \quad (47)$$

which, using Eq. (9) for $k = \alpha$ yields Eq. (17).

For $\hat{\theta}_k$, we obtain the following first order condition

$$p_k \theta_k^m x'_2(G_k, X_k(\gamma^*)) \left(\Delta_k P'(\gamma^*) \frac{\partial \gamma^*}{\partial \hat{\theta}_k} \right) - 2\eta_k(\hat{\theta}_k - \theta_k^m) = 0, \quad (48)$$

which, using Eq. (11) for $k = \alpha$ yields Eq. (18). \square

Proof of Proposition 5. The proof is by contradiction. As long as the minimal size of the coalition is common knowledge, regions can anticipate what the equilibrium will be and, hence, they already know their probability of being part of the coalition. Conditional on knowing the probability, preferences are single-peaked in $\hat{\theta}_k$. All regions being identical, they share the same bliss point (for a same given probability of belonging to the coalition).

Distorting is costly, the optimal distortion is strictly increasing in p_2 and the probability p_2 is weakly decreasing in the distortion. Suppose that there exist an equilibrium in which two regions opt for different values of $\hat{\theta}_k$. Inevitably, the one choosing the lowest value for $\hat{\theta}_k$ will have a weakly larger chance of belonging to the coalition.

If they both have the same probability of belonging to the coalition (this may happen if they are both always selected or always excluded), then both regions share the same optimal distortion and choosing two different levels of distortion cannot be optimal.

Suppose that regions A and B have different probabilities of being included in the coalition. Suppose, WLOG, that $p_2(A) > p_2(B)$, then the optimal distortion implies that $\hat{\theta}_A > \hat{\theta}_B$ (the optimal distortion is strictly increasing in p_2). But $\hat{\theta}_A > \hat{\theta}_B$ implies that $p_2(A) \leq p_2(B)$, which contradicts the initial statement.

Hence, if an equilibrium exists, all (identical) regions of a same type must choose the same level of distortion. If so, the formateur is indifferent and will randomly select them. This leads to the same probability of being part of the coalition: for any region of type b , $p_1 = \frac{|R^b|}{|R|}$, $p_2 = \frac{|R^b|n^b}{|R||R^b|}$ and $p_3 = \frac{|R^b|(|R^b| - n^b)}{|R||R^b|}$ and, similarly, for regions of type h , $p_1 = \frac{|R^h|}{|R|}$, $p_2 = \frac{|R^h|n^h}{|R||R^h|}$ and $p_3 = \frac{|R^h|(|R^h| - n^h)}{|R||R^h|}$.

To guarantee that this is an equilibrium, we should check that regions have no incentive to deviate. Consider a candidate equilibrium with all σ -regions aligned on a same level of distortion. If a region deviates by increasing the distortion, their probability of being selected into the coalition would plump, reducing the incentive to distort, while the cost of distorting would increase. Hence, the region would necessarily be worse-off. If a region deviates by decreasing the distortion, their chance of being selected would increase, but this has no per-se benefit attached. However, the elected candidate would obtain a worse deal (a less favourable γ) than before. Hence, the region would be more likely to belong to the coalition but would negotiate a worse deal.

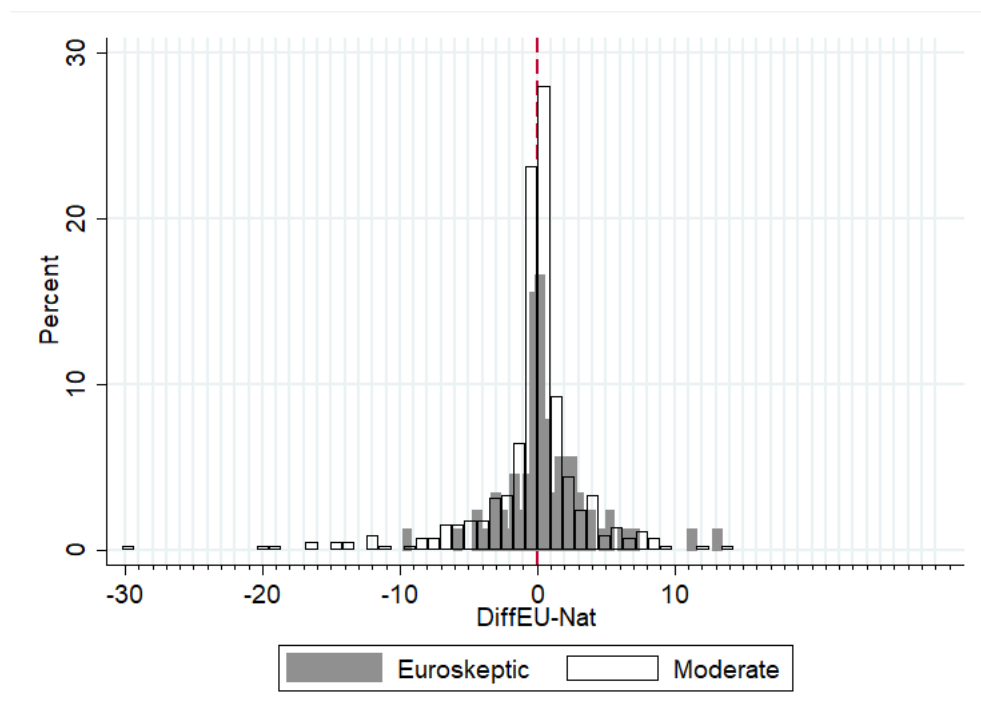
It is important to notice that regions obtain no direct benefit from being part of the coalition, other than the opportunity to steer the equilibrium federal policy. Hence, regions have no incentive to undercut each-other in order to enter the coalition. A race to the bottom doesn't materialise because regions' benefit is attached to γ only. Undercutting a region that is pursuing the same objective would only decrease the benefit of all regions of that type. \square

Appendix D Additional Empirical Results

Table 6: Summary Statistics

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev. | N |
|--|--------|-----------|------|
| DiffEU-Nat | -0.307 | 5.117 | 1138 |
| DiffEU-Nat (Winsorized .01) | -0.324 | 4.618 | 1138 |
| Eurosceptic | 0.166 | 0.372 | 1138 |
| Extreme | 0.129 | 0.336 | 1138 |
| Diff Turnout | 21.253 | 13.952 | 1135 |
| Party Size | 9.096 | 10.942 | 1138 |
| Incumbent | 0.095 | 0.293 | 1138 |
| % Net Contribution/GNI (2000-2015) | 0.668 | 1.188 | 1138 |
| Net Contribution Absolute Values (2000-2015) (Billion Euros) | -0.62 | 3.756 | 1138 |
| Cube Rule | 1.104 | 0.157 | 1130 |
| Variable 10-year window | Mean | Std. Dev. | N |
| DiffEU-Nat | -0.111 | 3.888 | 542 |
| Eurosceptic | 0.166 | 0.372 | 542 |
| Party Size | 7.746 | 10.508 | 542 |
| Incumbent | 0.142 | 0.349 | 542 |

Figure 7: Differences in Voting between EU and National Elections across Pro-Europe and Eurosceptic Parties: 10-year window



The figure shows the distributions of votes for parties at European and at National elections in the period 1990-2013, differentiating between Eurosceptic and not-Eurosceptic parties. The analysis is based on a 10-year window.

Table 7: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections: Winsorized Dependent Variable

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.751*** (0.511) | 1.774*** (0.507) | 1.840*** (0.554) | 1.604*** (0.549) | 2.098** (0.772) | 2.129*** (0.764) | 2.459*** (0.814) | 1.981** (0.731) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | 0.592 (0.425) | 0.581 (0.431) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | -0.187 (0.465) | -0.147 (0.453) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -2.340** (0.889) | -2.349** (0.884) | -2.715*** (0.946) | -2.309** (1.004) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 1.069 (1.054) | 1.043 (1.043) | 0.489 (1.175) | 1.054 (1.232) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.0120 (0.00864) | -0.0105 (0.00883) | 0.00539 (0.0125) | | -0.0133 (0.00910) | -0.0114 (0.00916) | 0.00586 (0.0126) | |
| Proportional Voting | 0.573 (0.896) | 0.624 (0.871) | | | 0.515 (0.953) | 0.579 (0.923) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0882*** (0.0295) | | | | -0.0894*** (0.0289) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.622 (1.122) | | | | -0.571 (1.110) |
| Observations | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,136 | 1,140 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,136 | 1,140 |
| R-squared | 0.021 | 0.023 | 0.046 | 0.134 | 0.031 | 0.034 | 0.056 | 0.143 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections winsorized at 1% level); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* split countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table 8: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections: alternative 5-year period definition

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|---------------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.241** | 1.255** | 1.424** | 1.223** | 1.755* | 1.780* | 2.042** | 1.693** |
| | (0.560) | (0.561) | (0.611) | (0.581) | (0.876) | (0.884) | (0.939) | (0.812) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | 0.939** | 0.927** | | |
| | | | | | (0.411) | (0.423) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | 0.185 | 0.218 | | |
| | | | | | (0.351) | (0.369) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -2.058* | -2.058* | -2.252* | -2.069* |
| | | | | | (1.080) | (1.093) | (1.140) | (1.193) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 0.118 | 0.0839 | 0.00755 | 0.478 |
| | | | | | (1.178) | (1.185) | (1.291) | (1.259) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.00376 | -0.00393 | 0.00919 | | -0.00518 | -0.00455 | 0.00960 | |
| | (0.00745) | (0.00767) | (0.0101) | | (0.00727) | (0.00756) | (0.0101) | |
| Proportional Voting | 0.345 | 0.391 | | | 0.338 | 0.411 | | |
| | (0.726) | (0.734) | | | (0.752) | (0.768) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0965** | | | | -0.0965** |
| | | | | (0.0364) | | | | (0.0360) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.0608 | | | | -0.0538 |
| | | | | (0.925) | | | | (0.929) |
| Observations | 1,148 | 1,148 | 1,148 | 1,148 | 1,148 | 1,148 | 1,148 | 1,148 |
| R-squared | 0.010 | 0.012 | 0.031 | 0.114 | 0.018 | 0.020 | 0.037 | 0.120 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* splits countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table 9: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections: 10-year time window

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|---------------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.322** | 1.314** | 1.368** | 1.398** | 1.669** | 1.621** | 1.878** | 1.891** |
| | (0.488) | (0.496) | (0.561) | (0.588) | (0.746) | (0.757) | (0.850) | (0.804) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | 0.737* | 0.697* | | |
| | | | | | (0.372) | (0.371) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | -0.224 | -0.317 | | |
| | | | | | (0.399) | (0.404) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -2.143** | -2.094** | -2.271** | -2.366* |
| | | | | | (0.982) | (1.000) | (1.082) | (1.169) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 0.838 | 0.917 | 0.381 | 0.639 |
| | | | | | (0.921) | (0.927) | (1.143) | (1.206) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.00567 | -0.00658 | 0.0143 | | -0.00825 | -0.00910 | 0.0140 | |
| | (0.00693) | (0.00746) | (0.0111) | | (0.00781) | (0.00854) | (0.0110) | |
| Proportional Voting | -0.593 | -0.592 | | | -0.683 | -0.712 | | |
| | (0.669) | (0.681) | | | (0.714) | (0.745) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0748** | | | | -0.0743** |
| | | | | (0.0303) | | | | (0.0295) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.0284 | | | | -0.0791 |
| | | | | (0.734) | | | | (0.708) |
| Observations | 826 | 826 | 837 | 840 | 826 | 826 | 837 | 840 |
| R-squared | 0.015 | 0.017 | 0.045 | 0.111 | 0.028 | 0.029 | 0.054 | 0.121 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is DiffEU-Nat (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); Eurosceptic is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; Party Size is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; Incumbent is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; Proportional Voting is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system; Diff Turnout measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. Tertiles split countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table 10: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections controlling for Radical parties

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|---------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Eurosceptic | 1.757** | 1.786** | 2.130** | 2.419** | 2.134** | 2.167** | 2.710** | 2.738** |
| | (0.787) | (0.776) | (0.905) | (1.133) | (0.917) | (0.898) | (0.982) | (1.110) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | 0.606 | 0.582 | | |
| | | | | | (0.464) | (0.475) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | -0.0908 | -0.0519 | | |
| | | | | | (0.488) | (0.489) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -2.489** | -2.502** | -2.876** | -2.341** |
| | | | | | (1.014) | (1.016) | (1.068) | (1.072) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 1.065 | 1.039 | 0.671 | 1.454 |
| | | | | | (1.246) | (1.248) | (1.444) | (1.492) |
| Radical | 0.152 | 0.144 | -0.153 | -0.855 | 0.167 | 0.165 | -0.0982 | -0.886 |
| | (0.806) | (0.818) | (0.932) | (1.215) | (0.871) | (0.885) | (1.054) | (1.313) |
| Diff Turnout | -0.0127 | -0.0119 | 0.00838 | | -0.0134 | -0.0120 | 0.00888 | |
| | (0.00967) | (0.00981) | (0.0136) | | (0.0101) | (0.0102) | (0.0137) | |
| Proportional Voting | 0.427 | 0.481 | | | 0.398 | 0.467 | | |
| | (0.945) | (0.922) | | | (1.014) | (0.989) | | |
| Party Size | | | | -0.0911** | | | | -0.0926** |
| | | | | (0.0353) | | | | (0.0348) |
| Incumbent | | | | -0.673 | | | | -0.625 |
| | | | | (1.177) | | | | (1.165) |
| Observations | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,136 | 1,140 | 1,128 | 1,128 | 1,136 | 1,140 |
| R-squared | 0.019 | 0.022 | 0.042 | 0.129 | 0.029 | 0.032 | 0.051 | 0.138 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

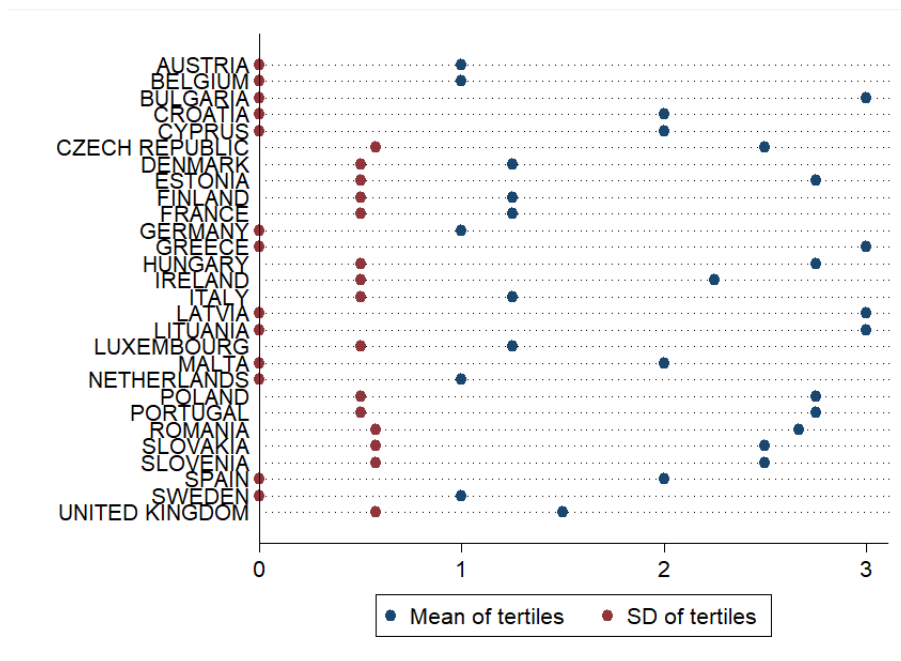
Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* split countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *Radical* is a dummy set equal to 1 for radical left/right parties. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table 11: Eurosceptic Voting at EU vs National Elections – Restricted Sample

| | Baseline | | | | Heterogeneity | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|---------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Eurosceptic | 2.281** | 2.263** | 2.155** | 2.781* | 1.603* | 1.568* | 1.187 | 1.657 |
| | (0.897) | (0.894) | (1.038) | (1.458) | (0.799) | (0.799) | (0.786) | (0.978) |
| 2 nd tertile | | | | | -0.682 | -0.827 | | |
| | | | | | (1.363) | (1.412) | | |
| 3 rd tertile | | | | | -1.931 | -2.018 | | |
| | | | | | (1.586) | (1.671) | | |
| Eurosceptic*2 nd tertile | | | | | -1.213 | -1.170 | -1.576 | -1.483 |
| | | | | | (1.425) | (1.440) | (1.377) | (1.779) |
| Eurosceptic*3 rd tertile | | | | | 3.385 | 3.406 | 4.362* | 5.704** |
| | | | | | (2.081) | (2.132) | (2.378) | (2.595) |
| Diff Turnout | 0.0204 | 0.0170 | 0.0597 | | 0.0320 | 0.0278 | 0.0559 | |
| | (0.0225) | (0.0229) | (0.0461) | | (0.0217) | (0.0218) | (0.0456) | |
| Proportional Voting | -0.795 | -0.872 | | | -1.129 | -1.194 | | |
| | (1.264) | (1.253) | | | (1.549) | (1.547) | | |
| Party Size | | | | 0.0197 | | | | 0.0444 |
| | | | | (0.0555) | | | | (0.0601) |
| Incumbent | | | | 0.692 | | | | 0.869 |
| | | | | (2.260) | | | | (2.154) |
| Observations | 314 | 314 | 314 | 315 | 314 | 314 | 314 | 315 |
| R-squared | 0.046 | 0.051 | 0.124 | 0.435 | 0.081 | 0.086 | 0.156 | 0.479 |
| Country FE | NO | NO | YES | YES | NO | NO | YES | YES |
| Time Fe | NO | YES | YES | YES | NO | YES | YES | YES |
| Country-Time FE | NO | NO | NO | YES | NO | NO | NO | YES |

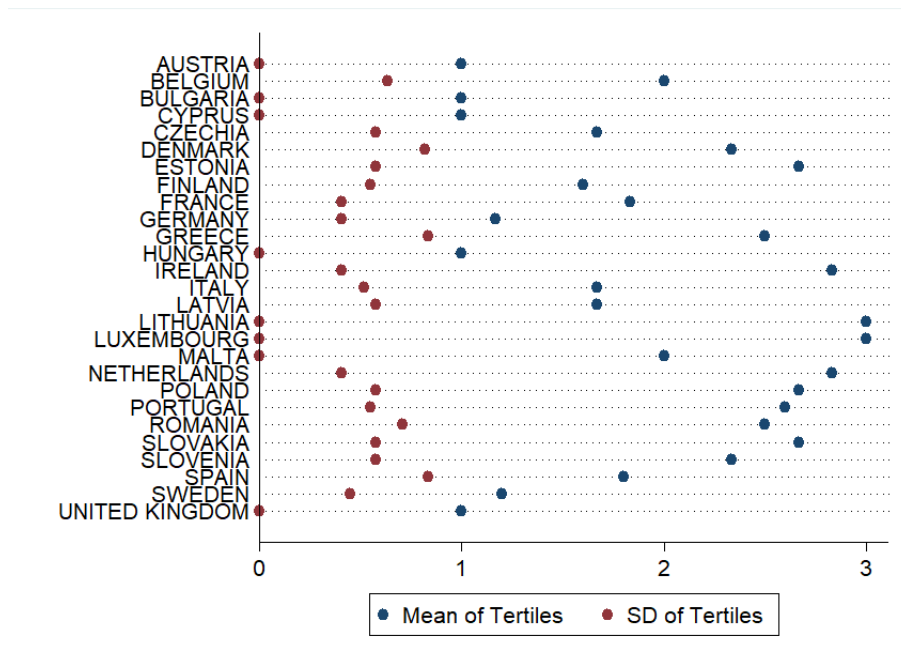
Note: The Table reports OLS coefficients and Robust Standard errors in brackets. The dependent variable is *DiffEU-Nat* (i.e. the difference in party vote shares between European and National elections); the sample is restricted only to strongly pro/anti EU parties. *Eurosceptic* is a dummy set equal to 1 for Eurosceptic parties; *Party Size* is a continuous variable measuring party vote share; *Incumbent* is a dummy set equal to one for the main incumbent party; *Proportional Voting* is a continuous index of the degree of dis-proportionality of the electoral system; *Diff Turnout* measures the differences in turnout between national and European elections. *Tertiles* splits countries in three groups based on their level of net contributions to the EU budget. The omitted category is the first tertile (largest net contributors). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Figure 8: Net Transfers *from* the EU as % of GNI (2000-2015): mean and standard deviation across tertiles



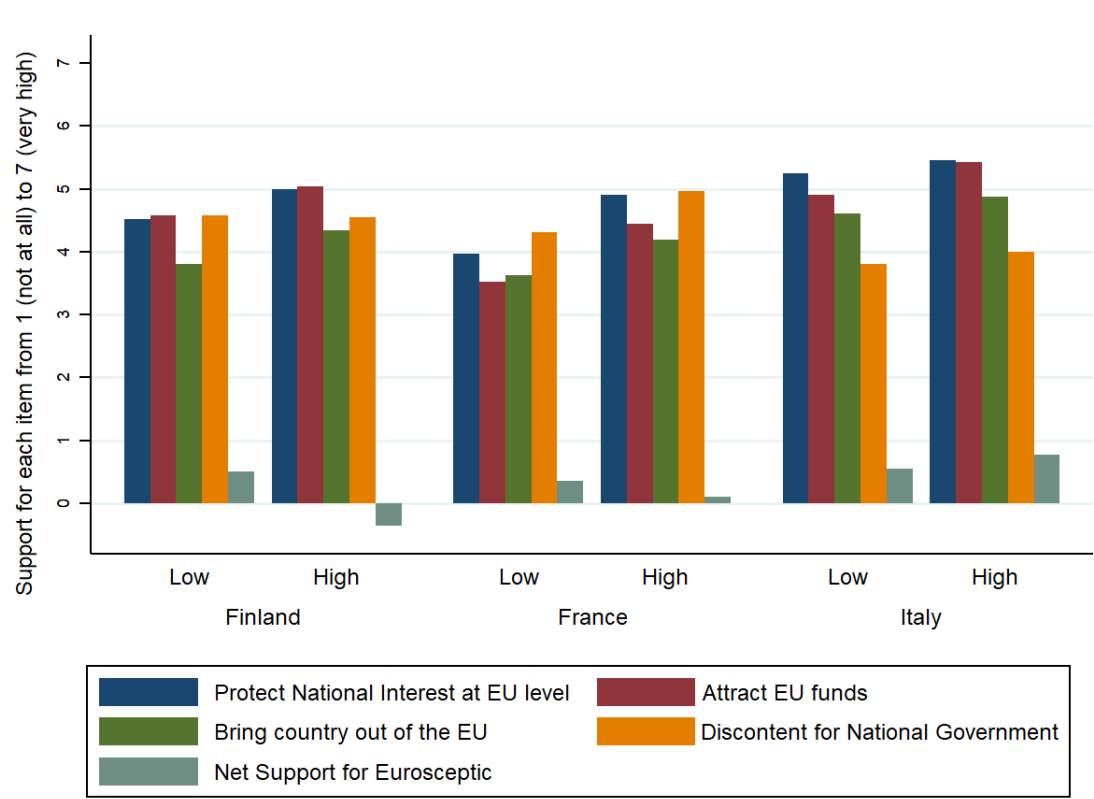
For each 5-year period, we place a country in a tertile depending on the net-transfers to the EU. We then calculate the average position across tertiles in the entire period (blue dots) and the standard deviation (red dots). The very low values of the standard deviations highlight countries' stickiness to a specific tertile across time.

Figure 9: Perceived Benefit from EU membership: mean and standard deviation across tertiles



For each 5-year period, we place a country in a tertile depending on the perceived benefits from being into the EU (i.e. similarly to Table 4). We then calculate the average position across tertiles in the entire period (blue dots) and the standard deviation (red dots). The very low values of the standard deviations highlight countries' stickiness to a specific tertile across time.

Figure 10: Online Survey results



The figure shows the distributions of replies across countries and levels of political interest.