

Italy

Self-rule

INSTITUTIONAL DEPTH AND POLICY SCOPE

Italy has developed into a quasi-federal state with two tiers of regional governance: a lower tier of 80 *province* (provinces), two autonomous provinces, six *liberi consorzi comunali* (free municipal consortia), and 14 *città metropolitana* (metropolitan cities), and a higher tier of twenty *regioni* (regions) (C 1947, Art. 114).¹ Until the early 1970s intermediate governance consisted of provinces, as well as four, later five, special statute regions (*regioni autonome a statuto speciale*) (see also C 1947, Art. 116). These are Sicilia, Sardegna, Valle d'Aosta/Vallée d'Aoste, Friuli-Venezia-Giulia (since 1963), and Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol. Among lower tier provinces, Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino have non-standard competences.

The primary responsibility of provinces lies in local economic development, alongside spatial planning, the environment, highways, and labor market policies. They also play a minor role in secondary education, vocational training, and cultural heritage (C 1947, Art. 124).^a Until 2001 their policy autonomy was constrained by the fact that provincial acts needed prior approval by the central government. These controls were gradually weakened in a series of reforms in the 1990s and the 2000 law on provincial and local autonomy (Law No. 142/1990; No. 267/2000; Lippi 2011). The 2001 constitutional reform abolished *ex ante* control of provincial acts and strengthened provincial autonomy in economic and cultural–educational policy (Committee of the Regions 2005; Council of Europe: Italy 2001).

The strengthened provincial autonomy turned out to be short-lived. A law adopted in 2011 (effective from January 1, 2013) transferred the main competences from the provinces to municipalities and regions and made provinces responsible for coordination of policies on behalf of municipalities residing within the provincial territory (Council of Europe: Italy 2013; Law No. 201/2011, Art. 23). The ‘Delrio Law’ of 2014 (effective as of January 1, 2015) further reduced the competences for provinces to environmental protection, provincial roads, school buildings, territorial planning, and transport services (Council of Europe: Italy 2013, 2017; Law No. 56/2014,

¹ The Italian constitution states that a law shall regulate the status of the capital city of Rome (C 1947, Art. 114). Until recently, the city of Rome did not have its own law, nor did it enjoy much more autonomy compared to other municipalities but specific legislation could mention rules pertaining only to the *Comune di Roma* (Council of Europe: Italy 2013, 2017). In 2009, the city of Rome was given additional competences for historical and artistic sites, tourism, urban development, territorial planning, and public transport but the central government issues a specific legislative decree which provides specific details concerning the exact competences and fiscal resources to be delegated to the *Comune di Roma* (Law No. 42/2009, Art. 24). This regime applies to the *Città metropolitana di Roma Capitale* since *Comune di Roma* became part of the metropolitan city of Rome in 2015 (Law No. 42/2009, Art. 24.1). We do not score this capital city regime because the central government keeps full control over the delegated competences which does not grant much additional authority when compared to other municipalities or other *città metropolitana*.

Art. 85). The ‘Delrio Law’ also abolished direct elections for provincial representatives who are now elected by the mayors and councilors of the municipalities from within the province (Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Law No. 56/2014, Art. 58). Provinces score 1 on policy scope for 1950–2000, 2 for 2001–2012, and 1 from 2013 onwards.

A constitutional reform that included the abolishment of provinces was put up for a referendum which was held in December 2016 but the reform was voted down (Council of Europe: Italy 2017). Friuli-Venezia-Giulia abolished its four provinces in 2018² and replaced them with 18 *unioni territoriali intercomunali* (intermunicipal territorial unions) which do not meet the population threshold for regional government (Law No. 164/2016). Eight provinces in Sardinia were abolished per March 1, 2013 but this decision was overturned by the Sardinian Regional Administrative Court in 2014. In 2014, six provinces in Sicily were replaced by six *liberi consorzi comunali* (free municipal consortia) which comprise the same territory and which have assumed the competences of the provinces they replaced (Law No. 8/2014, Art. 1). The *liberi consorzi comunali* are responsible for economic development, fisheries, hunting, roads, secondary education, spatial planning, social-cultural services, tourism, transport, and waste disposal (Law No. 15/2015, Art. 27). *Liberi consorzi comunali* score 2 on policy scope from 2014 onwards.

Metropolitan cities (*città metropolitana*) were established by law in 1990 (Council of Europe: Italy 1996; Law No. 142/1990, Art. 17) and were given constitutional status in 2001 (Council of Europe: Italy 2013, 2017; Law No. 3/2001) but these provisions were not implemented until the ‘Delrio Law’ replaced ten provinces by ten metropolitan cities in several ordinary regions in 2015 (Crivello and Staricco 2017; Law No. 56/2014, Arts. 144–145). Special statute regions and the autonomous provinces were required to adapt their legislation accordingly and an additional four metropolitan cities were established, three in Sicily and one in Sardinia in 2016 (Law No. 8/2014 and No. 15/2015 and No. 2/2016, Art. 17). The average population size of metropolitan cities is about 1.6 million inhabitants and all these cities are further subdivided into municipalities (*comuni*).³ Metropolitan cities assumed the competences from the provinces they superseded and they received additional responsibilities for local police services, roads, transport, and spatial and urban planning (Boggero 2016; Crivello and Staricco 2017; Law No. 56/2014, Art. 1.44). *Città metropolitana* score 2 on policy scope.

Italy’s 1947 constitution (in force since 1948) mandated directly elected regional governments with enumerated powers for the whole of Italy (C 1947, Art. 117). However, these provisions were put into practice only for *regioni* having a special autonomy statute. The constitution lists regional competences in agriculture, energy, mining, transport, tourism, museums, libraries, vocational education, public charity, health care, and hospitals. These policies encompass economic, cultural–educational, and welfare policy in our measure, but the constitution also asserts that these

² Gorizia, Pordenone, and Trieste as of 30 September 2017 and Udine as of 22 April 2018. Regione Autonoma Friuli Venezia Giulia Consiglio Regionale. Informazioni. “Soppressione delle Province del Friuli Venezia Giulia” <<http://www.consiglio.regione.fvg.it/cms/hp/informazioni/0072.html>>.

³ The fourteen metropolitan cities are Bari, Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Florence, Genoa, Messina, Milan, Naples, Palermo, Reggio Calabria, Rome, Turin, and Venice.

competences are to be exercised within the limits of national law and must not contravene the national interest or the interests of other regions (C 1947, Art. 117).^β This allowed the central government to suspend regional legislation until 2001 (Baldini and Baldi 2014; Cassese and Torchia 1993; Dente 1985, 1997; Lippi 2011; Sanantonio 1987). In addition to the list above, the special regions and the two autonomous provinces were endowed with authority over local government and local police (Law No. 455/1946, No. 2/1948; No. 3/1948; No. 4/1948; No. 5/1948; No. 1/1963; and No. 1/1971).

The statute of Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol was revised in 1972 to devolve competences in culture, education, welfare, economic policy, the police, and provincial political institutions to its two provinces, Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino. Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol retained legislative responsibility for economic development, hospitals and health, registry, and supervision of municipal government (Alcock 2001; Law No. 1/1971 which came into effect in 1972). From 1972, Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol had less authority than other special statute regions and scores 2 on policy scope.^β

Although a law was adopted in 1953 for the remaining fifteen regions (Law No. 62/1953), it took until 1970 before regionalization was implemented for the *regioni a statuto ordinario* (Amoretti 2016; Loughlin 2001c). These regions had directly elected councils with executives responsible to them from the start (Law No. 108/1968). However, they only gradually acquired policy competences, and until well into the 1990s, regions continued to exist in a regime that conceived them as “mechanisms for implementing national policies” (Hine 1996: 117; Gualini 2004).^β In 1972 ordinary-statute regions obtained competences in urban planning, regional development, environment, and craft industry. Further legislation extended this to health, hospitals, and police by 1977 (Law No. 281/1970; Nos. 2–11/1972; No. 382/1975; No. 616/1977; Amoretti 2004; Cassese and Torchia 1993; Putnam 1993). Ordinary-statute regions score 0 on policy scope for 1970–1971, 1 for 1972–1976, and 2 from 1977.

Decentralization moved up the political agenda in the 1990s after a nation-wide Italian judicial investigation into political corruption (*manipulite*) precipitated the demise of the First Republic and the collapse of its party system. A 1997 Law gave *regioni* residual administrative powers in most policy areas with respect to the central government, provinces, and local authorities (Law Nos. 59/1997 and 112/1998). The constitutional reform of 2001 consolidated the principle of residual powers and extended it to legislative competences concurrent with the central government in international and EU relations, foreign trade, job protection and industrial safety, education, scientific research, health, food, sport, civil protection, town planning, ports and airports, cultural and environmental resources, transport, and energy (Amoretti 2002; Council of Europe: Italy 2008; Fabbrini and Brunazzo 2003; Law No. 3/2001; No. 131/2003). The 2001 reform also ended the central government’s power to suspend regional legislation (Amoretti 2016; Bettoni 2017: 108–115). In addition, the law referred disputes between *regioni* and the central government to the constitutional court (C 1947, Art. 127).⁴ Policy scope increases to 3 for ordinary-statute regions in

⁴ In 2005 the central government proposed another constitutional reform which would have shifted significant on health and education to *regioni*, but the proposal was rejected in a popular referendum in

2001.

FISCAL AUTONOMY

Provinces had limited fiscal autonomy until the 1974 tax reform which centralized control of the base and rate of all taxes and reduced own taxes to a marginal share of provincial revenue (Emiliani et al. 1997).^a So, at the same time that it devolved competences, the central state strengthened control over the purse on grounds of equity. A major overhaul of the fiscal system in 1993 gave *province* greater revenue autonomy (Law No. 421/1992). Provincial taxes consist now of vehicle registration, the use of public land, a surcharge on electricity consumption, and a supplemental fee on waste disposal (Emiliani et al. 1997). *Province* set the rate within national constraints.^a Similar to provinces, *città metropolitana* can adjust the rate on a car registration tax, car accident tax, and a waste disposal tax (Boggero 2016; Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Frosini 2010; Law No. 56/2014, Art. 1.97). *Liberi consorzi comunali* in Sicily inherited the tax autonomy from the provinces they superseded (Law No. 15/2015, Art. 39).

Ordinary-statute regions were dependent on government transfers from 1970–89 (Von Hagen et al. 2000). The amount a region received was determined by how much it spent, rather than its revenues. A 1970 Law specified that regional expenditures were to be financed by a share of revenue in taxes on beer, sugar, gas, and tobacco (Law No. 281/1970). In 1990, regional governments obtained the right to set the rate, within centrally determined limits, of several minor taxes, including vehicle tax, an annual surtax, a special tax on diesel cars, health taxes, and university fees (Law No. 158/1990; Emiliani et al. 1997). From 1998 ordinary-statute regions are allowed to set the rate of personal income tax up to a nationally determined ceiling (Ambrosiano, Balduzzi, and Bordignon 2016: 216–217; Law No. 446/1997), which increases their score to 3. Since 2001 they have also been able to set the rate on their share of value added taxes which was up to 2.1 per cent in 2015 (Council of Europe: Italy 2008; Giarda 2001; Law No. 56/2000; Masetti 2017: 235).

Until 1998, special autonomous regions and provinces could set the rate of minor taxes.^a Friuli-Venezia-Giulia could set its own taxes “in harmony with the tax systems of local, provincial and national government;” Sardinia could tax tourism; Sicily could set the rate of a local business tax; Valle d’Aosta could license and tax hydropower; Trentino-Südtirol could tax tourism; and Trentino-Südtirol and the provinces of Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino could impose a surtax on land and buildings (Law No. 455/1946, Art. 36; No. 3/1948, Art. 8; No. 4/1948, Art. 9; No. 5/1948, Arts. 64–65; No. 1/1963, Art. 51). The 1998 tax reform (Law No. 446/1997) and the 2001 constitutional fiscal reform (Law No. 56/2000) were extended to the five special statute regions and the two autonomous provinces. Like ordinary-statute regions, these regions can set the rate of personal income and value added taxes within bands set by the central government (Giarda 2001; Lippi 2011; Malizia and Tassa 2004).

June 2006.

BORROWING AUTONOMY

Before the 1997 local government reform, provinces in Italy could get loans only from the deposit and loans office (Law No. 59/1997 and No. 112/1998).^α If this office had no available funds, provincial governments were allowed to apply elsewhere, but loans were subject to strict rules and were subject to the supervision of the ministry of finance, which fixed the maximum interest rate to be paid by provincial governments (Council of Europe 1992). Since the 1997 reform, provincial governments are free to borrow from other financial institutions but they must submit their budget to the respective regional board of auditors. If the regional board of auditors does not overrule the provincial budget within thirty days, it becomes final (Council of Europe: Italy 1999). Similar borrowing regulations apply to *città metropolitana* (Boggero 2016; Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Frosini 2010; Law No. 56/2014, Art. 1.97). *Liberi consorzi comunali* in Sicily inherited the borrowing autonomy from the provinces they superseded (Law No. 15/2015, Art. 39). Provinces, *città metropolitana*, and *liberi consorzi comunali* score 1.

The five special autonomous regions have always been able to borrow without prior authorization, but within constraints. The statutes stipulate that the regional government can take out loans for the purpose of financing investments so long as they do not exceed the annual revenue of the region (Law No. 455/1946, Art. 41, No. 3/1948, Art. 11, No. 4/1948, Art. 12, No. 5/1948, Art. 66, and No. 1/1963, Art. 455). Since 1970, ordinary-statute regions and, since 1972, the two autonomous provinces can also borrow without prior central authorization.^α

Restrictions on borrowing evolved over the last three decades, but the central government has stopped short of imposing *ex ante* controls. In response to accumulating subnational debt in the 1970s leading to an acute financial crisis in 1977, the central government assumed the total subnational debt in return for regions balancing their budgets and limiting short term loans to three months (Fraschini 2002; Law No. 62/1977; Von Hagen et al. 2000). The principle of a balanced current budget was reaffirmed in 1990 legislation and combined with additional restrictions on the duration and terms of the loans (Fraschini 2002; Law No. 142/1990). From 1998, the Maastricht current account deficit criterion of maximum 3 percent of gross domestic product (GDP) has been extended to regional governments (Giarda 2001; Law No. 448/1998). However, regions have managed to circumvent these constraints by borrowing through public health and transport enterprises (Emiliani et al. 1997). Following the reform of 2001, regions may contract loans only for the purpose of financing investments and their current budgets need to be balanced (C 1947, Art. 119.6). The debt service is restricted to 25 percent of their revenues (Emiliani et al. 1997; Fraschini 2002; Joumard and Kongsrud 2003). The control over regional budgets has been tightened since 2012 (Law No. 213/2012) and regions have to send an annual report on budgetary management to a national Court of Auditors (*Corte dei Conti*) which also inspects the (draft) budgets of the regions. However, the Court of Auditors cannot impose sanctions and central governmental control remains *post hoc* (Ambrosanio, Balduzzi, and Bordignon 2016: 281–221; Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Martial 2017).

REPRESENTATION

Elections for *consigli provinciali* (provincial councils) were direct and took place every five years (Baccetti 2014: 168–173; Law No. 122/1951) until 2013 when the last direct provincial elections were held (Council of Europe: Italy 2017). From 2014, provincial councils and *presidente della provincia* (provincial presidents) are elected by the mayors and councilors of the municipalities residing within the province. Only mayors can be elected as president of the province and councilors have two-year terms whereas presidents serve for four years (Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Law No. 56/2014, Art. 58). Between 1993 until 2014, council presidents were directly elected rather than elected by provincial councils (Law No. 81/1993). Each province also has a *prefetto* (prefect) appointed by the central government who has executive authority over decentralized central state services. Following the 2001 constitutional reform, the *prefetto*'s role has been scaled back to law and order, emergency measures, and *ex post* supervision of local and provincial decisions (Law No. 3/2001). Since 2015, an assembly of mayors (*assemblea dei sindaci*) advises the provincial assembly (Council of Europe: Italy 2017).

The assembly (*assemblea*) of *liberi consorzio comunali* in Sicily consists of the mayors of the constituting municipalities and the president (*presidente*) plus a maximum of eight mayors form the executive (*giunta*) and they are elected by the mayors and councilors from the assemblies of the member municipalities (Ambrosanio, Balduzzi, and Bordignon 2016: 218-221; Law No. 15/2015, Arts. 6 and 8–9).

Metropolitan city councils (*consiglio metropolitano*) are elected every five years by the councilors of the municipal assemblies residing within the territory of the metropolitan city. The mayor of the provincial capital (*capoluogo*) is *de iure* the mayor (*sindaco metropolitano*) of the metropolitan city. The law contains a provision to introduce direct elections for the metropolitan city mayor but this provision has not been implemented yet through enabling legislation (Boggero 2016; Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Law No. 56/2014, Arts. 19–22). *Città metropolitana* score 2 on executive because the mayor of the provincial capital is elected by the council of the provincial capital.^β A metropolitan conference (*conferenza metropolitana*) approves the by-laws of the metropolitan city. This council consists of the mayors of the municipalities from within the territory of the metropolitan city and is headed by the metropolitan city mayor (Council of Europe: Italy 2017; Law No. 56/2015, Art. 1).

Since 1970, *consigli regionali* (regional assemblies) of ordinary-statute regions have been directly elected every five years (Massetti and Sandri 2013; Piattoni and Brunazzo 2010). The regional president has been directly elected since 1999 (Law No. 1/1999).

Special-statute regions have had directly elected assemblies and executives chosen by the assembly since 1950 (for Friuli-Venezia-Giulia since 1963). The presidents of special statute regions and the two autonomous provinces can also be directly elected if specified in the regional statute (Law No. 2/2001; Lippi 2011). The president of Valle d'Aosta is indirectly elected. Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol's council was directly elected until 1972 and thereafter composed of councilors of the provinces of Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino (Law No. 1/1971). As of 1972, the executives in the two provinces with special autonomy became fully responsible to the provincial

councils.

Shared rule

There is no shared rule for *liberi consorzi comunali*, *città metropolitana*, and ordinary *province*.

LAW MAKING

The distribution of seats in the upper house of the parliament is determined chiefly by population. All but nine of the 315 constituencies are distributed proportionately among regions on the basis of their population, with each region receiving at least seven seats, except for Molise (two senators) and Valle d'Aosta (one senator).

EXECUTIVE CONTROL

The first intergovernmental conference between the central government and standard and special regions took place in 1983, but meetings were not routinized.^α Since 1989, the regions have met biannually with the central government in a standing conference on national–regional relations, and meet the minimum threshold for a score of 1 from 1989. The system was strengthened in 1997 and given added legitimacy in the 2001 constitutional revision, but agreements have generally remained non-binding (Brunazzo 2010: 187; C 1947, Arts.117.5 and 118.3; Palermo and Wilson 2013, 2014). Participation was extended to the autonomous provinces of Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino, but not to the other provinces (Amoretti 2016). From 2005 regions have been allowed to participate in the European decision making process, although the central government rarely makes binding commitments (Law No. 11/2005).

FISCAL CONTROL

There are no provisions for fiscal control for ordinary-statute regions. From 1999, Italy has concluded domestic stability pacts which set annual constraints on expenditure and/or the budget balance of subnational governments for a period of three years. There are also national–regional health pacts which aim to control regional expenditure on health services. Domestic stability pacts are jointly monitored by the ministry of finance, the ministry of home affairs, and the council of state, regions, and local authorities (*Conferenza unificata Stato, Regioni, e autonomie locali*). The pacts give subnational authorities a consultative role, but they impose constraints on subnational, not national, fiscal policy (Giuriato and Gastaldi 2009: 15–17). As part of a general fiscal reform in 2009 (Law No. 42/2009), the pacts set non-binding budgetary targets broken down by government sub-sector (central government, regional/local administrations, and the social security bodies) at the beginning of a three-year planning cycle (Blöchliger and Vammalle 2012). Subnational governments are formally consulted before parliamentary approval. Since the pacts concern government expenditure rather than the distribution of tax revenues, we do not code them as a form of fiscal control (Palermo 2012: 242–244).

For special-statute regions (and Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino), the statutes detail the revenue

split under a tax sharing scheme.^a Special statute regions/ provinces must be consulted but cannot veto changes to their statute (and by implication the fiscal arrangement) so they score 1 on fiscal control. The statutes for Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Sardegna, Trentino-Südtirol, and the provinces of Bozen-Südtirol and Trentino assign fixed percentages of the revenues derived from personal and corporate income tax, value added tax, energy, gasoline, and tobacco taxes to the region (Law No. 1/1963, Art. 48, No. 3/1948, Art. 8, and No. 5/1948, Arts. 59–68^{ter}). The statutes for Sicilia and Valle d’Aosta lay down a process for intermittent bilateral non-binding negotiation. Sicilia receives an annual donation from the central state which is subject to intergovernmental deliberation every five years (Law No. 455/1946, Art. 38); Valle d’Aosta’s donation is negotiable within two years after a regional election (Law No. 4/1948, Art. 50). These intermittent agreements must receive the consent of the national parliament (Palermo and Wilson 2014).

BORROWING CONTROL

Regions and provinces are not routinely consulted over borrowing constraints.

CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM

Ordinary-statute regions have no authority over the constitution, while special statute regions and provinces have input but no veto.

Amending the constitution and other constitutional acts requires adoption by each chamber twice within no less than three months and needs approval of an absolute majority in each chamber in the second voting (C 1947, Art. 138). In case of a majority short of two-thirds in the second round of voting, the issue goes to popular referendum but only if requested by one-fifth of the members of a chamber, 500,000 electors, or five regional councils (C 1947, Art. 138.2). Aside from the latter option, the constitution gives *regioni* no role in amending the constitution.

Special-statute regions and the two autonomous provinces have the right to initiate the amendment procedure with regard to their statutes (which are constitutional acts), but the final word remains with the national parliament (Law No. 455/1946, Art. 41^{ter}; No. 3/1948, Art. 54; No. 4/1948, Art. 50; No. 5/1948, Arts. 88–89; No. 1/1963, Art. 63). When the reform is initiated by the national parliament or central government the region has the right to be informed in advance and to deliver an opinion within two months. Special region statutes and their amendments cannot be subject to a national referendum.

Since 2001, an ordinary-statute region may also initiate changes to its statute after consulting local authorities and securing the agreement of the central government. A reform of the regional statute requires a majority in both houses (C 2001, Art. 116). The constitution details which competences can be affected (C 2001, Art. 116.3).

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Self-rule in Italy

			Institutional depth	Policy scope	Fiscal autonomy	Borrowing autonomy	Representation		Self-rule
							Assembly	Executive	
Province	I	1950-1969	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	I → II	1970-1973	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1974-1992	2	1	0	1	2	1	7
	II	1993-2000	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2001-2012	2	2	1	1	2	1	9
	II	2013	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2014-2018	2	1	1	1	1	1	7
Città metropolitana	II	2015-2018	2	2	1	1	1	2	9
Regioni a statuto ordinario	I	1970-1971	2	0	0	2	2	2	8
	I	1972-1976	2	1	0	2	2	2	9
	I	1977-1989	2	2	0	2	2	2	10
	I	1990-1997	2	2	1	2	2	2	11
	I	1998-2000	2	2	3	2	2	2	13
	I	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	I	1963-1997	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	I	1998-2000	2	3	3	2	2	2	14
	I	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15
Province	II	1963-1973	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1974-1992	2	1	0	1	2	1	7
	II	1993-2000	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2001-2012	2	2	1	1	2	1	9
	II	2013	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2014-2017	2	1	1	1	1	1	7

Sardegna	I	1950-1997	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	I	1998-2000	2	3	3	2	2	2	14
	I	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15
Province	II	1950-1969	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1970-1973	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1974-1992	2	1	0	1	2	1	7
	II	1993-2000	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2001-2012	2	2	1	1	2	1	9
	II	2013	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2014-2018	2	1	1	1	1	1	7
Città metropolitana	II	2016-2018	2	2	1	1	1	2	9
Sicilia	I	1950-1997	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	I	1998-2000	2	3	3	2	2	2	14
	I	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15
Province	II	1950-1969	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1970-1973	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1974-1992	2	1	0	1	2	1	7
	II	1993-2000	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2001-2012	2	2	1	1	2	1	9
	II	2013	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	2014-2018	2	2	1	1	1	1	8
Liberi consorzi comunali	II	2014-2018	2	2	1	1	1	1	8
Città metropolitana	II	2016-2018	2	2	1	1	1	2	9

Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol	I	1950-1971	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	I	1972-1997	2	2	1	2	1	2	10
	I	1998-2000	2	2	3	2	1	2	12
	I	2001-2018	3	2	3	2	1	2	13
Bozen-Südtirol/Bozen-Alto Adige	II	1950-1971	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1972-1997	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	II	1998-2000	2	3	3	2	2	2	14
	II	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15
Trento	II	1950-1971	2	1	1	1	2	1	8
	II	1972-1997	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	II	1998-2000	2	3	3	2	2	2	14
	II	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15
Valle d'Aosta	I	1950-1997	2	3	1	2	2	2	12
	I	1998-2000	2	3	3	2	2	2	14
	I	2001-2018	3	3	3	2	2	2	15

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Shared rule in Italy

		Law making					Executive control		Fiscal control		Borrowing control		Constitutional reform		Shared rule	
		L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	M	B	M	B	M	B	M		B
Province	1950-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Città metropolitana	2015-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Regioni a statuto ordinario	1970-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1989-2000	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	2001-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	1963-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4
Province	1963-2017	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sardegna	1950-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4
Province	1950-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Città metropolitana	2016-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sicilia	1950-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4
Province	1950-2013	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Liberi consorzi comunali	2014-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Città metropolitana	2016-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Trentino-Alto Adige /Südtirol	1950-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4
Bozen-Südtirol /Bozen-Alto Adige	1950-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4
Trento	1950-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4

Valle d'Aosta	1950-1988	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
	1989-2018	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4

National legislature has: L1 = regional representation; L2 = regional government representation; L3 = majority regional representation; L4 = extensive authority; L5 = bilateral regional consultation; L6 = veto for individual region. Total for shared rule includes the highest score of either multilateral (M) or bilateral (B).

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