## THE POLITICAL CULTURE OF

# DEMOCRACY IN COLOMBIA: 2006

By:

Juan Carlos Rodríguez-Raga Universidad de los Andes

Mitchell A. Seligson, Ph.D. Centennial Professor of Political Science, Vanderbilt University

Mitchell A. Seligson, Ph.D. Scientific coordinator and editor of the series, Vanderbilt University













This study was conducted thanks to the support provided by the Democracy and Governance program of the United States Agency for International Development. The opinions expressed in this report

are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the United States Agency for International Development.

## **Table of Contents**

List of Figures	iii
List of Tables	xi
Preface	xiii
Prologue	xv
Executive Summary	xxiii
I. The Context	1
Economic Performance	
The Political Conjuncture	
Congressional Elections and a New Electoral System	12
Presidential Reelection	
Annex: Parties and Movements with Representation in the Senate	
References	17
II. The Sample	19
Basic Distributions	20
III. The Meaning of Democracy in Colombia	35
The General Panorama of Democracy	35
Meanings of Democracy	
Characteristics of those who Hold Alternative Conceptions of Democracy	
Impact of the Conception of Democracy on the Perception of and Satisfaction with Democracy	53
References	
Annex	56
IV. The State of Democracy in Colombia	57
Support for the System	57
Predictors of Support for the System	62
Political Tolerance	68
Predictors of Political Tolerance	72
Democratic Stability	74
Trust in Institutions	80
Attitudes towards Democracy	87
Approval of Censorship	87
"Churchillian" Democracy	90
Justification of a Coup d'État	93
Threats to the Separation of Powers	95
Annex	111
V. Corruption and Democracy	115
Victimization by Corruption	117
Attitudes toward Corruption	131
Perception of Corruption	138
Annex	147
VI. Crime and The Rule of Law	
Victimization by Crime	
Institutions Charged with Protecting Rights	
Respect for the Rule of Law	
Annex	173



VII. Local Government	175
Evaluation of Local Governments	
Trust in Local Institutions	
Accountability	
Transparency	184
Provision of Public Services	
Participation and Making Demands	
Significant Predictors of Participation	
Significant Predictors of Demand-Making on Municipal Authorities	
Annex	
VIII. Political Parties and Elections.	
Trust in Electoral Institutions, Party Affiliation, and Political Activism	
Trust in Electoral Institutions	
Party Affiliation	
Political Interest and Activism	
Evaluation of the Current Administration	
Electoral Behavior	
Annex	
References	
IX. Civil Society Participation	
Participation in Solving Community Problems	
Participation in Civil Society Associations and Organizations	
Participation in Demonstrations or Protests	
Fear of Participating	
Annex	
X. The Armed Conflict and Human Rights	
Perceptions of the Conflict	
The Human Rights Situation	
Victimization by the Armed Conflict	
Annex A Technical Description of the Sample	
Sample Design	
Sample Results and Description of the Respondents	
Technical Description of the Sampling Design	
Universe	
Population	
Final Unit of Selection	
Sampling Method	
Sampling Framework	
Calculations by Strata	
Sample Sizes, Confidence Intervals, and Margins of Error	
Survey TeamSurvey Team	
Final Comments on Survey Fieldwork	
Annex B Questionnaire	
Anney C. Design Effects	



## **List of Figures**

Figure I-1. GDP per capita (2005)	1
Figure I-2. GDP Growth (2000-2005)	2
Figure I-3. Infant Mortality Rate (2004)	3
Figure I-4. Life-Expectancy at Birth (2004)	3
Figure I-5. Evaluation of the Country's Economic Performance (2006) - Colombia in Comparative	
Perspective	4
Figure I-6. Perception of the Evolution of the Country's Economic Performance in the Last Year (200	6) -
Colombia in Comparative Perspective	5
Figure I-7. Evaluation of One's Own Economic Situation (2006) - Colombia in Comparative Perspect	ive6
Figure I-8. Perception of the Evolution of One's Own Economic Situation (2006) - Colombia in	
Comparative Perspective	7
Figure I-9. Evaluation of the Country's Economic Performance in Colombia (2004-2006)	
Figure I-10. Poverty Levels in Latin America	
Figure I-11. Inequality (Urban) in Latin America	9
Figure I-12. Unemployment - Colombia vs. Latin America and the Caribbean	10
Figure I-13. The Most Serious Problem in the Country for Colombians (2006)	
Figure I-14. Poverty as the Country's Most Serious Problem	
Figure I-15. Inequality as the Country's Most Serious Problem	
Figure II-1. Distribution of the Sample by Region - 2006	
Figure II-2. Distribution of the Sample by Sex - 2004-2006	
Figure II-3. Distribution of Ages - 2006	
Figure II-4. Average Age of Respondents - 2004-2006	
Figure II-5. Distribution of the Sample by Educational Level - 2006	
Figure II-6. Average Educational Level - 2004-2006	
Figure II-7. Distribution of the Sample by Income - 2006	
Figure II-8. Distribution of the Sample by Level of Wealth - 2006	
Figure II-9. Income and Wealth Averages - 2004-2006	
Figure II-10. Distribution of the Sample by Civil Status - 2006.	
Figure II-11. Percentage of Respondents Who Are Married (or Living Together) - 2004-2006	30
Figure II-12. Average Number of Children - 2004-2006	
Figure II-13. Distribution of the Sample by Ethnic Self-Identification - 2004-2006	
Figure II-14. Distribution of the Sample by Professed Religion - 2004-2006	
Figure III-1. How Democratic is Colombia - 2006.	
Figure III-2. Perception of the Level of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-3. Level of Democracy in Colombia 2004-2006	38
Figure III-4. Satisfaction with Democracy in Colombia - 2006	39
Figure III-5. Satisfaction with Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-6. Alternative Conceptions of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	
Figure III-7. Normative Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-8. Utilitarian Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-9. Negative Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-10. Empty Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-11. Conceptions of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure III-12. Impact of Sex on the Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	
Figure III-13. Impact of Educational Level on the Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	52
Figure III-14. Relation between Conception and Perception of the Level of Democracy in Colombia -	<i>-</i> 2
2006	53



Figure III-15. Relation between Conception of and Satisfaction with Democracy in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-1. Support for the Political System in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-2. Diffuse Support, Controlling for the Popularity of the President, in Comparative Perspective 2006	59
Figure IV-3. Support for the System in Colombia - 2004-2006	60
Figure IV-4. Support for the System by Region - 2004-2006	
Figure IV-5. Support for the System by Age Group in Colombia - 2006	63
Figure IV-6. Support for the System by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-7. Support for the System by Level of Wealth in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-8. Support for the System by Evaluation of the Administration in Colombia - 2006	66
Figure IV-9. Support for the System by Evaluation of Municipal Services in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-10. Political Tolerance in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-11. Political Tolerance in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure IV-12. Political Tolerance by Region - 2004-2006	
Figure IV-13. Political Tolerance by Sex and Educational Level in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-14. Attitudes Favorable to a Stable Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-15. Attitudes that Lead to an Unstable Democracy, in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-16. Attitudes that Lead to Authoritarian Stability, in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-17. Attitudes that Put Democracy at Risk, in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-18. Democratic Stability in Colombia - 2004-2006.	
Figure IV-19. Institutional Trust in Colombia - 2006.	
Figure IV-20. Trust in the Executive Branch in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-21. Trust in the Legislative Branch in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-22. Trust in the System of Justice in Comparative Perspective - 2006	83
Figure IV-23. Trust in the Supreme Court in Comparative Perspective – 2006	
Figure IV-24. Trust in the Constitutional Court/Tribune in Comparative Perspective – 2006	
Figure IV-25. Trust in the Three Branches of Government in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure IV-26. Approval of Different Forms of Censorship in Colombia – 2004-2006	
Figure IV-27. Approval of Censorship in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-28. "Churchillian" Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-29. "Churchillian" Democracy by Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-30. Justification of a Coup d'État in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-31. Threats to the Separation of Powers in Comparative Perspective - 2006	96
Figure IV-32. Threats to the Separation of Powers in Colombia - 2005-2006	
Figure IV-33. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Level of Education in Colombia - 20	
Figure IV-34. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2	006
Figure IV-35. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Approval Rating of the President in	100
Colombia - 2006	101
Figure IV-36. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Victimization by the Conflict in	101
Colombia - 2006	
Figure IV-37. Attitudes that Favor an Illiberal Democracy in Colombia - 2006	104
Figure IV-38. Judges Get in the Way and Should be Ignored? Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-39. Congress an Obstacle and Should be Ignored? Comparative Perspective - 2006	106
Figure IV-40. Should Presidents Do What the People Want, Even Though the Laws Impede It?	
Comparative Perspective - 2006	107
Figure IV-41. Should Presidents Limit the Opposition in the Name of Progress? Comparative Perspective	
Figure IV-42. Should Presidents Have Sufficient Power to Act in the National Interest? Comparative	
Perspective - 2006	
Figure IV-43. Attitudes Favorable to an Illiberal Democracy in Comparative Perspective – 2006	110



Figure V-1. Corruption as a Minor Problem in Colombia - 2006	.115
Figure V-2. Reasons that Justify a Coup d'État in Colombia - 2005-2006	
Figure V-3. Victimization: Police Officers Demanding Bribes in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-4. Victimization: Public Officials Demanding Bribes in Comparative Perspective – 2006	
Figure V-5. Victimization: Municipal Government Bribes in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-6. Victimization: Demands for Bribes in the Workplace in Comparative Perspective - 2006.	
Figure V-7. Victimization: Demands for a Bribe in the Courts in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-8. Victimization: Demands for a Bribe in Hospitals in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-9. Victimization: Demands for a Bribe in the Schools in Comparative Perspective – 2006	
Figure V-10. Individual Acts of Corruption in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure V-11. Index of Total Victimization by Corruption in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-12. Incidence of Victimization by Corruption in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-13. Incidence of Victimization by Corruption in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure V-14. Victimization by Corruption by Sex and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure V-15. Impact of Area of Residence (Urban/Rural) on Victimization by Corruption in Colombia	
2006	.130
Figure V-16. Is a Congress Person who Accepts a Bribe Corrupt? - Colombia 2006	. 132
Figure V-17. And is the Company Who Pays the Bribe Corrupt? - Colombia 2006	. 133
Figure V-18. Attitudes toward Corruption: Politician who Receives a Bribe - Comparative Perspective	e
2006	
Figure V-19. Is a Mother who Pays a Bribe Corrupt? - Colombia 2006	. 135
Figure V-20. Attitudes toward Corruption: Woman who Pays a Bribe - Comparative Perspective 200	16
Figure V-21. Is the Politician who Traffics in Influence Corrupt? - Colombia 2006	. 137
Figure V-22. Attitudes toward Corruption: Politician who Traffics in Influence – Comparative	
Perspective 2006	
Figure V-23. Perception of Corruption in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure V-24. Perception of Corruption in Colombia - 2004-2006.	
Figure V-25. Perception of Corruption in Different Public Officials in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure V-26. Perception of Corruption by Civil Status and Age in Colombia - 2006	
Figure V-27. Perception of Corruption by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure V-28. Perception of Corruption by Level of Wealth in Colombia - 2006	
Figure V-29. Impact of Tolerance of Acts of Corruption on the Perception of Corruption in Colombia	
2006	
Figure V-30. Perception of Corruption by Evaluation of the Government in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-1. Crime as a Problem in Colombia - 2006.	
Figure VI-2. Victimization by Crime in Comparative Perspective - 2006	
Figure VI-3. Victimization by Crime in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VI-4. Types of Crime in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-5. Victimization by Crime by Sex and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-6. Victimization by Crime by Level of Wealth in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-7. Trust in Institutions that Protect Rights in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VI-8. Trust in Institutions that Protect Rights in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VI-9. Aggregated Trust in Institutions that Protect Rights in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VI-10. Perception of the Speed of Judicial Decisions in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-11. Perception of the Speed of Judicial Decisions - 2004-2006.	
Figure VI-12. Evaluation of Access to Judicial Institutions in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VI-13. Satisfaction with Institutions that Administer Justice in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VI-14. Satisfaction with Institutions that Administer Justice in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VI-15. Perception of Insecurity Comparative Perspective- 2006	
1 12410 V 1-10. 1 0100011011 01 1115004111V 111 0010111014 = 2004-2000	. 104



Figure VI-17. Perception of Insecurity by Area of Residence (Urban/Rural) in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-18. Perception of Insecurity by Evaluation of the Current Administration in Colombia - 20	
Figure VI-19. Perception of Insecurity by Victimization by Crime in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-20. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VI-21. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VI-22. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law by Region - Colombia 2004-2006	
Figure VI-23. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law by Age Group in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VI-24. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law by Age Group in Colombia - 2000	
Tigure VI 21. Willinghess to recept Breaking the reale of Earl by Eever of Education in Colombia	
Figure VII-1. Trust in the Municipal Government in Comparative Perspective- 2006	176
Figure VII-2. Trust in the National, Departmental, and Municipal Governments in Colombia - 2004-	
Figure VII-3. Trust in the Municipal Government and the Municipal Council by Region in Colombia	
2006	
Figure VII-4. Trust in the Municipal Government and the Municipal Council by Area of Residence is	in
Colombia - 2006	179
Figure VII-5. Perception of the Accountability of the National, Departmental, and Municipal	
Governments in Colombia - 2004-2006.	181
Figure VII-6. Perception of the Accountability of the Municipal Government by Region in Colombia 2006	
Figure VII-7. Perception of the Accountability of the Municipal Government by Area of Residence is	
Colombia - 2006	183
Figure VII-8. Perception of Transparency in National, Departmental, and Municipal Governments in	1
Colombia - 2004-2006	185
Figure VII-9. Perception of Transparency of the Municipal Government by Region in Colombia - 20	
D' VII 10 D 4' CT C4 M '' 1 C 41 A CD '1 '	186
Figure VII-10. Perception of Transparency of the Municipal Government by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006	107
Colombia - 2006	107 190
Figure VII-11. Evaluation of Municipal Services in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VII-12. Evaluation of Municipal Services in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VII-14. Evaluation of Municipal Services by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VII-15. Evaluation of Specific Services in Colombia - 2004-2006.	
Figure VII-16. "Centralist" Attitudes in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VII-17. Willingness to Pay More Local Taxes in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VII-18. Willingness to Pay More Local Taxes in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VII-19. Willingness to Pay More Local Taxes by Region and Area of Residence in Colombia	
2006	
Figure VII-20. Participation in Municipal Affairs in Colombia - 2004-2006.	
Figure VII-21. Participation in Municipal Affairs in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VII-22. Demands on Municipal Authorities in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VII-23. Making Demands on the Municipal Government in Comparative Perspective- 2006	203
Figure VII-24. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Level of Education and Area of Residence in	• • •
Colombia - 2006	
Figure VII-25. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Wealth in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VII-26. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VII-27. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VII-28. Demand-Making on Local Authorities by Level of Education and Area of Residence	
Colombia - 2006	
Figure VII-29 Demand-Making on Local Authorities by Wealth in Colombia - 2006	210



Figure VII-30. Demand-Making on Local Authorities by Partisan Affiliation in Colombia - 2006	. 211
Figure VIII-1. Trust in Elections in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VIII-2. Trust in Political Parties in Comparative Perspective- 2006.	
Figure VIII-3. Trust in the Electoral Court in Comparative Perspective- 2006	.217
Figure VIII-4. Trust in Electoral Institutions in Colombia - 2004-2006.	
Figure VIII-5. Partisan Affinity in Comparative Perspective- 2006.	. 220
Figure VIII-6. Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2005-2006	. 221
Figure VIII-7. Party Inclination of Independents or People Without a Party in Colombia - 2005-2006	. 222
Figure VIII-8. Colombians' Ideological Position - 2004-2005	
Figure VIII-9. Ideological Position by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2005-2006	. 224
Figure VIII-10. Partisan Affiliation by Age in Colombia - 2006	. 225
Figure VIII-11. Partisan Affiliation by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-12. Partisan Affiliation by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-13. Partisan Affiliation by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006	. 228
Figure VIII-14. Interest in Politics in Comparative Perspective- 2006	. 230
Figure VIII-15. Frequency that Talk about Politics, in Comparative Perspective- 2006	. 231
Figure VIII-16. Frequency of Attending Political Party Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006	. 232
Figure VIII-17. Political 'Proselytism' in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VIII-18. Working on Political Campaigns in Comparative Perspective- 2006	. 234
Figure VIII-19. Index of Political Interest and Activism in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VIII-20. Political Interest and Activism by Party Support in Colombia - 2006	. 236
Figure VIII-21. Political Interest and Activism by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-22. Political Interest and Activism by Partisan Affiliation in Colombia - 2006	. 238
Figure VIII-23. Political Interest and Activism by Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2006	. 239
Figure VIII-24. Political Interest and Activism by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006	. 240
Figure VIII-25. Evaluation of the Current Administration in Comparative Perspective- 2006	. 242
Figure VIII-26. Evaluation of Specific Aspects of the Administration's Performance in Colombia - 20	04-
2006	. 243
Figure VIII-27. Changes in the Evaluation of Administrative Performance in Colombia - 2005-2006	
Figure VIII-28. General Evaluation of the Current Administration in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure VIII-29. Evaluation of the Current Administration by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-30. Participation in Recent Elections in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-31. Participation in the Last Presidential Election in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure VIII-32. Electoral Participation by Age in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-33. Electoral Participation by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-34. Electoral Participation by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-35. Electoral Participation by Civil Status in Colombia - 2006	. 252
Figure VIII-36. Electoral Participation by Evaluation of the Current Administration in Colombia - 200	)6
Figure VIII-37. Electoral Participation by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006	
Figure VIII-38. Electoral Participation by Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	. 255
Figure VIII-39. Electoral Participation by Exposure to TV News in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IX-1. Participation in Solving Community Problems in Comparative Perspective- 2006	. 262
Figure IX-2. Participation in Solving Community Problems in Colombia - 2004-2006	. 263
Figure IX-3. Forms of Participation in Solving Community Problems in Colombia – 2006	. 264
Figure IX-4. Participation in Solving Community Problems by Age and Level of Education in Colomb	oia -
2006	. 265
Figure IX-5. Participation in Solving Community Problems by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IX-6. Participation in Solving Community Problems by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 200	
Figure IX-7 Attendance at Religions Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006	269



Figure IX-8. Attendance at Parent-Teacher Association Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006 Figure IX-9. Attendance at Community-Improvement Committee Meetings in Comparative Perspective 2006	
Figure IX-10. Attendance at Professional, Merchant, or Producer Association Meetings in Comparativ	
Perspective- 2006.	
Figure IX-11. Attendance at Union Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure IX-12. Attendance at Political Party Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure IX-13. Attendance at Meetings of Different Types of Groups in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure IX-14. Participation in Public Protests or Demonstrations in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure IX-15. Participation in Protests or Demonstrations by Age in Colombia - 2006	.279
Figure IX-16. Participation in Protests of Demonstrations by Education and Civil Status in Colombia	
2006	- . 280
Figure IX-17. Participation in Protests or Demonstrations by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006.	
Figure IX-18. Participation in Protests of Demonstrations by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006.	
Figure IX-19. Fear of Participating in Different Ways in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure IX-20. Index of the Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure IX-21. Fear of Participating by Sex and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006	
Figure IX-22. Fear of Participating by Age in Colombia - 2006	
Figure X-1. The Worst Problem in Colombia - 2006	
Figure X-2. Violence as the Worst Problem in Comparative Perspective- 2006	
Figure X-3. Solutions to the Conflict with the Guerrilla in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure X-4. Solutions to the Conflict with the Paramilitaries in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure X-4. Solutions to the Conflict with the Farahilltaires in Colombia - 2004-2000	
Figure A-3. Optimism for a Negotiated Solution with the megal Affiled Groups in Colombia - 2004-2	.000 .296
Figure V. 6. Support for the Demohilization and Deinscrition of Members of the Cusmille and	. 290
Figure X-6. Support for the Demobilization and Reinsertion of Members of the Guerrilla and Paramilitaries in Colombia - 2004-2006	. 298
Figure X-7. Support for the Demobilization and Reinsertion of Members of the Guerrilla by Region in Colombia - 2004-2006	. 299
Colombia - 2004-2006	
in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure X-9. Trust in the Illegal Armed Actors in Colombia - 2004-2006	
Figure X-10. Where Would You Report a Human Rights Violation? Colombia 2006	
	. 304
Figure X-12. Perception of the Effectiveness of the State in Preventing Human Rights Violations in	204
Colombia - 2004-2006	.305
Figure X-13. Perception of the Democratic Security Policy in terms of Human Rights in Colombia - 2	
Figure X-14. People who Believe that Human Rights Violations Have Increased with the Democratic	. 300
	205
Security Policy in Colombia - 2004-2006	
- 2004-2006	
2004-2006	. 310
Because of the Conflict in Colombia - 2004-2006	211
Figure X-18. Perpetrators of Acts of Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2005-2006	
	. 312
Figure X-19. The Guerilla and the Paramilitaries as Perpetrators of Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2005-2006	210
Figure X-20. Loss of a Family Member because of the Conflict by Sex - Colombia 2006	
Figure X-21. Loss of a Family Member because of the Conflict by Age - Colombia 2006	





## The Political Culture of Democracy in Colombia: 2006

gure X-22. Family Member Who Has Had to Leave Because of the Conflict, by Age - Colombia 2000	5
	317
gure X-23. Family Member Had to Leave the Country Because of the Conflict by Socioeconomic Str	
Colombia 2006	318
gure X-24. Institutional Trust and Victimization by Displacement in Colombia - 2006	319
gure X-25. Institutional Trust and Victimization by Exile in Colombia - 2006	320
gure X-26. Exile of a Family Member and Support for the Reinsertion of Illegal Armed Groups in	
olombia - 2006	321
gure X-27. Loss of a Family Member Because of the Conflict and Support for the Reinsertion of the	
egal Armed Groups in Colombia - 2006	322



## **List of Tables**

Table I-1. Parties Participating in the 2006 Senate Election	13
Table III-1. Meanings of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	41
Table III-2. Analytical Framework for the Alternative Conceptions of Democracy	42
Table III-3. Predictors of the Alternative Conceptions of Democracy in Colombia - 2006	56
Table IV-1. Democratic Stability in Colombia - 2006.	74
Table IV-2. Predictors of Support for the System in Colombia - 2006	111
Table IV-3. Predictors of Political Tolerance in Colombia - 2006	112
Table IV-4. Predictors of Adverse Attutides Toward the Separation of Powers in Colombia - 2006	113
Table V-1. Predictors of Victimization by Corruption	147
Table V-2. Predictors of the Perception of Corruption	
Table VI-1. Predictors of Victimization by Crime in Colombia – 2006	
Table VI-2. Predictors of the Perception of Insecurity in Colombia - 2006	
Table VI-3. Predictors of the Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law in Colombia - 2006	
Table VII-1. Participants and Demand-Makers in Colombia - 2006	
Table VII-2. Predictors of Participation in Municipal Affairs in Colombia - 2006	
Table VII-3. Predictors of Demand-Making on Local Authorities in Colombia - 2006	
Table VIII-1. Predictors of Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006	
Table VIII-2. Predictors of Political Interst and Activism in Colombia - 2006	
Table VIII-3. Predictors of Electoral Participation in Colombia - 2006	258
Table IX-1. Predictors of the Different Forms of Participation in Colombia - 2006	
Table IX-2. Predictors of Participation in the Solution of Community Problems in Colombia - 2006	
Table IX-3. Predictors of Participation in Protests and Demonstrations in Colombia - 2006	
Table IX-4. Predictors of the Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006.	
Table X-1. Predictors of Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2006	314
Table A-1. Standard Errors and Design Effects for Selected Variables	324
Table A-2. Sample vs. 1993 Census (18 years and older)	
Table A-3. Characteristics of the Sample, by Sex	
Table A-4. Sample Size and Margins of Error (95% Level of Confidence)	
Table A-5. CNC Personel Who Participated in the Study	
Table A-6. Population by Region: Urban and Rural Area (2006 Projections)	
Table A-7. Size and Distribution of the Sample by Strata (Region)	
Table A-8. Respondents and Primary Sampling Units (PSU) by Strata (Region)	



#### **Preface**

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) takes pride in its support of the Latin American Public Opinion Project (LAPOP) democracy and governance surveys in Latin America and the Caribbean over the past two decades. LAPOP findings have been a crucial tool to USAID missions in diagnosing the nature of the democratic challenge; sparking policy dialogue and debate within Latin American countries; monitoring on-going USAID programs; and evaluating and measuring USAID performance in supporting democracy and good governance in the region. The reports have often served as the "voice" of citizens on the quality of democracy. We hope that this 2006 study also proves to be useful to policy-makers, democracy advocates, donors and practitioners.

The decision to undertake democracy surveys in Latin America and the Caribbean emerged from the USAID country missions, where field democracy officers have increasingly depended on them as a management and policy tool. The depth and breadth of the questionnaire allows us to look beyond simple questions and examine complex relationships related to gender, ethnicity, geography, economic well-being, and other conditions, and delve deeply into specific practices and cultures to identify where our assistance might be most fruitful in promoting democracy. The surveys represent a unique USAID resource, as a comparative, consistent, and high quality source of information over time. USAID is grateful for the leadership of Dr. Mitchell Seligson at Vanderbilt University, his outstanding Latin American graduate students from throughout the hemisphere and the participation and expertise of the many regional academic and expert institutions that have been involved in this project.

Two recent trends in these surveys have made them even more useful. One is the addition of more countries to the survey base, using a core of common questions, which allows valid comparisons across systems and over time. The second, and even more important, is the introduction of geographically or project-based "over-sampling" in some of the countries where USAID has democracy programs. The result is a new capability for USAID missions to examine the impact of their programs in statistically valid ways by comparing the "before and after" of our work, and also comparing changes in the areas where we have programs to changes in areas where we do not have them. These methodologies should provide one of the most rigorous tests of program effectiveness of donor interventions in any field.

Promoting democracy and good governance is a US government foreign policy priority, and our investment of both effort and money is a substantial one. Democratic development is a relatively new field of development, however, and our knowledge of basic political relationships and the impact of donor assistance are still at an early phase. It is critical that we be able to determine which programs work and under what circumstances they work best, learning from our experience and constantly improving our programs. To meet this challenge, USAID has undertaken a new initiative, the Strategic and Operational Research Agenda, (SORA). With the assistance of the National Academy of Sciences, SORA has already incorporated the insights of numerous experts in political science and research methodology into our work. The LAPOP democracy surveys are a critical component of this evaluation effort. We hope their findings will stimulate a dialogue among governments, NGOs, scholars and the public that will help, in the long run, to solidify democracy in Latin America.



Dr. Margaret Sarles Division Chief, Strategic Planning and Research Office of Democracy and Governance U.S. Agency for International Development



## **Prologue**

## The Americas Barometer, 2006: Background to the Study

By Mitchell A. Seligson Centennial Professor of Political Science And Director, the Latin American Public Opinion Project (LAPOP) Vanderbilt University

I am very pleased to introduce to you the 2006 round of the AmericasBarometer series of surveys, one of the many and growing activities of the Latin American Public Opinion Project (LAPOP). That project, initiated over two decades ago, is hosted by Vanderbilt University. LAPOP began with the study of democratic values in one country, Costa Rica, at a time when much of the rest of Latin America was caught in the grip of repressive regimes that widely prohibited studies of public opinion (and systematically violated human rights and civil liberties). Today, fortunately, such studies can be carried out openly and freely in virtually all countries in the region. The AmericasBarometer is an effort by LAPOP to measure democratic values and behaviours in the Americas using national probability samples of voting-age adults. The first effort was in 2004, when eleven countries were included, and all of those studies are already available on the LAPOP web site. The present study reflects LAPOP's most extensive effort to date, incorporating 20 countries. For the first time, through the generosity of a grant from the Center for the Americas, it was possible to include the United States and Canada. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) provided the core funding to enable to study to incorporate much of Latin America and the Caribbean, so that in 2006, as of this writing, the following countries have been included: Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Colombia, Peru, Chile, Dominican Republic, Haiti and Jamaica. The sample and questionnaire designs for all studies were uniform, allowing direct comparisons among them, as well as detailed analysis within each country. The 2006 series involves a total of publications, one for each of the countries, authored by the country teams, and a summary study, written by the author of this Foreword, member of the LAPOP team at Vanderbilt and other collaborators,. We embarked the 2006 on AmericasBarometer in the hope that the results would be of interest and of policy relevance to citizens, NGOs, academics, governments and the international donor community. Our hope is that the study could not only be used to help advance the democratization agenda, it would also serve the academic community which has been engaged in a quest to determine which values are the ones most likely to promote stable democracy. For that reason, we agreed on a common core of questions to include in our survey. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) provided a generous grant to LAPOP to bring together the leading scholars in the field in May, 2006, in order to help determine the best questions to incorporate into what was becoming the "UNDP Democracy Support Index." The scholars who attended that meeting prepared papers that were presented and critiqued at the Vanderbilt workshop, and helped provide both a theoretical and empirical justification for the decisions taken. All of those papers are available on the LAPOP web site.

The UNDP-sponsored event was then followed by a meeting of the country teams in Heredia, Costa Rica, in May, 2006. Key democracy officers from USAID were present at the meeting, as well as staffers from LAPOP at Vanderbilt. With the background of the 2004 series



and the UNDP workshop input, it became fairly easy for the teams to agree to common core questionnaire. The common core allows us to examine, for each nation and across nations, such issues as political legitimacy, political tolerance, support for stable democracy, civil society participation and social capital, the rule of law, participation in and evaluations of local government, crime victimization, corruption victimization, and voting behaviour. Each country study contains an analysis of these important areas of democratic values and behaviours. In some cases we find striking similarities from country-to-country, whereas in other cases we find sharp contrasts.

A common sample design was crucial for the success of the effort. Prior to coming to Costa Rica, the author of this chapter prepared for each team the guidelines for the construction of a multi-stage, stratified area probability sample with a target N of 1,500. In the Costa Rica meeting each team met with Dr. Polibio Córdova, President of CEDATOS, Ecuador, and region-wide expert in sample design, trained under Leslie Kish at the University of Michigan. Refinements in the sample designs were made at that meeting and later reviewed by Dr. Córdova. Detailed descriptions of the sample are contained in annexes in each country publication.

The Costa Rica meeting was also a time for the teams to agree on a common framework for analysis. We did not want to impose rigidities on each team, since we recognized from the outset that each country had its own unique circumstances, and what was very important for one country (e.g., crime, voting abstention) might be largely irrelevant for another. But, we did want each of the teams to be able to make direct comparisons to the results in the other countries. For that reason, we agreed on a common method for index construction. We used the standard of an Alpha reliability coefficient of greater than .6, with a preference for .7, as the minimum level needed for a set of items to be called a scale. The only variation in that rule was when we were using "count variables," to construct an index (as opposed to a scale) in which we merely wanted to know, for example, how many times an individual participated in a certain form of activity. In fact, most of our reliabilities were well above .7, many reaching above .8. We also encouraged all teams to use factor analysis to establish the dimensionality of their scales. Another common rule, applied to all of the data sets, was in the treatment of missing data. In order to maximize sample N without unreasonably distorting the response patterns, we substituted the mean score of the individual respondent's choice for any scale or index in which there were missing data, but only when the missing data comprised less than half of all the responses for that individual.

Another agreement we struck in Costa Rica was that each major section of the studies would be made accessible to the layman reader, meaning that there would be heavy use of bivariate and tri-variate graphs. But we also agreed that those graphs would always follow a multivariate analysis (either OLS or logistic regression), so that the technically informed reader could be assured that the individual variables in the graphs were indeed significant predictors of the dependent variable being studied. We also agreed on a common graphical format (using chart templates prepared by LAPOP for SPSS 14). Finally, a common "informed consent" form was prepared, and approval for research on human subjects was granted by the Vanderbilt University Institutional Review Board (IRB). All senior investigators in the project studied the human subjects protection materials utilized by Vanderbilt and took and passed the certifying test. All publicly available data for this project are decidentified, thus protecting the right of



anonymity guaranteed to each respondent. The informed consent form appears in the questionnaire appendix of each study.

A concern from the outset was minimization of error and maximization of the quality of the database. We did this in several ways. First, we agreed on a common coding scheme for all of the closed-ended questions. Second, our partners at the Universidad de Costa Rica prepared a common set of data entry formats, including careful range checks, using the U.S. Census Bureau's CSPro software. Third, all data files were entered in their respective countries, and verified, after which the files were sent to LAPOP at Vanderbilt for review. At that point, a random list of 100 questionnaire identification numbers was sent back to each team, who were then asked to ship those 100 surveys via express courier LAPOP for auditing. This audit consisted of two steps; the first involved comparing the responses written on the questionnaire during the interview with the responses as entered by the coding teams. The second step involved comparing the coded responses to the data base itself. If a significant number of errors were encountered through this process, the entire data base had to be reentered and the process of auditing was repeated on the new data base. Fortunately, in very few cases did that happen in the 2006 AmericasBarometer. Finally, the data sets were merged by our expert, Dominique Zéphyr into one uniform multi-nation file, and copies were sent to all teams so that they could carry out comparative analysis on the entire file.

An additional technological innovation in the 2006 round is that we used handheld computers (Personal Digital Assistants, or PDAs) to collect the data in five of the countries. Our partners at the Universidad de Costa Rica developed the program, EQCollector and formatted it for use in the 2006 survey. We found this method of recording the survey responses extremely efficient, resulting in higher quality data with fewer errors than with the paper-and-pencil method. In addition, the cost and time of data entry was eliminated entirely. Our plan is to expand the use of PDAs in future rounds of LAPOP surveys.

The fieldwork for the surveys was carried out only after the questionnaire was pretested extensively in each country. In many cases we were able to send LAPOP staffers to the countries that were new to the **AmericasBarometer** to assist in the pretests. Suggestions from each country were then transmitted to LAPOP at Vanderbilt and revisions were made. In most countries this meant now fewer than 20 version revisions. The common standard was to finalize the questionnaire on version 23. The result was a highly polished instrument, with common questions but with appropriate customization of vocabulary for country-specific needs. In the case of countries with significant indigenous-speaking population, the questionnaires were translated into those languages (e.g., Quechua and Aymara in Bolivia). We also developed versions in English for the English-speaking Caribbean and for Atlantic coastal America, as well as a French Creole version for use in Haiti and a Portuguese version for Brazil. In the end, we had versions in ten different languages. All of those questionnaires form part of the <a href="https://www.lapopsurveys.org">www.lapopsurveys.org</a> web site and can be consulted there or in the appendixes for each country study.

Country teams then proceeded to analyze their data sets and write their studies. When the drafts were ready, the next step in our effort to maximize quality of the overall project was for the teams to meet again in plenary session, this time in Santo Domingo de Santo Domingo, Costa Rica. In preparation for that meeting, held in November 2006, teams of researchers were



assigned to present themes emerging from the studies. For example, one team made a presentation on corruption and democracy, whereas another discussed the rule of law. These presentations, delivered in PowerPoint, were then critiqued by a small team of our most highly qualified methodologists, and then the entire group of researchers and USAID democracy staffers discussed the results. That process was repeated over a two-day period. It was an exciting time, seeing our findings up there "in black and white," but it was also a time for us to learn more about the close ties between data, theory and method. After the Costa Rica meeting ended, the draft studies were read by the LAPOP team at Vanderbilt and returned to the authors for corrections. Revised studies were then submitted and they were each read and edited by Mitchell Seligson, the scientific coordinator of the project, who read and critiqued each draft study. Those studies were then returned to the country teams for final correction and editing, and were sent to USAID democracy officers for their critiques. What you have before you, then, is the product of the intensive labour of scores of highly motivated researchers, sample design experts, field supervisors, interviewers, data entry clerks, and, of course, the over 27,000 respondents to our survey. Our efforts will not have been in vain if the results presented here are utilized by policy makers, citizens and academics alike to help strengthen democracy in Latin America.

## Acknowledgements

The study was made possible by the generous support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Margaret Sarles in the Global Bureau of USAID, assisted by Eric Kite, Maria Barrón and Elizabeth Ramirez in the Latin American Bureau, secured the funding and made possible the entire project thanks to their unceasing support. All of the participants in the study are grateful to them. At Vanderbilt University, the study would not have been possible without the generosity, collaboration and hard work of many individuals. Vanderbilt's Dean of Arts and Science, Richard MacCarty provided financial support for many critical aspects of the research. Nicholas S. Zeppos, Provost and Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs generously offered LAPOP a suite of offices and conference space, and had it entirely reconditioned and equipped for the project. Vera Kutzinski, Director of the Center for the Americas has strongly supported the project administratively and financially, and contributed key funding to enable the inclusion of the United States and Canada in this round of the AmericasBarometer. Her administrative assistant, Janelle Lees made lots of things happen efficiently. Neal Tate, Chair of the Department of Political Science at Vanderbilt has been a strong supporter of the project since its inception at Vanderbilt and facilitated its integration with the busy schedule of the Department. Tonya Mills, Grants Administrator and Patrick D. Green, Associate Director, Division of Sponsored Research, Vanderbilt University performed heroically in managing the countless contract and financial details of the project. In a study as complex as this, literally dozens of contracts had to be signed and hundreds of invoices paid. They deserve my special appreciation for their efforts.

At LAPOP Central, the burden of the project fell on Pierre Martin Dominique Zéphyr, our LAPOP Research Coordinator and Data Analyst. Dominique worked tirelessly, almost always seven days a week, on virtually every aspect of the studies, from their design through their implementation and analysis. He also had central responsibility for preparing the training material for the teams for the data analysis and for handling the data audits and merging of the



data bases. Dominique also served as Regional coordinator of the Caribbean countries, and personally did the pretesting and interviewer training in each of them. Finally, he worked as cocollaborator on the Haiti study. Julio Carrión of the University of Delaware served as Regional Coordinator for Mexico, Central America and the Andes. He managed this while also serving as co-collaborator of the Peru study. The members of the LAPOP graduate research team were involved in every aspect of the studies, from questionnaire design, data audits and overall quality control. I would like to thank them all: María Fernanda Boidi, Abby Córdova Guillén, José Miguel Cruz, Juan Carlos Donoso, Jorge Daniel Montalvo, Daniel Moreno Morales, Diana Orces, and Vivian Schwarz-Blum. Their Ph.D. programs at Vanderbilt are being supported by USAID, the Vanderbilt University Center for Latin American and Iberian Studies and the Department of Political Science. My colleague Jon Hiskey participated in our weekly meetings on the surveys, adding his own important expertise and encouragement. Our web master, María Clara Bertini, made sure that our efforts were transparent, and has done an outstanding job managing the ever-growing web page of LAPOP and the AmericasBarometer. Héctor Lardé and Roberto Ortiz were responsible for cover design and text formatting, and did so with great attention to detail.

Critical to the project's success was the cooperation of the many individuals and institutions in the countries studied who worked tirelessly to meet what at times seemed impossible deadlines. Their names, countries and affiliations are listed below:

Country	Researchers
Summary Report	Prof. Mitchell Seligson, Director of LAPOP, and Centennial Professor of Political Science,
	Vanderbilt University (Project Director)
	Mexico and Central America Group
Mexico	•Dr. Kenneth M. Coleman, University of Michigan, and Senior Research Analyst at Market
	Strategies, Inc.
	<ul> <li>◆Pablo Parás García, President of DATA Opinión Pública y Mercados</li> </ul>
Guatemala	•Dr. Dinorah Azpuru, Senior Associate at ASIES in Guatemala and Assistant Professor of
	Political Science at Wichita State University
	◆Juan Pablo Pira, ASIES, Guatemala
El Salvador	<ul> <li>◆Dr. Ricardo Córdova (Salvadoran national), Executive Director of FundaUngo, El Salvador</li> </ul>
	• Prof. Miguel Cruz, Director of IUDOP (Public Opinion Institute) at the Universidad
	Centroamericana (UCA)
Honduras	●Prof. Miguel Cruz, Director of IUDOP (Public Opinion Institute) at the Universidad
	Centroamericana (UCA)
	●José Rene Argueta, Ph.D. candidate, University of Pittsburgh
Nicaragua	•Prof. Manuel Ortega-Hegg, Director of the Centro de Análisis Socio-Cultural (CASC) at the
	Universidad Centroamericana (UCA), Managua, Nicaragua
	<ul> <li>Marcelina Castillo Venerio, Centro de Análisis Socio-cultural (CASC), Universidad</li> </ul>
	Centroamericana. (UCA)
Costa Rica	●Dr. Luis Rosero, Director of Centro Centroamericano de Población (CCP, and Professor at
	the Universidad de Costa Rica.
	◆Dr. Jorge Vargas, Sub-Director of the Estado de la Nación project, United Nations
Panama	•Dr. Orlando Pérez, Associate Professor of Political Science at Central Michigan University
Caribbean Group	
Dominican	•Dr. Jana Morgan Kelly Assistant Professor of Political Science at the University of
Republic	Tennessee
	•Dr. Rosario Espinal, Professor of Sociology Science at Temple University
Guyana	• Dr. Mark Bynoe, Director, School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of



Country	Researchers
	Guyana
	•Ms. Talia Choy, Lecturer, Department of Government and International Affairs, University
Haiti	of Guyana.  • Dominique Zephyr, Research Coordinator of LAPOP, Vanderbilt University
паш	• Yves François Pierre, Groupe de Recherche en Sciences Sociales (GRESS)
Jamaica	<ul> <li>Dr. Ian Boxill, Professor of Comparative Sociology, Department of Sociology, Psychology</li> </ul>
Jamaica	and Social Work, UWI, Mona.
	Balford Lewis, Lecturer in research methods, Department of Sociology, Psychology and
	Social Work, UWI, Mona. Roy Russell, Lecturer in statistics, Department of Sociology,
	Psychology and Social Work, UWI, Mona.
	• Arlene Bailey, Information Systems specialist, Department of Sociology, Psychology and
	Social Work, UWI, Mona.
	• Dr. Lloyd Waller, Lecturer in research methods, Department of Government, UWI, Mona
	<ul> <li>Dr Paul Martin, Lecturer, Department of Sociology, Psychology and Social Work, UWI,</li> <li>Lance Gibbs and Caryl James, Lecturers/Research Assistants, Dept. of Sociology,</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Lance Gibbs and Caryl James, Lecturers/Research Assistants, Dept. of Sociology, Psychology and Social Work</li> </ul>
	Andean/Southern Cone Group
Colombia	Prof. Juan Carlos Rodríguez-Raga, Professor at the Universidad de los Andes
Ecuador	•Dr. Mitchell Seligson, Director of LAPOP, and Centennial Professor of Political Science,
	Vanderbilt University
	•Juan Carlos Donoso, Ph.D. candidate, Vanderbilt University
	Daniel Moreno, Ph.D. candidate, Vanderbilt University
	Diana Orcés, Ph.D. student, Vanderbilt University      Wining School Bloom Bloo
Peru	<ul> <li>Vivian Schwarz-Blum, Ph.D student, Vanderbilt University</li> <li>Dr. Julio Carrión, Professor at the University of Delaware in the US, and Researcher at the</li> </ul>
Peru	Instituto de Estudios Peruanos
	Patricia Zárate Ardela, Researcher at the Instituto de Estudios Peruanos
Bolivia	Dr. Mitchell Seligson Director of LAPOP, and Centennial Professor of Political Science,
	Vanderbilt University
	• Abby B. Córdova, Ph.D. student, Vanderbilt University
	•Juan Carlos Donoso, Ph.D. student, Vanderbilt University
	Daniel Moreno, Ph.D. student, Vanderbilt University
	Diana Orcés, Ph.D. student, Vanderbilt University      White School Blaze
Doroguov	<ul> <li>Vivian Schwarz-Blum, Ph.D. student, Vanderbilt University</li> <li>Manuel Orrego, CIRD, Paraguay</li> </ul>
Paraguay	
Chile	• Dr. Juan Pablo Luna, Instituto de Ciencia Política, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile
Brazil	Denise Pavia, Universidade Federal de Goiás, Goiás, Brazil
	• Simon Bohn, York University
	• Rachael Meneguello, Brazil, Director of the Centro de Estudos de Opinião Pública (CESOP)
	and Professor of Political Science, University of Campinas, Brazil
	<ul> <li>David Samules, University of Minnesota</li> <li>Luicio Renno, University of Arizona</li> </ul>
	■ Luicio Keinio, University of Arizona

Finally, we wish to thank the more than 27,000 individuals in these countries who took time away from their busy lives to answer our questions. Without their cooperation, this study would have been impossible.

Nashville, Tennessee December, 2006





## **Executive Summary**

Public opinion studies such as this tend to examine people's attitudes toward democracy; respondents evaluate the state of democracy in their country, how satisfied they are with it, etc. Rarely, however, are people asked about how they understand democracy. This year, LAPOP decided to include a series of semi-open-ended questions that explore people's conceptions of it.

We grouped interviewee responses into four theoretical categories. First, three out of five respondents expressed a *normative* conception of democracy, while only less than 2% opted for an *instrumental* or utilitarian meaning. And although only a little more than 2% manifested a *negative* conception of democracy, a surprising, and comparatively high, 35% of respondents seem to have an *empty* notion of democracy. In other words, more than a third of the population does not know what democracy means or it means nothing to them.

The degree of public support for the political system is one of the key indicators used in LAPOP studies to measure the legitimacy people confer on the regime. Comparatively, Colombians tend to show high levels of support for the system. Still, compared to people from other countries, Colombians tend to have little tolerance and are willing to back norms that limit some civil liberties and promote censorship.

LAPOP asks how much trust respondents have in a series of institutions. As is common in Latin America, political parties show comparatively poor levels of public trust, while the Catholic Church receives the highest scores. It is worth emphasizing that people have a relatively high degree of trust in the Human Rights Ombudsman, and that it has increased in recent years.

In comparative terms, the three branches of government show relatively high levels of public trust. First, it is not surprising, given the high approval ratings of President Uribe's administration, that trust in the national government is only surpassed by the Dominican Republic and has the same levels as Mexico and Chile. Second, despite the apparently low prestige of Congress, the level of trust in the institution is not so bad when compared to the situation in other countries. Finally, the great trust that people have in their system of justice, which is only surpassed by Costa Rica, is particularly notable.

This favorable result for the judicial system, however, contrasts with a small but significant decline in the trust that Colombians have in the institutions associated with the system of justice and the rule of law. Still, according to respondents, access to some of these institutions has improved.

Additionally, 13% of respondents stated that they had been the victim of some kind of crime in the previous year, a relatively low rate. All the other countries, except Panama and Jamaica, have higher crime rates. Still, despite the government's emphasis on its security policy, people's perception of insecurity has not declined in the last three years.

Furthermore, the rates of victimization by the armed conflict, in terms of death, disappearance, displacement, or members of the family leaving the country, have not changed since 2004.

Finally, besides the rather widespread perception that the human rights situation has been deteriorating, there have been changes in the people who perpetrate these acts of victimization by



the conflict. In fact, while the acts carried out by clearly identified perpetrators, especially the guerrilla and the paramilitaries, appear to be less frequent, the acts perpetrated by unidentified actors have increased. This might indicate a pattern of unorganized violence characteristic of post-conflict situations such as those in Central America.

In terms of corruption, the country has clearly improved its rates of victimization. In all the scenarios of corruption that we explored, there were less victims than in previous years. For some types of victimization, such as bribes in the health care and public school systems, the rates have fallen by almost half. In fact, the level of victimization by corruption in Colombia is comparatively one of the lowest.

Despite these low rates of direct experience with corruption, people perceive that its levels are relatively high. In fact, the perception of corruption has increased since last year.

Although the level of trust in municipal government, on average, does not stand out compared to other countries, Colombians' satisfaction with the provision of municipal services is relatively high and is clearly surpassed only by the Dominican Republic and Ecuador. Paradoxically, however, a considerable percentage of respondents (64%) would like the central government to assume more financial responsibilities to the detriment of municipal governments. This percentage is only surpassed by Panama.

Additionally, the levels of public participation in community or civil society organizations and groups are below the average of the other countries included in this study. These levels are related to relatively high levels of fear of participating in different kinds of public activities.

Although the political parties are one of the most disparaged institutions in the country, the level of trust in them is above the average in the other countries. This occurs with the electoral institutions in general (elections and the Electoral Court). In turn, party-affiliation rates are comparatively low and, since last year, they have shifted from the traditional Liberal and Conservative parties to other ones, demonstrating an incipient shake-up of the Colombian political party system.

Finally, LAPOP tends to ask respondents to evaluate the current government in a variety of ways. President Uribe's ratings have declined significantly since last year, especially in terms of the fight against corruption, poverty, and unemployment.



#### I. The Context

#### Economic Performance

In recent years, the country's economy, as well as some human-development indicators, have shown relatively positive trends, especially when compared to the economic situation in other countries of the region. However, the situation of poverty, inequality, and unemployment place Colombia among the countries with the worst social problems.

As Figure I-1 shows, Latin American countries can be classified into three different groups in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita. The first and wealthiest group of countries includes Chile, Costa Rica, and Mexico. The second group, where Colombia is located, also includes the Dominican Republic and Panama. The other countries fall into a third group with a range of GDP per capita from around US\$1,800 (Haiti) to a little more than US\$6,000 (Peru).

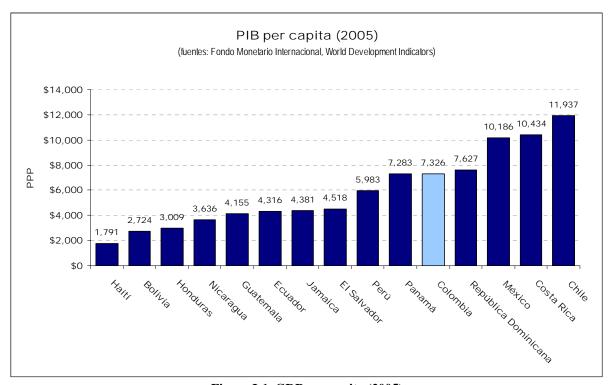


Figure I-1. GDP per capita (2005)



Economic growth in Colombia has been above the regional average (Latin America and the Caribbean) for most of this decade, as can be seen in Figure I-2.

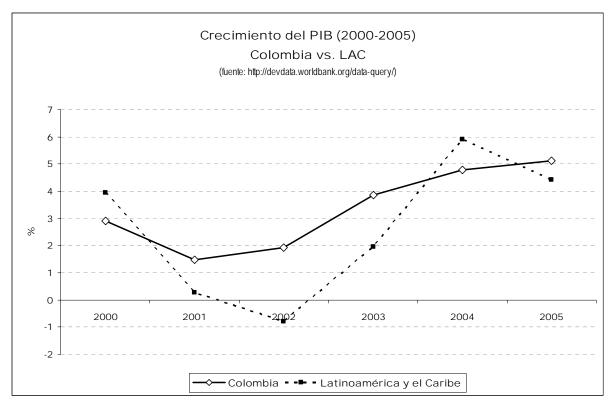


Figure I-2. GDP Growth (2000-2005)

The infant mortality rate and life-expectancy at birth are two commonly-used indicators to complement characterizations of a country's socioeconomic performance. In both of these areas, Colombia shows comparatively acceptable results, as we can see in Figure I-3 (infant mortality) and in Figure I-4 (life-expectancy at birth, 2004).



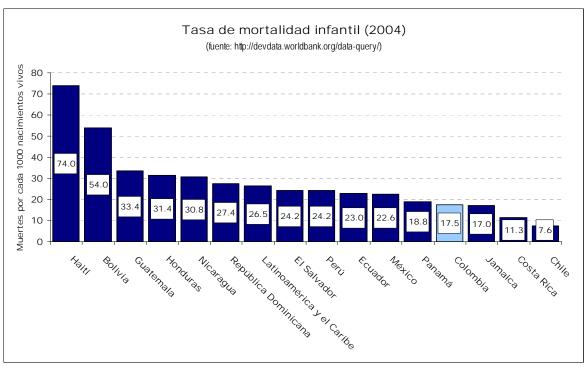


Figure I-3. Infant Mortality Rate (2004)

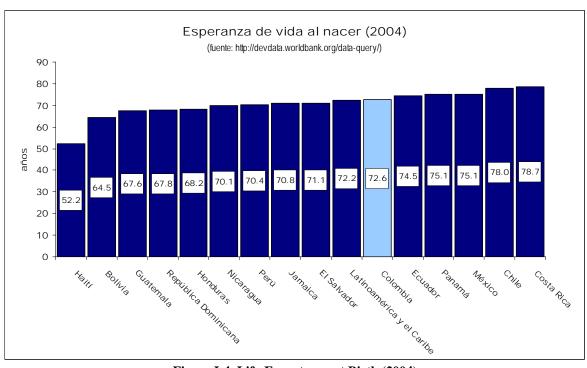


Figure I-4. Life-Expectancy at Birth (2004)



Consistent with these objective indicators, people seem to be relatively satisfied with the country's economic performance. While the evaluation of 39 points (on a scale of 0 to 100) on the state of the country's economy might seem insufficient, only Chile and Bolivia have higher scores, as we see in Figure I-5.

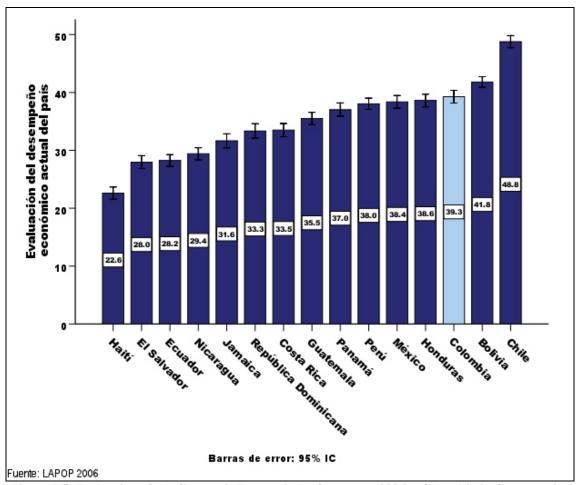


Figure I-5. Evaluation of the Country's Economic Performance (2006) - Colombia in Comparative Perspective



The sociotropic evaluation of the evolution of Colombian economic performance in the last year also receives comparatively good scores, as Figure I-6 shows.

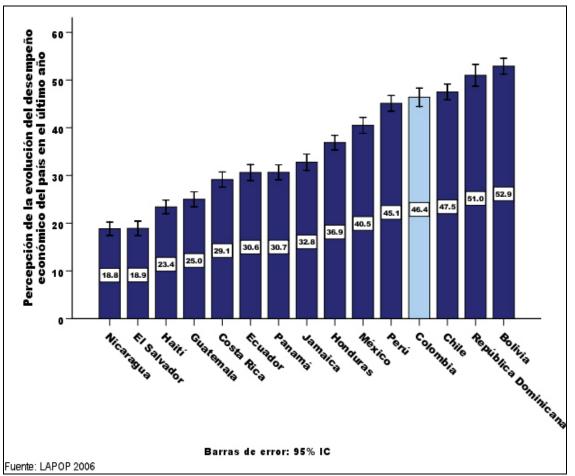


Figure I-6. Perception of the Evolution of the Country's Economic Performance in the Last Year (2006) - Colombia in Comparative Perspective



Likewise, when evaluating their own economic situation (egotropic evaluation), Colombians rate it close to 50 points on average, which is only surpassed by Costa Rica and Bolivia, as we see in Figure I-7.

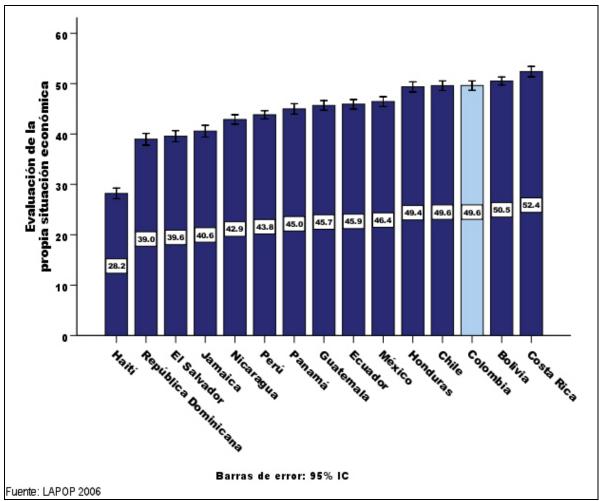


Figure I-7. Evaluation of One's Own Economic Situation (2006) - Colombia in Comparative Perspective



In the same way, Colombians claim that their own economic situation has evolved in a comparatively positive manner, as Figure I-8 shows.

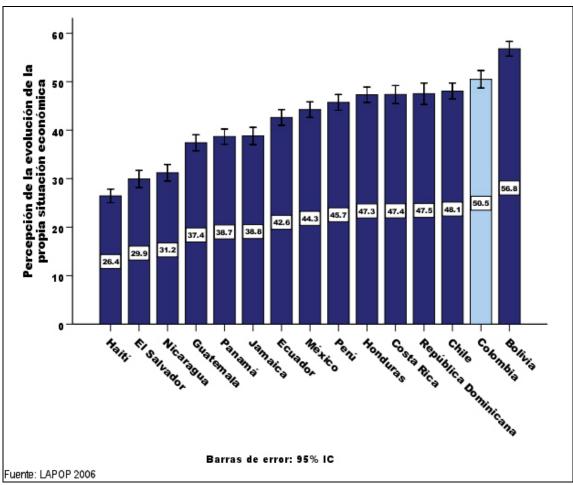


Figure I-8. Perception of the Evolution of One's Own Economic Situation (2006) - Colombia in Comparative Perspective



In fact, over the last three years, the sociotropic evaluation of the country's economy has virtually remained the same, as Figure I-9 shows.

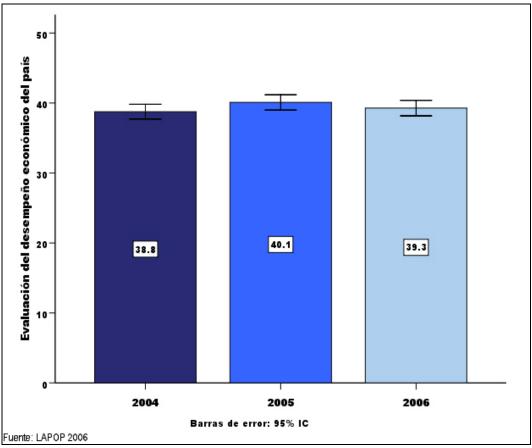


Figure I-9. Evaluation of the Country's Economic Performance in Colombia (2004-2006)



The country's performance in terms of poverty contrasts with these encouraging results. As we see in Figure I-10, Colombia is one of the countries in the region with a higher percentage of its population below the poverty line.

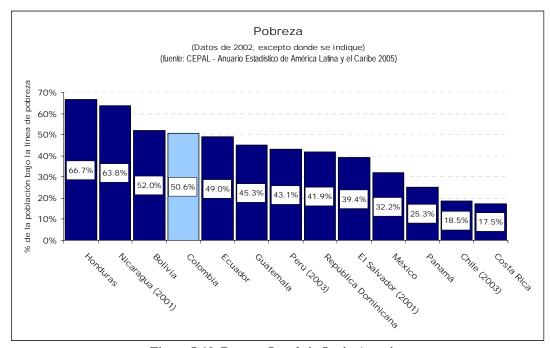


Figure I-10. Poverty Levels in Latin America

Even worse, Colombia appears in Figure I-11 as the country with the highest level of inequality among a group of countries in the region.

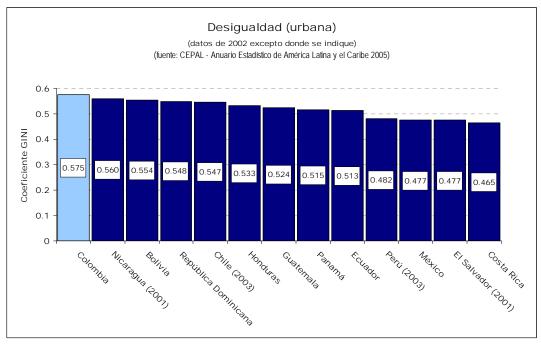


Figure I-11. Inequality (Urban) in Latin America



The country's unemployment rate, in turn, has been above the regional average for the last ten years (Figure I-12).

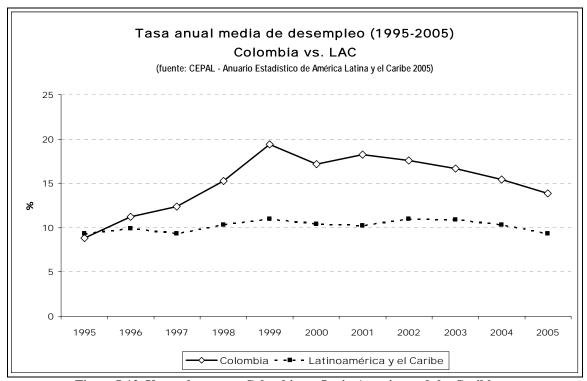


Figure I-12. Unemployment - Colombia vs. Latin America and the Caribbean

The alarming levels of poverty, inequality, and unemployment, however, are not among Colombians' main worries. Despite the fact that, after violence, unemployment is the most serious problem noted by Colombians, barely 9% of the population mentioned poverty, a low percentage compared to the frequency with which it is mentioned in other Latin American countries (Figure I-14). And barely 0.5% of respondents considered inequality to be the country's most serious problem (Figure I-15).



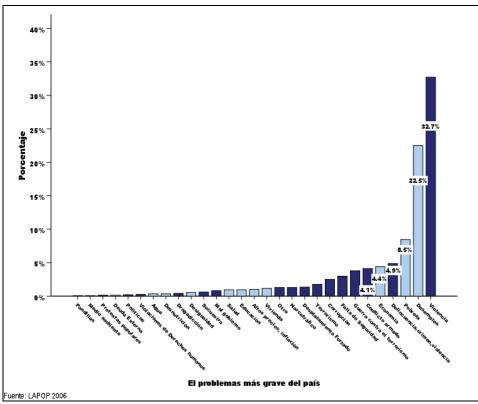


Figure I-13. The Most Serious Problem in the Country for Colombians (2006)

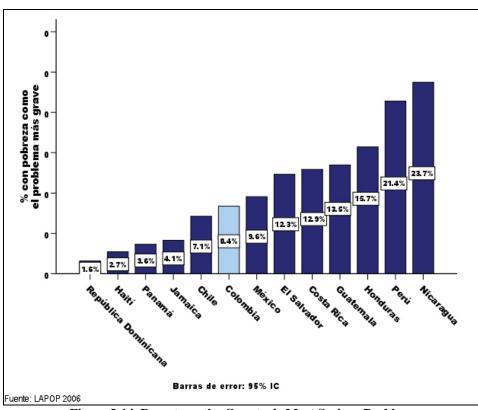


Figure I-14. Poverty as the Country's Most Serious Problem



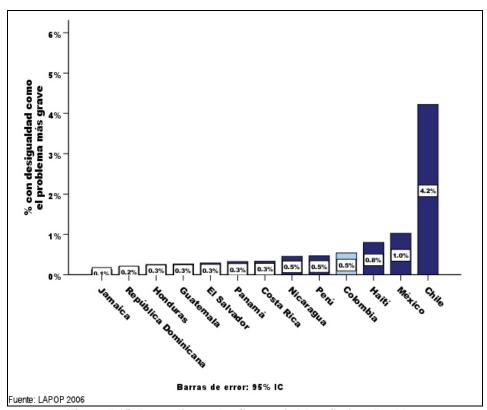


Figure I-15. Inequality as the Country's Most Serious Problem

### The Political Conjuncture

The 2006 political conjuncture, prior to this study, was punctuated by two elections – congressional ones in March and the presidential in May. These, in turn, were marked by the implementation of two very important constitutional reforms: a new system of electing legislative bodies, and the repeal of the prohibition on incumbent presidents running for immediate reelection.

## Congressional Elections and a New Electoral System

The Colombian partisan arena has been characterized by rising personalism. Although this process is by no means new, the progressive deinstitutionalization, which had weakened the political parties since the 1960s and 70s, intensified in the 1990s partly as the result of an electoral system that gave incentives to candidates for public office to rely on their own personal prestige, rather than that of their party as a campaign resource, fomenting intra-party competition (Rodríguez Pico 2005; Pizarro 2001).

In 2003, after various failed attempts, a constitutional amendment establishing a new electoral system for municipal council, departmental assembly, and congressional elections, was finally passed.



This new system contains elements that should encourage candidates to group themselves into parties and that revalue their importance in the electoral arena. After having been used in the sub-national elections of October 2003, the new system was used for the first time to elect both chambers of Congress in March 2006.<sup>1</sup>

Although it is still premature to conclusively judge the effects of the new electoral rules, the results are promising. Let us consider, for example, the case of the Senate: while more than 40 parties presented 321 lists in 2002, only 20 parties, each with a single list, participated in the 2006 election. Furthermore, only 10 of these surpassed the electoral threshold. Table I-1 lists the parties that competed for the high chamber, along with their electoral results. The parties that appear below the dotted line did not surpass the 2% threshold, one of the measures introduced by the reform.<sup>2</sup> (The annex to this chapter contains a brief description of the parties currently represented in the Senate.) The reform appears to have been effective in fomenting party cohesion (Rodríguez-Raga and Botero 2006).

Table I-1. Parties Participating in the 2006 Senate Election

Table 1-1. Farues Farucipating in the 2000 Senate Election			
Party	Votes	% Votes	Seats
Partido Social De Unidad Nacional	1,642,256	17.49	20
Partido Conservador Colombiano	1,514,960	16.13	18
Partido Liberal Colombiano	1,457,332	15.52	17
Partido Cambio Radical	1,254,294	13.36	15
Polo Democrático Alternativo	914,964	9.74	11
Partido Convergencia Ciudadana	586,870	6.25	7
Movimiento Alas Equipo Colombia	439,678	4.68	5
Partido Colombia Democrática	267,336	2.85	3
Movimiento Colombia Viva	231,307	2.46	2
Movimiento Mira	220,395	2.35 _	2_
Por El País Que Soñamos	155,653	1.66	
Dejen Jugar Al Moreno	141,231	1.5	
C4 C4	82,495	0.88	
Visionarios Con Antanas Mockus	71,867	0.77	
Movimiento De Participación Comunitaria "Mpc"	52,666	0.56	
Mov. Comunal Y Comunitario De Colombia	39,634	0.42	
Movimiento Únete Colombia	15,524	0.17	
Mov.Conservatismo Independiente	13,538	0.14	
Movimiento Nacional Progresista	8,305	0.09	
Mov. Reconstrucción Democrática Nacional	7,458	0.08	

#### **Presidential Reelection**

Backed by his great popularity, in 2004 President Uribe's administration presented a constitutional reform bill to repeal the prohibition against reelection established by the 1991

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This table is an adaptation of one included in Rodríguez-Raga and Botero (2006).



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For an evaluatation of the effects of the new electoral system in the 2003 local elections, see Botero (2006), García Sánchez (2006), Rodríguez-Raga (2006).

Constitution. The administration had sufficient resources to get Congress to approve this amendment.<sup>3</sup>

In May 2006, with a resounding 62% of the vote, President Uribe was reelected for a new four-year term (2006-2010). This outcome was not surprising. But it was that Carlos Gaviria, the candidate of the Polo Democrático Alternativo, the left-wing party, received 22% of the vote while the Liberal party candidate, Horacio Serpa, only received 12%.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The reform was later backed by the Constitutional Court against claims that the legislative procedures leading to its passage were unconstitutional.



# Annex: Parties and Movements with Representation in the Senate<sup>4</sup>

Partido Social De Unidad Nacional	This party, better known as the Party of the "U," was created under the auspices of President Uribe's administration and led by ex-Finance Minister Juan Manuel Santos. It is an ad-hoc coalition composed of politicians from different regions and currents, mostly members of the Liberal Party who defected in order to support the president.
Partido Conservador Colombiano	One of the traditional Colombian parties. It has decidedly supported the Uribe government and backed his reelection.
Partido Liberal Colombiano	Another of the country's traditional parties. It opted to stand in opposition to the Uribe administration, which meant that various of its members decided to defect in order to become part of one of the movements that back the president.
Partido Cambio Radical	Party led by Senator Germán Vargas Lleras, who has been part of what could be called the right-wing of the Liberal Party. This movement has always been an unconditional ally of President Uribe.
Polo Democrático Alternativo	Coalition formed by old members of the AD-M19, the Communist Party, MOIR, and other left-wing movements. It is part of the opposition to the administration.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Taken from Rodríguez-Raga and Botero (2006).



Partido Convergencia Ciudadana	Created in 1997 by Luis Alberto Gil Castillo, ex-militant of the M-19 and leader of the teacher's union in Santander. This party includes people from diverse party backgrounds and various regions of the county in its lists of candidates. It supported the president's reelection bill.
Movimiento Alas Equipo Colombia	Coalition between the Alas movement of Senator Alfredo Araujo, a Liberal from the Atlantic coast, and Equipo Colombia of ex-Senator Luis Alfredo Ramos, a Conservative from Antioquia. It supports the Uribe government and backs his reelection.
Partido Colombia Democrática	Antioquia-based movement led by Senator Mario Uribe Escobar, a cousin of the president. His list of candidates also includes former Liberals from the Atlantic coast.
Movimiento Colombia Viva	Movement led by the evangelical priest Jorge Enrique Gómez Montealegre. This was the only movement that welcomed people who were expelled from other pro-Uribe parties and movements because of questions about their ties to paramilitary groups, and included them on its list of candidates. Ironically, two such people obtained a seat in the Senate while Gómez was not elected. Although the president did not support this movement, the party did back him and his reelection.
Movimiento Mira	Christian-based movement under the direction of Senator Alejandra Moreno Piraquive. It has managed to widen and consolidate its electoral base in recent years.



#### References

- Botero, Felipe. 2006. "Reforma política, personalismo y sistema de partidos. ¿Partidos fuertes o coaliciones electorales?" En Gary Hoskin and Miguel García Sánchez (eds.). La reforma política de 2003. ¿La salvación de los partidos políticos colombianos? Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes, Fundación Konrad Adenauer.
- García Sánchez, Miguel. 2006. "La reforma electoral y su impacto en las elecciones locales de 2003. Un análisis de las elecciones del Concejo de Bogotá." En Gary Hoskin and Miguel García Sánchez (eds.). La reforma política de 2003. ¿La salvación de los partidos políticos colombianos? Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes, Fundación Konrad Adenauer.
- Pizarro, Eduardo. 2001. "La atomización partidista en Colombia: el fenómeno de las microempresas electorales." En Francisco Gutiérrez (ed.). Degradación o cambio. Evolución del sistema político colombiano. Bogotá: Norma.
- Rodríguez Pico, Clara Rocío. 2005. "La reforma política de 2003: motivaciones, definiciones y contenido." En Clara Rocío Rodríguez Pico and Eduardo Pizarro (eds.). Los retos de la democracia. Viejas y nuevas formas de la política en Colombia y América Latina. Bogotá: Foro Nacional por Colombia, Iepri, Fundación Henrich Böll.
- Rodríguez-Raga, Juan Carlos. 2006. "Voto preferente y cohesión partidista: Entre el voto personal y el voto de partido." En Gary Hoskin and Miguel García Sánchez (eds.). La reforma política de 2003. ¿La salvación de los partidos políticos colombianos? Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes, Fundación Konrad Adenauer.
- Rodríguez-Raga, Juan Carlos and Felipe Botero. 2006. "Ordenando el caos. Elecciones legislativas y reforma electoral en Colombia." *Revista Ciencia Política. Universidad Católica. Chile* 26(1): 138-151.



### II. The Sample

The first LAPOP study in Colombia was conducted in 2004. That study was carried out simultaneously in seven other countries, including Mexico and six Central American countries. This investigation, one of the first of its kind in the country, produced such good results that the USAID mission in Colombia decided to support annual studies in order to develop a series of longitudinal indicators regarding the country's democratic institutions in general and certain aspects related to concrete programs of local governability, the fight against corruption, and judicial strengthening, among others.

A new LAPOP study, therefore, was conducted in the country in 2005. Although it largely reused the questionnaire employed the previous year, new aspects related to contemporary threats to democracy (attitudes opposed to liberal democracy and the separation of powers) and the armed conflict were also included.<sup>2</sup>

This year, for the first time, the study in Colombia was conducted at the same time that similar studies were conducted in more than 15 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. This circumstance allows us to gather information about people's views that makes comparisons possible both over time (three years) and across a large group of countries in the region.

The LAPOP studies, including those conducted in Colombia, try to elicit people's opinions, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences on subjects such as democracy, institutional trust, corruption, the judicial system, civil society, local government, elections, the armed conflict, and the human rights situation.

The findings obtained are representative of all (100%) non-institutionalized (that is, people living in jails, hospitals, military bases, schools, etc), voting-aged (18 years or older) citizens. Therefore, contrary to many of the public opinion studies that are commonly conducted in Colombia, LAPOP does not restrict itself to the country's large cities or urban areas. Furthermore, to avoid the sampling limitations of telephone surveys, the LAPOP surveyors interviewed people in person, in their own homes.

As in the previous studies, the sample design was developed with the assistance of the Centro Nacional de Consultoría (CNC), one of the oldest and most prestigious survey firms in the country. The CNC was also in charge of carrying out the fieldwork (applying the questionnaire) as well as collecting and verifying the data.

We used a multistage random sample, stratified by clusters, that included 1,491 respondents. The sample has a margin of error of  $\pm$  2.54% with a 95% level of confidence. This means that if we were to do multiple samples in Colombia, 95% of them would reflect the views

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Rodríguez-Raga, Juan Carlos, Mitchell A. Seligson, Juan Carlos Donoso, Clemente Quiñones, and Vivian Schwarz-Blum. 2005. *La cultura política de la democracia en Colombia: 2005*. Bogotá: USAID-Vanderbilt University.



1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Rodríguez-Raga, Juan Carlos and Mitchell A. Seligson. 2004. *La cultura política de la democracia en Colombia: 2004*. Bogotá: USAID-University of Pittsburgh.

of the population with an accuracy not less than  $\pm$  2.54%. Despite the fact that other non-sampling factors can reduce the precision of the sample (no-response rates, errors selecting the respondent, misunderstanding the questions, etc.) this margin of error for the sample is considered very good.

#### **Basic Distributions**

One of the key strata used in the sample is the region. The sample design allowed us to gather results that are representative of each one of the country's regions. Figure II-1 shows the distribution of the sample in these regions.

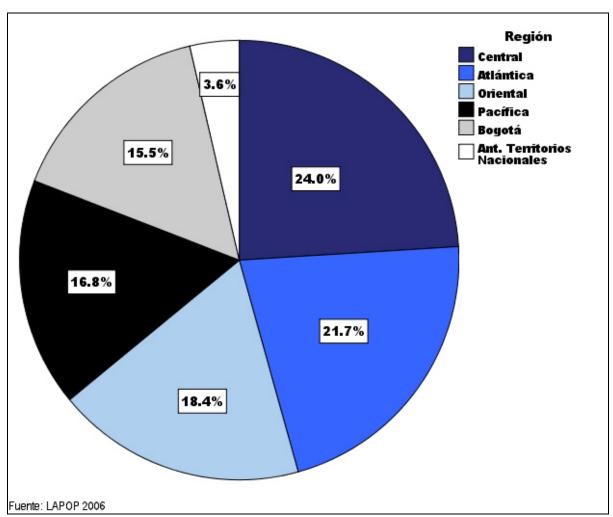


Figure II-1. Distribution of the Sample by Region - 2006



As in previous years, the sample is divided equally between men and women, as we see in Figure II-2.

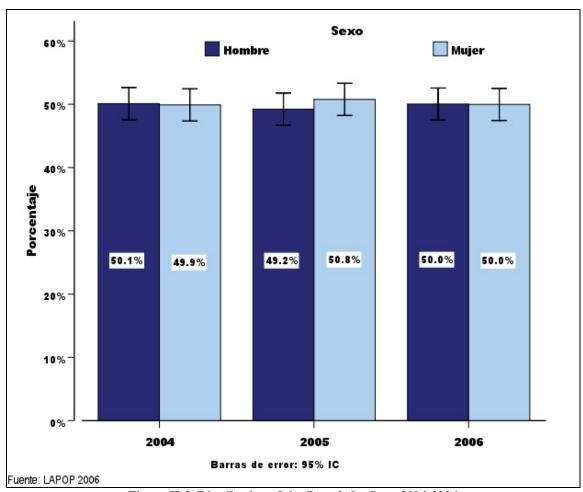


Figure II-2. Distribution of the Sample by Sex - 2004-2006



In 2006, the average age was a little more than 37 years old, with a distribution showing a mode around 20 years, as can be seen in Figure II-3.

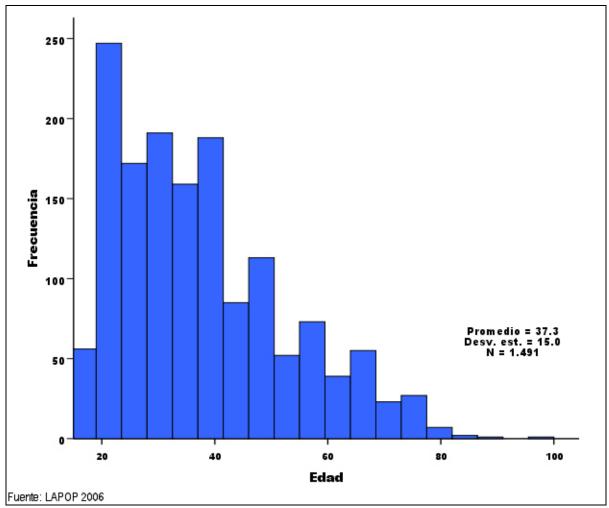


Figure II-3. Distribution of Ages - 2006



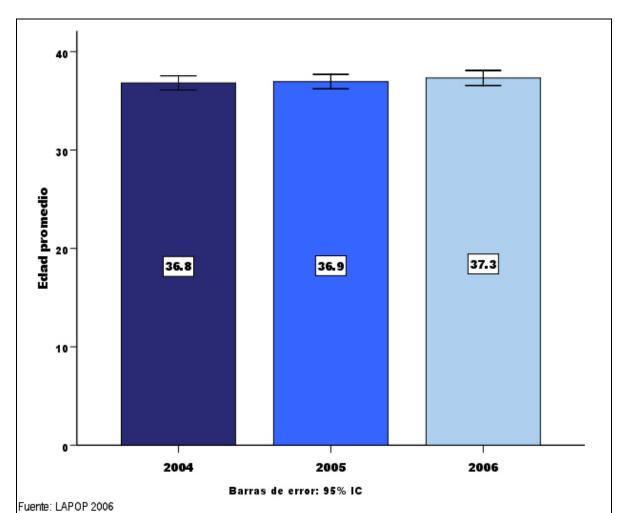


Figure II-4 shows that the average age did not vary from the studies in previous years.

Figure II-4. Average Age of Respondents - 2004-2006



In terms of the level of education, the distribution of the sample (in years of completed schooling) indicates that there are two modal points, one corresponding to the end of primary education and the other to the end of secondary, as we see in Figure II-5.

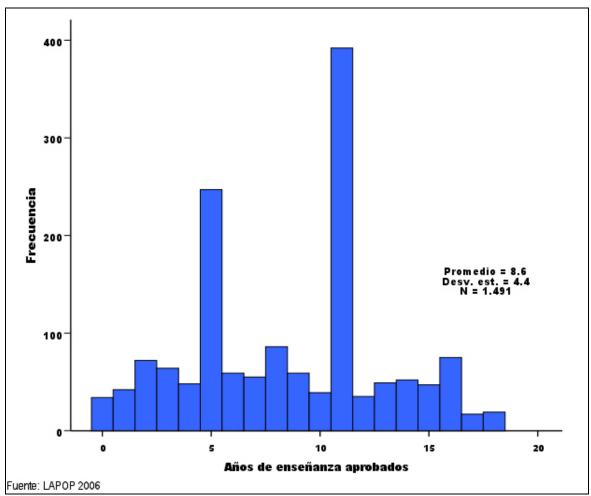


Figure II-5. Distribution of the Sample by Educational Level - 2006



After a higher measure in 2004, the average number of years of completed education is between 8 and 9, as can be seen in Figure II-6.<sup>3</sup>

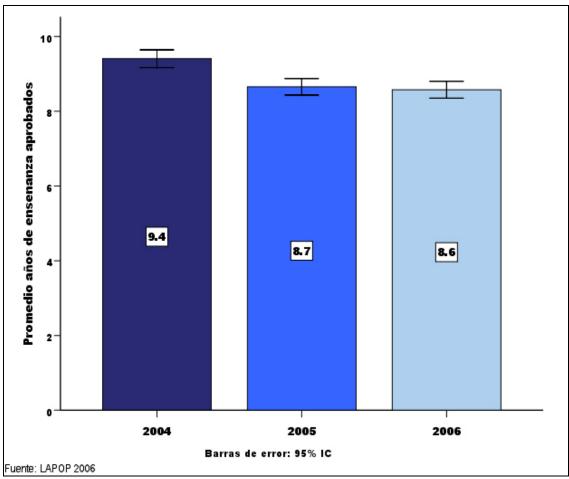


Figure II-6. Average Educational Level - 2004-2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This difference is probably due to changes in the way this variable was codified starting in 2005.



Another key piece of information has to do with respondents' level of monthly income. To capture this, the question offered respondents the following ranges in which to locate the monthly income of the household:

- 0: No income
- 1: Less than \$90,000
- 2: Between \$90,001 and \$180,000
- 3: Between \$180,001 and \$360,000
- 4: Between \$360,001 and \$720,000
- 5: Between \$720,001 and \$1,000,000
- 6: Between \$1,000,001 and \$1,500,000
- 7: Between \$1,500,001 and \$2,000,000
- 8: Between \$2,000,001 and \$3,000,000
- 9: Between \$3,000,001 and \$4,000,000
- 10: More than \$4,000,000

Figure II-7 shows the distribution of the sample.

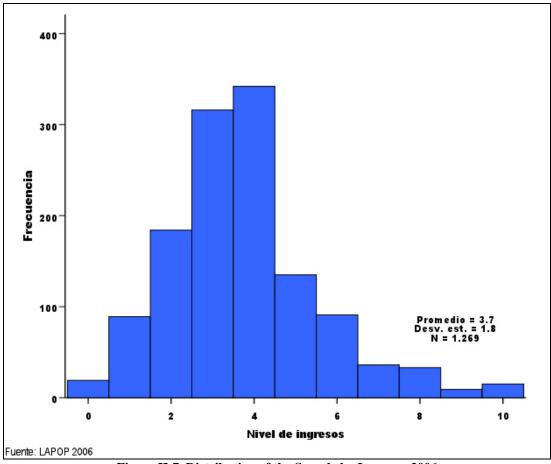


Figure II-7. Distribution of the Sample by Income - 2006



However, as can be appreciated in the data of above figure, the level of no-responses to this question is relatively high, a phenomenon common to public opinion surveys. For this reason, we prefer to use a wealth indicator that measures the possession of goods, including a television, refrigerator, landline and cellular phone, vehicle, washing machine, microwave oven, potable water and bathroom in the house, and computer. Figure II-8 shows the distribution of the sample for this indicator.

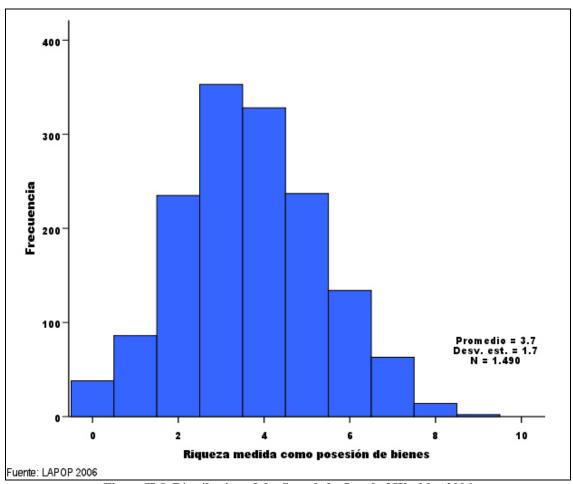


Figure II-8. Distribution of the Sample by Level of Wealth - 2006



These indicators have remained stable over the years, as can be seen in Figure II-9.

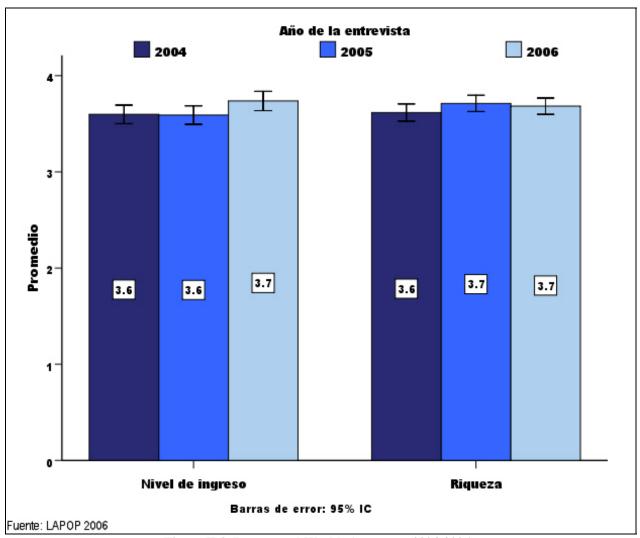


Figure II-9. Income and Wealth Averages - 2004-2006



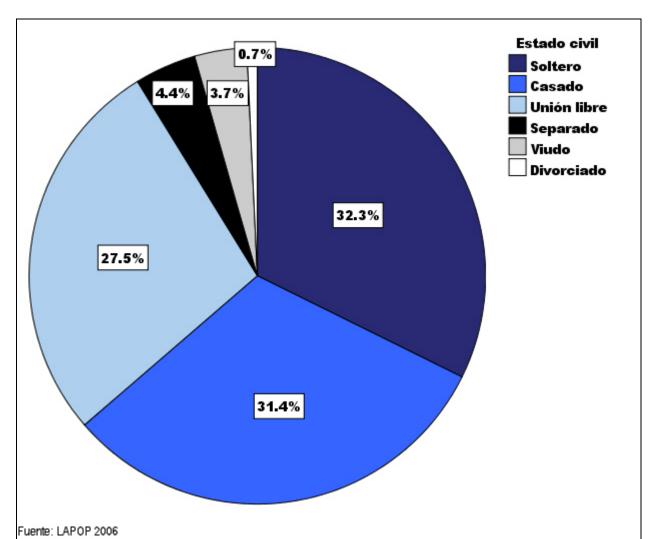


Figure II-10 shows the distribution of respondents in terms of their civil status.

Figure II-10. Distribution of the Sample by Civil Status - 2006



When we group the respondents according to those who are married or living with a partner and those who are not, the percentage of the former has remained stable over the three years of study (Figure II-11).

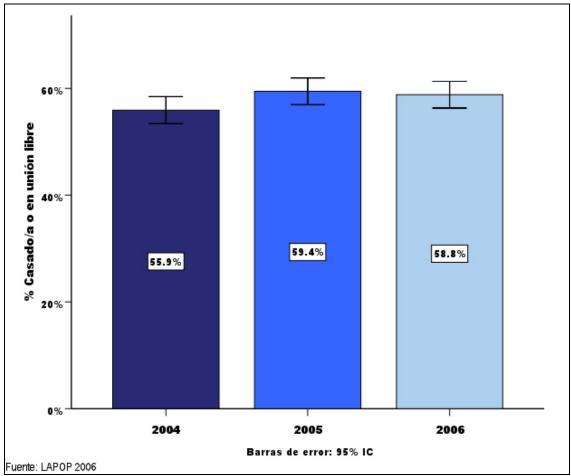


Figure II-11. Percentage of Respondents Who Are Married (or Living Together) - 2004-2006



Also, the average number of children that respondents have has remained slightly above two (Figure II-12).

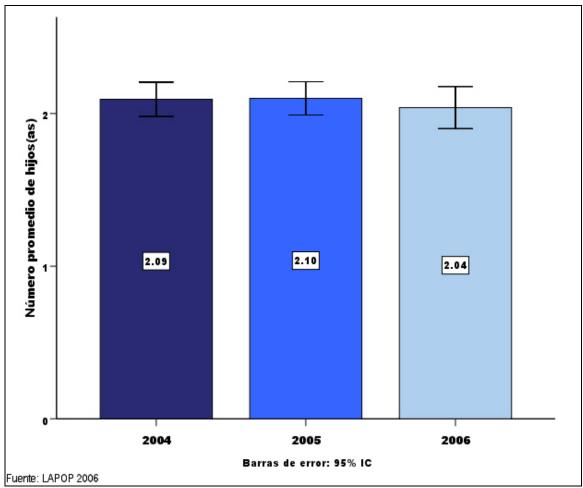


Figure II-12. Average Number of Children - 2004-2006



Finally, two characteristics end this description of the sample. On the one hand, ethnic self-identification (Figure II-13) shows that more than half the respondents define themselves as *mestizo*, while a third say they are white.

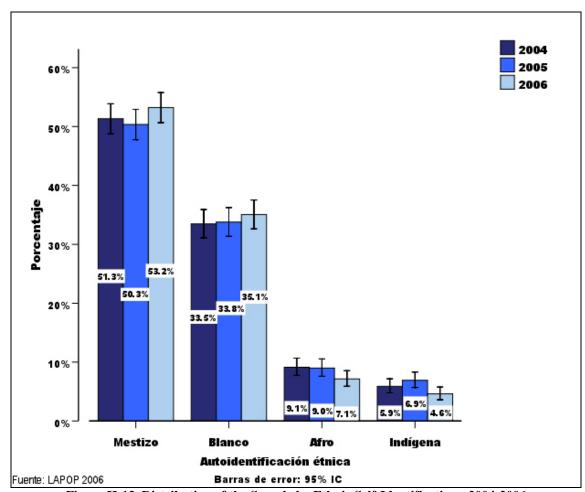


Figure II-13. Distribution of the Sample by Ethnic Self-Identification - 2004-2006



On the other hand, Figure II-14 shows the distribution of respondents according to their professed religion. This distribution shows that the wide majority of Colombians are Catholic.

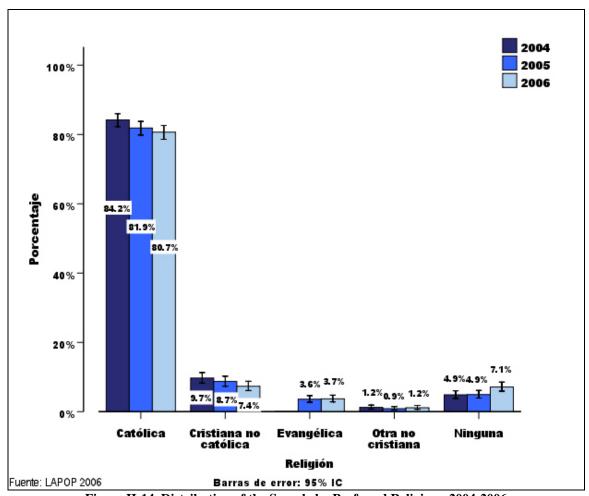


Figure II-14. Distribution of the Sample by Professed Religion - 2004-2006



#### III. The Meaning of Democracy in Colombia

Public opinion studies and barometers regarding the political system tend to include measures of people's perceptions of and attitudes toward democracy. They tend to evaluate how satisfied respondents are with their democratic system or how willingly they would accept non-democratic regimes such as one following a coup d'état or an authoritarian government.

Rarely, however, do these studies ask respondents what they mean when they think and talk about democracy. What does democracy mean? Undoubtedly, respondents have their own particular image in mind that they associate with this abstract notion. And it is likely that the above-mentioned attitudes and perceptions are mediated by their own notion of democracy.

Recently, however, scholars such as Michael Bratton and his associates at Afrobarometer have started to ask this question (Bratton, Mattes and Gyimah-Boadi 2004). And as we expected, they have found that individuals do in fact have different conceptions of democracy and, therefore, that it is incorrect to assume that everyone understands it in the same way.

For this reason, in 2006, LAPOP decided to include a module designed to explore the meanings that people give the concept of democracy. This chapter, after looking at the basic perceptions that respondents have of the political system, presents the results of this exploration of the Colombian case.

#### The General Panorama of Democracy

To start, this section presents some of the basic findings related to people's attitudes and beliefs about the Colombian political system. How democratic do Colombians feel the system is? How satisfied are they with their democratic regime? How do these beliefs and perceptions compare to those of their Latin American neighbors? How have they evolved over the three years of LAPOP studies? These are the topics of the first section of this chapter.



As Figure III-1 shows, around 70% of Colombians consider that the country is very or somewhat democratic, while only a little more than 5% believe that they live under a political system that is not at all democratic.

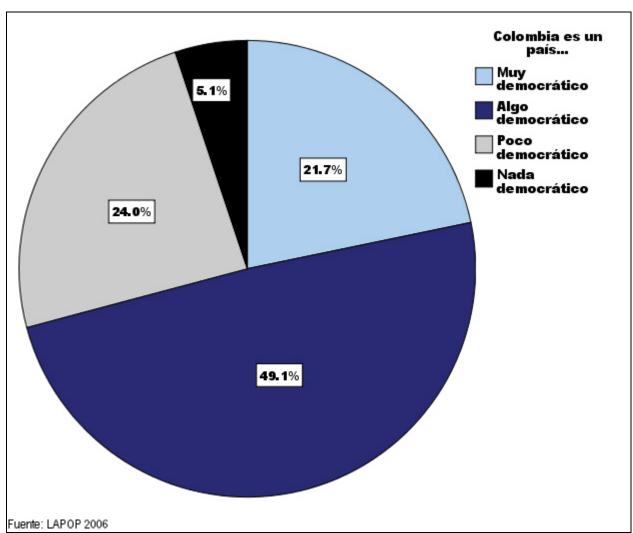


Figure III-1. How Democratic is Colombia - 2006



These figures are encouraging. However, only by comparing them with other Latin American countries can we appreciate whether these perceptions toward democracy in Colombia are in fact that positive. Figure III-2 shows the perception of how democratic each one of the countries included in the study this year is for their citizens. According to this figure, which shows the average levels of a version of this question recoded onto a 0 to 100-point scale, only citizens of Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica, and Chile think that they live in a more democratic country than Colombians.

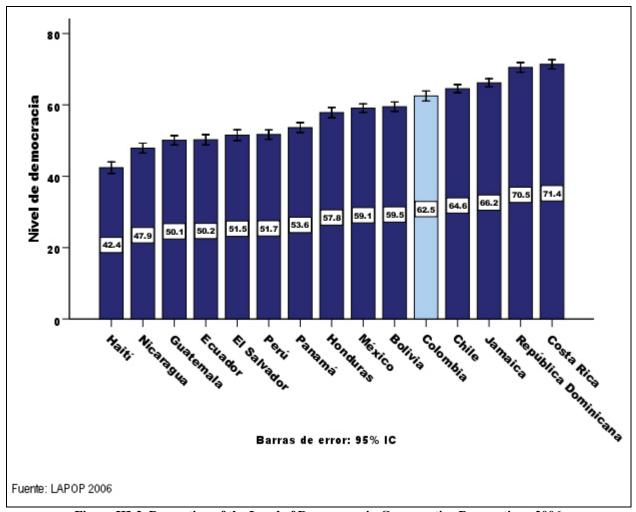


Figure III-2. Perception of the Level of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



How has this perception evolved in Colombia? Given that studies have been conducted in the country over the last three years, it is possible to see in Figure III-3 that there have been no significant variations in the perceived level of democracy between 2004 and 2006. This suggests that this democratic value is rather stable in Colombia.

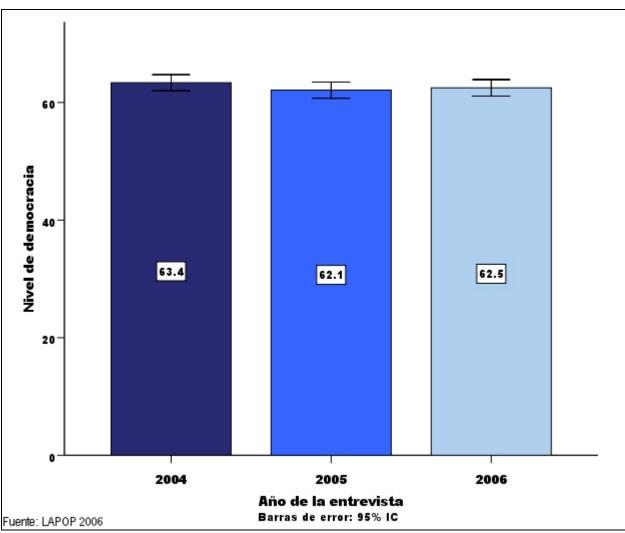


Figure III-3. Level of Democracy in Colombia 2004-2006



Additionally, close to 60% of respondents are satisfied or very satisfied with Colombian democracy, as we see in Figure III-4.

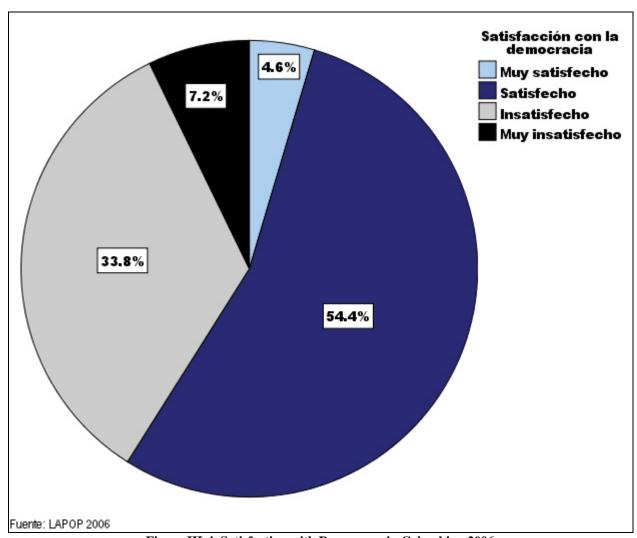


Figure III-4. Satisfaction with Democracy in Colombia - 2006



In comparative perspective, the level of satisfaction with democracy in Colombia is relatively high, only below those in Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, Chile, and Costa Rica (Figure III-5).

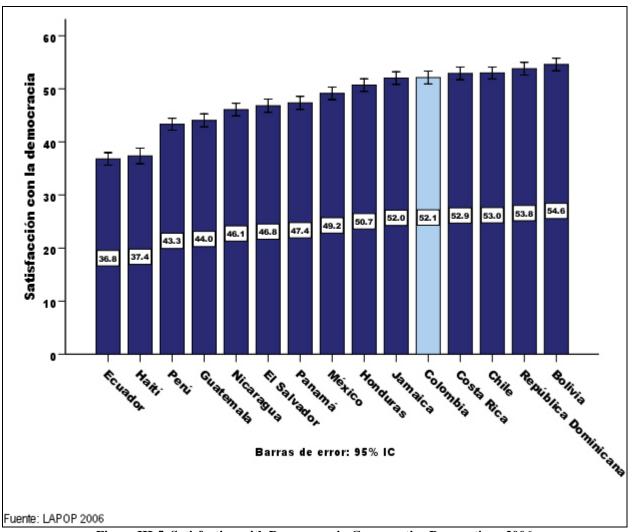


Figure III-5. Satisfaction with Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006

### Meanings of Democracy

Analyzing the results of a survey in terms of the perception of and satisfaction with democracy in a country, the question commonly arises about how the respondents understand the notion of democracy. One of the objectives of the 2006 comparative study was to conduct an initial exploration of these meanings. To do this, the following question was included:

**DEM13**. ¿En pocas palabras, qué significa para usted la democracia?



This was a semi-open question; that is, respondents were allowed to give a spontaneous response that was later classified into pre-coded categories. With the following question, which was asked twice, respondents were also allowed to give up to two additional meanings:

#### ¿Significa algo más?

Finally, respondents were asked to chose which of the responses they had given was the most important.

Table III-1 shows the findings of this last question, that is, the most important meaning for each respondent.

Table III-1. Meanings of Democracy in Colombia - 2006

Meaning	Frequency	Percentage
Does not mean anything	466	31.3%
Freedom of expression	230	15.4%
Participation (without saying what kind)	124	8.3%
Equality (without specifying)	101	6.8%
Freedom (without saying what kind)	95	6.4%
Elections, voting	59	4.0%
Right to chose leaders	57	3.8%
Power of the people	52	3.5%
Human rights, respect for	35	2.3%
Free elections	30	2.0%
Economic equality, of classes	24	1.6%
Living in peace, without war	22	1.5%
Justice	19	1.3%
Well-being, economic progress, growth	12	0.8%
Limits on participation	10	0.7%
Participation of minorities	10	0.7%
Non-military government	10	0.7%
Equality before the law	9	0.6%
Being independent	8	0.5%
Disorder, lack of justice	7	0.5%
Obeying the law	8	0.5%
Economic freedom	6	0.4%
Freedom of movement	4	0.3%
Freedom, lack of	5	0.3%



Meaning	Frequency	Percentage
Work, more opportunities of	4	0.3%
Gender Equality	5	0.3%
Equality, lack of, inequality	5	0.3%
Well-being, lack of, no economic progress	3	0.2%
Racial or ethnic equality	3	0.2%
Capitalism	1	0.1%
Free trade, free enterprise	1	0.1%
Work, lack of	1	0.1%
Fraudulent elections	2	0.1%
War, invasions	2	0.1%
Other responses	61	4.1%
Total	1,491	100.0%

In order to analyze the various answers given by respondents, the LAPOP team classified them into four different categories. First, they created two opposing categories: the "instrumental" or "utilitarian" conceptions of democracy (based mainly on expectations related to the country's economic performance) and those "normative" or "axiomatic" ones (stripped of this calculus, at least in terms of immediate individual benefit). This distinction, which has been recently used in public opinion studies, tries to capture two different rationalities associated, in this case, with the notion of democracy (e.g. Bratton 2002; Sarsfield 2003; Sarsfield and Echegaray 2006; Sarsfield and Carrión 2006).

Finally, they proposed two additional categories: "negative" conceptions of democracy, which reflect the opinion of those who do not agree with the democratic system; and "empty" or "diffuse" conceptions, used for people who say democracy has no meaning or that it has "other meanings."

Table III-2 groups the possible responses of the interviewees into the four categories of the analytical framework.

Table III-2. Analytical Framework for the Alternative Conceptions of Democracy

Normative or intrinsic conceptions	Utilitarian or instrumental conceptions	Empty, diffuse, or non-specified conceptions	Negative conceptions
Freedom (without saying what kind)	Economic freedom	Does not mean anything	Freedom, lack of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The "Other" option, mentioned by 61 respondents, in some way reflects a limitation of the semi-open scheme of the question. A totally open scheme, however, implies enormous difficulties in codifying and would have impeded the systematic comparison between countries.



## The Political Culture of Democracy in Colombia: 2006

Freedom of expression	Well-being, economic progress, growth	Other responses	Well-being, lack of, no economic progress
Freedom of movement	Capitalism	DK/NR	Work, lack of
Being independent	Free trade, free enterprise		Equality, lack of, inequality
Right to chose leaders	Work, more opportunities of		Fraudulent elections
Elections, voting			Limits on participation
Free elections			Disorder, lack of justice
Equality (without specifying)			War, invasions
Economic equality, of classes			
Gender Equality			
Equality before the law			
Racial or ethnic equality			
Participation (without saying what kind)			
Participation of minorities			
Power of the people			
Human rights, respect for			
Justice			
Obeying the law			
Non-military government			
Living in peace, without war			



Figure III-6 shows the distribution of the respondents according to these four conceptions of democracy. We see that, while three out of five respondents have a normative definition of democracy, less than 2% conceive of it in instrumental terms. It is worth emphasizing, however, that for a little more than a third of the people, democracy does not seem to have any meaning.

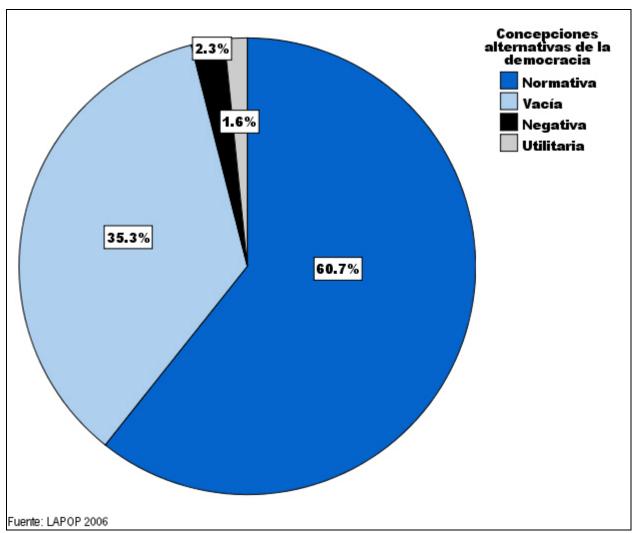


Figure III-6. Alternative Conceptions of Democracy in Colombia - 2006



How does Colombia compare to the other countries of the region? Figure III-7 shows that the percentage of Colombians who have a normative conception of democracy is around the average for all the countries included in the study.

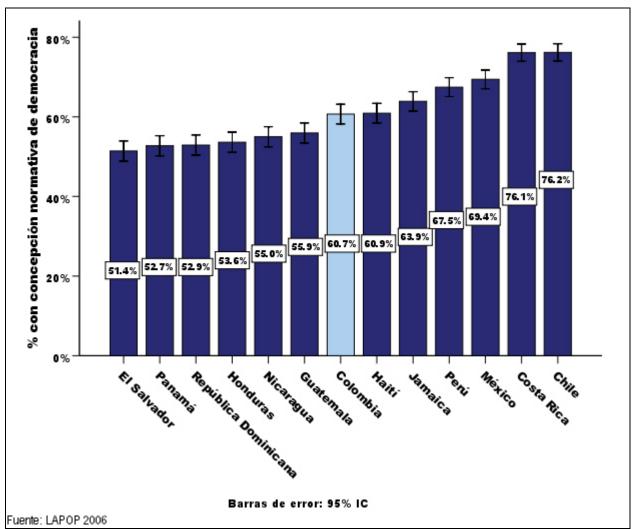


Figure III-7. Normative Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Colombia also appears to be the country with the lowest percentage of people who have a utilitarian conception of democracy, as we can appreciate in Figure III-8.

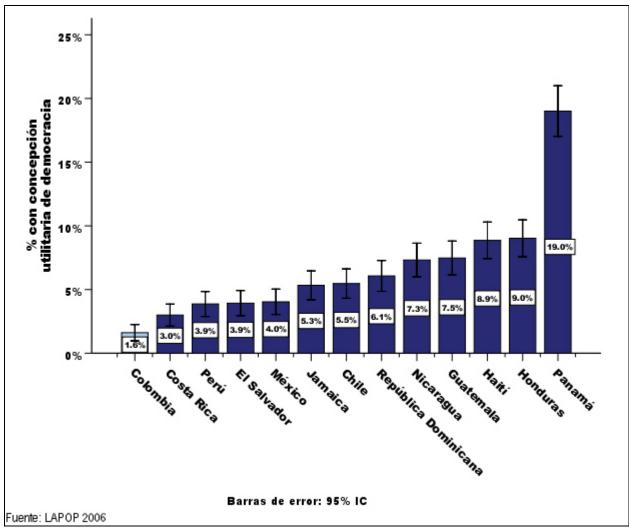


Figure III-8. Utilitarian Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Additionally, Colombia appears among those countries with a small percentage of respondents who have a negative conception of democracy, as we see in Figure III-9.

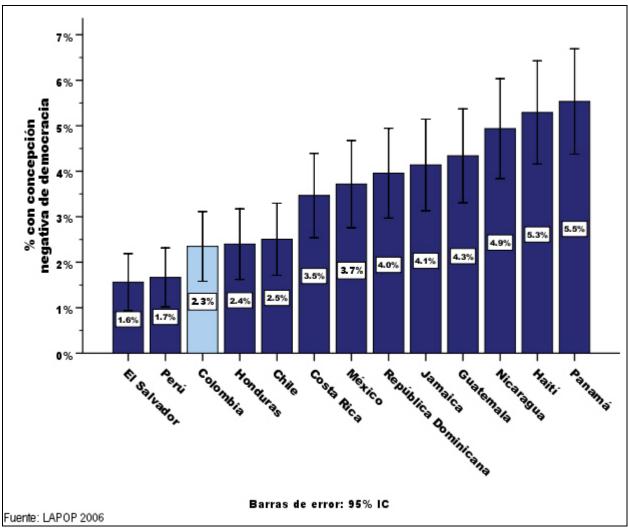


Figure III-9. Negative Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Finally, Figure III-10 shows that Colombia has, after El Salvador and the Dominican Republic, one of the highest proportions of people who have an empty conception of democracy. This is disappointing since it reflects a problem with how Colombians are socialized: too many do not have any idea of what democracy means. This finding suggests that more emphasis should be placed on the meaning of democracy in civic education programs, both formal and informal, in the country.

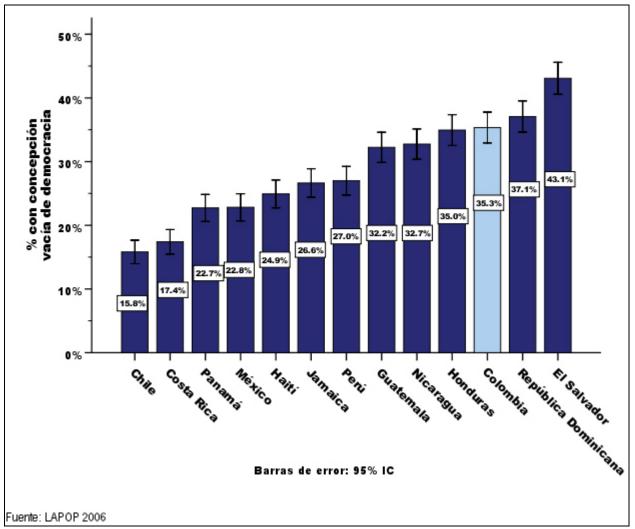


Figure III-10. Empty Conception of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Figure III-11 summarizes the distribution of the respondents for each country in each of these categories, that is, in each one of the conceptions of democracy proposed above.

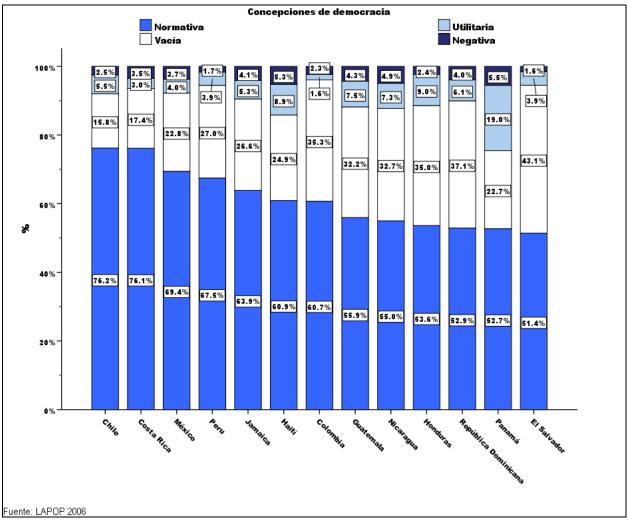


Figure III-11. Conceptions of Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



#### Characteristics of those who Hold Alternative Conceptions of Democracy

Are there features that characterize the people who are located in each one of the alternative conceptions of democracy? To attempt to answer this question, we developed a multinomial logistic model, using the following sociodemographic variables as predictive factors: sex, age, level of education, level of wealth, area of residence (urban or rural), civil status (whether or not the respondent was married or living with a partner), and the number of children. We also included the respondent's ideological position, on a scale of 1 to 10 going from left to right, as a predictor.

The results, which appear in Table III-3 of the annex to this chapter, show the impact of each one of these factors on the probability that a respondent would fall in each one of the conception-of-democracy categories, compared to the normative category. We see that sex, level of education, and age are the factors that distinguish between the different meanings people give democracy.



First, women tend to more frequently profess having an empty conception of democracy, while men lean toward a normative conception, as can be seen in Figure III-12.<sup>2</sup>

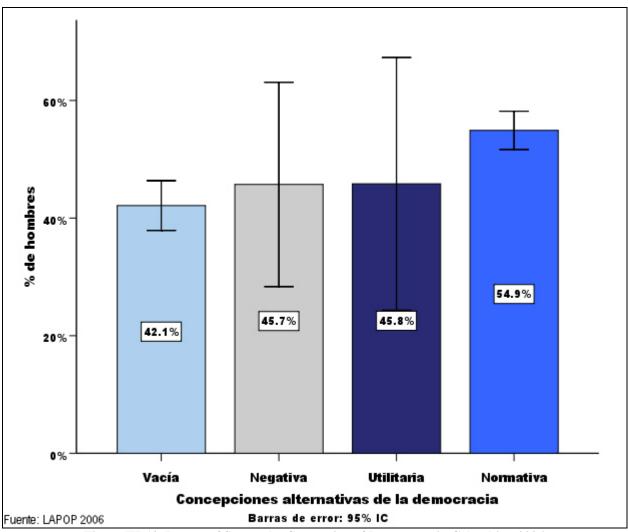


Figure III-12. Impact of Sex on the Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The negative and utilitarian conceptions are not significantly distinguishable between themselves nor from the other two conceptions in terms of the sex of the respondent.



Second, people who demonstrate a normative conception tend to have a higher level of education than people who opt for the other conceptions, without there being any distinction in level of education among these latter.<sup>3</sup> Figure III-13 shows this relation.

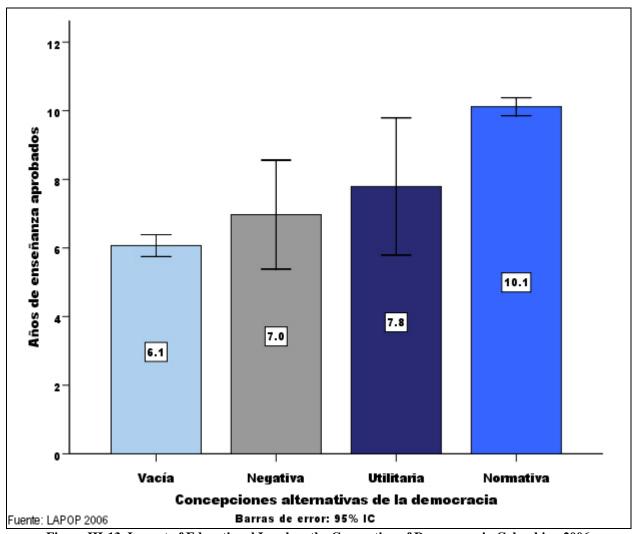


Figure III-13. Impact of Educational Level on the Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006

Finally, the findings show that respondents who have an empty conception of democracy tend to be younger than the others, while those who profess having a negative conception tend to be older than the rest.<sup>4</sup> Likewise, those who have an empty conception are located more to the left than those who have a normative conception of democracy, although both conceptions are ideologically indistinguishable.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> For the same reasons explained above, we omit the bivariate figure to avoid confusing the reader.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Although this last distinction is not inferred from the table, it does come from the successive models with different base categories. We do not present these results for reasons of space.

Once again, this finding is obtained by running successive multinomial logistic models with different base categories. We do not graphically present the bivariate relation between age and conception of democracy since, by not considering the simultaneous impact of the other factors, the figure would erroneously show that people who have a normative conception of democracy would appear to be younger than the rest, a result that is clearly contrary to those obtained from the multivariate model.

# Impact of the Conception of Democracy on the Perception of and Satisfaction with Democracy

How does having a particular conception of democracy influence how people perceive the democracy in which they live? Judging from Figure III-14, there does not appear to be any relation between these two characteristics. Although people who demonstrate a utilitarian conception of democracy tend, on average, to consider that there is a lower level of democracy than people who hold other meanings, this difference is not significant, as can be seen by the overlapping 95% confidence intervals.

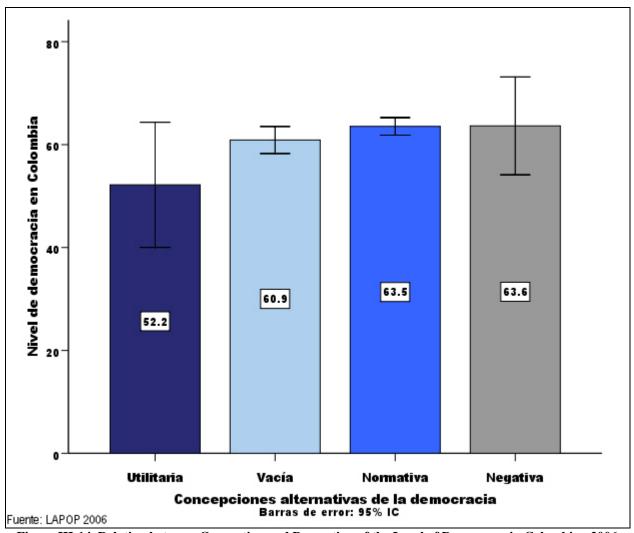


Figure III-14. Relation between Conception and Perception of the Level of Democracy in Colombia - 2006



There also does not appear to be any relation between the different conceptions of democracy and satisfaction with it, as we see in Figure III-15.

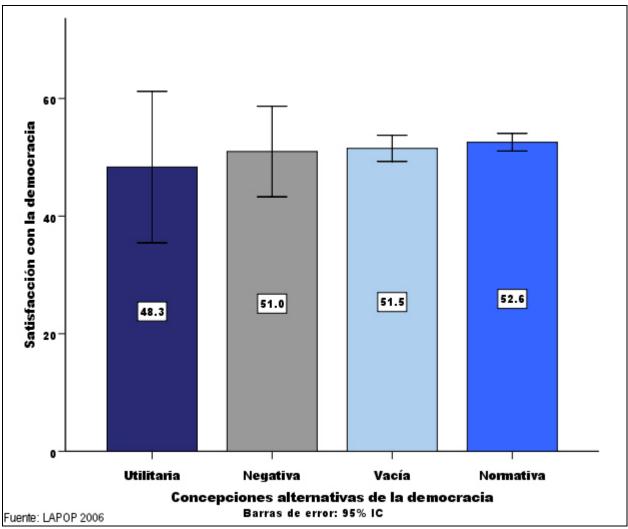


Figure III-15. Relation between Conception of and Satisfaction with Democracy in Colombia - 2006

As can be seen, we are just beginning to explore how people understand democracy. Much important work remains to be done in order to produce empirically-grounded theories regarding the formation of these meanings and their relation to democratic or anti-democratic attitudes among Latin Americans. In the following chapters, we take a few steps in this direction.



## References

- Bratton, Michael. 2002. "Wide but Shallow: Popular Support for Democracy in Africa". Michigan: Michigan State University. *Afrobarometer* Paper 19 (www.afrobarometer.org).
- Bratton, Michael, Robert B. Mattes, and Emmanuel Gyimah-Boadi. 2004. *Public Opinion, Democracy, and Market Reform in Africa, Cambridge Studies in Comparative Politics*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Sarsfield, Rodolfo. 2003. ¿La no-elección de Dorian Gray o la decisión de Ulises? Racionalidad y determinación en la preferencia por la democracia en América Latina. México: FLACSO (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation).
- Sarsfield, Rodolfo and Julio F. Carrión. 2006. "The Different Paths to Authoritarianism: Rationality and Irrationality in Regime Preferences". Paper presented at the 59<sup>th</sup> annual World Association of Public Opinion Research conference. Montreal: May 16-18.
- Sarsfield, Rodolfo and Fabián Echegaray. 2006. "Opening the Black Box. How Satisfaction with Democracy and Its Perceived Efficacy Affect Regime Preference in Latin America". *International Journal of Public Opinion Research* 18(2): 153-173.



## Annex

Table III-3. Predictors of the Alternative Conceptions of Democracy in Colombia - 2006

Alternative conceptions of democracy		В	Error est.	z	Sig.	
Negative	Constant	-2.707	.985	-2.75	.006	
	Male	218	.381	57	.567	
	Age	.031	.014	2.20	.028	*
	Education	135	.057	-2.37	.018	*
	Wealth	065	.145	45	.652	
	Urban residence	346	.481	72	.471	
	Married (living with partner)	.304	.425	.72	.475	
	Number of children	046	.101	46	.649	
	Ideological position	019	.076	25	.806	
Empty	Constant	2.265	.377	6.00	.000	
	Male	458	.141	-3.24	.001	**
	Age	013	.006	-2.19	.029	*
	Education	236	.023	-10.21	.000	***
	Wealth	033	.053	61	.540	
	Urban residence	.132	.184	.72	.472	
	Married (living with partner)	.029	.149	.19	.847	
	Number of children	.019	.030	.62	.538	
	Ideological position	060	.028	-2.13	.033	*
Utilitarian	Constant	-4.219	1.192	-3.54	.000	
	Male	318	.439	72	.469	
	Age	.022	.015	1.46	.144	
	Education	160	.066	-2.43	.015	*
	Wealth	.0309	.161	1.91	.056	
	Urban residence	108	.643	17	.867	
	Married (living with partner)	218	.456	48	.632	
	Number of children	.003	.064	.05	.963	
	Ideological position	.046	.092	.50	.617	

Base category: Normative

N: 1174

Pseudo R<sup>2</sup>: .119



<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05

<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

# IV. The State of Democracy in Colombia

This chapter, which is perhaps the central one of this report, thoroughly analyzes Colombians perceptions and attitudes about their political system. The first section deals with the already classic measure of support for the political system, considered as an indicator of the degree of legitimacy that people bestow on the regime. In previous studies, we discussed the importance of legitimacy for democratic stability at length. Therefore, we will not repeat that discussion here; readers interested in this issue can consult those reports, which are available on the LAPOP web page (www.lapopsurveys.org). Here, it is sufficient to note that, for a democracy to be stable, people have to believe that their leaders and institutions have the right to govern.\(^1\) Next, we will analyze the constitutive elements of political tolerance and how they relate to support for the system in order to produce a typology that serves as a kind of diagnostic of the pulse of public opinion and its position toward democratic stability.

Following the line adopted in previous LAPOP studies, the second half of the chapter addresses trust in the most important political institutions, particularly those related to each of the three branches of government. Then, we will analyze in detail a series of items designed to measure the preference for democracy over any other form of government, support for the separation of powers, and, in contrast, support for politicians who seek to restrict civil liberties or for positions that have the potential to undermine liberal democratic principals.

## Support for the System

One of the key measures in the LAPOP studies is related to support for the political system. This measure is constructed from the following questions:

	Anotar 1-7, 8 = NS/NR 9=Inap.
<b>B1</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto cree que los tribunales de justicia de Colombia garantizan un juicio justo? Si cree que los tribunales no garantizan en <u>nada</u> la justicia, escoja el número 1; si cree que los tribunales garantizan <u>mucho</u> la justicia escoja el número 7 o escoja un puntaje intermedio.	
<b>B2</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto tiene respeto por las instituciones políticas de Colombia?	
<b>B3</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto cree que los derechos básicos del ciudadano están bien protegidos por el sistema político colombiano?	
<b>B4</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto se siente orgulloso de vivir bajo el sistema político colombiano?	
<b>B6</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto piensa que se debe apoyar el sistema político colombiano?	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Seligson, Mitchell A. 2000 "Toward A Model of Democratic Stability: Political Culture in Central America." *Estudios interdisciplinarios de América Latina y el Caribe* 11, no. 2.



**57** 

The *support-for-the-system* index as a measure of the legitimacy of the political system is constructed by converting each one of these variables onto a 0 to 100-point scale and averaging the values.<sup>2</sup>

How does the level of support for the Colombian system compare with that for the other countries covered by this study? Figure IV-1 shows that the Colombian average is only surpassed by Costa Rica, Mexico, and the Dominican Republic.

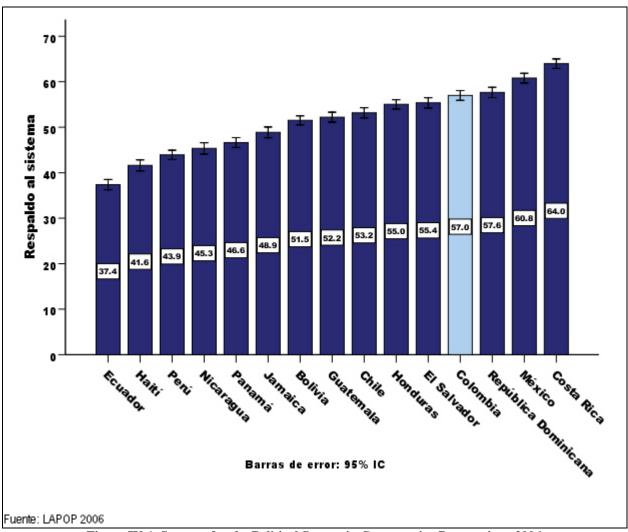


Figure IV-1. Support for the Political System in Comparative Perspective - 2006

Theoretically, however, legitimacy has at least two components: *specific* support, which refers primarily to the current conjuncture and depends on the popularity of the administration in office; and *diffuse* support, which in some ways is a better indicator of the level of legitimacy of the political system in the medium- to long-term. The questions that comprise the five items included in the previous figure were designed to capture the component of diffuse support. Still, earlier studies have shown that the dimension of specific support can influence this component, especially when the president in power is particularly popular or unpopular.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These items constitute a reliable scale, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.785.



In the Colombian case, where the president is one of the most popular in Latin America, it is important to control for this possible effect. To examine diffuse support, it is possible to observe support for the system controlling for the level of the president's popularity. The procedure consists in calculating the average support while maintaining the popularity constant (measured with the variable M1). Figure IV-2 shows the resulting level of diffuse support in Colombia compared to the other countries of the study. We see how the country's prominent position, which appeared in the previous figure, is somewhat qualified. This indicates that the high levels of President Uribe's popularity influences, to some degree, current support for the political system. The image of diffuse support gives us a more conservative idea of the comparative legitimacy of the Colombian political system since part of its legitimacy stems from the popularity of the sitting president. However, the theory on legitimacy has maintained for some time that popular governments, which satisfy people's demands, in the long run can build up a reserve of legitimacy. This seems to be what is happening in Colombia, although only time will tell how long this impact will last.

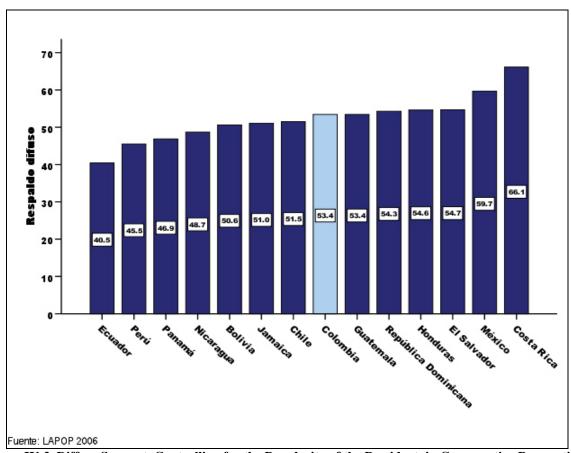


Figure IV-2. Diffuse Support, Controlling for the Popularity of the President, in Comparative Perspective - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Technically, we constructed a general linear model using the countries as fixed factors and the M1 variables (approval of the president's administration) as the covariant.



59

Thanks to the data obtained from the three rounds of LAPOP surveys in Colombia, it is possible to make annual comparisons of the dynamics of support for the system. After having increased a little between 2004 and 2005, this last year there was a decline in the average support for the system in the country, as Figure IV-3 shows. However, while this drop is statistically significant, in substantive terms it is virtually insignificant. Support for the system has not varied over the last three years of LAPOP surveys in the country. This finding suggests that the level of legitimacy, at least during the current government, is quite stable.

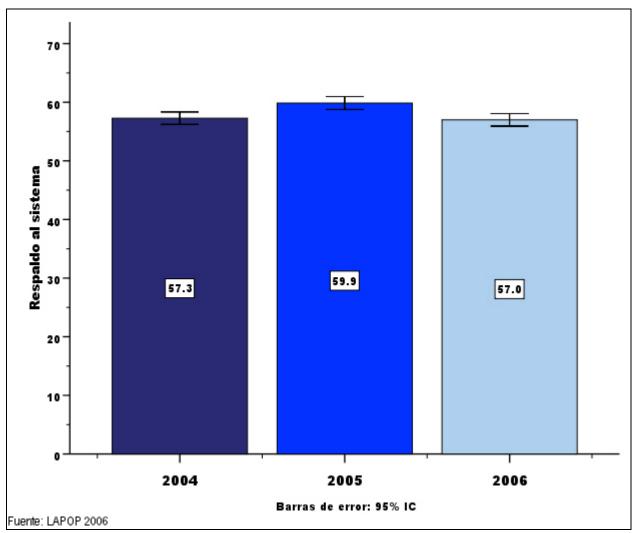


Figure IV-3. Support for the System in Colombia - 2004-2006



Figure IV-4 shows the levels of support by region for the last three years. Given that the samples in each region are much smaller than the national sample, the confidence intervals are necessarily wider at the regional level than at the national. As a consequence, for example, the continual increase in the Old National Territories between 2004 and 2006 is not statistically significant. Still, it is clear that this region shows greater support for the system than, for example, the Pacific region.

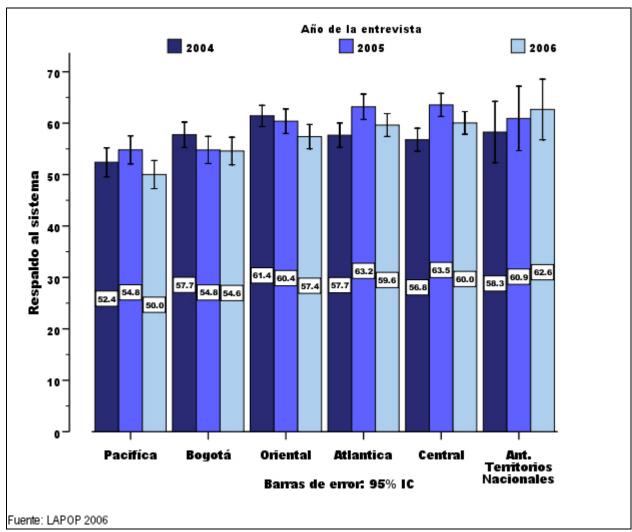


Figure IV-4. Support for the System by Region - 2004-2006



## **Predictors of Support for the System**

We wanted to see what factors influence the level of an individual's support for the system. We included the usual sociodemographic variables as predictors: sex, age, level of education, wealth, area of residence, civil status, and number of children. We also included the respondent's ideological position. In order to control for specific support (discussed above), we also included the respondent's evaluation of the national government. Likewise, we included their evaluation of municipal services, the country's economic performance, and their own economic situation. Additionally, we expected that people who have been the victims of crime, the armed conflict, and corruption would show less support for the system. Finally, to evaluate whether support for the system depended on one's conception of democracy, we included a dichotomous variable that distinguished people who have a normative conception from those who understand democracy differently. The results of this multivariate regression model appear in Table IV-2 in the annex to this chapter.

The first notable finding is that none of the kinds of victimization have a significant impact on support for the system. Contrary to what we expected, it turns out that victims of crime, corruption, and the conflict in Colombia do not confer lower levels of legitimacy on the political system than non-victims when we control for the other factors. This is a feature that Colombia does not share with many other countries in the region. In those countries, victimization by corruption has an important impact on the legitimacy of the political system. It is interesting to speculate why Colombia differs from the other countries. As will be seen later on, there are other factors that have a strong influence on legitimacy, and these factors trump the impact of the variables that are important in other countries. When we examine victimization by corruption and crime as predictors of legitimacy in Colombia, without controlling for the other variables, both factors are statistically significant. In other words, victimization by crime and corruption do undermine legitimacy, as in other countries. In Colombia, however, there are other more important factors that dilute the impact of these variables.

Also, when the other factors included in the model are held constant, having a normative conception of democracy does not make any difference in terms of support for the system.

Furthermore, the legitimacy that people confer on the political system is not related to their ideological position and how they evaluate the economy, whether it be the national economy (sociotropic) or their own economic situation (egotropic).



Among the significant findings worth emphasizing, the first is that older people tend to have higher levels of support, as we see in Figure IV-5. This result shows that older Colombians are more inclined to express greater support for the system than younger ones. This is a concern since this support might fall when these younger people take over the reins of the system. It is also possible, in Colombia, that as people mature, their support for the system increases. We will be in a better position to know if this is the case the longer we track support for the system over time. However, it is important to note that people who still belong to the youngest cohort (the 18 to 25 year range) have substantially higher levels of support for the system than the average citizen in most other countries of the region. Therefore, although we find that Colombian youth, as they grow, still have low levels of support for the system compared to older Colombians, the national levels of legitimacy should remain above those of many other Latin American countries.

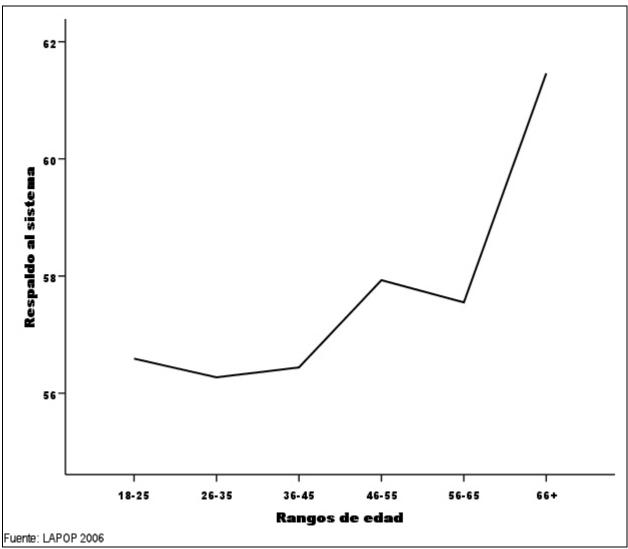


Figure IV-5. Support for the System by Age Group in Colombia - 2006



People with more education also have higher levels of support for the political system, as Figure IV-6 shows. This is important since education is a strong predictor of many forms of political participation and, therefore, the most educated in Colombia, who are the most participative, are also those who also find that the system is most legitimate. This is a good indication of long-term political stability.

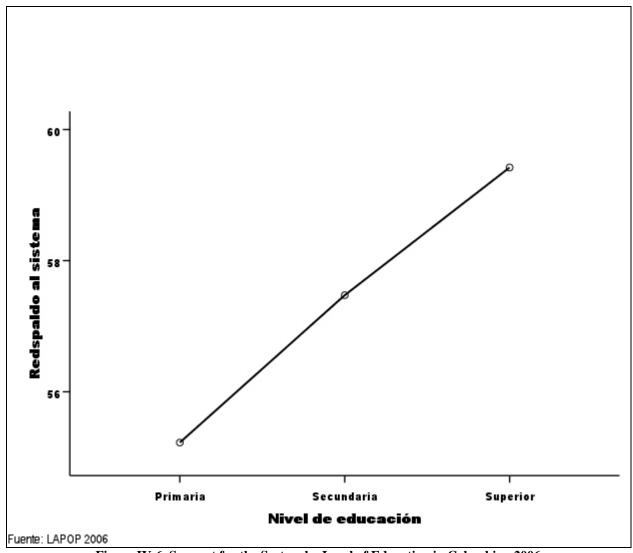


Figure IV-6. Support for the System by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



By contrast, when we control for the other factors (particularly the level of education), the model shows that the wealthiest people have lower levels of support than more needy people. Figure IV-7, which illustrates this relation, shows support for the wealth indicator as measured in the ownership of goods, on a scale of 0 to 9.<sup>4</sup>

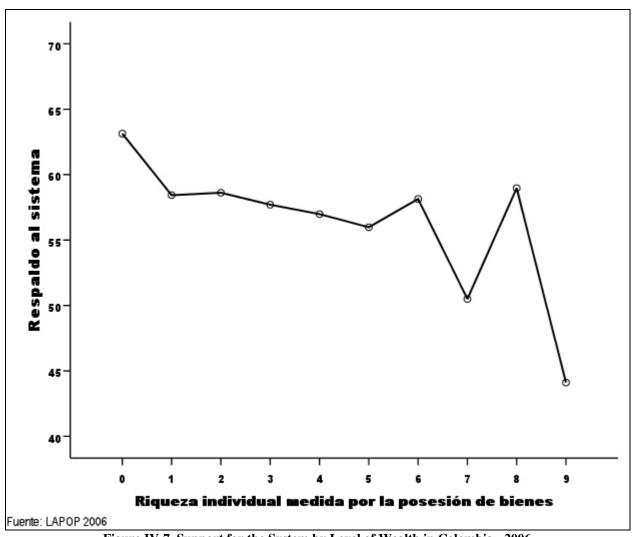


Figure IV-7. Support for the System by Level of Wealth in Colombia - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This index is measured aggregating the R series of the questionnaire (see annex). It is worth noting that only two respondents have a score of 9 on this index (that is, only two people have all the items of the R series). An alternative is to group the categories 8 and 9 into a single one.



As expected, specific support, that is the approval rating of the current administration, has a significant and very strong impact on general support for the political system, as Figure IV-8 shows.

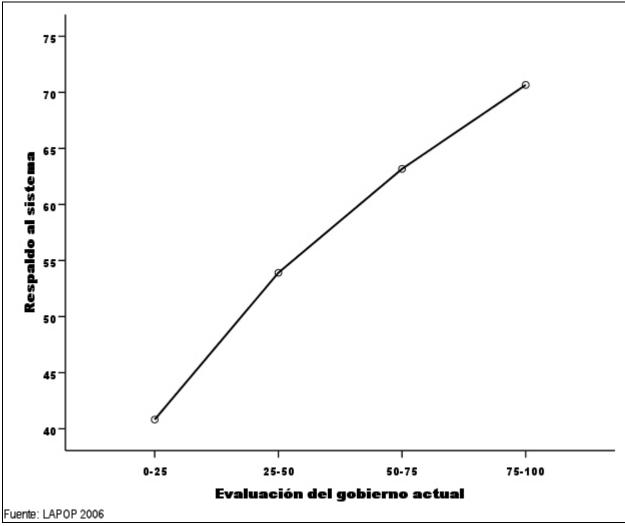


Figure IV-8. Support for the System by Evaluation of the Administration in Colombia - 2006



Finally, and perhaps most importantly, support for the system is also positively influenced by the evaluation that people make of the services provided by the municipality, as we see in Figure IV-9. As found in studies conducted in previous years, this effect, small but statistically significant, shows the importance that good local management has on the legitimacy of the system in general.<sup>5</sup>

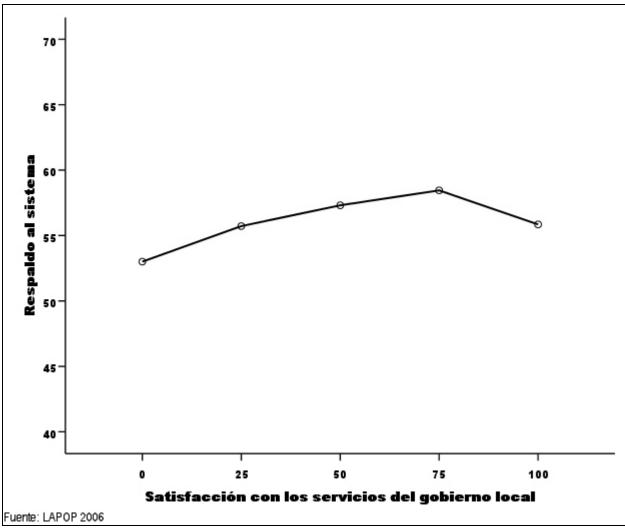


Figure IV-9. Support for the System by Evaluation of Municipal Services in Colombia - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> It is worth noting that there are only 27 people in the "very satisfied" category. An alternative to avoid this would be to recodify the variable by combining the two highest categories.



#### Political Tolerance

Along with support for the political system, a second dimension of democratic stability is tolerance. Democratic stability not only depends on people believing in the legitimacy of the political system, but also on their willingness to tolerate the rights of minorities. If the majority does not tolerate the basic civil rights of these minorities, the rotation of power is not possible. Democracy has been defined as the "institutionalization of uncertainty." Therefore, when a group or party always holds power, the system is not democratic. The series of LAPOP studies has explored various ways of measuring tolerance. We have found that the method we use in this chapter is the most reliable. To measure tolerance, the LAPOP study asks respondents to imagine a hypothetical group of people who only speak badly about the political system; it then inquires just how tolerant respondents would be of this group of people exercising their political freedom. The concrete questions are the following:

	Anotar 1-10, NS/NR=88
D1. Hay personas que siempre hablan mal de la forma de gobierno de Colombia, no sólo del gobierno de turno, sino la forma de gobierno, ¿con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba el derecho de votar de esas personas? Por favor léame el número de la escala: [Sondee: ¿Hasta qué punto?]	
<b>D2</b> . ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba el que estas personas puedan llevar a cabo <b>manifestaciones pacíficas</b> con el propósito de expresar sus puntos de vista? Por favor léame el número.	
D3. ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba que estas personas puedan postularse para cargos públicos?	
D4. ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba que estas personas salgan en televisión para dar un discurso?	

With these items, as in previous studies, we constructed the index of political tolerance.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The Cronbach's of this index for the 2006 sample is .855.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Przeworski, Adam, Michael E. Alvarez, José Antonio Cheibub, and Fernando Limongi. 2000 *Democracy and Development: Political Institutions and Well-Being in the World, 1950-1990*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

As we see in Figure IV-10, Colombia shows a medium-low level of tolerance, only surpassing Bolivia, Honduras, Ecuador, and Panama, and on the same level as Guatemala and Nicaragua.

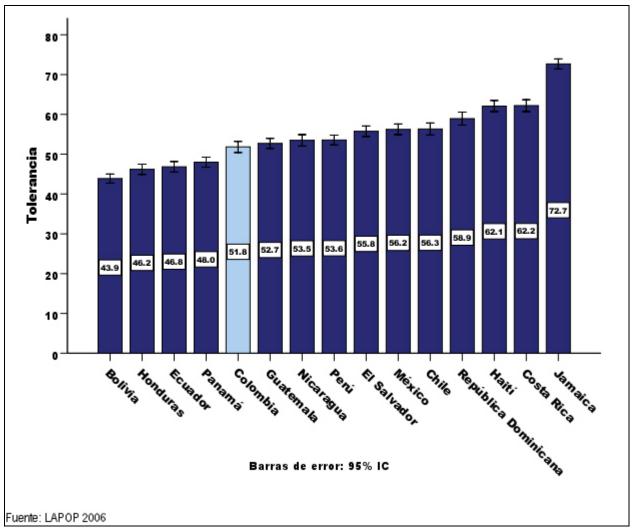


Figure IV-10. Political Tolerance in Comparative Perspective - 2006



There were no significant variations in the level of tolerance over the last three years, as we see in Figure IV-11.

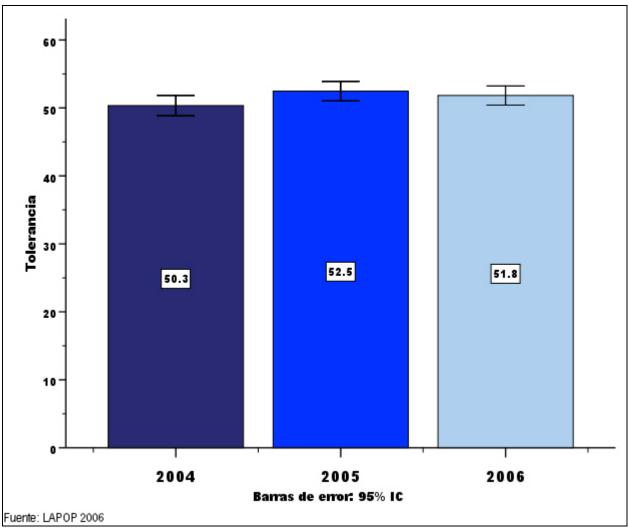


Figure IV-11. Political Tolerance in Colombia - 2004-2006



Compared to last year, the average level of tolerance has grown in the Pacific region. In the other regions, there do not appear to have been any substantive changes, as can be seen in Figure IV-12.

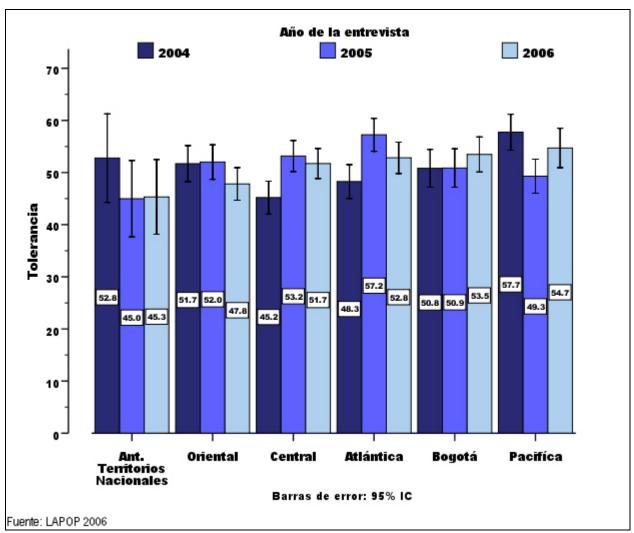


Figure IV-12. Political Tolerance by Region - 2004-2006



## **Predictors of Political Tolerance**

To find out what factors influence people's tolerance, we ran a multivariate linear regression model using tolerance as the dependent variable. The predictors include the sociodemographic variables, as well as ideological position, victimization by crime, corruption, and the armed conflict, and an indicator that distinguishes people who have a normative conception of democracy from other respondents. Table IV-3 of the annex to this chapter shows the results of this model.

Among the most noteworthy results, we found that neither ideology nor a respondent's conception of democracy have a significant impact on support for the system. Likewise, victimization by corruption or the armed conflict does not appear to have any effect.

The results of the model indicate that, among the sociodemographic variables, on average men have a level of tolerance four points higher than women, controlling for the other factors. Likewise, more educated people are more tolerant. In fact, as Figure IV-13 shows, at low levels of education, tolerance levels are practically the same irrespective of the sex of the respondent; at higher levels of education, however, the gender gap widens. This finding has important implications for public policy. It suggests that women and men differ substantially on this critical variable for democratic consolidation. While men have higher levels of education, the benefits for women are much less and, in fact, when we examine the interaction term, the benefits of education for women are not significant (controlling for the other variables in the model). Naturally, we reject the notion that women are incapable of becoming more politically tolerant. Rather, the findings suggest that the educational system likely works differently for men and women. Perhaps men are more exposed to different stimulus in the classroom or, more likely, men and women take different educational paths. In some countries, for example, men are more likely to receive a classic liberal education, while women are more confined to vocational subjects where teaching skills related to tolerance tend to be completely absent.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> A regression model that includes an interacion term between the sex and level of education variables confirms this finding and indicates that the level of education does not significantly increase the tolerance of women.



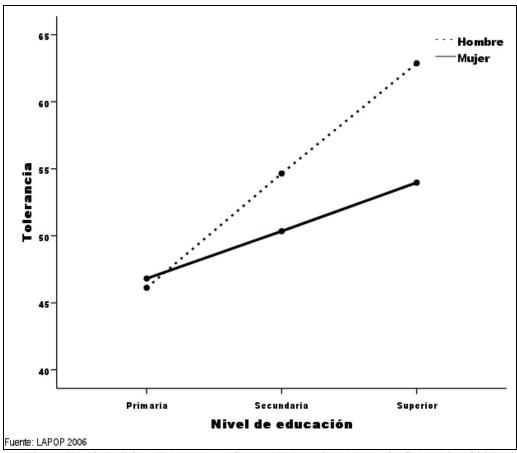


Figure IV-13. Political Tolerance by Sex and Educational Level in Colombia - 2006



## Democratic Stability

As in previous studies, by combining the two mentioned dimensions – legitimacy or support for the system, on the one hand, and political tolerance, on the other – we created a typology regarding people's proclivity to democratic stability. This typology, which is based on a dichotomous version of the two dimensions, considers four types of people:

- 1. People who show high support for the system and high tolerance would favor democratic stability. As can be seen in Table IV-1, 30.6% of respondents fell into this category in 2006.
- 2. People with a low level of support for the system and high political tolerance (19.3%) would show attitudes that lean toward unstable democracy.
- 3. Conversely, people who demonstrate high support for the system but have a low level of political tolerance would favor authoritarian stability: 30.5% of Colombians demonstrate this pattern.
- 4. Finally, when a high percentage of people demonstrate low levels of both support and tolerance, the democracy can be at risk. In Colombia, 19.6% of respondents fell into this category.

Table IV-1. Democratic Stability in Colombia - 2006

	Tolerance			
Support for the system	High	Low		
	Stable democracy	Authoritarian stability		
High	30.6%	30.5%		
	Unstable democracy	Democracy-at-risk		
Low	19.3%	19.6%		



How do these percentages in Colombia compare to the rest of the region? Figure IV-14 shows that Colombia is close to the average of the countries included in the study, above most of the South American countries and at the same level as Chile.

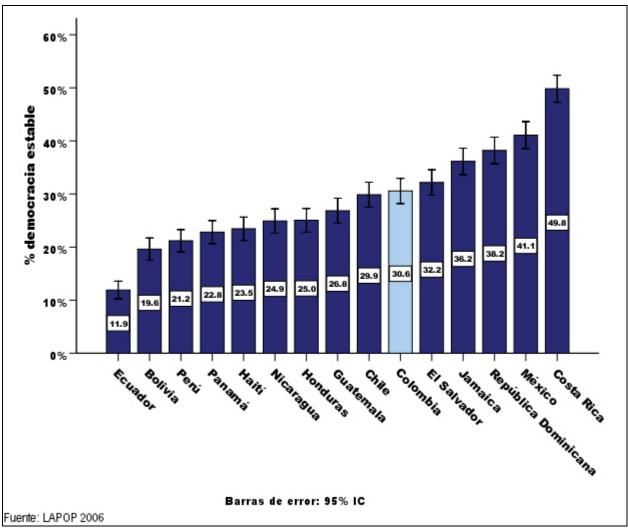


Figure IV-14. Attitudes Favorable to a Stable Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



In turn, the percentage of Colombians with attitudes that favor an unstable democracy (high tolerance and low support for the system), is relatively low compared to the other Latin American countries, falling below Chile, Ecuador, and Peru, as can be seen in Figure IV-15.

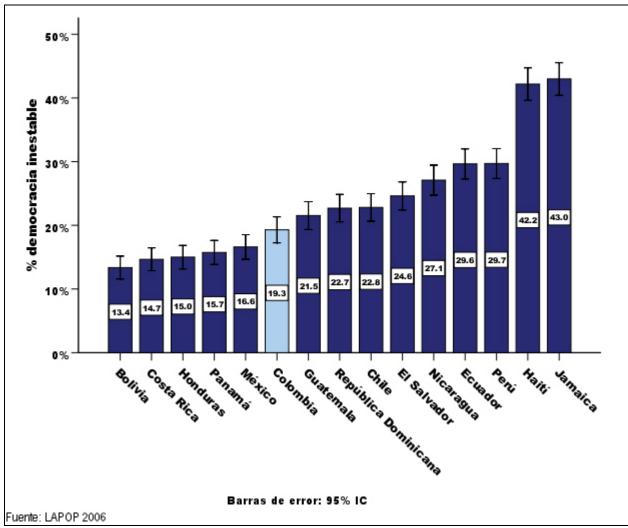


Figure IV-15. Attitudes that Lead to an Unstable Democracy, in Comparative Perspective - 2006



By contrast, a relatively high portion of Colombians profess attitudes considered to be supportive of authoritarian stability (high support for the system but low tolerance). Figure IV-16 shows that only Bolivia and Honduras have higher proportions of these type of people.

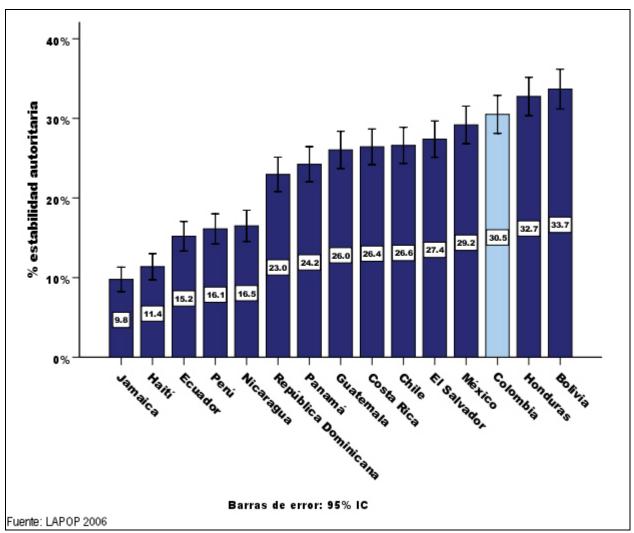


Figure IV-16. Attitudes that Lead to Authoritarian Stability, in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Finally, Figure IV-17 shows that, although the percentage of Colombians who have low levels of both support for the system and tolerance is greater than in Costa Rica, Jamaica, Mexico, El Salvador, and the Dominican Republic, the country appears in a better position than the other South American countries (except Chile, which is at the same level).

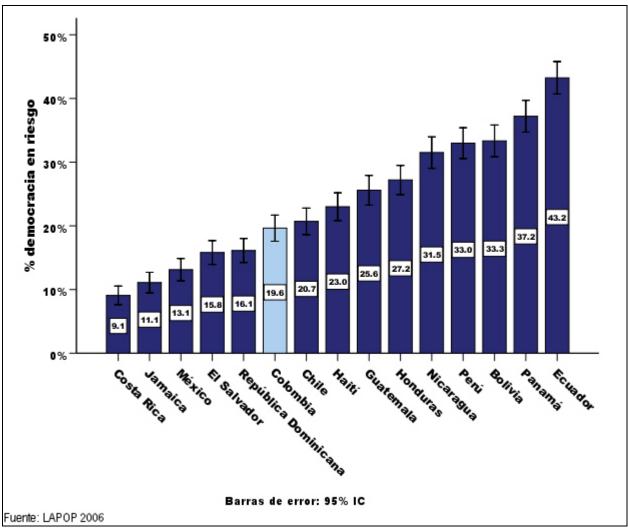


Figure IV-17. Attitudes that Put Democracy at Risk, in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Figure IV-18 shows the evolution of these percentages in Colombia over the last three years. As can be seen, since 2005 the percentage of Colombians whose attitudes favor a stable democracy has fallen significantly, while those in the "unstable democracy" and "democracy-atrisk" boxes have increased slightly.

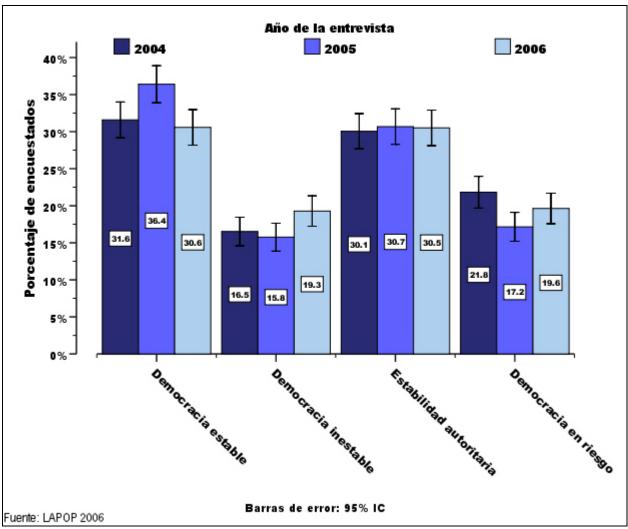


Figure IV-18. Democratic Stability in Colombia - 2004-2006



#### Trust in Institutions

As is the custom in LAPOP studies, we asked respondents how much trust they had in a series of institutions. Figure IV-19 summaries the findings of these questions and shows the average response recoded onto a scale of 0 to 100. As in the other studies, the Catholic Church still enjoys the highest levels of trust among Colombians, despite the criticism that it has recently received in the country and around the world for its position on issues such as contraception, abortion, homosexuality, and the resonance of the cases of child sexual abuse involving some of its ministers.

Political parties also retain their last-place position on the scale of trust, although their rating has improved in recent years, as will be seen in a later chapter.

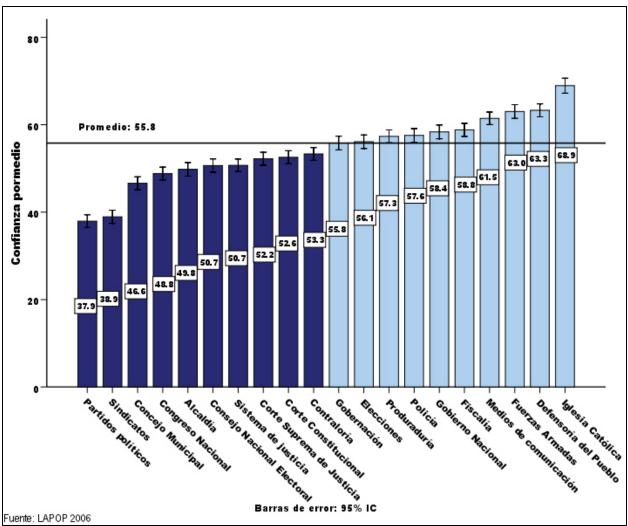


Figure IV-19. Institutional Trust in Colombia - 2006



To have a somewhat more detailed overview of the trust in the main political institutions, in this chapter we examine the level of public trust in each one of the branches of government. First, as seen in Figure IV-20, the Colombian executive branch enjoys one of the highest levels of confidence in the region, along with administrations in the Dominican Republic, Chile, and Mexico.

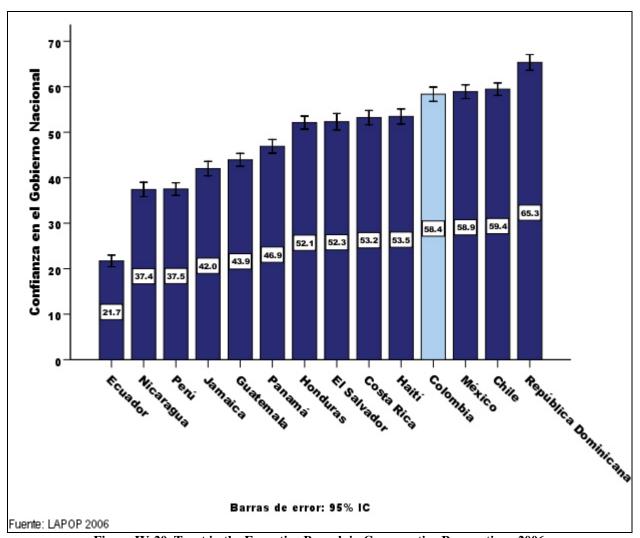


Figure IV-20. Trust in the Executive Branch in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Although Congress is one of the least-trusted institutions in Colombia, comparatively it does fare so poorly. It enjoys the same level of trust as the Chilean and Costa Rican legislatures, and is only below those of Mexico and the Dominican Republic, as can be appreciated in Figure IV-21.

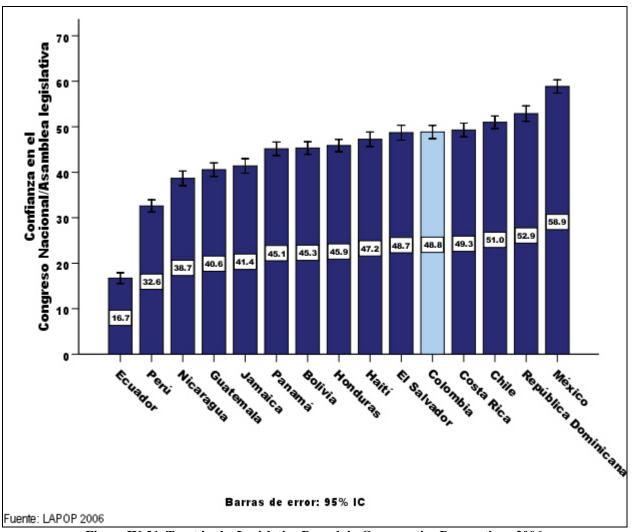


Figure IV-21. Trust in the Legislative Branch in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Finally, in comparative terms, the Colombian judicial system is one of the most prestigious in the region, as Figure IV-22 shows. This position contrasts with reports that point out the very high percentages of impunity in Colombia and have denounced, for some years now, the profound crisis in the country's apparatus of justice. Despite this objective situation, Colombians trust in their system of justice more than the vast majority of people from the other countries in the region.

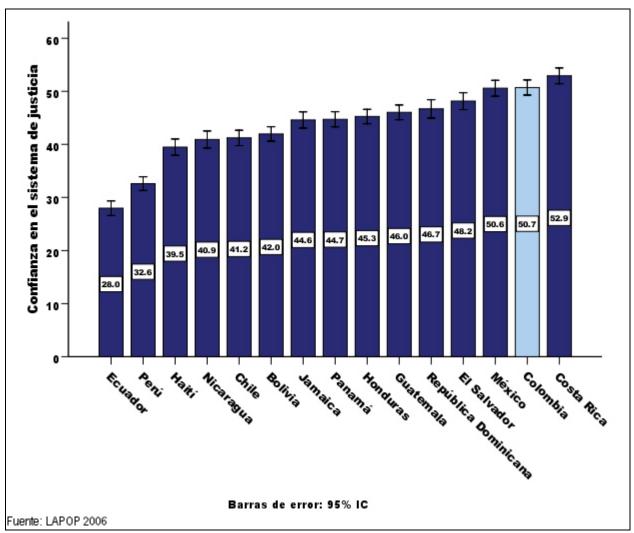


Figure IV-22. Trust in the System of Justice in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Specifically, the country's two high courts enjoy comparatively high levels of trust. Figure IV-23 shows that only the Mexican and Costa Rican Supreme Courts surpass the Colombian.

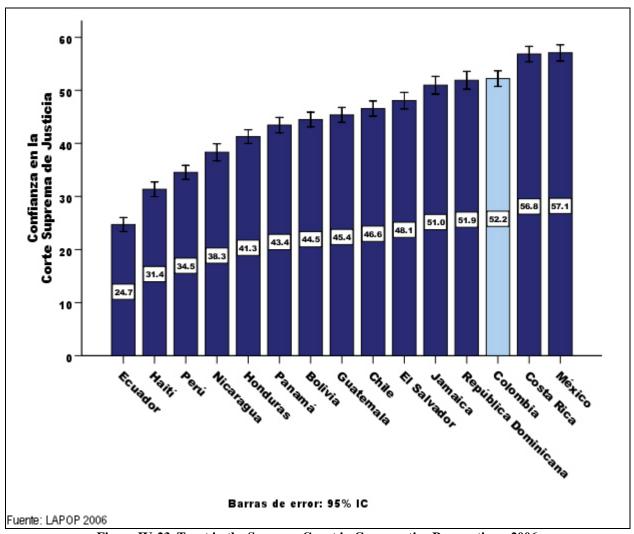


Figure IV-23. Trust in the Supreme Court in Comparative Perspective – 2006



Colombia's Constitutional Court also enjoys comparatively high levels of trust among the countries that have this institution, as Figure IV-24 shows.

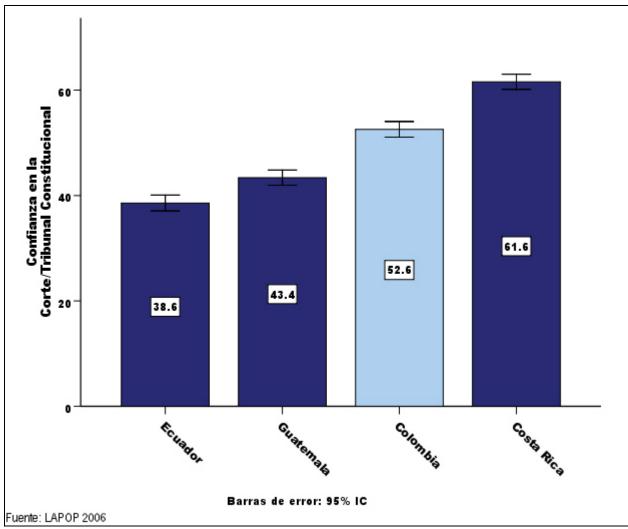


Figure IV-24. Trust in the Constitutional Court/Tribune in Comparative Perspective – 2006



Figure IV-25 shows that there have not been major variations in the trust in the three branches of government over the last three years, except for a small but significant decline of almost four points in the general level of trust in the national government.

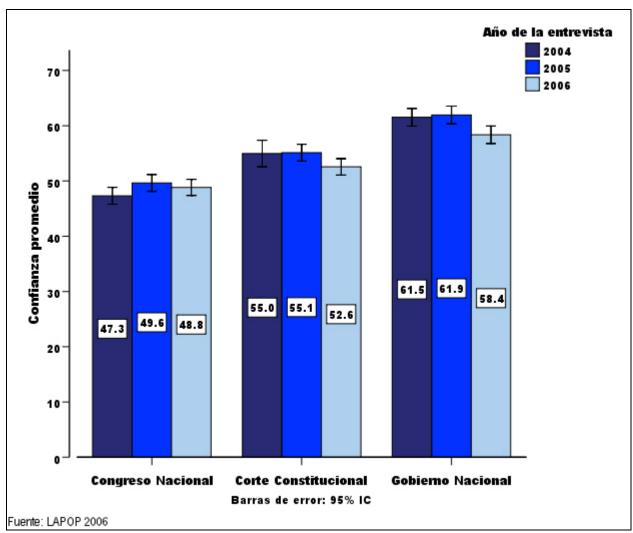


Figure IV-25. Trust in the Three Branches of Government in Colombia - 2004-2006



# Attitudes towards Democracy

# **Approval of Censorship**

To measure different attitudes toward democracy, a first group of questions studied to what degree respondents would approve of a series of measures cutting civil liberties and censoring the right to think and speak freely in different kinds of media. The questions are the following:

	Anotar 1- 10,88= NS/NR
D32. ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba una ley que prohíba las protestas públicas?	
<b>D33.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba una ley que prohíba reuniones de cualquier grupo que critique el sistema político colombiano?	
<b>D34.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba que el gobierno censure programas de televisión?	
<b>D36.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba que el gobierno censure libros que están en las bibliotecas de las escuelas públicas?	
<b>D37</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba que el gobierno censure a los medios de comunicación que lo critican?	



Figure IV-26 shows the level of approval for each of these measures in 2005 and 2006. We see that there are no major variations, and that television is the most "vulnerable" media to respondents' attitudes.

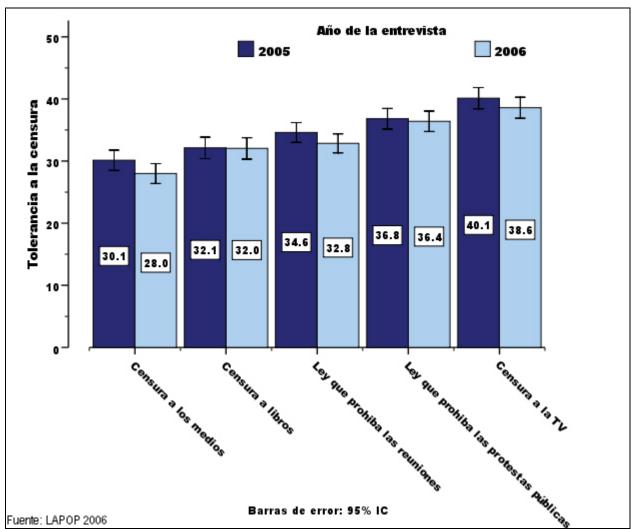


Figure IV-26. Approval of Different Forms of Censorship in Colombia – 2004-2006



With these five items, we constructed a *censorship-approval index*. Figure VI-27 shows that Colombia is one of the three countries where people would be most willing to have norms established that restrict rights and censor the media. This finding is consistent with the relatively high percentage of people whose attitudes favor authoritarian stability, as we saw in previous sections.

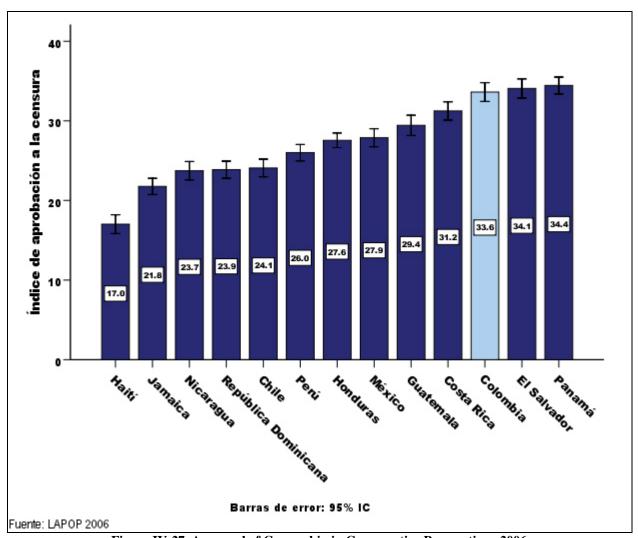


Figure IV-27. Approval of Censorship in Comparative Perspective - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> These items have a Cronbach's alpha .774.



# "Churchillian" Democracy

Public opinion studies tend to include an evaluation of what has been called *Churchillian democracy*, after the famous expression by the British statesman that democracy is the worst form of government, except for all the others. We included the following question in our questionnaire:

**DEM2**. Con cuál de las siguientes tres frases está usted más de acuerdo:

A la gente como uno, le da lo mismo un régimen democrático que uno <b>no</b> democrático	1
La democracia es preferible a cualquier otra forma de gobierno	2
En algunas circunstancias un gobierno autoritario puede ser preferible a uno democrático	3
NS/NR	8



As Figure IV-28 shows, Colombia appears to have a medium-low percentage in relation to the other countries included in the study; more than 15 points below Costa Rica and even slightly lower than Ecuador.

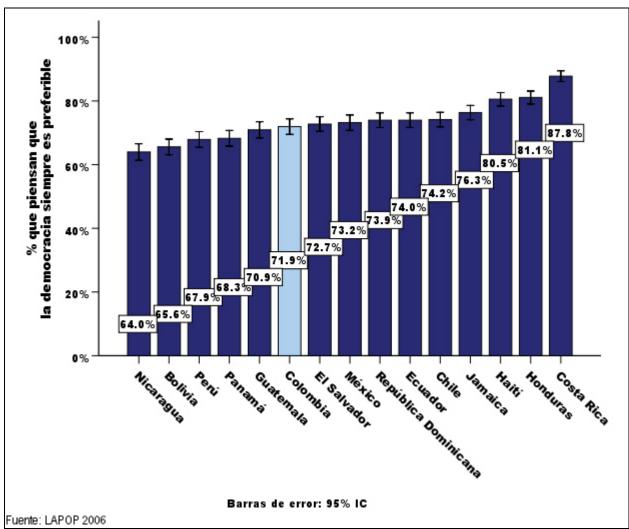


Figure IV-28. "Churchillian" Democracy in Comparative Perspective - 2006



As we see in Figure IV-29, there appears to be a relation between the conception of democracy and support for democracy as the most-preferred system of government. While people who demonstrate normative and utilitarian conceptions of democracy are those who most support "Churchillian" democracy, it is worth noting that it is the utilitarians who most adamantly reject the possibility of an authoritarian regime.

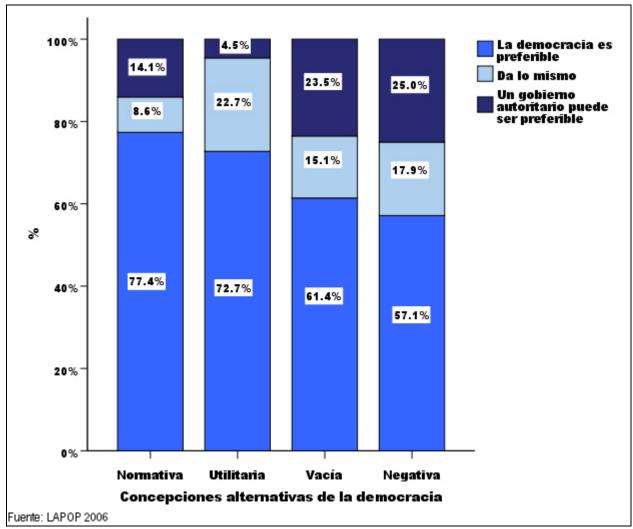


Figure IV-29. "Churchillian" Democracy by Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006



## Justification of a Coup d'État

One of the traditional elements of public opinion studies, especially in Latin America, was ascertaining to what degree a respondent would accept a non-democratic regime. As in previous years, the LAPOP study contained the following questions:

Ahora hablemos de otros temas. Alguna gente dice que en ciertas circunstancias se justificaría que los militares tomaran el poder por un golpe de estado. En su opinión bajo qué situaciones se justificaría que hubiera un golpe de estado por los militares. [leer alternativas después de cada pregunta]

JC1. Frente al Desempleo muy alto	Se justificaría que los militares tomaran el poder		NS/NR
	1		8
JC4. Frente a muchas protestas sociales	Se justificaría	No se justificaría 2	NS/NR
	1		8
JC10. Frente a mucha delincuencia	Se justificaría	No se justificaría 2	NS/NR
	1		8
JC12. Frente a la alta inflación, con aumento excesivo de precios	Se justificaría	No se justificaría 2	NS/NR
•	1		8
JC13. Frente a mucha corrupción	Se justificaría	No se justificaría	NS/NR
	1	_	8



With these items, we constructed an *index of justifying a coup d'état*, measured between 0 and 100.<sup>10</sup> Figure IV-30 shows that Colombia's level, the same as that in Mexico and Honduras, is near the average of the countries included in the study. The massive rejection of a military seizure of power by Chileans is striking.

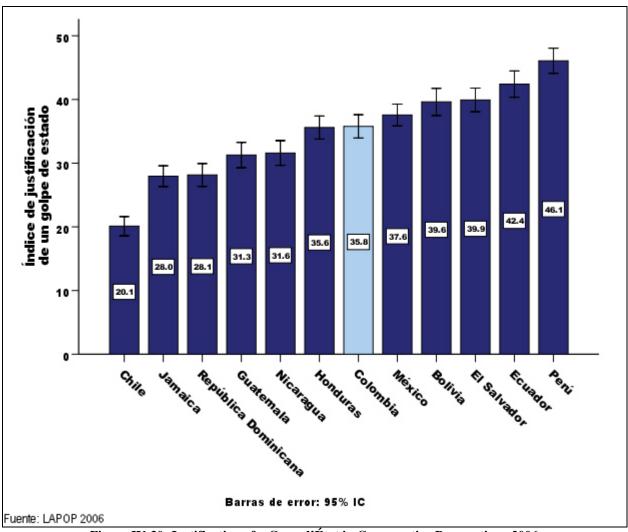


Figure IV-30. Justification of a Coup d'État in Comparative Perspective - 2006

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm 10}$  For Colombia, the Cronbach's alpha of this index is .825.



#### **Threats to the Separation of Powers**

Despite what we examined in the previous section, the probability of a military coup in the region is relatively low, partly because of the lack of tolerance for these types of regimes in the international community, as written in the OAS's Inter-American Democratic Charter, among others.

The real threat to democracy in twenty-first-century Latin America has more to do with presidents who, although democratically elected, tend to concentrate power to the detriment of the other branches of government. How tolerant are people to such threats to the separation of powers? The study conducted in Colombia last year included the following two questions to examine public attitudes toward this risk. The questions are the following:

	Sí podría haber	Nunca habría razón	NS/N R
JC15 ¿Cree usted que alguna vez puede haber razón suficiente para que el presidente cierre el Congreso o cree que no puede existir razón suficiente para eso?	1	2	8
JC16: ¿Cree usted que alguna vez puede haber razón suficiente para que el presidente disuelva la Corte Constitucional o cree que nunca puede existir razón suficiente para eso?	1	2	8



In 2006, the studies conducted in all the countries included this battery of questions in their questionnaires, allowing us to examine the Colombian case in comparative perspective. Figure VI-31 shows that Colombians are relatively more willing (around a third of respondents) than people from other countries to justify an excessive concentration of power in the executive branch, including the possibility of a self-coup that involved the president closing the other two branches of government. The country's percentages are only surpassed by those of Peru and Ecuador.

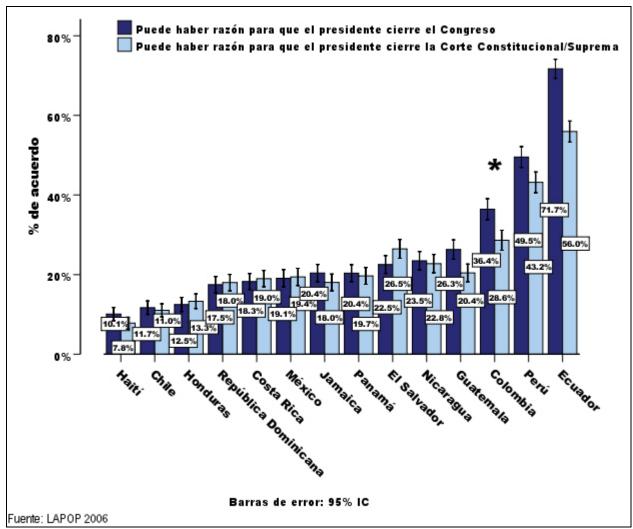


Figure IV-31. Threats to the Separation of Powers in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Examining the Colombian case in more detail, we can see that people would back Congress less than the Constitutional Court in the face of a threat by the president. We can see in Figure IV-32 that this pattern did not change since last year (when we asked these questions for the first time).

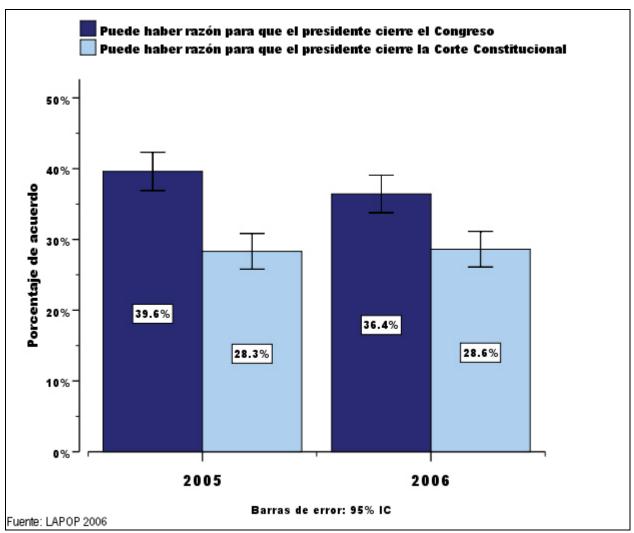


Figure IV-32. Threats to the Separation of Powers in Colombia - 2005-2006



What kinds of people are more adverse to the separation of powers established by the governing liberal democratic model in Colombia and the region? To investigate this, we constructed a dichotomous variable that has a value of 1 when the respondent answered affirmatively to the two previous questions (that is, when they agree that there might be sufficient reasons for the president to close Congress and the Constitutional Court). When the opposite is true, this new variable is coded with a 0.

With this as the dependent variable, we ran a logistic regression model using the following variables as predictors: the usual sociodemographic ones, the respondent's ideological position, their evaluation of the job the current administration is doing (under the supposition that people who back the president might be more inclined to tolerate a concentration of power in the executive branch), and whether the respondent was a victim of corruption, crime, and the armed conflict. Finally, we also included the indicator that distinguishes people with a normative conception of democracy. The results of this model appear in Table IV-4.

Neither victimization by corruption nor by crime has a significant effect on the probability that a respondent would justify the president closing the other two branches of government.

In the same way, the conception of democracy does not appear to influence this adverse attitude to the separation of powers. At least nothing distinguishes people who hold a normative conception of democracy from the rest.



Among these sociodemographic variables, only the level of education has a significant effect on the probability of having adverse attitudes to the separation of powers. When we control for the other factors, we find that more educated people tend to more frequently justify the president closing Congress and the Constitutional Court. Figure IV-33 shows that people with adverse attitudes to the separation of powers have almost a year more schooling than people more respectful of liberal democracy: a small but significant difference.

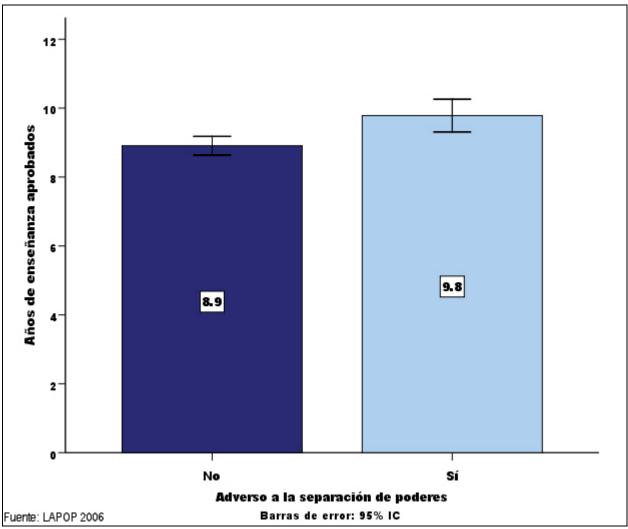


Figure IV-33. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, people who are located more on the right of the ideological spectrum are also more inclined to accept the concentration of powers in the president. Figure IV-34 shows the average ideological position of people who affirmatively answered the two above-mentioned questions (JC15 and JC16). Although the confidence intervals appear to overlap in the bivariate analysis, the multivariate model shows a statistically-significant impact.

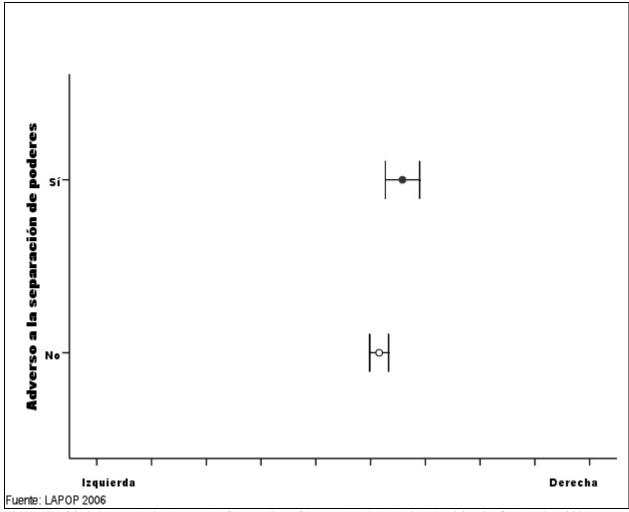


Figure IV-34. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006



In some ways, however, it is surprising that a positive approval rating for the president does not increase the probability that a person accept a breach in the separation of powers when we control for the other factors. In fact, there is a significant effect in the opposite direction than expected, as can be seen in Figure IV-35.

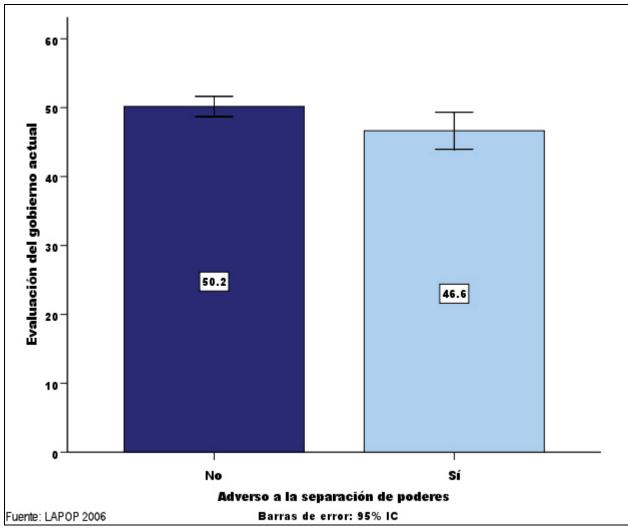


Figure IV-35. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Approval Rating of the President in Colombia - 2006



Finally, victims of the conflict (that is, people who have a family member who has been killed, disappeared, displaced, or exiled because of the several decade-old armed confrontation in the country) are more inclined to accept the concentration of powers in the hands of the president, as Figure IV-36 shows.

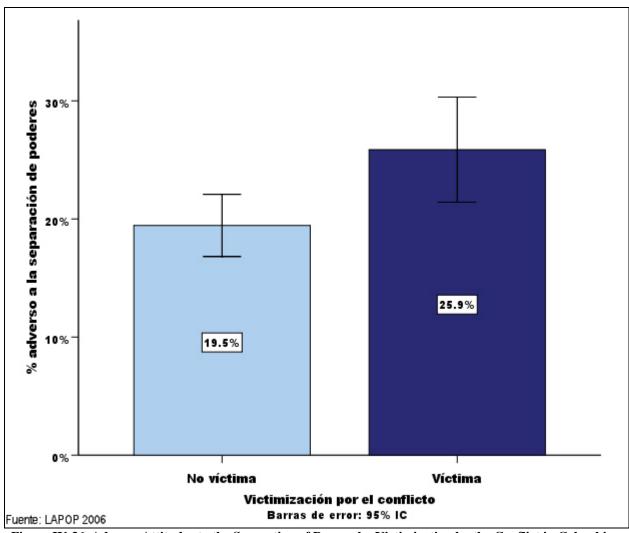


Figure IV-36. Adverse Attitudes to the Separation of Powers by Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2006



In order to more thoroughly study people's attitudes in terms of the concentration of power in the executive branch, which scholars have called *illiberal democracy* or *delegative democracy*, this year the project included the following battery of questions:

Ahora, yo le voy a leer varias frases. Teniendo en cuenta la situación actual del país, quisiera que me dijera con cuál de las siguientes frases está más de acuerdo? POP1. [Leer alternativas] Para el progreso del país, es necesario que nuestros Aunque atrase el progreso del país, nuestros presidentes no deben limitar la voz y el voto de los partidos de la POP2. [Leer alternativas] El Congreso impide mucho la labor de nuestros presidentes, y debería ser ignorado......1 (o al contrario). Aun cuando estorbe la labor del presidente, nuestros presidentes no debieran pasar por encima del Congreso......2 POP3. [Leer alternativas] Los jueces con frecuencia estorban la labor de nuestros presidentes, y deberían ser ignorados......1 (o al contrario), Aun cuando a veces los jueces estorban la labor de nuestros presidentes, las decisiones de los jueces siempre tienen que ser obedecidas......2 NS/NR.....8 POP4. [Leer alternativas] Nuestros presidentes deben tener el poder necesario para que puedan actuar a favor del interés nacional......1 (o al contrario), Se debe limitar el poder de nuestros presidentes para que nuestras libertades no corran peligro......2 NS/NR......8 POP5. [Leer alternativas] Nuestros presidentes deben hacer lo que el pueblo quiere aunque las leyes se lo impidan.....1 (o al contrario), Nuestros presidentes deben obedecer las leyes aunque al pueblo no le guste......2 NS/NR......8



Figure IV-37 shows the findings for Colombia. More than a third of the respondents approve of the president acting above the law in order to do "what the people want," of limiting the opposition, and of restricting individual freedoms in order to act in areas of "general interest." Such a percentage is worrying.

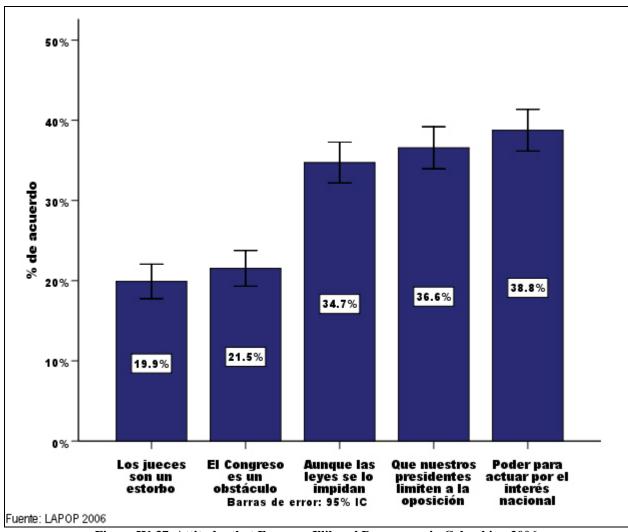


Figure IV-37. Attitudes that Favor an Illiberal Democracy in Colombia - 2006



In comparative perspective, it can be seen in Figure IV-38 that a fifth of Chileans, Peruvians, and Colombians believe that judges should be ignored when they "get in the way" of the president.

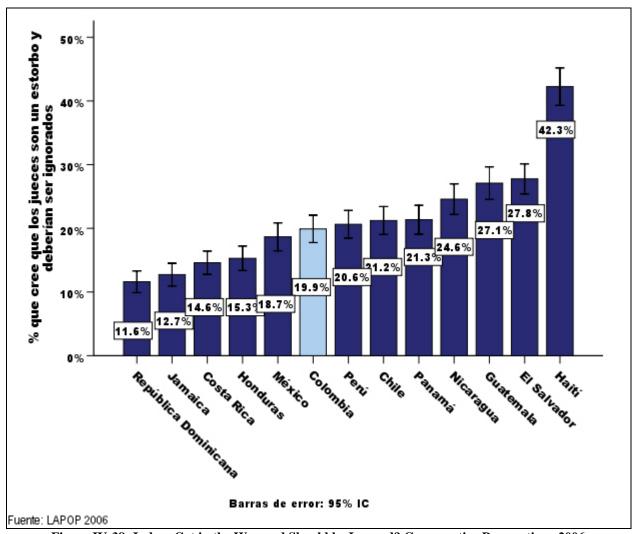


Figure IV-38. Judges Get in the Way and Should be Ignored? Comparative Perspective - 2006



In Colombia, one out of five people believe that, for the most part, Congress is an obstacle to the president and should be ignored. As Figure IV-39 shows, this percentage is at a medium level when compared to the rest of the region.

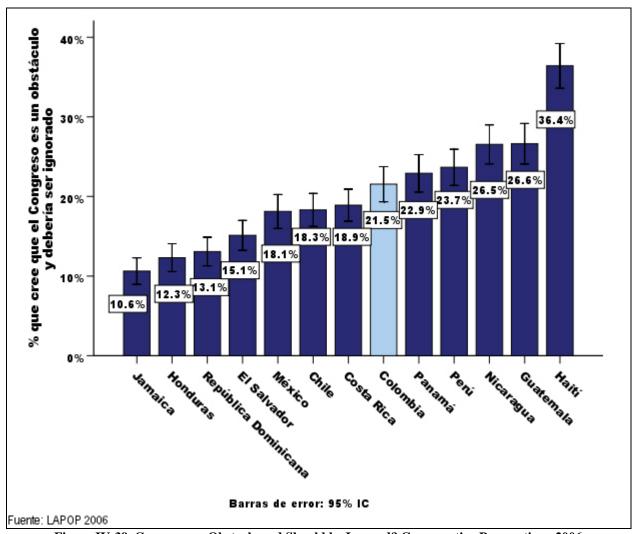


Figure IV-39. Congress an Obstacle and Should be Ignored? Comparative Perspective - 2006



More than a third of Colombians, a proportion only surpassed by El Salvadorians, Peruvians, and Nicaraguans, see the president as the representative of the people, even above the country's laws (Figure IV-40).

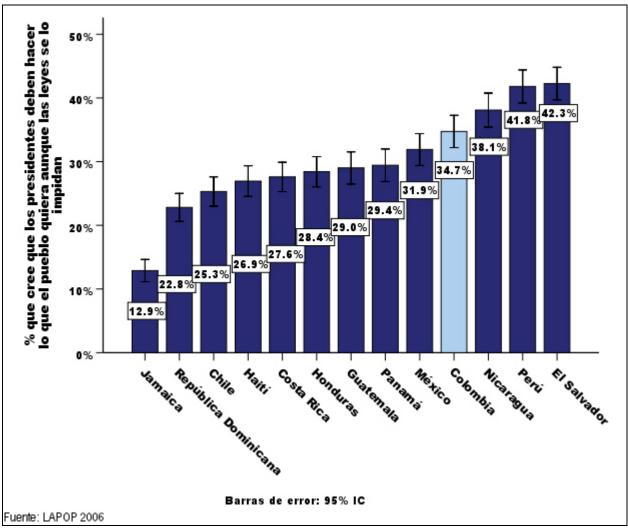


Figure IV-40. Should Presidents Do What the People Want, Even Though the Laws Impede It? Comparative Perspective - 2006

Except for Haitians, Colombians are the people who most frequently justify a president restricting the voices of the opposition in the name of "progress." This proportion, and its comparative position, places Colombia as one of the countries with the greatest propensity for illiberal democracy, as least in this dimension (Figure IV-41).

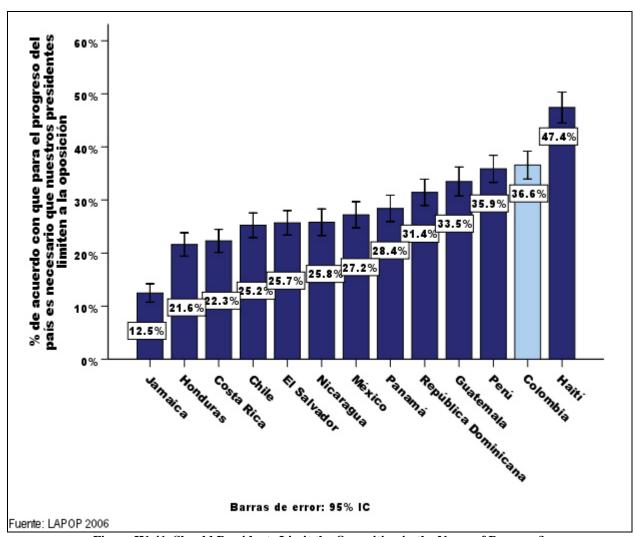


Figure IV-41. Should Presidents Limit the Opposition in the Name of Progress?

Comparative Perspective - 2006



Finally, close to two out of five Colombians believe that the president can concentrate power and even limit individual freedoms in the name of national interest. This figure, although high, is not among the highest in the region, as can be seen in Figure IV-42.

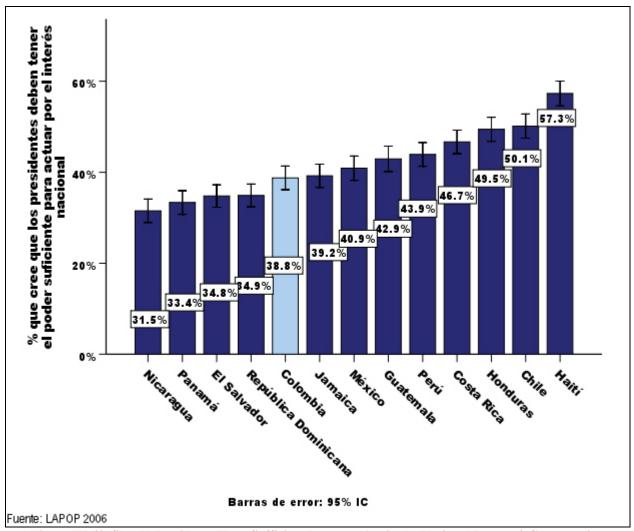


Figure IV-42. Should Presidents Have Sufficient Power to Act in the National Interest? Comparative Perspective - 2006

It is possible to summarize these five questions in an indicator of the attitudes that favor illiberal democracy with excessive concentration of power in the president. Figure IV-43 shows that Colombia is one of the countries in which these types of attitudes, which clearly justify the erosion of the institutional structure in favor a presidential figure with great powers and weak limits, predominates.

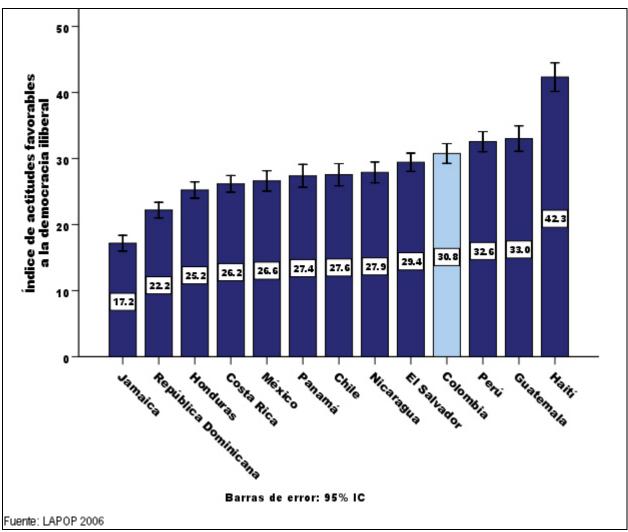


Figure IV-43. Attitudes Favorable to an Illiberal Democracy in Comparative Perspective – 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> It is worth flagging that the Cronbach's alpha of these five items is relatively low (.462).



### Annex

Table IV-2. Predictors of Support for the System in Colombia - 2006

Coefficient	В	Error est.	t	Sig.	
Constant	22.259	3.305	6.73	.000	
Men	486	1.051	46	.644	
Age	.085	.043	1.98	.048	*
Education	.389	.160	2.43	.015	*
Wealth	791	.393	-2.01	.044	*
Urban residence	-1.410	1.425	99	.323	
Married (or living with partner)	1.253	1.112	1.13	.260	
Number of children	.275	.231	1.19	.236	
Ideological position	.217	.215	1.01	.314	
Evaluation of current administration	.440	.024	18.10	.000	***
Satisfaction with local government services	.054	.026	2.11	.035	*
Evaluation of the national economy	.039	.026	1.50	.135	
Evaluation of personal economic situation	.058	.031	1.85	.064	
Victim of crime	.135	1.547	.09	.930	
Victim of the conflict	.435	1.129	.039	.700	
Victim of corruption	-1.278	1.731	74	.461	
Normative conception of democracy	1.485	1.184	1.25	.210	
N R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	1115 0.291				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

Table IV-3. Predictors of Political Tolerance in Colombia - 2006

Coefficients	В	Error est.	t	Sig.	
Constant	41.367	4.124	10.03	.000	
Men	4.329	1.607	2.69	.007	**
Age	010	.065	15	.883	
Education	.885	.244	3.63	.000	***
Wealth	123	.590	21	.835	
Urban residence	1.122	2.179	.51	.607	
Married (or living with partner)	150	1.687	09	.929	
Number of children	409	.354	-1.15	.250	
Ideological position	.310	.322	.96	.336	
Victim of crime	5.716	2.381	2.40	.017	*
Victim of the conflict	.055	1.727	.03	.974	
Victim of corruption	-3.467	2.648	-1.31	.191	
Normative conception of democracy	-1.457	.1.807	81	.420	
N	1151				
R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.027				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

Table IV-4. Predictors of Adverse Attitudes Toward the Separation of Powers in Colombia - 2006

Coefficients	В	Error est.	z	Sig.	
Constant	-2.842	.447	-6.36	.000	
Men	.224	.159	1.41	.159	
Age	.004	.007	.56	.578	
Education	.049	.024	2.05	.040	*
Wealth	.051	.057	.89	.375	
Urban residence	.224	.224	1.00	.318	
Married (or living with partner)	.127	.175	.73	.468	
Number of children	.064	.062	1.04	.301	
Ideological position	.104	.034	3.11	.002	**
Evaluation of current administration	009	.003	-2.53	.011	*
Victim of crime	.040	.224	.18	.859	
Victim of the conflict	.366	.164	2.23	.026	*
Victim of corruption	191	.259	74	.461	
Normative conception of democracy	45	.181	25	.802	
N	996				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.034				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

## V. Corruption and Democracy

Corruption has been one of the most frequently mentioned problems in Colombia over the years. Transparency International has developed an Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) that ranks countries according to their level of corruption. The index, which goes from 0 (a high level of corruption) to 10 (the country is corruption free), is based on interviews with risk analysts, business people, and experts from each country. In 2004, Colombia's ranking was 3.8, while in 2005 it improved slightly, scoring 4.0 and 55th place out of 156 countries. Although during the last six years, it has been one of the countries that has most improved its position in the CPI, the last Transparency International report showed not only a reduction in the country's ranking (now 3.9) but also in its position (59th place out of 163 countries). This chapter seeks to examine both people's experience with corruption in Colombia as well as their perceptions of it. As a new element in the 2006 study, we included some questions that measure Colombians attitudes toward corruption.

To Colombians, corruption does not seem to be one of the most pressing problems facing the country. As Figure V-1 shows, only 2.5% of respondents mentioned corruption as the most serious problem right now.

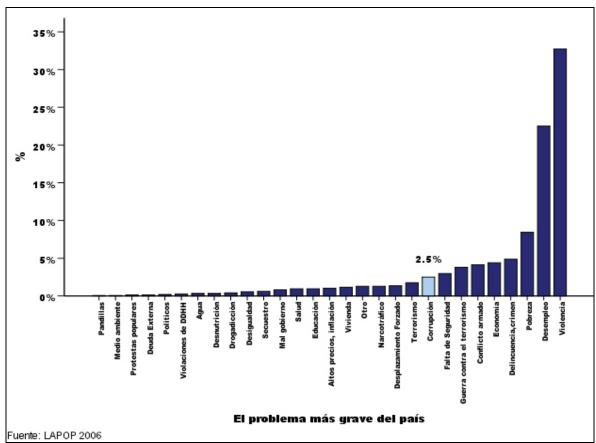


Figure V-1. Corruption as a Minor Problem in Colombia - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See www.transparency.org/content/download/10826/92860/version/1/file/CPI\_2006\_presskit\_es.pdf.



115

Respondents, however, do consider high levels of corruption to be the most powerful justification for a military coup d'état, as seen in Figure V-2.

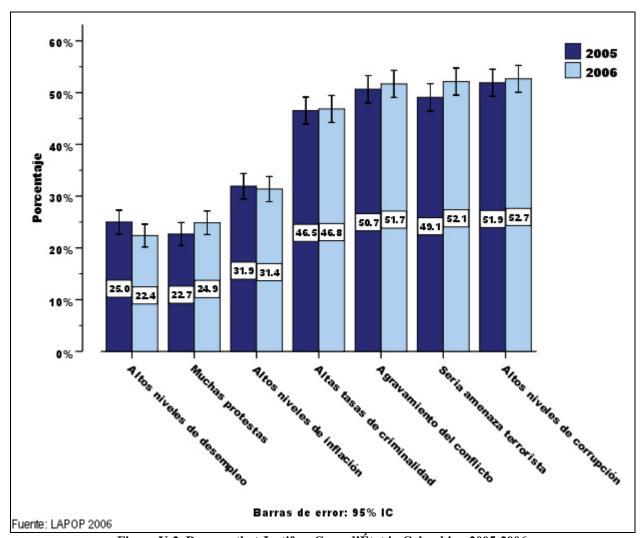


Figure V-2. Reasons that Justify a Coup d'État in Colombia - 2005-2006



## Victimization by Corruption

Unlike other studies that focus on the perception of corruption, LAPOP is known for also analyzing people's personal experience with acts of corruption. Concretely, the study included the following battery of questions:

			y	y
<b>EXC1</b> . ¿Ha sido acusado durante el último año por un agente de policía por una infracción que no cometió?	0	1	8	
<b>EXC2</b> . ¿Algún agente de policía le pidió una mordida en el último año?	0	1	8	
EXC6. ¿Un empleado público le ha solicitado una mordida en el último año?	0	1	8	
EXC11. ¿Ha tramitado algo en la alcaldía en el último año? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:				
Para tramitar algo en el municipio/delegación (como un permiso, por ejemplo) durante el último año, ¿ha tenido que pagar alguna suma además de lo exigido por la ley?	0	1	8	9
EXC13. ¿Usted trabaja? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:	0	1	8	9
En su trabajo, ¿le han solicitado alguna mordida en el último año?				
EXC14. ¿En el último año, tuvo algún trato con los juzgados? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:	0	1	8	9
¿Ha tenido que pagar una mordida en los juzgados en el último año?				
EXC15. ¿Usó servicios médicos públicos en el último año?  No → Marcar 9  Sí → Preguntar:	0	1	8	9
Para ser atendido en un hospital o en un puesto de salud durante el último año, ¿ha tenido que pagar alguna mordida?				
EXC16. ¿Tuvo algún hijo en la escuela o colegio en el último año? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:	0	1	8	9
En la escuela o colegio durante el último año, ¿tuvo que pagar alguna mordida?				



As Figure V-3 shows, after Chile, Colombia is the country where people report the lowest rate of police officers demanding bribes. Only 4.5% of respondents said that they had been victims of this form of corruption.

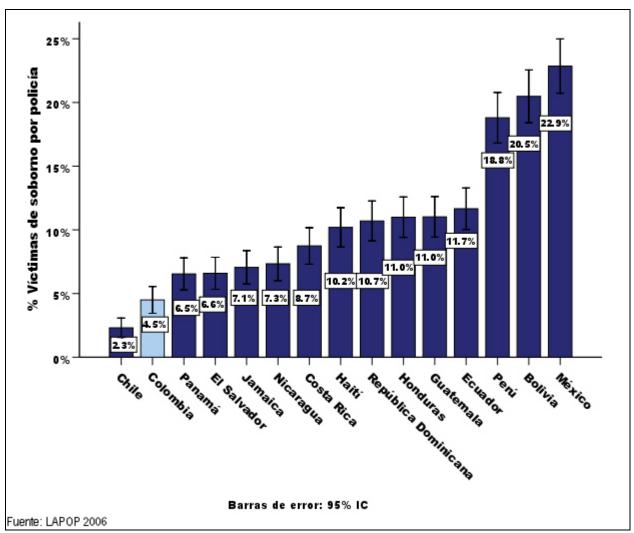


Figure V-3. Victimization: Police Officers Demanding Bribes in Comparative Perspective - 2006



In turn, an even smaller percentage of people had been asked for a bribe by a public official, a proportion similar to that reported in Chile, Jamaica, and El Salvador, as we see in Figure V-4.

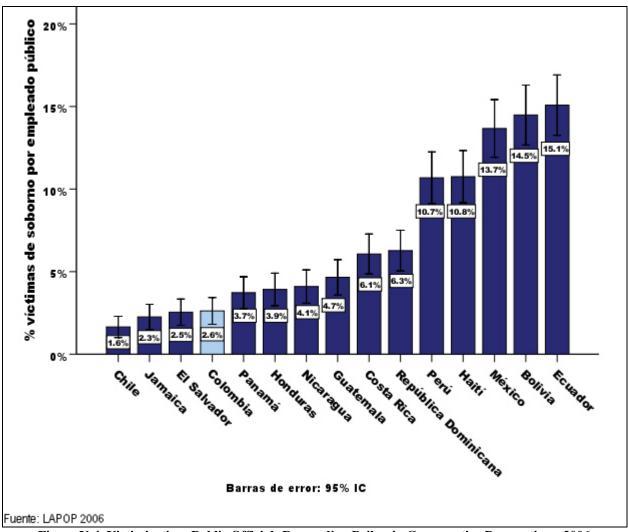


Figure V-4. Victimization: Public Officials Demanding Bribes in Comparative Perspective – 2006



Colombia is the country where bribes demanded of people carrying out paperwork or business in their municipal government is the least frequent, as can be seen in Figure V-5.

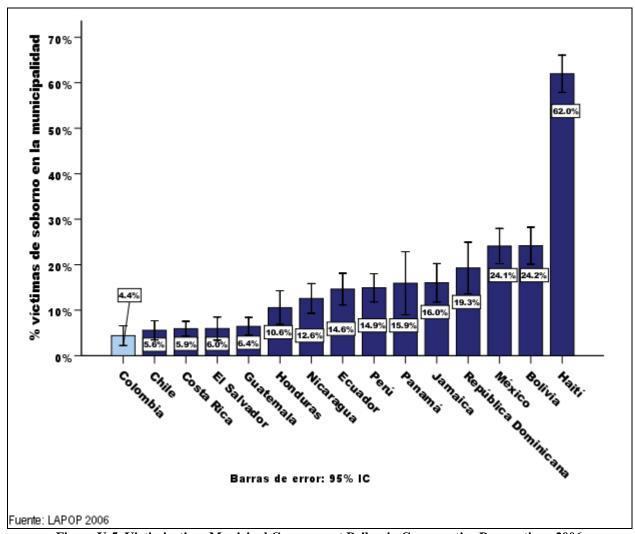


Figure V-5. Victimization: Municipal Government Bribes in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Likewise, Figure V-6 shows that only 3.6% of people who work were asked for an illegal payment in the workplace, a figure slightly higher than that reported in Panama, Honduras, the Dominican Republic, and El Salvador.

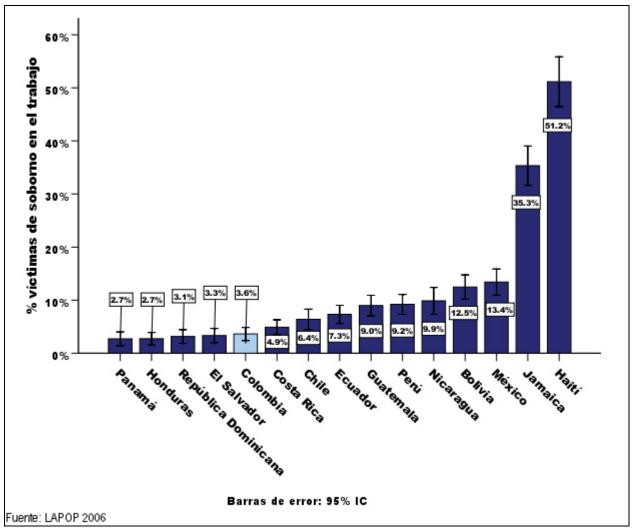


Figure V-6. Victimization: Demands for Bribes in the Workplace in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Among people who have had dealings with the courts in the previous year, only 3% were asked for a bribe, a percentage just above that of El Salvador and Costa Rica and below the rest of the countries, as Figure V-7 shows.

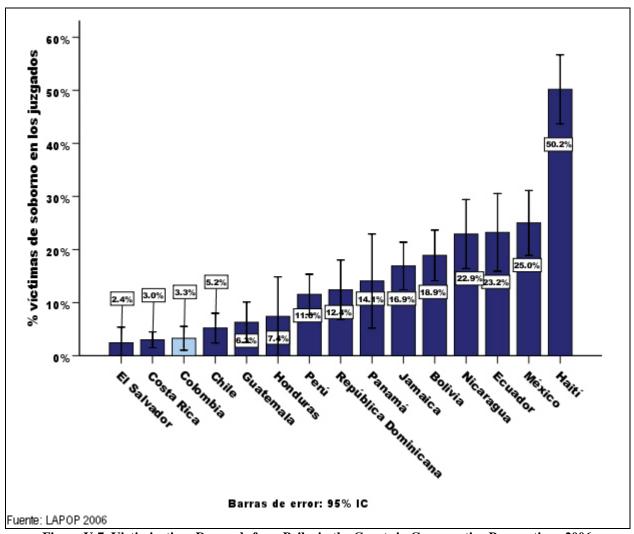


Figure V-7. Victimization: Demands for a Bribe in the Courts in Comparative Perspective - 2006



A similar proportion of people who used the public health services in the last year reported incidents of a bribe in a hospital or health center, a percentage somewhat higher than the Chilean and almost the same as Costa Rica's (Figure V-8).

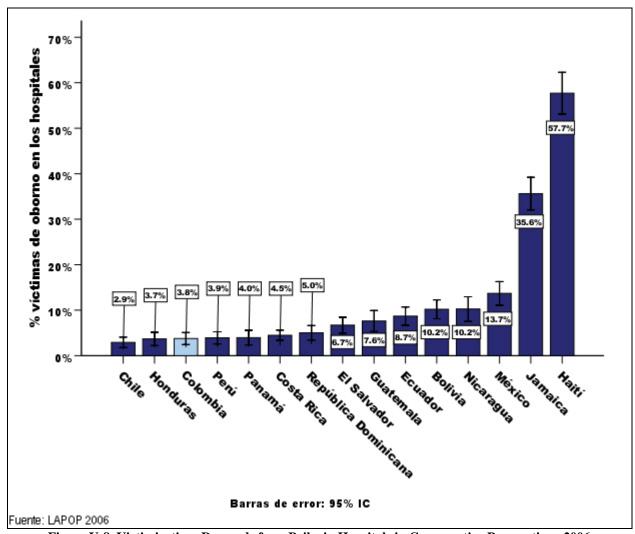


Figure V-8. Victimization: Demands for a Bribe in Hospitals in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Finally, among people who have children in elementary or high schools, less than 2% reported that they had pay a bribe. This proportion is the lowest among all the countries included in the study, as can be seen in Figure V-9.

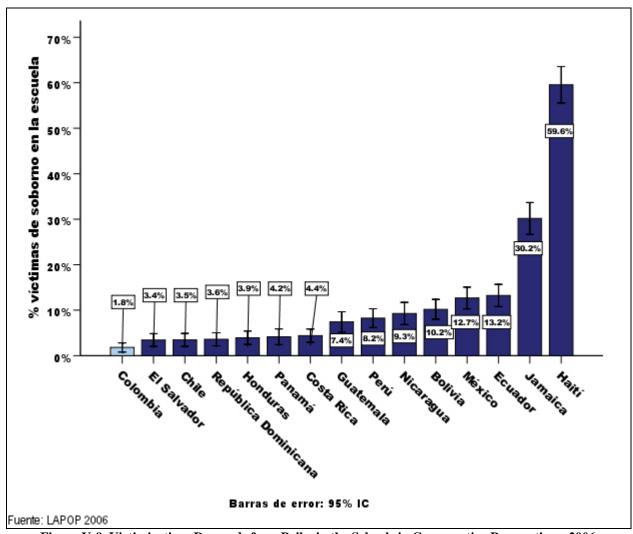


Figure V-9. Victimization: Demands for a Bribe in the Schools in Comparative Perspective – 2006



Figure V-10 shows the evolution of the incidence of experiences with corruption in Colombia over the last three years, ordered by the level of incidence in 2006. It is worth highlighting the reduction of the incidence in all cases. The reduction by almost half in the cases of bribes in the schools, the courts, and in hospitals is especially notable.

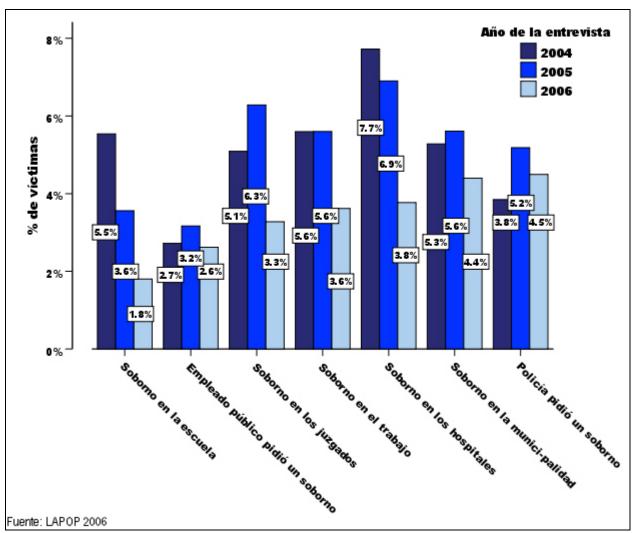


Figure V-10. Individual Acts of Corruption in Colombia - 2004-2006



With the items shared by all the studies, it is possible to construct an index of victimization by corruption that indicates the average number of modalities through which a person has been a victim during the previous year. As seen in Figure V-11, Colombia is, along with Chile, the country with the lowest incidence of victimization by corruption in 2006.

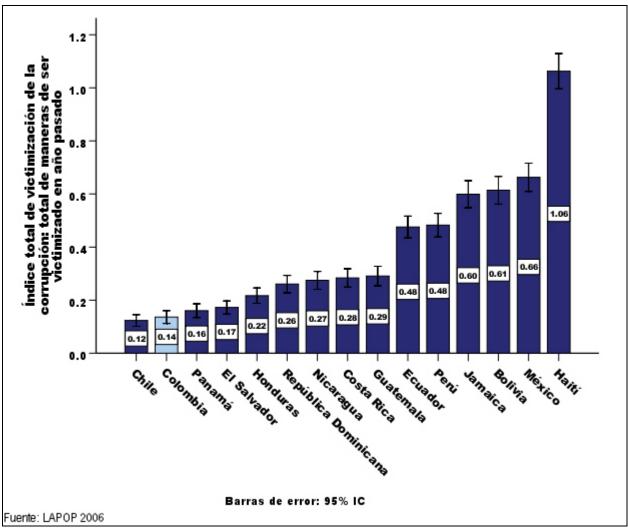


Figure V-11. Index of Total Victimization by Corruption in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Perhaps a more intuitive way to interpret the levels of victimization by corruption consists of examining the percentage of respondents who reported having been a victim of at least one of the mentioned forms of corruption in the previous year. Figure V-12 shows that, along with Chile, Colombia has the lowest level of victimization by corruption, as we have defined it, of all the countries included in this study. The percentage of Colombians who were victimized is a third less than those in countries such as Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, and Mexico.

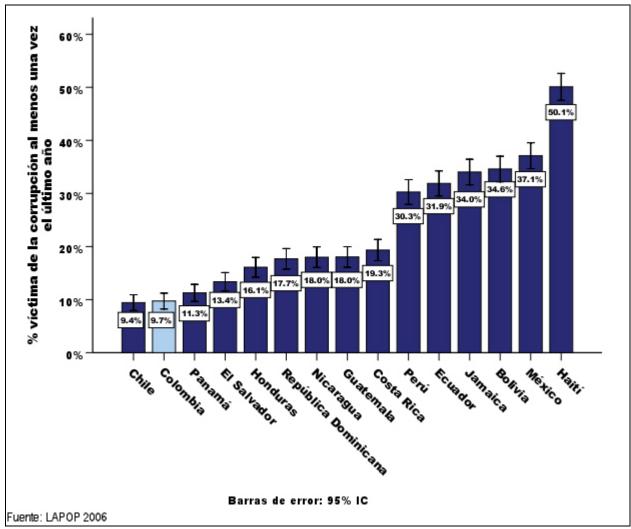


Figure V-12. Incidence of Victimization by Corruption in Comparative Perspective - 2006

The percentage of people who reported having been the victim of one of these modalities of corruption fell considerably in the country in the last year, as we can be see in Figure V-13.

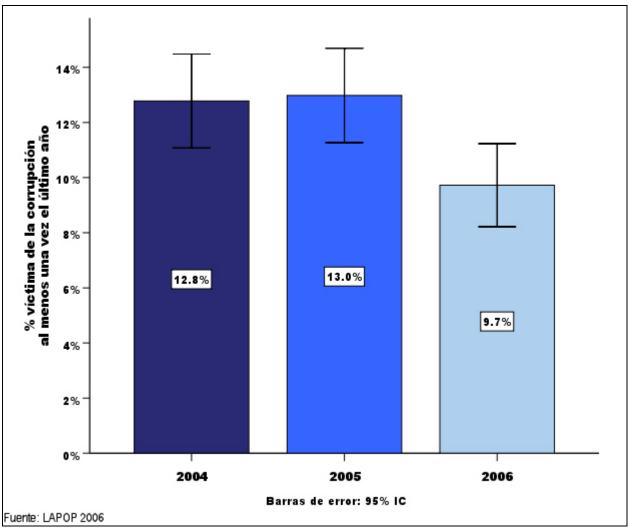


Figure V-13. Incidence of Victimization by Corruption in Colombia - 2004-2006



Who are the victims of corruption in the country? To attempt to answer this question, we constructed a multivariate model with which to predict a dependent variable that influences whether a respondent was a victim of at least one act of corruption in the previous year. Since it is a dichotomous variable, we used a logistic regression model. The proposed predictors included the usual sociodemographic variables: sex, age, level of education, level of wealth, area of residence (urban or rural), civil status, and number of children. Table V-1 in the annex to this chapter shows the results.

As other studies have found, men are more likely to be victimized by acts of corruption. The same occurs with more educated people. Figure V-14 illustrates the impact of these two factors on the probability of being a victim of corruption.

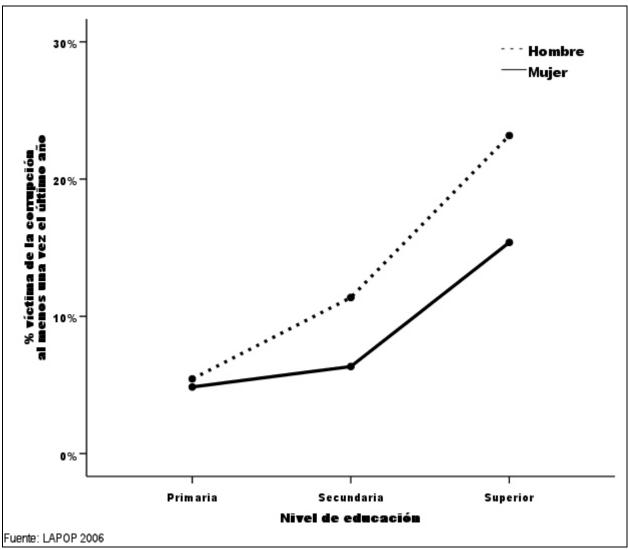


Figure V-14. Victimization by Corruption by Sex and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



Finally, as expected, because the presence of state agencies is greater in urban areas, urban residents have a greater chance of being the victim of corruption, as we see in Figure V-15.

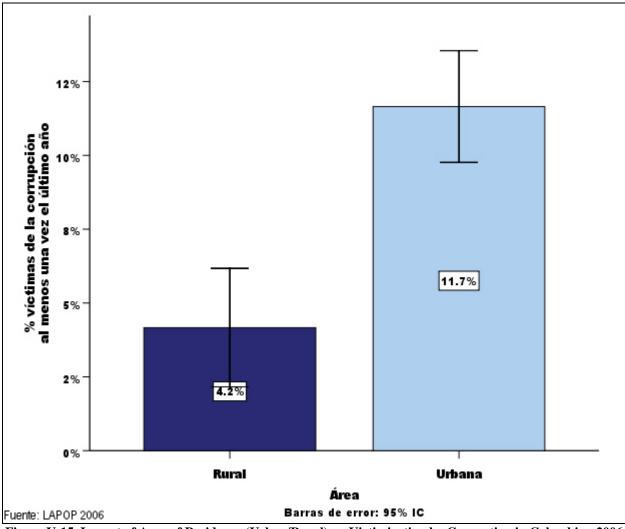


Figure V-15. Impact of Area of Residence (Urban/Rural) on Victimization by Corruption in Colombia - 2006



## **Attitudes toward Corruption**

A new element in the 2006 LAPOP study is the inclusion of a series of questions that seek to measure people's attitudes toward corruption. Concretely, respondents were presented with specific situations that they had to judge as corrupt and punishable, corrupt but justified, or not corrupt. The questions are the following:

Me gustaría que me indicara si usted considera que las siguientes actuaciones son: 1) corruptas y deben ser castigadas; 2) corruptas pero justificadas bajo las circunstancias; o 3) no corruptas.
<b>DC1.</b> Por ejemplo: Un congresista acepta una mordida de diez mil dólares pagada por una empresa. ¿Considera usted que lo que hizo el congresista es [Leer alternativas]:
Corrupto y debe ser castigado
NS/NR8
COLDC1A. ¿Y lo que hizo la empresa que pagó los diez mil dólares? ¿Considera usted que es [Leer alternativas]:
Corrupto y debe ser castigado
NS/NR8
<b>DC10.</b> Una madre con varios hijos tiene que sacar una partida de nacimiento para uno de ellos. Para no perder tiempo esperando, ella le paga diez mil pesos de más al empleado público municipal. ¿Cree usted que lo que hizo la señora es [Leer alternativas]:
ellos. Para no perder tiempo esperando, ella le paga diez mil pesos de más al empleado
ellos. Para no perder tiempo esperando, ella le paga diez mil pesos de más al empleado público municipal. ¿Cree usted que lo que hizo la señora es [Leer alternativas]:  Corrupto y debe ser castigado
ellos. Para no perder tiempo esperando, ella le paga diez mil pesos de más al empleado público municipal. ¿Cree usted que lo que hizo la señora es [Leer alternativas]:  Corrupto y debe ser castigado
ellos. Para no perder tiempo esperando, ella le paga diez mil pesos de más al empleado público municipal. ¿Cree usted que lo que hizo la señora es [Leer alternativas]:  Corrupto y debe ser castigado



As we can see in Figure V-16, the immense majority of respondents consider that a Congressperson who accepts bribes is corrupt and should be punished.

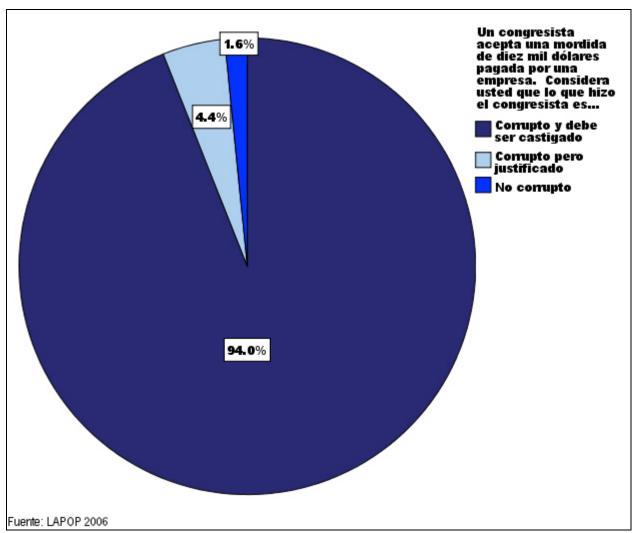


Figure V-16. Is a Congress Person who Accepts a Bribe Corrupt? - Colombia 2006



An equally important proportion, although slightly less, also condemns the other side of the transaction, that is the company that pays the bribe, as we see in Figure V-17.

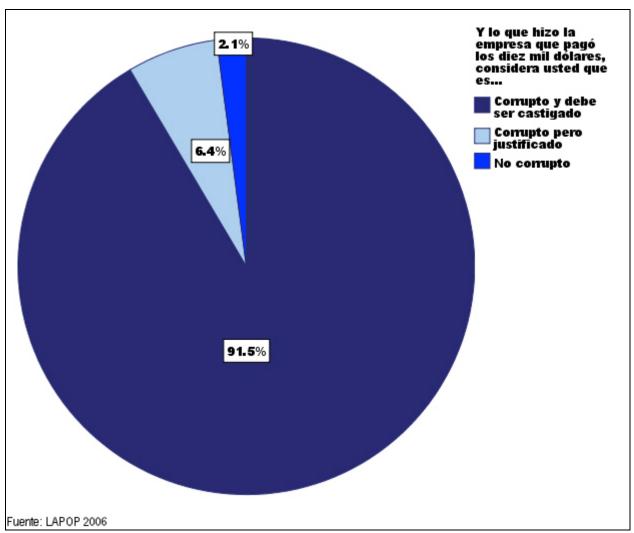


Figure V-17. And is the Company Who Pays the Bribe Corrupt? - Colombia 2006



In comparative perspective, Figure V-18 shows that the percentage of Colombians who consider that a politician who received the bribe is corrupt and should be punished is around the average of all the other countries.<sup>2</sup>

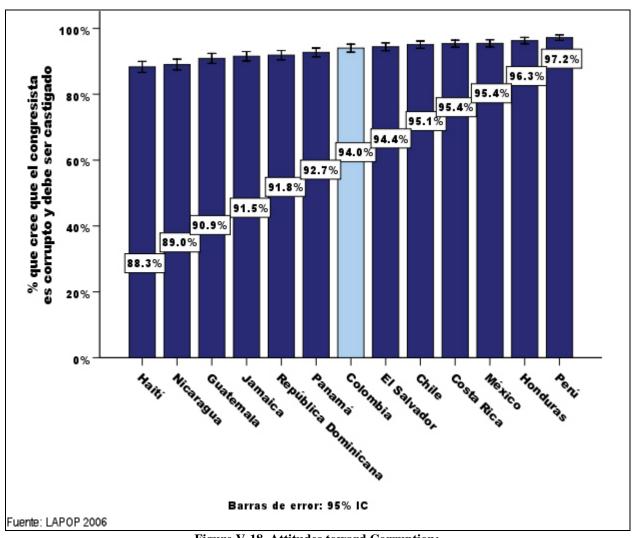


Figure V-18. Attitudes toward Corruption:
Politician who Receives a Bribe – Comparative Perspective 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The question regarding the empresa that pays a bribe was not asked in the studies of the other countries and, therefore, cannot be examined in comparative perspective.



People are more tolerant, however, in their judgment of a mother who tries to facilitate her bureaucratic errand by bribing a municipal official. As Figure V-19 shows, only two out of five respondent condemn the act and demand that she be punished, while a little more than half consider that the illegal payment, although corrupt, is justified given the circumstances.

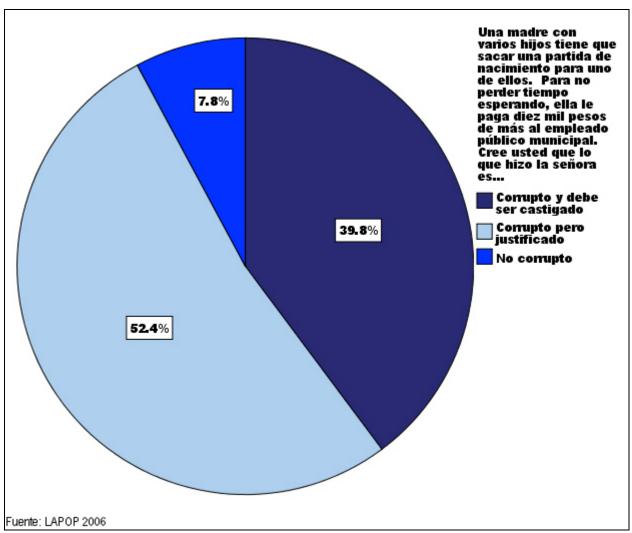


Figure V-19. Is a Mother who Pays a Bribe Corrupt? - Colombia 2006



This permissive attitude towards the identified behavior is particularly notorious in the Colombian case. Compared to the other countries, the percentage of respondents who believe that the woman who pays this small bribe is corrupt and should be punished is especially low in Colombia, as can be seen in Figure V-20.

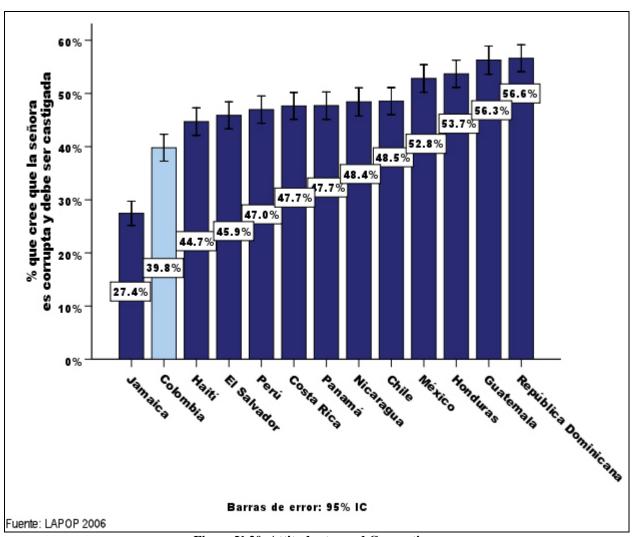


Figure V-20. Attitudes toward Corruption: Woman who Pays a Bribe – Comparative Perspective 2006



Finally, for a fifth of the respondents, the traffic of influences to obtain employment for family members would seem to be a legitimate function of politicians. Only two out of five condemn this act and another similar proportion, although they consider it corrupt, justify it (Figure V-21).

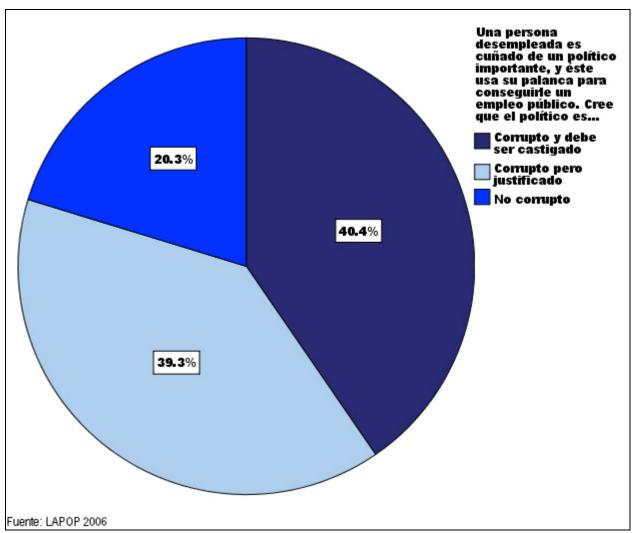


Figure V-21. Is the Politician who Traffics in Influence Corrupt? - Colombia 2006

The percentage of respondents in the country who consider that the politician who traffics in influence is corrupt and should be punished turns out to be comparatively low, as can be seen in Figure V-22.

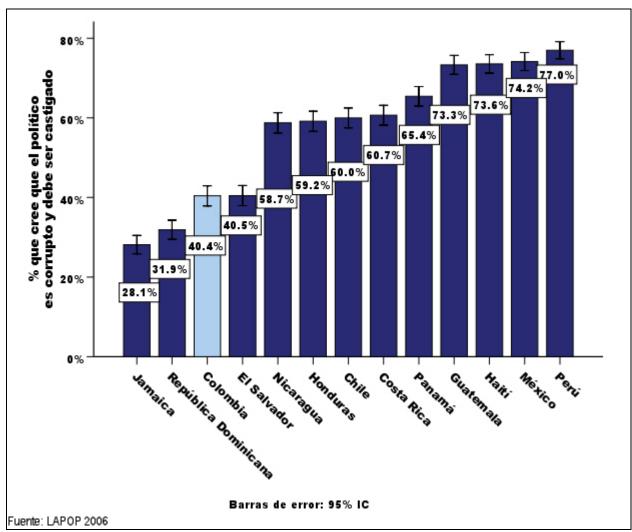


Figure V-22. Attitudes toward Corruption:
Politician who Traffics in Influence – Comparative Perspective 2006

# **Perception of Corruption**

Naturally, as has been done on other occasions, we wanted to examine people's perceptions of the level of corruption in their country. The question is the following:



Teniendo en cuenta su experiencia o lo que ha oído mencionar,	Muy	Algo	Poco	Nada	NS/
	generalizada	generalizada	generalizada	generalizada	NR
<b>EXC7</b> . ¿La corrupción de los funcionarios públicos está?	1	2	3	4	8

Contrary to the victimization indices, Colombians have a relatively high perception of corruption, although close to the average of the other countries, as seen in Figure V-23. This is a very important finding given that it suggests that other studies of corruption, for the most part based on the perception of corruption, might be mistaken. In the Colombian case, the perception is modestly high but acts of corruption are rather rare. In fact, it might be that a greater perception leads to less corruption; it is possible that people are more vigilant when they think corruption is widespread. The very low perception of corruption in Haiti and Bolivia, the countries with the highest levels of corruption included in this study, as seen above, should be highlighted. In summary, indicators such as those used by Transparency International, which are based on perceptions, should be reconsidered.

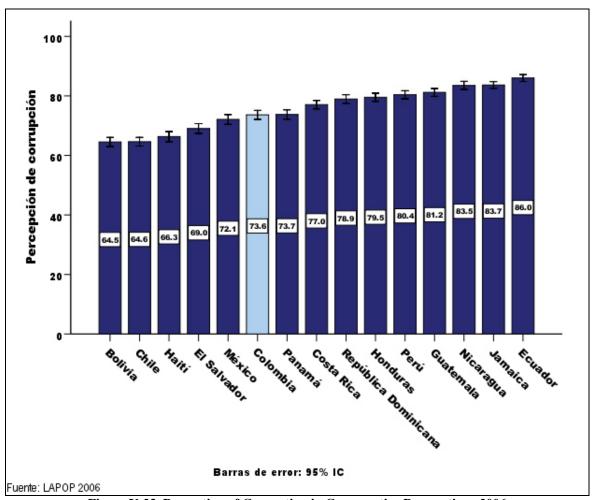


Figure V-23. Perception of Corruption in Comparative Perspective - 2006



Figure V-24 shows that the general perception of corruption has increased significantly since last year (returning to the 2004 level), despite the fact that, as we showed above, the incidence of victimization by corruption fell in the previous year. This finding provides more support for the idea that the link between the perception of and victimization by corruption is tenuous.

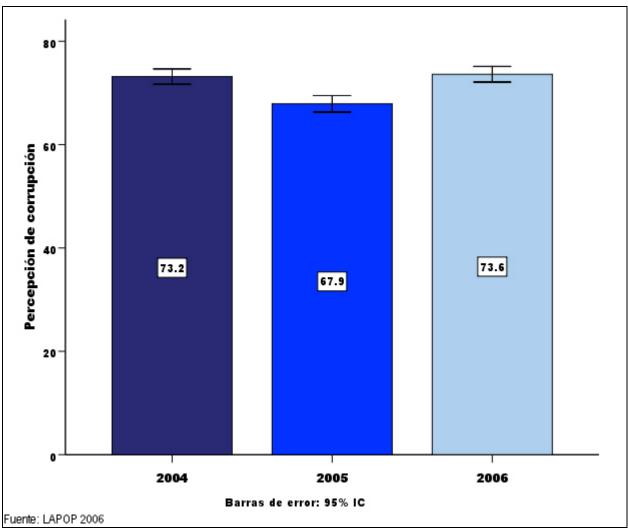


Figure V-24. Perception of Corruption in Colombia - 2004-2006

As seen in Figure V-25, the perception of corruption among judges and municipal and departmental officials also increased slightly but significantly since last year, even rising above 2004 levels.

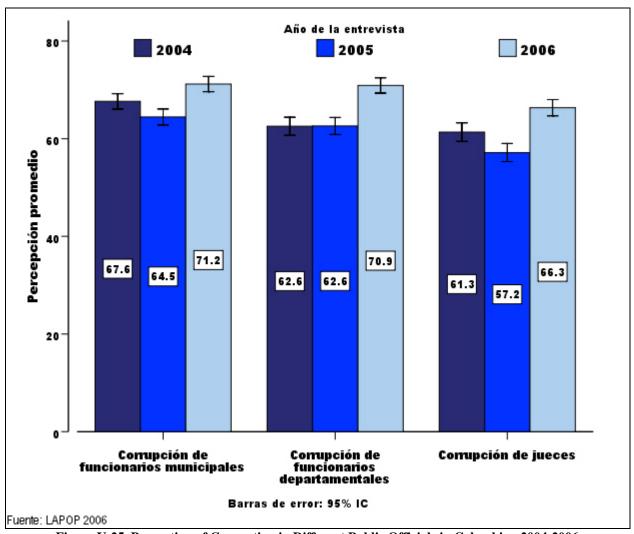


Figure V-25. Perception of Corruption in Different Public Officials in Colombia - 2004-2006



What factors influence the perception of corruption? To answer this question, we included a multivariate linear regression model, using the general perception of corruption as the dependent variable, and proposing the sociodemographic variables, as well as the indices of victimization by corruption and tolerance of corruption, as predictors. We also included the evaluation that respondents make of the president's administration, with the hypothesis that people who better evaluate the job the government is doing could have a lower level of perception. Finally, we included indicators of exposure to news from the radio, television, newspapers, and the internet in order to examine whether the news media have an impact on people's perception of corruption. The results of this model appear in Table V-2 in the annex at the end of this chapter.

People who are married or living with a partner, as well as older people, tend to perceive higher levels of corruption among public officials, as we see in Figure V-26.

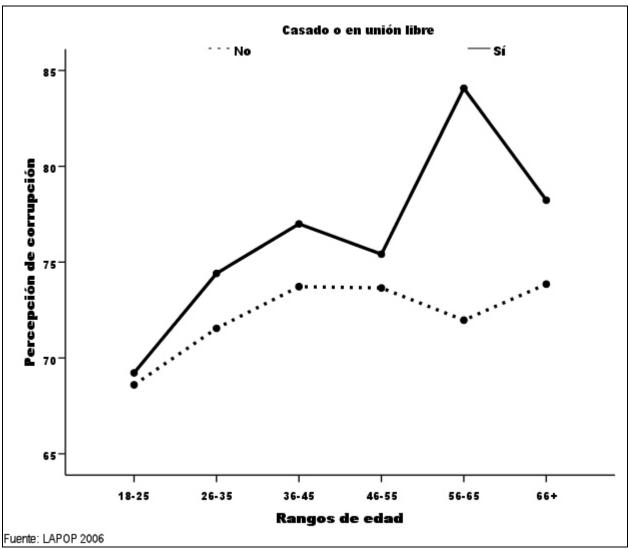


Figure V-26. Perception of Corruption by Civil Status and Age in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, the more educated a person is, the greater his or her perception-of-corruption level, as Figure V-27 shows.

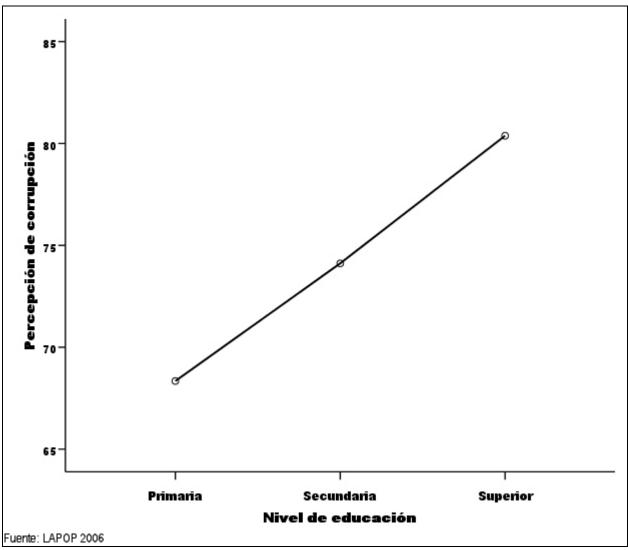


Figure V-27. Perception of Corruption by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



The same thing happens with the wealth variable. The wealthier people are, the greater their perception of corruption, as we see in Figure V-28.

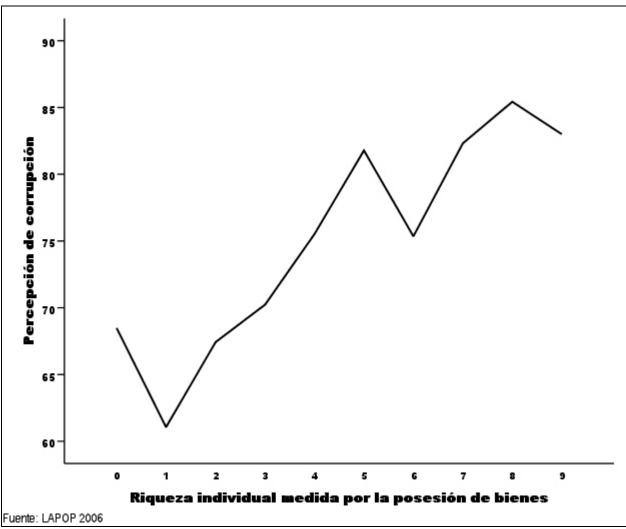


Figure V-28. Perception of Corruption by Level of Wealth in Colombia - 2006



Even more interesting, people who are less tolerant of corruption are also more demanding of public officials and, therefore, tend to have a greater perception of corruption, as can be appreciated in Figure V-29.

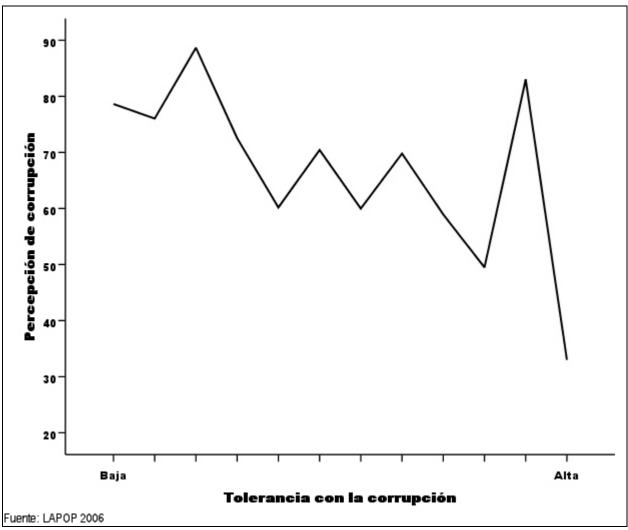


Figure V-29. Impact of Tolerance of Acts of Corruption on the Perception of Corruption in Colombia – 2006

Finally, as we hypothesized, people who better evaluate the job that the government is doing perceive less corruption than people who are more critical of the president's performance, as Figure V-30 shows.

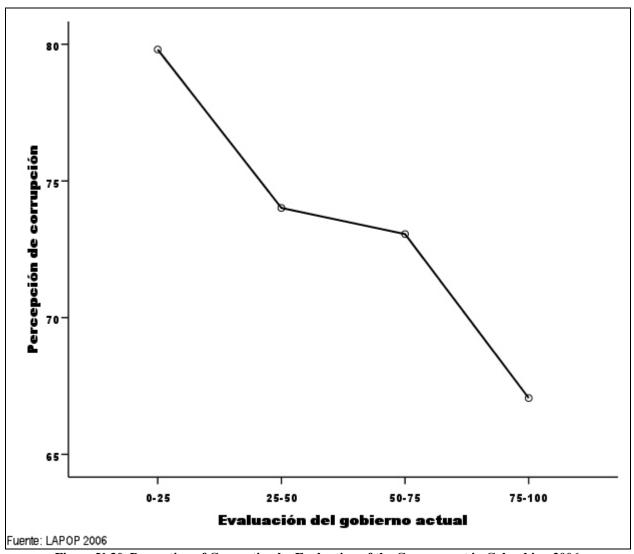


Figure V-30. Perception of Corruption by Evaluation of the Government in Colombia - 2006



# Annex

Table V-1. Predictors of Victimization by Corruption

	В	E.S.	z	Sig.	
Male	0.478	0.184	2.59	0.009	**
Age	-0.002	0.008	26	0.795	
Education	0.079	0.026	3.02	0.003	**
Wealth	0.123	0.066	1.88	0.060	
Urban residence Married or living with	0.596	0.300	1.99	0.047	*
partner	-0.149	0.197	75	0.451	
Number of children	-0.016	0.061	27	0.787	
Constant	-4.039	0.425	-9.51	0.000	
N	1483				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.063				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05

**Table V-2. Predictors of the Perception of Corruption** 

Predictors	В	E. S.	t	Sig.	
(Constant)	55.811	4.507	12.38	.000	
Male	352	1.535	23	.818	
Age	.251	.064	3.93	.000	***
Education	.920	.241	3.81	.000	***
Wealth	1.234	.580	2.13	.033	*
Urban residence	3.384	2.053	1.65	.099	
Married or living with partner	5.759	1.621	3.55	.000	***
Number of children	473	.333	-1.42	.156	
Victimization by corruption	3.450	2.510	1.37	.170	
Tolerance of corruption	196	.044	-4.39	.000	***
Evaluation of government	091	.033	-2.76	.006	**
Exposure to news on the radio	.024	.020	1.18	.239	
Exposure to news on the TV	027	.030	90	.369	
Exposure to news in newspapers	.010	.029	.35	.725	
Exposure to news on the internet	011	.039	27	.786	
N	1337				
R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.087				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

#### VI. Crime and The Rule of Law

The general security situation is perhaps one of Colombians' most deeply-felt concerns. This can be seen in Figure VI-1. A third of respondents consider that violence is the most serious problem in the country. This chapter is divided into three large sections. In the first, we analyze the forms and determinants of victimization by crime. In the second, we evaluate respondents' opinions and perceptions regarding the institutions that, in principle, are charged with protecting people's rights. Finally, we study the issue of the respect that respondents have for due process and the rule of law in general.

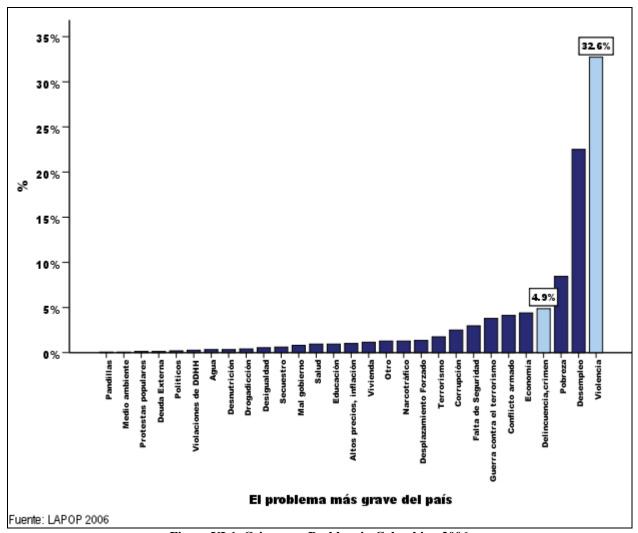


Figure VI-1. Crime as a Problem in Colombia - 2006



## Victimization by Crime

We asked respondents whether they had been the victim of some criminal act in the previous year. Figure VI-2 shows that a little more than 13% of the people had been the victims of a crime, a relatively low proportion in comparative perspective. Only in Panama and Jamaica is the incidence of crime lower.

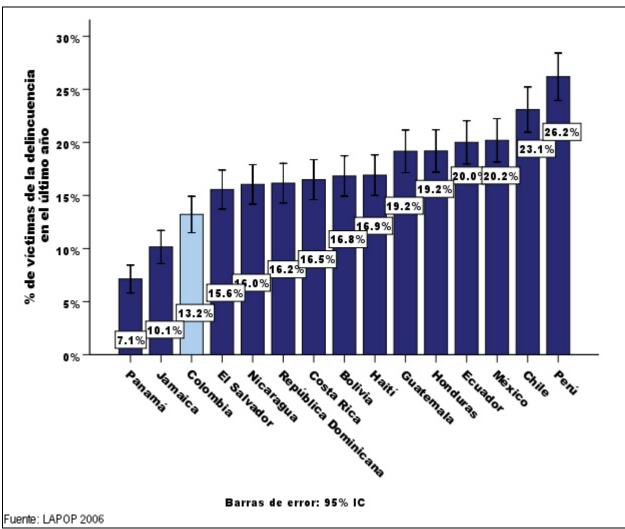


Figure VI-2. Victimization by Crime in Comparative Perspective - 2006



This incidence declined slightly during the last year, although the difference is not significant, as we see in Figure VI-3.

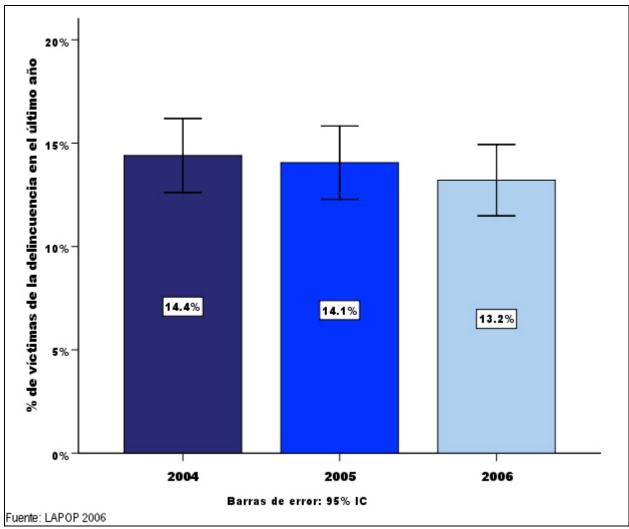


Figure VI-3. Victimization by Crime in Colombia - 2004-2006



Robbery, with or without physical threat, is the crime Colombians most frequently suffer from. Figure VI-4 shows that this type of crime represents three-quarters of the crimes reported by our respondents. Burglary, in turn, represents 10%. Only 0.5% of respondents stated that they had been victims of kidnapping in the previous year.

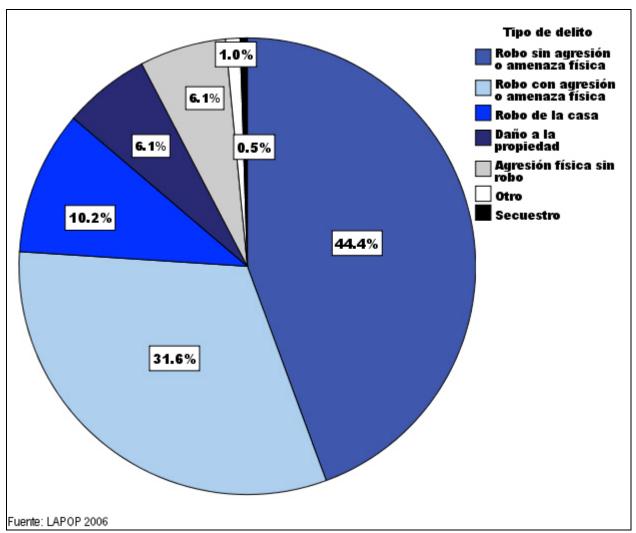


Figure VI-4. Types of Crime in Colombia - 2006



To try to describe the victims of crime in Colombia, we created a logistic regression model using whether or not a respondent was the victim of a crime in the previous year as the dependent variable. The predictors were the usual sociodemographic characteristics, including sex, age, level of education, level of wealth, area of residence (urban or rural), civil state (whether or not married or living with a partner), and number of children. The results of the model appear in TableVI-1 in the annex to this chapter.

As in the case of victimization by corruption, men are victims of crime more frequently than women. This difference is more pronounced as the educational level of respondents increases, as we see in Figure VI-5.

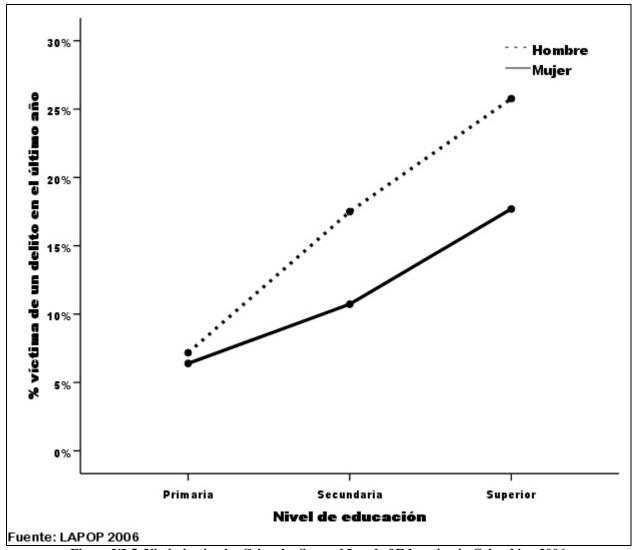


Figure VI-5. Victimization by Crime by Sex and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



Finally, crime appears to have a wealth bias. People who have more goods tend to be more victimized by the above-mentioned crimes, as we see in Figure VI-6.

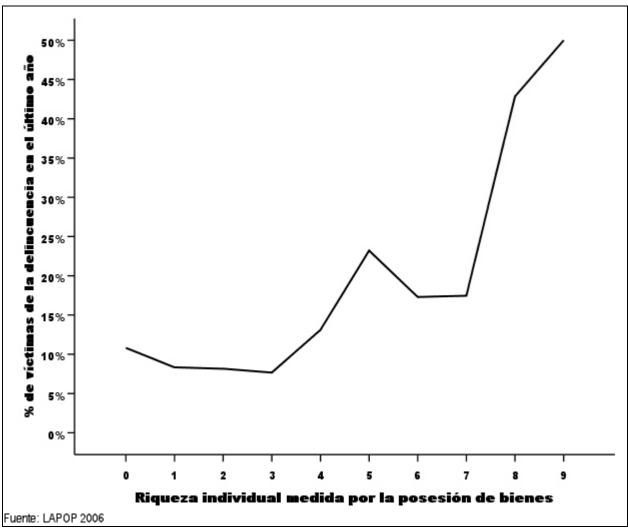


Figure VI-6. Victimization by Crime by Level of Wealth in Colombia - 2006



## Institutions Charged with Protecting Rights

Various state institutions are charged, in principal, with making sure that people's rights are protected. In our study, we asked how much trust the following institutions deserved: the courts, the police, the Human Rights Ombudsman (*Defensoría del Pueblo*), the Prosecutor General (*Fiscalía General de la Nación*), the Inspector General (*Procuraduría General de la Nación*), the Supreme Court, and the Constitutional Court. As Figure VI-7 shows, the levels of trust declined in all cases compared to 2005 levels.

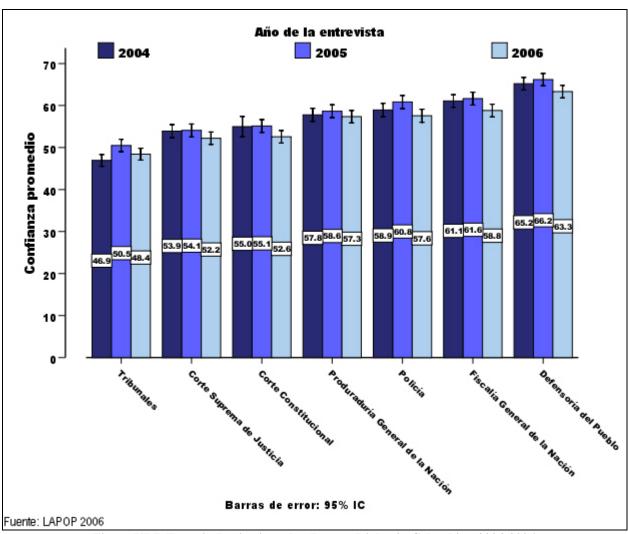


Figure VI-7. Trust in Institutions that Protect Rights in Colombia - 2004-2006



Based on the responses to these questions, we constructed an *index of trust in the institutions that protect rights*, which summarizes them. Figure VI-8 shows Colombia's favorable position compared to public trust in these institutions in other countries; it is at the same level as Costa Rica. This finding is striking considering the levels of violence that the country has suffered from for various decades.

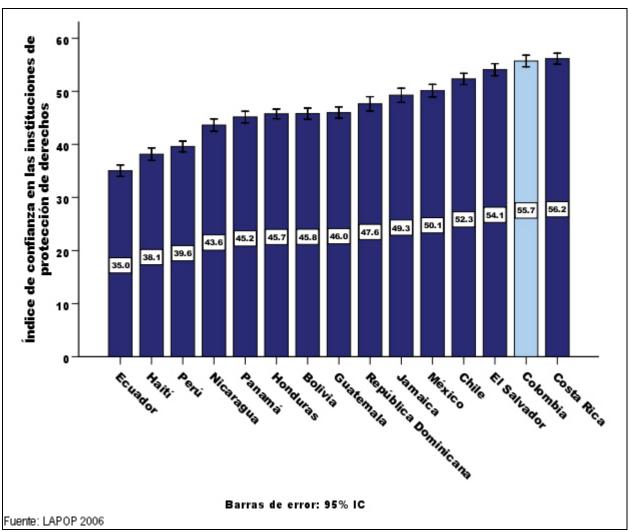


Figure VI-8. Trust in Institutions that Protect Rights in Comparative Perspective- 2006



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Cronbach's of this index is .873.

As mentioned above, however, there was a significant reduction in this aggregate level of trust in the last year, as we see in Figure VI-9.

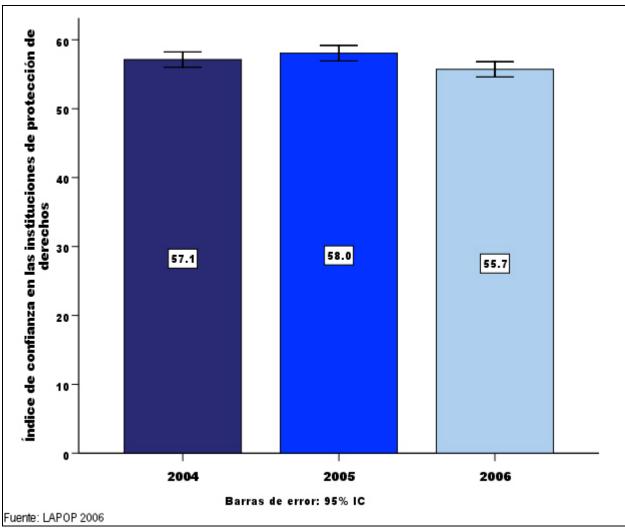


Figure VI-9. Aggregated Trust in Institutions that Protect Rights in Colombia - 2004-2006



Despite the comparatively high level of trust in institutions charged with protecting rights, Colombians negatively rate the speed of judicial decisions. Figure VI-10 shows that more than 80% of respondents consider that they are slow or very slow, and less than 5% believe that they are fast or very fast.

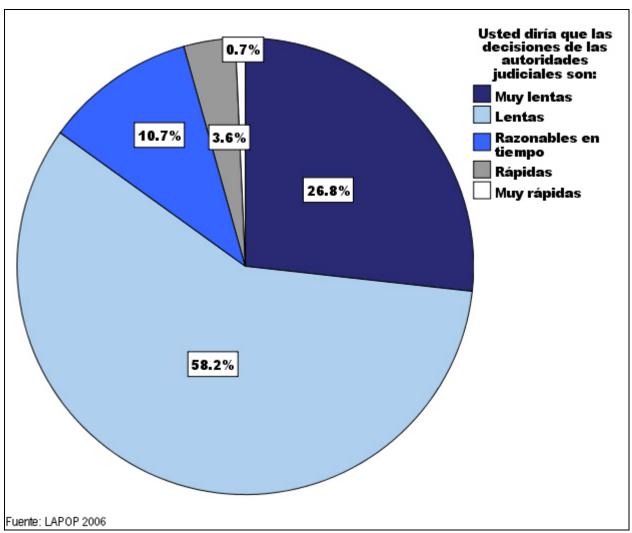


Figure VI-10. Perception of the Speed of Judicial Decisions in Colombia - 2006



This perception has not varied in recent years, as we can see in Figure VI-11, which shows the average level for each one of the three studies for a version of the above variable recoded onto a scale of 0 to 100.

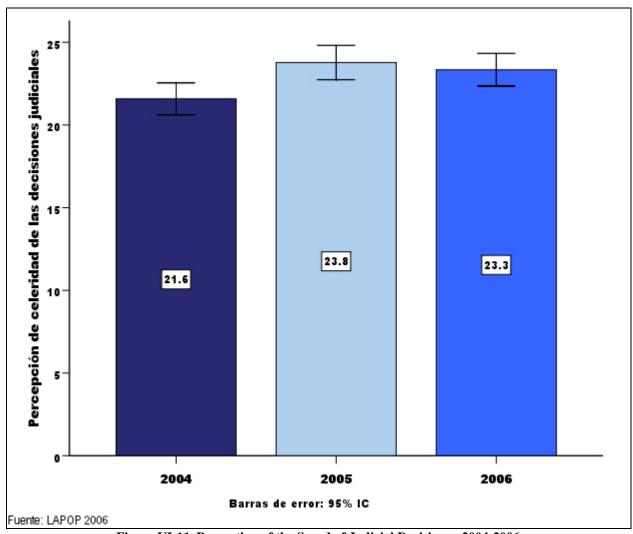


Figure VI-11. Perception of the Speed of Judicial Decisions - 2004-2006

Figure VI-12 illustrates the evaluation that respondents made regarding access to different judicial institutions, on a scale of 0 to 100. For most of these institutions, there is a slight but significant improvement in the public's perception.

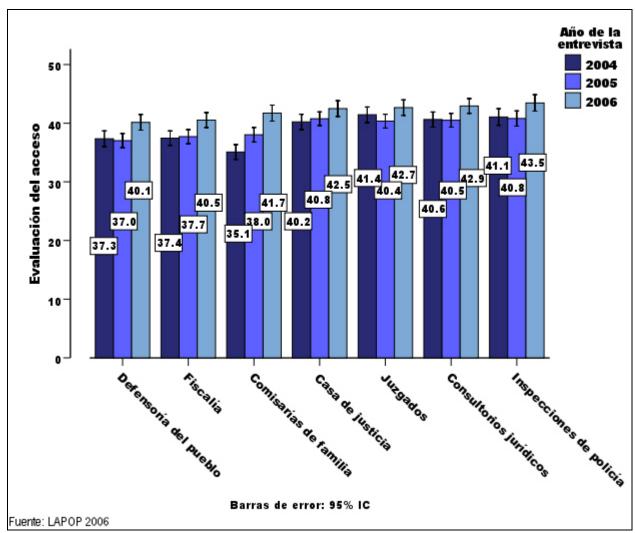


Figure VI-12. Evaluation of Access to Judicial Institutions in Colombia - 2004-2006

Besides trust in and the perception of judicial institutions, we wanted to inquire into respondents' experiences in different cases of the administration of justice. The questions are the following:



De los trámites que Ud. o alguien de su familia haya hecho alguna vez con las siguientes entidades. ¿Se siente muy satisfecho, algo satisfecho, algo insatisfecho, o muy insatisfecho? [REPETIR LAS ALTERNATIVAS DE RESPUESTA EN CADA PREGUNTA]

	Muy satisfecho	Algo satisfecho	Algo insatisfecho	Muy Insatisfecho	No hizo trámite	NS/ NR
ST1. La policía nacional	1	2	3	4	9	8
<b>ST2</b> . Los juzgados o tribunales de justicia	1	2	3	4	9	8
ST3. La fiscalía	1	2	3	4	9	8
ST4. La alcaldía	1	2	3	4	9	8

With the responses of those who had contact with these institutions, we codified variables that measure the level of satisfaction onto a 0 to 100-point scale. The findings for the countries that included some of these questions in their studies appear in Figure VI-13. The countries are ordered by the level of satisfaction with the police. Colombia appears in an intermediate position. Regarding the police, it appears below El Salvador, Jamaica, and Honduras.

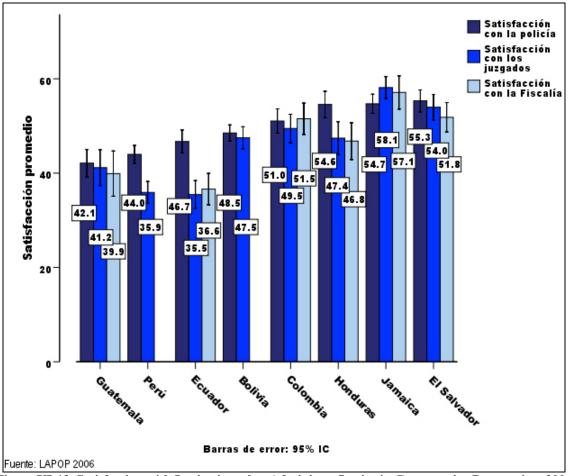


Figure VI-13. Satisfaction with Institutions that Administer Justice in Comparative Perspective- 2006



After an increase in the levels of satisfaction in these judicial institutions between 2004 and 2005, there was a decline in 2006, especially in the case of the police, as Figure VI-14 illustrates.

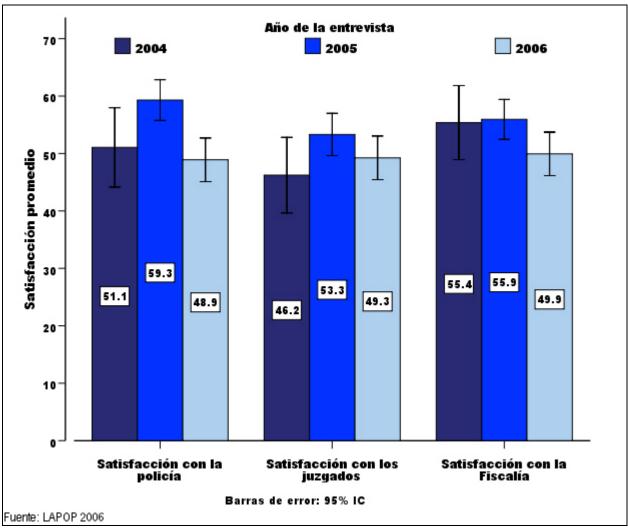


Figure VI-14. Satisfaction with Institutions that Administer Justice in Colombia - 2004-2006

To close this section, we wanted to inquire about how unsafe people feel. To do this, we asked them the following question.

**AOJ11**. Hablando del lugar o barrio donde vive, y pensando en la posibilidad de ser víctima de un asalto o robo, ¿Se siente muy seguro, algo seguro, algo inseguro o muy inseguro?

Muy seguro	1
Algo seguro	2
Algo inseguro	3
Muy inseguro	
NS/NR	

Figure VI-15, with the responses converted onto a scale of 0 to 100, shows that Colombians are far from those who feel most unsafe in their community. Despite being the only country involved in a conflict, residents in most of the other countries included in the study have a higher perception of insecurity than Colombians.

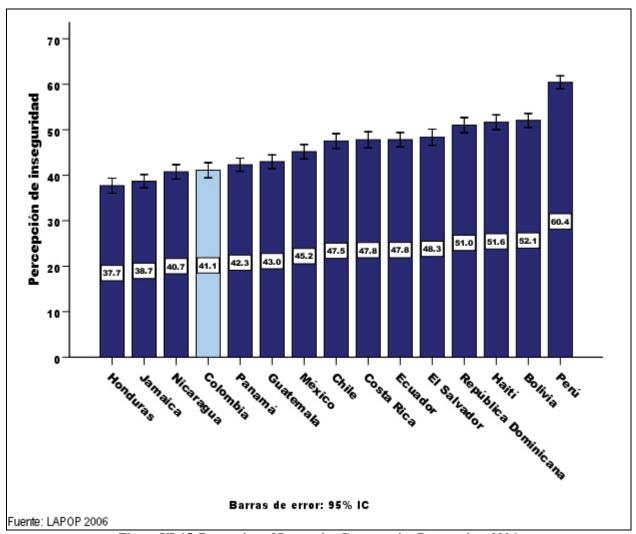


Figure VI-15. Perception of Insecurity Comparative Perspective- 2006



This perception of insecurity has not changed in Colombia during the last three years, as we can see in Figure VI-16.

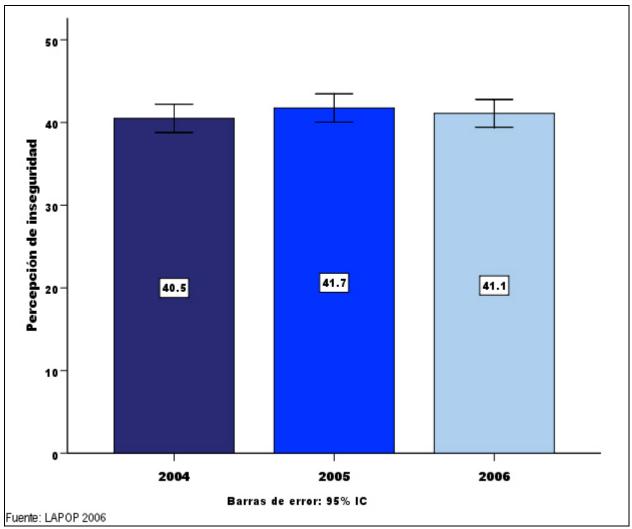


Figure VI-16. Perception of Insecurity in Colombia - 2004-2006



We wanted to examine the factors that influence Colombians' perception of insecurity. To do this, we constructed a linear regression model using the indicator described above as the dependent variable, and including the usual sociodemographic variables as determining factors.

Additionally, we included people's evaluation of what kind of job the government is doing with the expectation that people who favorably rate the president's administration, whose main banner is public security, should have a lower perception of insecurity than people more critical of it. We also expect that people who have been victims of crime or the conflict would have a greater perception of insecurity. Finally, we included indicators of exposure to news by radio, television, the press, and the internet in order to examine the role that the news media plays in the perception of insecurity. The results of the model appear in Table VI-2 in the annex to this chapter.

In the first place, residents of urban areas feel more threatened by crime than people who live in rural areas, as we see in Figure VI-17.

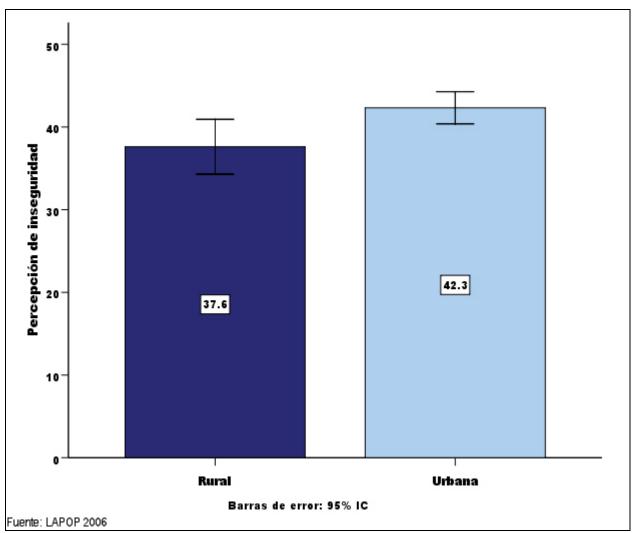


Figure VI-17. Perception of Insecurity by Area of Residence (Urban/Rural) in Colombia - 2006



Also, as expected, people who better rate the job that the president is doing have a lower perception of insecurity, as Figure VI-18 shows.<sup>2</sup>

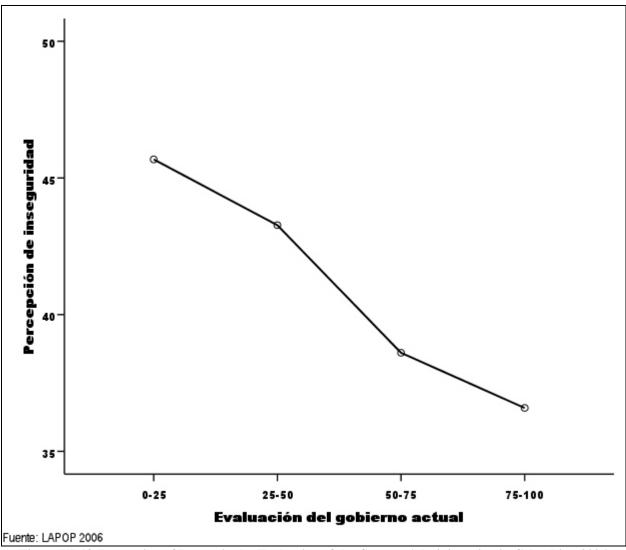


Figure VI-18. Perception of Insecurity by Evaluation of the Current Administration in Colombia - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> We should advise that, in this case, the causality can go in the other direction, that is, people who favorably rate the administration do it because they feel safer. This factor, therefore, should be considered mainly as a control variable.



Finally, and also logically, crime victims feel more insecure (more than ten points on the perception of insecurity index) than people who were not the victim of any crime in the previous year, as can be seen in Figure VI-19. It is worth stressing, however, that people who have been victims of the conflict do not show significantly different levels of the perception of insecurity than other people. Finally, exposure to news by the different forms of media does not appear to have a significant effect on the perception of public insecurity.

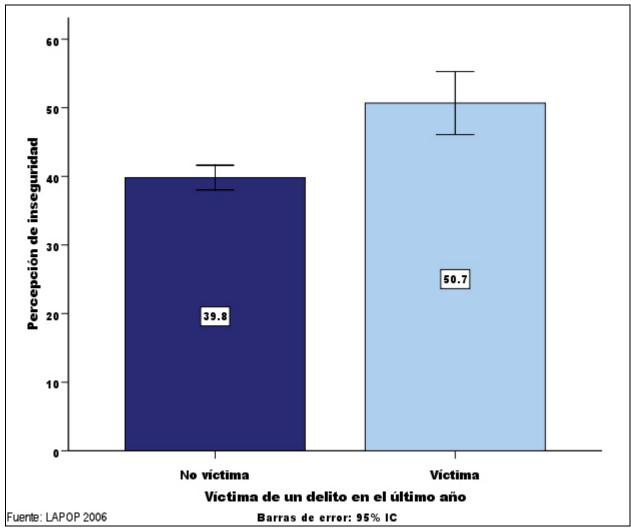


Figure VI-19. Perception of Insecurity by Victimization by Crime in Colombia - 2006

### Respect for the Rule of Law

In the face of high crime rates, or just the perception of acute insecurity, there is the temptation for people to justify acts that break the rule of law. To evaluate to what degree this occurs, we asked the following question:

<u>AOJ8</u>. Para poder capturar delincuentes, ¿Cree usted que: las autoridades siempre deben respetar las leyes o en ocasiones pueden actuar al margen de la ley?

Deben respetar las leyes siempre	1
En ocasiones pueden actuar al margen de la ley	2
NS/NR	8

Figure VI-20 shows that 40% of Colombians believe that authorities can break the law to pursue criminals. This proportion, worryingly high, is comparatively less than that in the vast majority of countries included in the study.

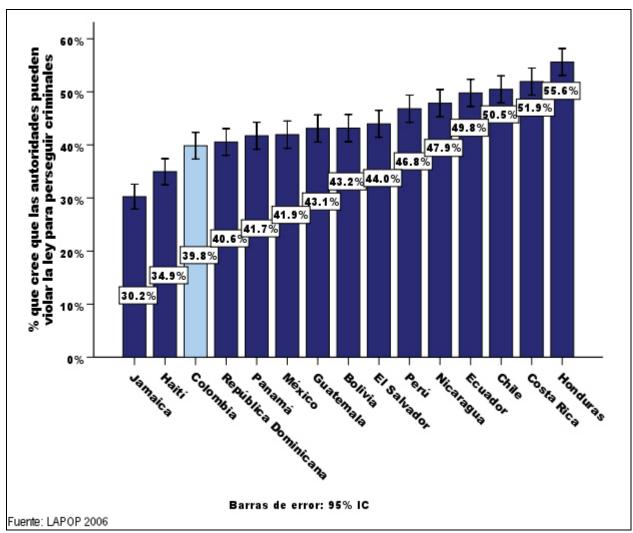


Figure VI-20. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law in Comparative Perspective-2006



Despite this, the proportion of people who would be willing to accept such illegal practices by officials has grown considerably in the last year, as we can see in Figure VI-21.<sup>3</sup>

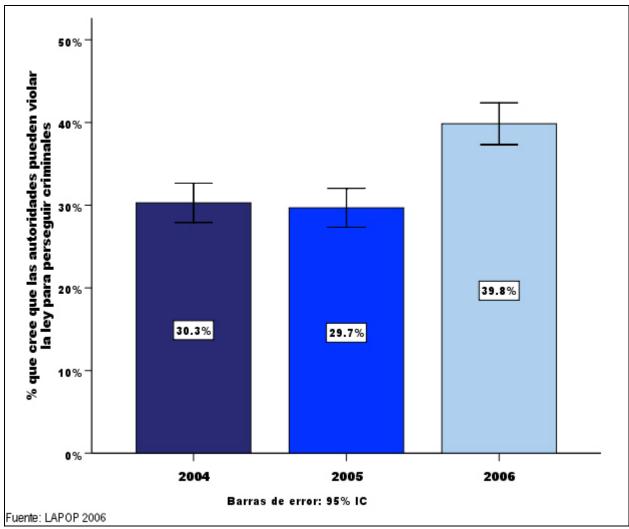


Figure VI-21. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law in Colombia - 2004-2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In all the countries where LAPOP conducted studies in 2004, the proportion of people willing to accept this type of violation of due process has increased significantly. This regional phenomenon merits a more thorough analysis than the one included in this report.



This group of people has grown in all regions of the country, except perhaps the Old National Territories. As Figure VI-22 shows, this growth is significant in the Central and Eastern regions. In Bogotá, there was a jump of almost ten percentage points, although the rise is not statistically significant.

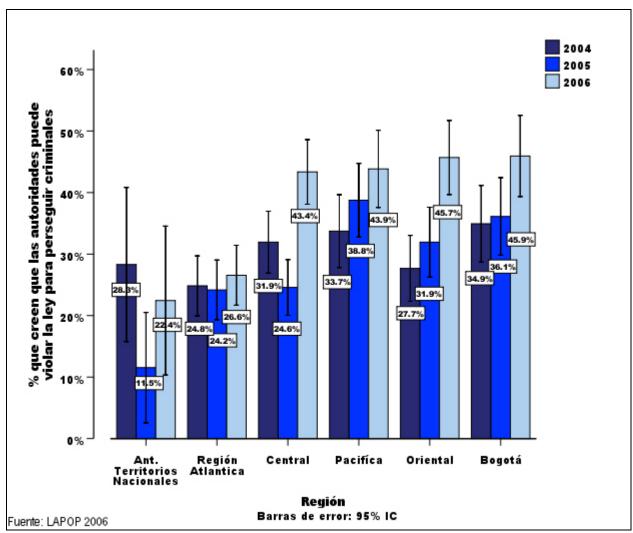


Figure VI-22. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law by Region - Colombia 2004-2006



What features characterize this 40% of Colombians who believe that breaking the rule of law is an acceptable means of fighting crime? To examine this question, we employed a logistic regression model using the answer (yes or no) to the above-mentioned question as the dependent variable. We included the sociodemographic variables as predictors. Additionally, we wanted to find out whether a respondent's ideological position, as well as different forms of victimization (by crime, the conflict, and corruption), had any affect on the probability that he or she would accept officials breaking the law.

As we can see in the results of the model (Table VI-3 of the annex to this chapter), being a victim of crime, the conflict, or corruption does not have any impact on the probability that a respondent would approve of authorities breaking the law to fight crime. A respondent's ideological position also does not influence this indicator. Age, though, is a statistically significant factor. Older people tend to be more respectful of the rule of law, as we see in Figure VI-23.

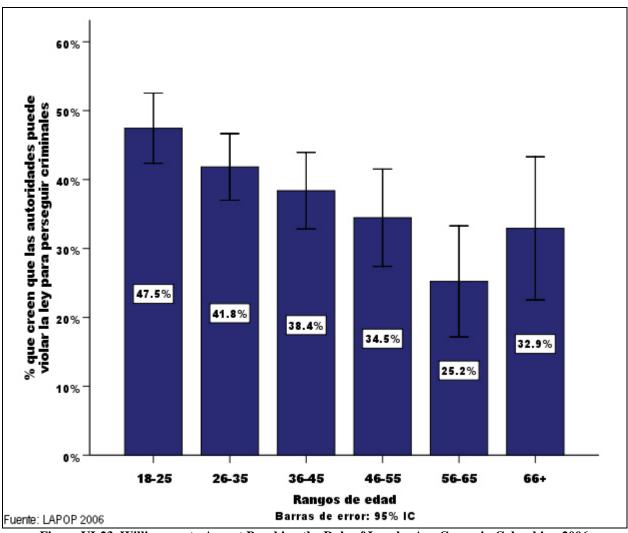


Figure VI-23. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law by Age Group in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, respondents with a higher level of education tend to be more respectful towards the rule of law, as we see in Figure VI-24.

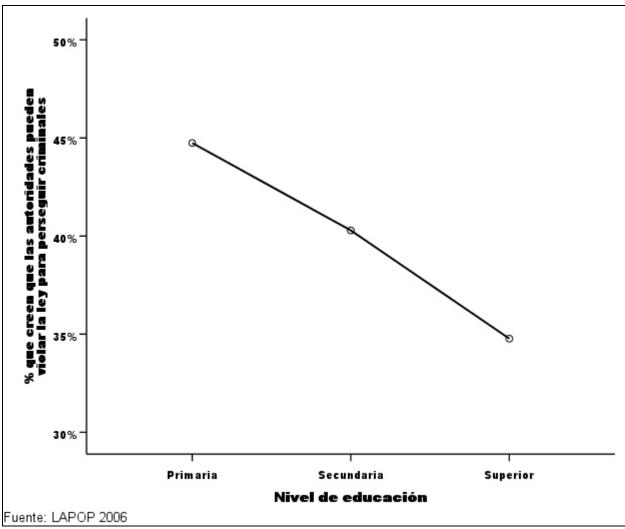


Figure VI-24. Willingness to Accept Breaking the Rule of Law by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



## Annex

Table VI-1. Predictors of Victimization by Crime in Colombia – 2006

	В	E.S.	z	Sig.	
Male	0.410	0.161	6.500	0.011	*
Age	0.001	0.007	0.018	0.895	
Education	0.052	0.023	5.114	0.024	*
Wealth	0.147	0.058	6.473	0.011	*
Urban residence Married or living with	0.265	0.239	1.226	0.268	
partner	-0.299	0.177	2.867	0.090	
Number of children	-0.084	0.065	1.654	0.198	
Constant	-3.110	0.357	75.887	0.000	
N	1476				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.056				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05

Table VI-2. Predictors of the Perception of Insecurity in Colombia - 2006

Predictors	В	E. S.	t	Sig.	
(Constant)	44.531	4.924	9.04	.000	
Male	-3.478	1.776	-1.96	.050	
Age	028	.074	38	.701	
Education	326	.277	-1.18	.240	
Wealth	517	.674	77	.443	
Urban residence	5.754	2.346	2.45	.014	*
Married or living with partner	2.320	1.870	1.24	.215	
Number of children	.246	.408	.60	.547	
Evaluation of the government	156	.038	-4.11	.000	***
Victimization by crime	10.854	2.607	4.16	.000	***
Victimization by the conflict	1.422	1.907	.75	.456	
Exposure to news by radio	.033	.024	1.41	.160	
Exposure to news by TV	.024	.034	.71	.479	
Exposure to news in the press	.038	.034	1.14	.256	
Exposure to news on the internet	084	.046	-1.83	.067	
N	1401				
R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.030				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

 $Table \ \underline{VI\text{--}3.} \ Predictors \ of \ the \ Willingness \ to \ Accept \ Breaking \ the \ Rule \ of \ Law \ in \ Colombia \ -2006$ 

	В	E.S.	Z	Sig.	
Male	214	.125	-1.71	.087	
Age	020	.005	-3.72	.000	***
Education	036	.018	-1.97	.049	
Wealth	.087	.046	1.88	.059	
Urban residence	263	.168	-1.57	.117	
Married or living with partner	.114	.133	.86	.389	
Number of children	014	.031	46	.647	
Ideological position	005	.025	19	.848	
Victim of crime	.213	.184	1.16	.246	
Victim of the conflict	.217	.133	1.63	.104	
Victim of corruption	.284	.205	1.39	.165	
Constant	.504	.321	1.57	.116	
N	1139				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.021				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

### VII. Local Government

With the understanding that democratic attitudes develop from below, from the local level, the LAPOP study places special emphasis on people's perceptions of and experiences with municipal authorities. In fact, as we saw in an earlier chapter, people's satisfaction with the services that municipalities provide is an important and significant indicator of support for the political system as a whole. Since local institutions are closest to people in their daily lives, it is fundamental to examine how people evaluate these institutions and their experiences interacting with municipal officials and agencies.

The first part of this chapter addresses how people evaluate local governments in three main dimensions: trust in institutions, the degree to which these are accountable for their actions, and how transparent people perceive them to operate as public entities. The second part studies respondents' attitudes in terms of the provision of public services. The last part analyzes how people participate in local affairs and in making demands of municipal authorities.

## **Evaluation of Local Governments**

#### **Trust in Local Institutions**

We begin our analysis of local government by examining the level of trust in local institutions. We asked the following questions, whose responses were originally codified on a scale of 1 (no trust) to 7 (much trust):

B32. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted confianza en su alcaldía?

COLB32A. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted confianza en el Concejo de su municipio?



Although the second question was only asked in the Colombian study, we have data to be able to compare people's trust in municipal governments for the other countries. Figure VII-1 shows Colombia around the average level of trust among the cases included in the 2006 study.

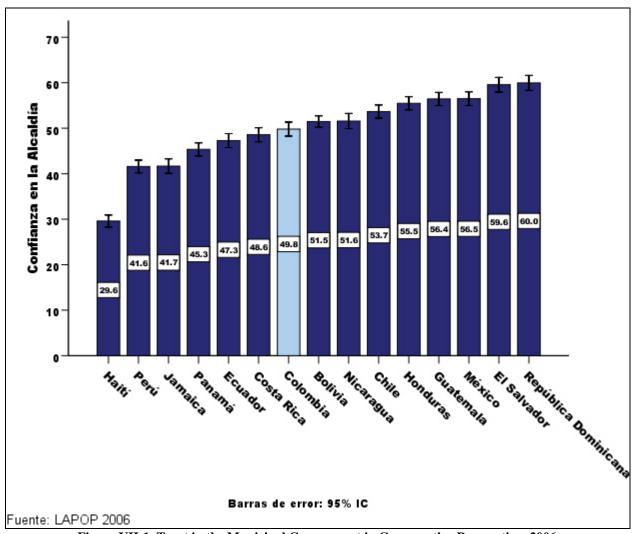


Figure VII-1. Trust in the Municipal Government in Comparative Perspective- 2006



As Figure VII-2 shows, comparing the government at different scales, from the national to the local, the municipal government, the one closest to the people, is the least trusted. It is also important to note the significant decline in trust in municipal governments in the last year.

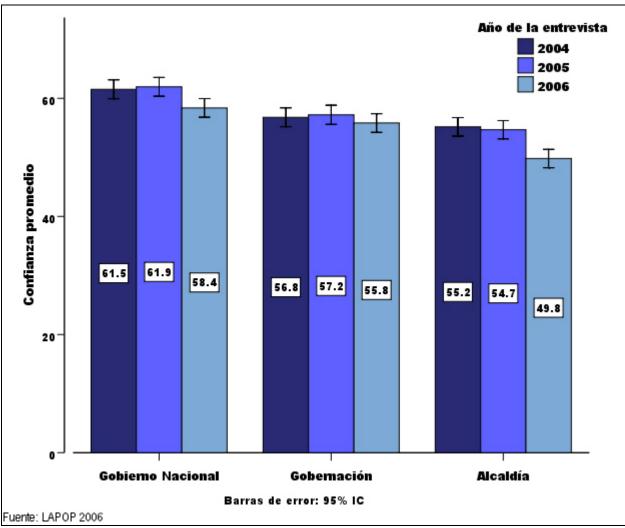


Figure VII-2. Trust in the National, Departmental, and Municipal Governments in Colombia - 2004-2006

Compared to the municipal council, the municipal mayor enjoys greater levels of trust in all regions, although the differences are not statistically significant, as we see in Figure VII-3.

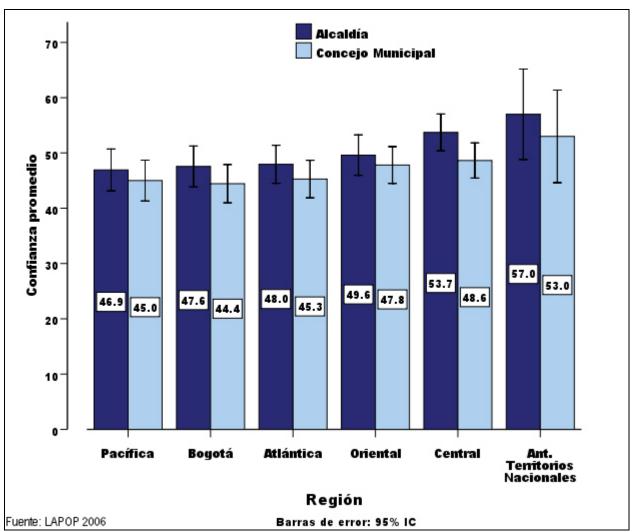


Figure VII-3. Trust in the Municipal Government and the Municipal Council by Region in Colombia - 2006



Public trust in the municipal government and the municipal council is slightly higher in rural areas than in municipal seats, although this difference is not significant, as can be appreciated in Figure VII-4.

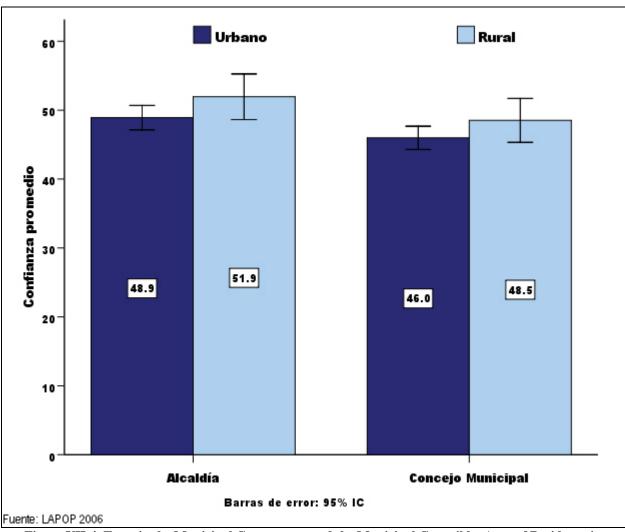


Figure VII-4. Trust in the Municipal Government and the Municipal Council by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



## Accountability

Besides trust, we wanted to explore another dimension of people's perceptions of local institutions: accountability. This constitutes a central element in people's relation to the institutions that govern them. In order to investigate respondents' perceptions on this issue, the questionnaire included the following questions:

	Sí	No	NS/NR
<u>COLCP16A</u> ¿Usted considera que su <b>Municipio</b> rinde cuentas sobre el manejo de los recursos que administra?	1	2	8
COLCP16B [No aplica para Bogotá] ¿Usted considera que su Departamento rinde cuentas sobre el manejo de los recursos que administra?	1	2	8
COLCP16C ¿Usted Considera que el Gobierno Nacional rinde cuentas sobre el manejo de los recursos que administra?	1	2	8

Unfortunately, these questions were not included in the studies conducted in other countries, so it is impossible to make regional comparisons.



However, it is possible to use similar questions regarding national and departmental governments as a reference point. As can be seen in Figure VII-5, the perception of accountability is lower at the municipal level than at the other ones. This is paradoxical and might be of concern since it involves, as already mentioned, the body of government that in principal should be the closest to the people. Additionally, the percentage of respondents who believe that local government (and the national government) is accountable has diminished significantly in the last year.

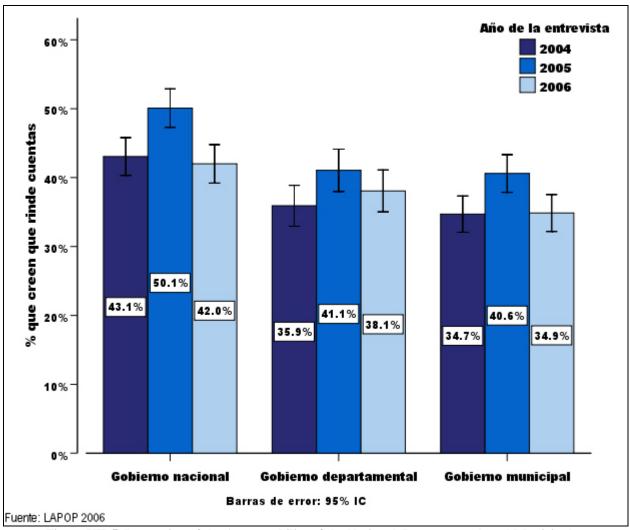


Figure VII-5. Perception of the Accountability of the National, Departmental, and Municipal Governments in Colombia - 2004-2006



Residents of the Eastern and Pacific regions are the most skeptical about the accountability of municipal governments, particularly in comparison to the Central region and the Old National Territories, as Figure VII-6 shows.

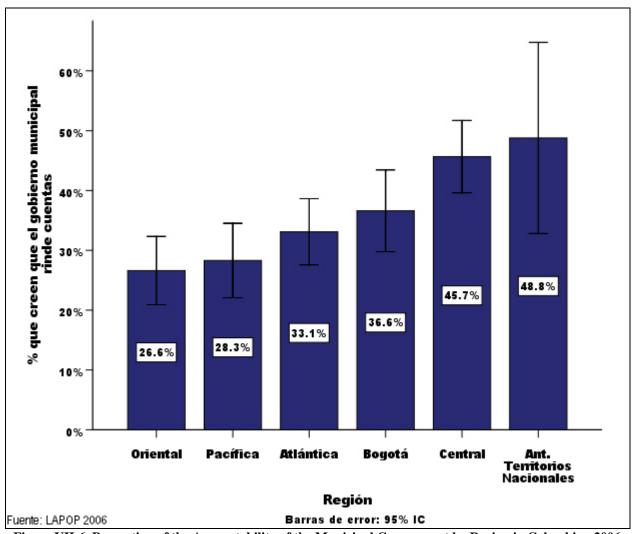


Figure VII-6. Perception of the Accountability of the Municipal Government by Region in Colombia - 2006



There are no statistically significant differences between urban and rural areas where interviews were conducted, as can be seen in Figure VII-7, despite the higher percentage for urban respondents.

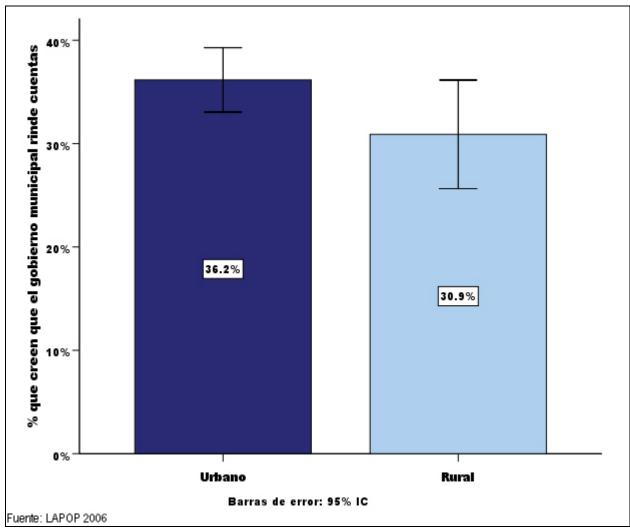


Figure VII-7. Perception of the Accountability of the Municipal Government by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



### Transparency

Finally, the questionnaire included a series of questions to examine people's perception of how transparent municipal governments are. The questions are the following:

Ahora vamos a hablar de la forma en que las autoridades se comunican con los ciudadanos y consultan con ellos... [repetir cada vez "Siempre", "Casi siempre", "De vez en cuando", "Casi nunca", o "Nunca"]

	Siem pre	Casi siemp re	De vez en cua ndo	Cas i nun ca	Nun ca	NS/N R
COLAC1A ¿En su opinión, su municipio consulta a los ciudadanos antes de tomar una decisión	1	2	3	4	5	8
COLAC1B ¿En su opinión, su municipio hace públicos sus planes y decisiones	1	2	3	4	5	8
COLAC1C ¿En su opinión, su municipio comparte la información abiertamente y a tiempo	1	2	3	4	5	8

The questionnaire included the same questions for the national and departmental levels. With these items, we constructed a perception of transparency index for each one of these levels in order to make comparisons.<sup>2</sup>

These questions are also exclusive to this study, making it impossible to compare Colombians' perceptions with people from other countries.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These scales have high levels of reliability, with Cronbach's alphas of .816 (municipal), .885 (departmental), and .898 (national).

Contrary to what happened with trust and accountability, municipal governments are, in the eyes of the public, more transparent than departmental governments (although less than the national government). However, there was a significant fall in the perceived transparency of municipal government in the last year, as Figure VII-8 shows.

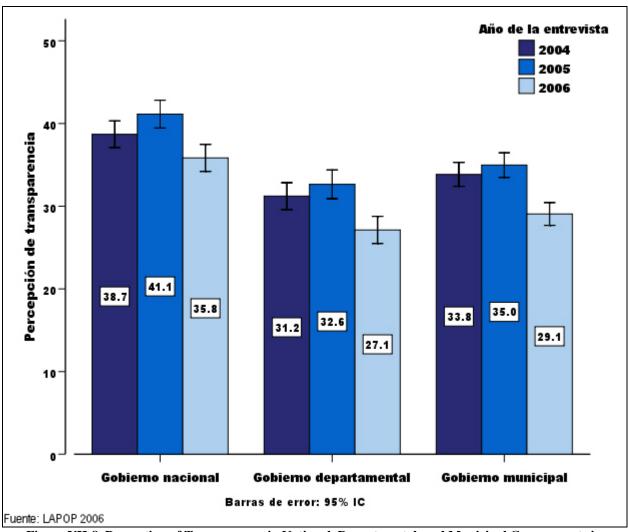


Figure VII-8. Perception of Transparency in National, Departmental, and Municipal Governments in Colombia - 2004-2006



Municipal governments of the Central region are more transparent than those of other regions. The difference with the Atlantic region is significant, as can be seen in Figure VII-9.

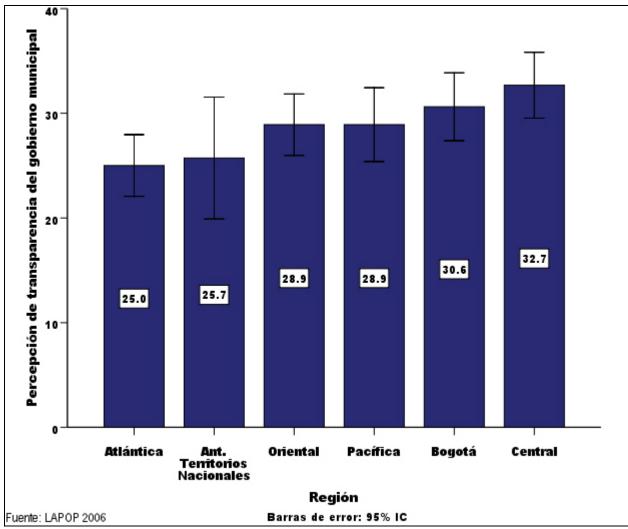


Figure VII-9. Perception of Transparency of the Municipal Government by Region in Colombia - 2006



The perception of municipal-government transparency is less in rural areas than in urban ones, as Figure VII-10 shows.

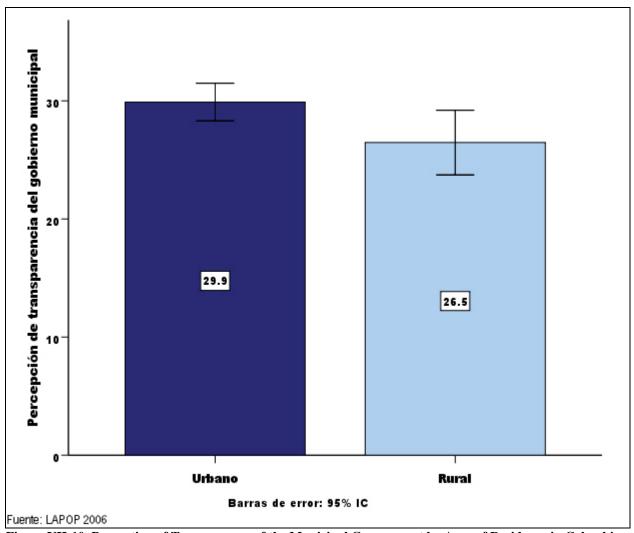


Figure VII-10. Perception of Transparency of the Municipal Government by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



# **Provision of Public Services**

Through the following battery of questions, we explored the perception that people have of the services provided by the municipality:

	Muy buenos	Buenos	Ni buenos, ni malos	Malos	Muy malos	NS/NR
SGL1. ¿Diría usted que los servicios que el municipio está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8
SGL1A y hablando del servicio municipal de agua potable ¿Diría que el servicio es? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8
COLSGL1B. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Salud que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8
colsglic. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Energía Eléctrica que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8
SGL1D. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Recolección de Basura que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8
COLSGL1E. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Educación que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8



In terms of the general perception (question SGL1), Figure VII-11 shows that the evaluation in Colombia is slightly higher than the average of the other countries.

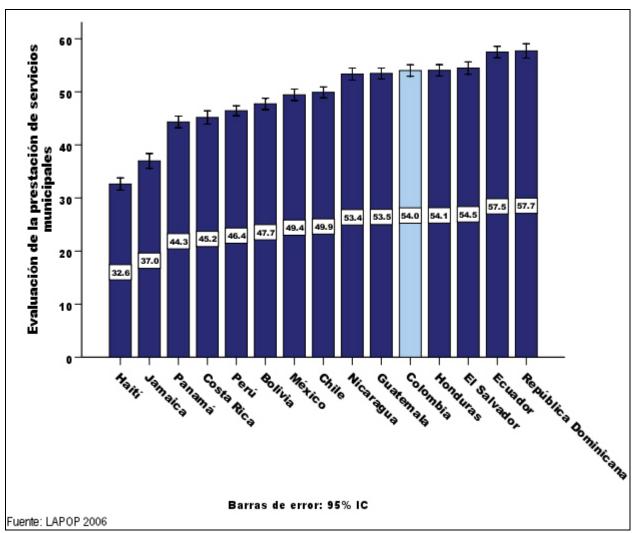


Figure VII-11. Evaluation of Municipal Services in Comparative Perspective- 2006



This evaluation, however, has taken a slight, but statistically significant, drop in the last year, as can be seen in Figure VII-12.

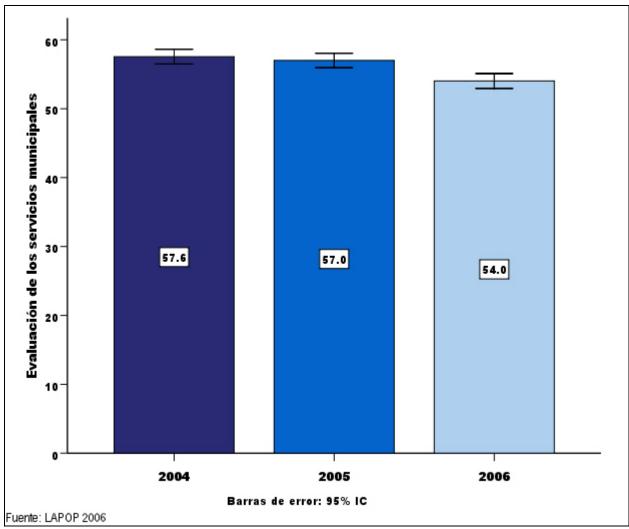


Figure VII-12. Evaluation of Municipal Services in Colombia - 2004-2006



This evaluation is greater in the Central region, as we see in Figure VII-13.

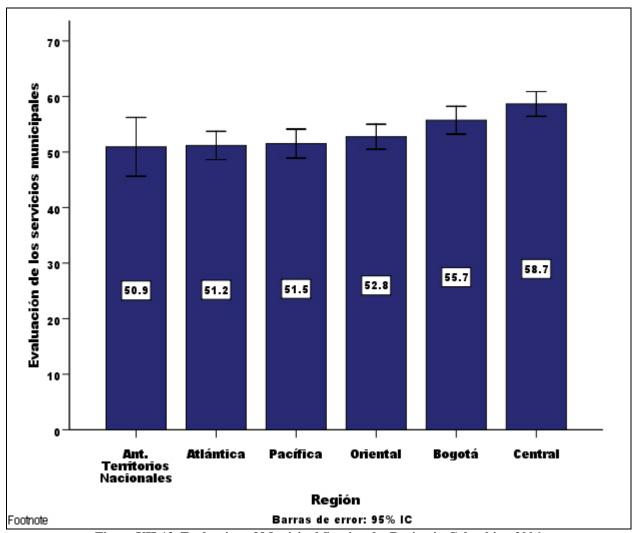


Figure VII-13. Evaluation of Municipal Services by Region in Colombia - 2006



Once again, Figure VII-14 indicates that there are no differences between urban and rural areas.

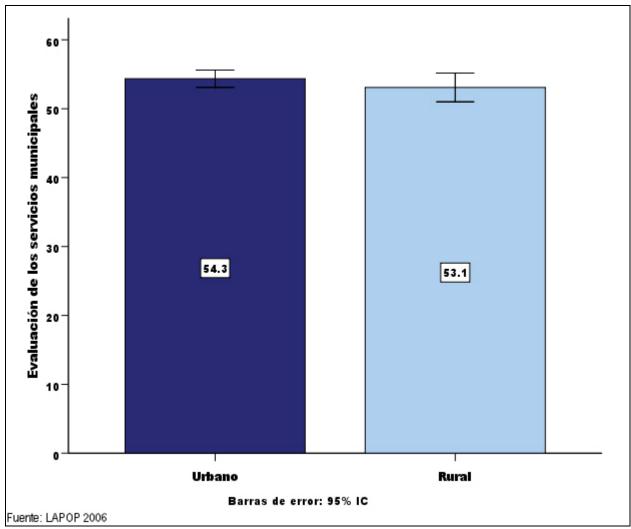


Figure VII-14. Evaluation of Municipal Services by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



A detailed examination of each one of the services, as appears in Figure VII-15, shows that the electricity service is the best evaluated, with its score even increasing over the last two years. By contrast, the health service not only is the worst rated but also suffered a significant fall in the last year.

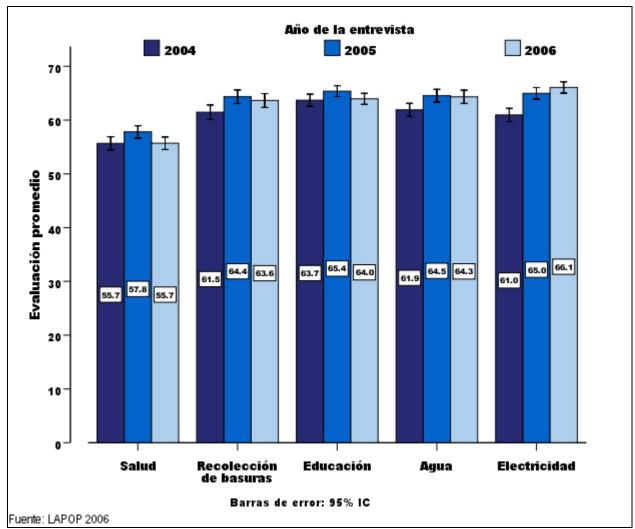


Figure VII-15. Evaluation of Specific Services in Colombia - 2004-2006

Correlated to the provision of municipal government services is the availability of resources to adequately provide them. In the Colombian case, these resources have typically come from the central government and local taxes. We examined the attitudes of respondents regarding this issue through the following two questions:

LGL2. En su opinión, ¿se le debe dar más obligaciones y más dinero al municipio, o se debe dejar que el gobierno nacional asuma más obligaciones y servicios municipales?  Más al municipio		
Que el gobierno nacional asuma más obligaciones y servicios		ebe dejar que
No cambiar nada [NO LEER]	Más al municipio1	
Más al municipio si da mejores servicios [NO LEER]		
NS/NR	No cambiar nada [NO LEER]3	
LGL3. [COLG3] ¿Estaría dispuesto a pagar más impuestos al municipio para que éste pueda prestar mejores servicios municipales, o cree que no vale la pena pagar más?  Dispuesto a pagar más impuestos	Más al municipio si da mejores servicios [NO LEER]4	
mejores servicios municipales, o cree que no vale la pena pagar más?  Dispuesto a pagar más impuestos	NS/NR8	
No vale la pena pagar más impuestos2		ueda prestar
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Dispuesto a pagar más impuestos1	
NS/NR8	No vale la pena pagar más impuestos2	
	NS/NR8	



First, Figure VII-16 shows that three out of five Colombians believe that the central government should assume a larger part of municipal expenditures. In fact, this percentage is only surpassed by the Panamanian and is high above the average of the other countries (47%). People do not seem willing to further the process of decentralization started at the end of the 1980s in Colombia; instead, they seem to back reversing it to some degree. This, combined with the evidence, as we saw earlier, showing the low trust that people have in municipal governments compared to the central government, can be explained by circumstances related to the armed conflict. The reports of illegal armed actors, especially the paramilitaries, taking control of local entities publicly undermine the process of decentralization.

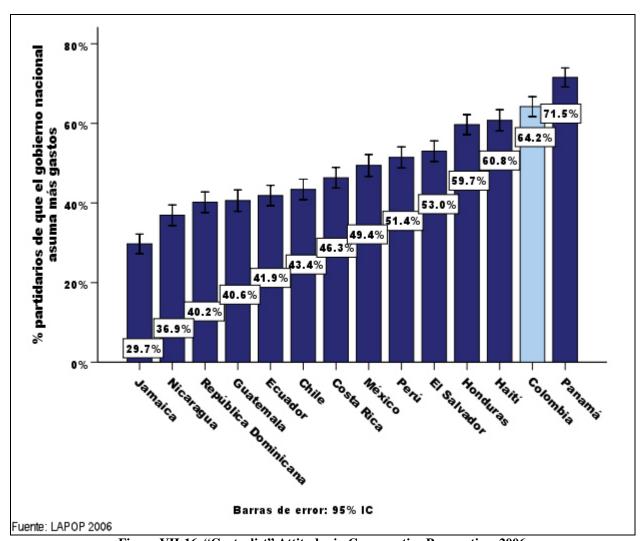


Figure VII-16. "Centralist" Attitudes in Comparative Perspective- 2006



This intuition is confirmed by the fact that Colombia is the country in which the lowest percentage of people would be willing to pay more taxes to the municipality in order to obtain better services, as we see in Figure VII-17.

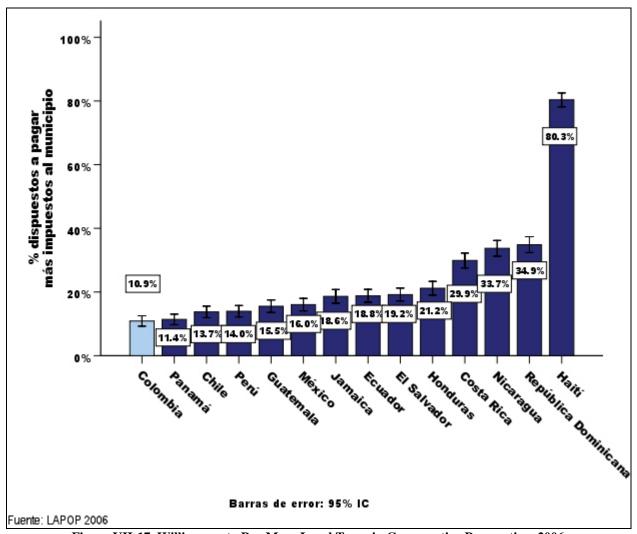


Figure VII-17. Willingness to Pay More Local Taxes in Comparative Perspective- 2006



This proportion of respondents fell considerably in the last year, as indicated by Figure VI-18. This means that Colombians would not support more decentralization, which is a central component of the prescriptions made by international organizations for the country.

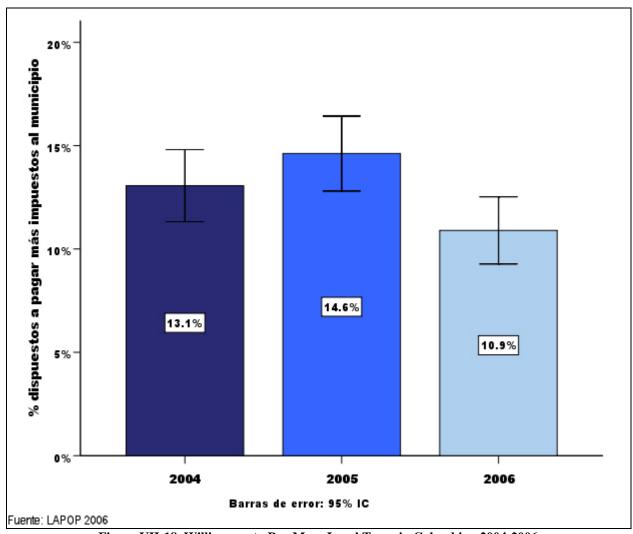


Figure VII-18. Willingness to Pay More Local Taxes in Colombia - 2004-2006



There are important differences between the regions, especially between the two coasts, as we see in Figure VII-19. Additionally, in most regions (especially the Eastern), residents of rural areas seem less willing to pay more taxes. At the national level, 12% of urban residents answered this question affirmatively, while only 8% did so among rural residents.

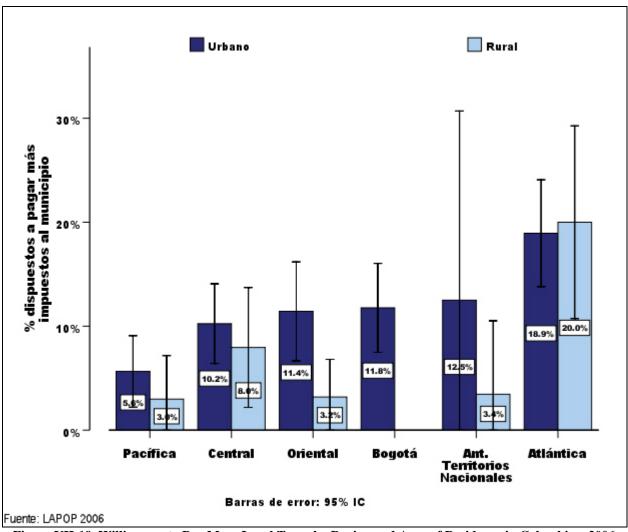


Figure VII-19. Willingness to Pay More Local Taxes by Region and Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



## Participation and Making Demands

In this final section, we wanted to explore how people get involved in municipal affairs. On the one hand, we examined the forms of public participation in local affairs. And on the other, we took a quick look at how people petition or make demands on municipal authorities.

To examine the forms of public participation, we included the following questions in the LAPOP questionnaire:

	Sí	No	NS/NR
NP1. ¿Ha asistido a un cabildo abierto o una sesión municipal durante los últimos 12 meses?	1	2	8
<b>NP1A.</b> ¿Ha asistido a alguna reunión convocada por el alcalde durante los últimos 12 meses?	1	2	8
<b>NP4 [CONP1A]</b> ¿Ha participado en alguna reunión para discutir o planificar el presupuesto o el plan anual de su municipio?	1	2	8

To study the ways the public makes demands on municipal authorities, we asked the following questions:

	Sí	No	NS/NR
NP2. ¿Ha solicitado ayuda o ha presentado una petición a alguna oficina, funcionario o concejal del municipio durante los últimos 12	1	2	8
meses?	•	_	<b>V</b>

¿Para poder resolver sus problemas alguna vez ha pedido usted. ayuda o cooperación ?	Sí	No	NS/NR
CP4A. Al Alcalde de su municipio	1	2	8
COLCP1. A algún concejal de su municipio	1	2	8



As can be seen in Figure VII-20, the frequency of participation has consistently fallen in recent years, although the most significant differences occurred between 2004 and 2005.

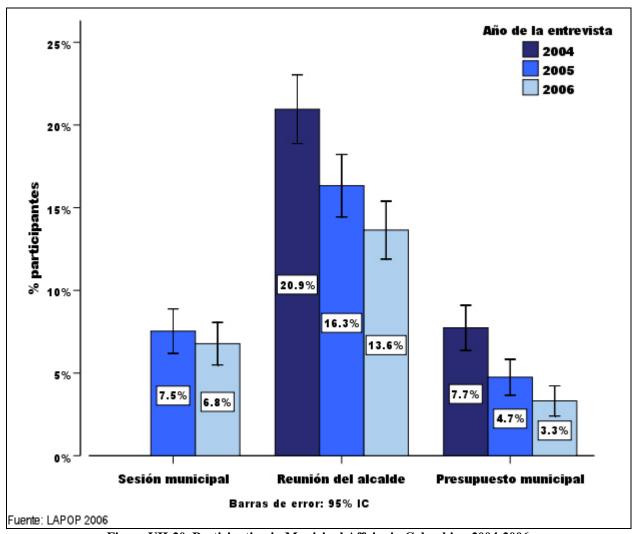


Figure VII-20. Participation in Municipal Affairs in Colombia - 2004-2006



In comparative terms, the frequency with which Colombians participate in municipal affairs is low, as we see in Figure VII-21.

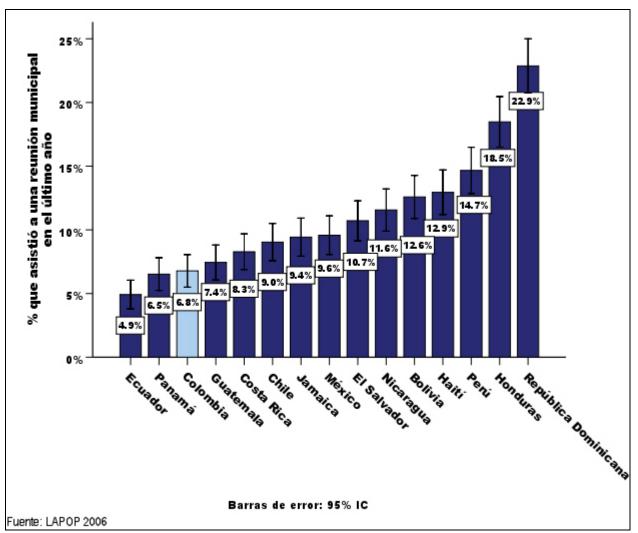


Figure VII-21. Participation in Municipal Affairs in Comparative Perspective- 2006



In turn, Figure VII-22 shows that the frequency with which people petition or make demands on local authorities has also diminished in recent years.

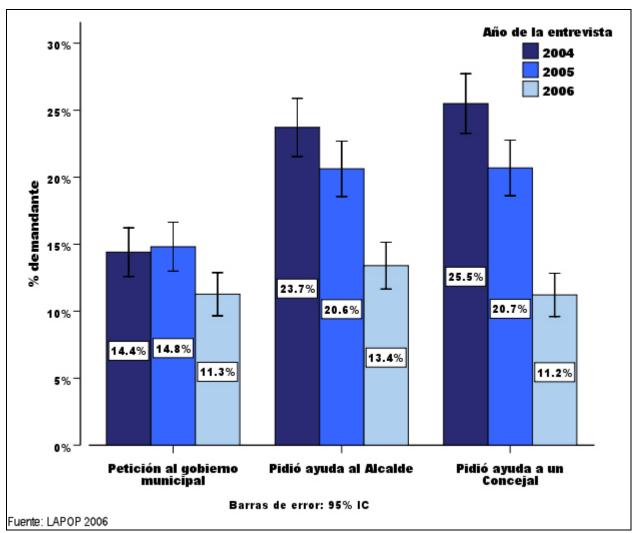


Figure VII-22. Demands on Municipal Authorities in Colombia - 2004-2006



Likewise, the frequency with which Colombians make demands on municipal authorities is comparatively low, as seen in Figure VII-23.

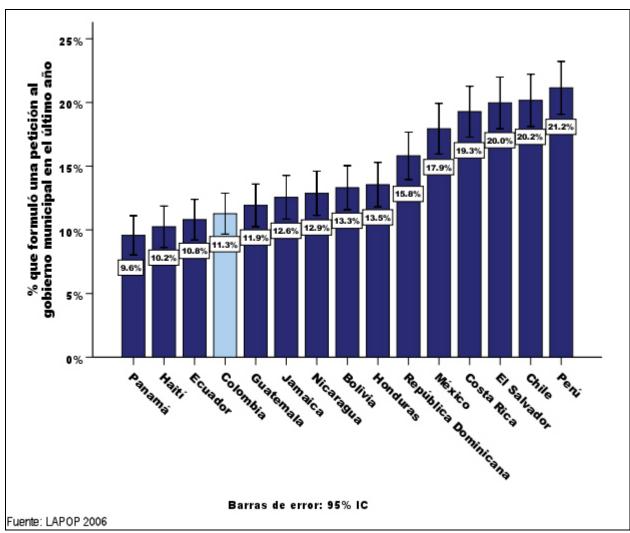


Figure VII-23. Making Demands on the Municipal Government in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Table VII-1 shows a cross-tab of these two categories of participants<sup>3</sup> and demand-makers.<sup>4</sup>

Table VII-1. Participants and Demand-Makers in Colombia - 2006

	Non-demand-makers	Demand-makers	Total
Non-participants	66.4%	15.3%	81.7%
Participants	9.7%	8.6%	18.3%
Total	76.1%	23.9%	100.0%

To characterize the different types of people, we used two logistic regression models: the first analyzes the factors that affect the probability that a person is a participant (that is, that they participated in one of the ways noted above); the second does the same for citizens that make demands. In both models, the proposed predictors are the same. For one, we used the usual sociodemographic variables. We also included the respondent's ideological position, if he or she supported a political party, as well as victimization by crime and the armed conflict. The results of these models appear in the annex of this chapter.

The 2005 LAPOP Colombia study found evidence that the parties would constitute a channel of participation and demand-making in municipal affairs.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Participants are people who affirmatively answered *one* of the following questions: NP1 (participation in a municipal meeting), NP1A (participation in a meeting called by the municipal mayor), or NP4 (participation in a discussion about the local budget).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Demand-makers are people who affirmatively answered *one* of the following questions: NP2 (petitioned or made a demand to the local government), CP4 (requested assistance from the municipal mayor [alcalde], or COLCP1 (requested assistance from a municipal council member [concejal].

#### Significant Predictors of Participation

Table VII-2 of the annex shows that the forms of victimization do not have a significant impact on the probability of participating in municipal affairs. In turn, the level of education, wealth, area of residence (urban/rural), ideological position, and party affiliation are significant predictors of participation.

People who live in rural areas and who are more educated, holding the other factors constant, are more likely to participate in municipal affairs, as can be seen in Figure VII-24.

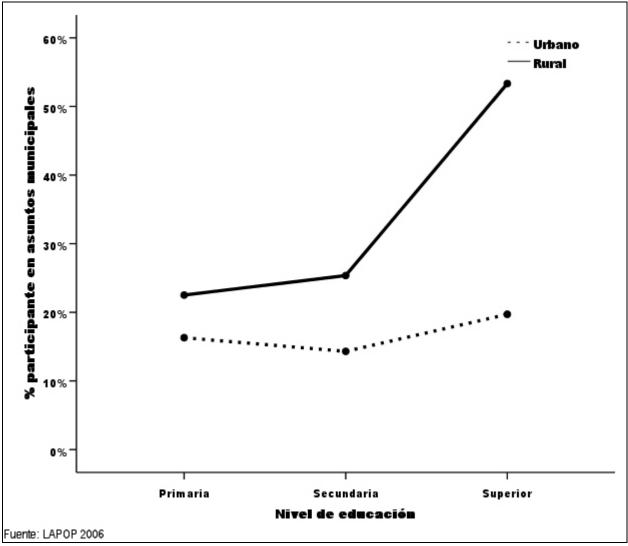


Figure VII-24. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Level of Education and Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



In the same way, wealthier people participate less frequently than people with fewer resources, as we see in Figure VII-25.6

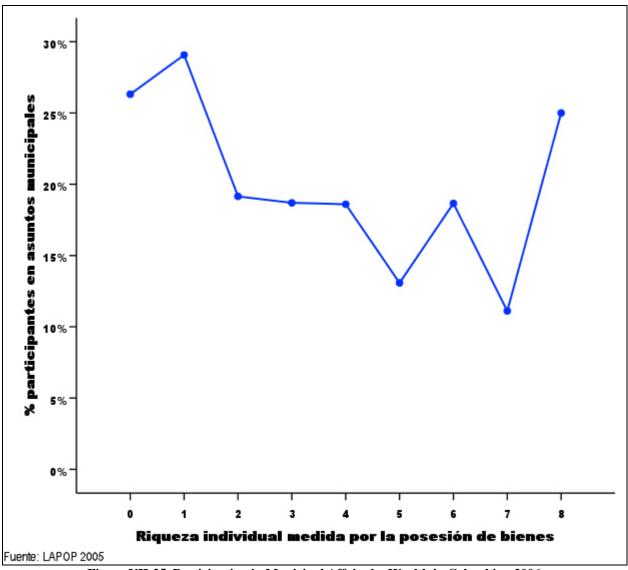


Figure VII-25. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Wealth in Colombia - 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> It is worth noting that the category 9 of the original wealth measure has only a few members, so we grouped categories 8 and 9 into a single one.



Additionally, people who participate in municipal affairs locate themselves more to the right on the ideological spectrum than people who do not participate. Figure VII-26 illustrates this distinction. Although the difference seems slight, it is statistically significant.

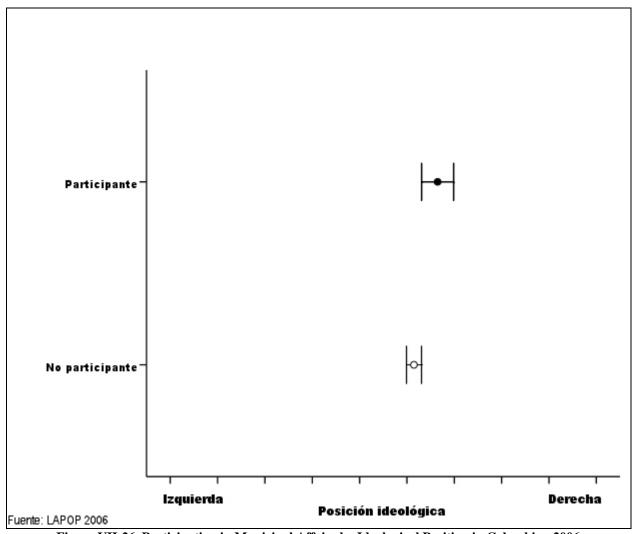


Figure VII-26. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006

Finally, people who consider themselves supporters of a political party participate more frequently than people who do not feel close to any party, as Figure VII-27 shows.

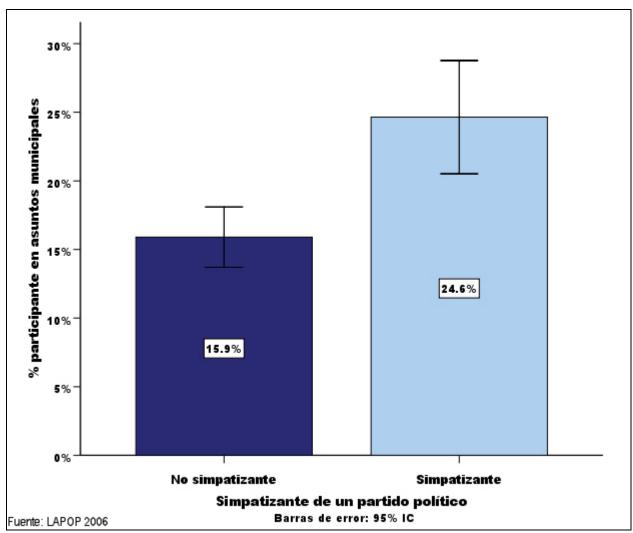


Figure VII-27. Participation in Municipal Affairs by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006



### Significant Predictors of Demand-Making on Municipal Authorities

Table VII-3 shows that the level of education, wealth, area of residence, and party affiliation are significant predictors of the probability that a person would petition or make demands on local authorities.

This probability increases with the level of education and is greater in rural areas, as Figure VII-28 illustrates.

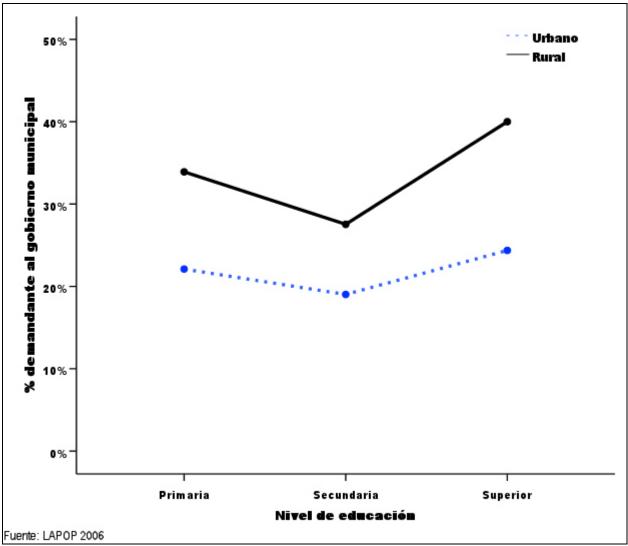


Figure VII-28. Demand-Making on Local Authorities by Level of Education and Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



Although Figure VII-29 shows a case of great demand-making in the highest wealth level, the trend, as well the multivariate statistical model (see Table VII-3), shows that wealthier people are less likely to petition local authorities.

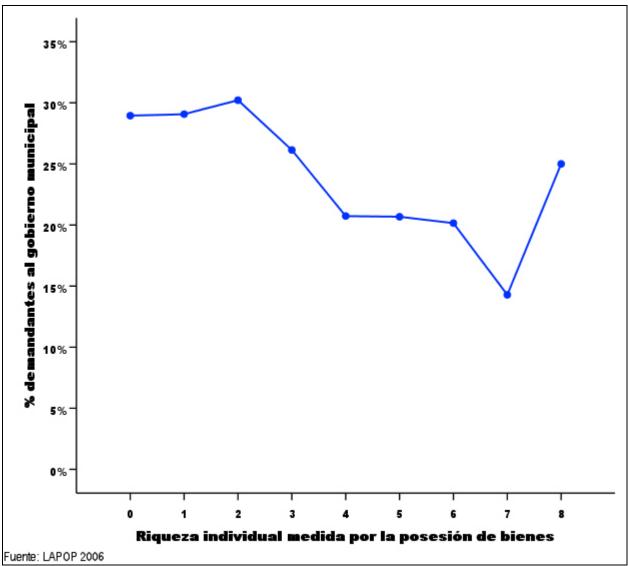


Figure VII-29. Demand-Making on Local Authorities by Wealth in Colombia - 2006



Finally, as in the case of participation, people who consider themselves supporters of a political party make demands on local authorities more frequently, as we can see in Figure VII-30.

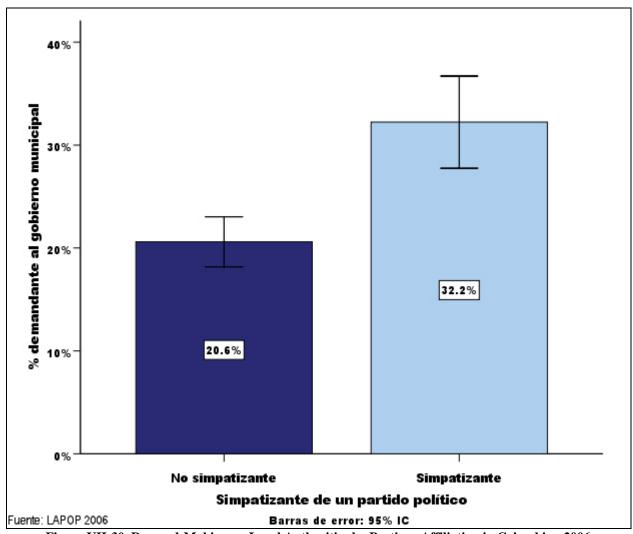


Figure VII-30. Demand-Making on Local Authorities by Partisan Affiliation in Colombia - 2006

In conclusion, it is possible to state that, although Colombians show a relatively high level of participation in municipal affairs when compared to the other countries, this participation seems to be declining over time. Additionally, the majority of respondents oppose the deepening of decentralization, which might be a consequence of the growing perception that local entities not only can become sites of corruption, but also that they have turned into sources of illegal revenue for the illegal armed actors, especially the paramilitary groups.



#### Annex

Table VII-2. Predictors of Participation in Municipal Affairs in Colombia - 2006

	В	E.S.	z	Sig.	_
Male	143	.155	92	.357	
Age	001	.006	20	.841	
Education	.045	.022	2.03	.043	*
Wealth	113	.058	-1.96	.050	*
Urban residence	421	.202	-2.08	.038	*
Married or living with partner	020	.162	12	.902	
Number of children	.022	.029	.75	.455	
Ideological Position	.066	.032	2.10	.036	*
Party affiliation	.638	.164	3.89	.000	***
Victim of crime	.278	.221	1.25	.210	
Victim of the conflict	.192	.163	1.18	.240	
Constant	-1.793	.403	-4.44	.000	
N	1161				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.034				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05

Table VII-3. Predictors of Demand-Making on Local Authorities in Colombia - 2006

	В	E.S.	Z	Sig.	
Male	.117	.143	.82	.414	
Age	.005	.006	.82	.410	
Education	.044	.021	2.15	.032	*
Wealth	145	.053	-2.72	.007	**
Urban residence	484	.184	-2.63	.009	**
Married or living with partner	.237	.153	1.54	.123	
Number of children	.069	.039	1.76	.078	
Ideological Position	.034	.029	1.18	.238	
Party affiliation	.522	.152	3.43	.001	**
Victim of crime	.171	.210	.81	.416	
Victim of the conflict	.286	.149	1.92	.055	
Constant	-1.665	.363	-4.53	.000	
N	1161				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.045				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

#### VIII. Political Parties and Elections

In Colombia, 2006 was a year of intense electoral activity: national elections for both legislative chambers as well as the presidency were held, as they are every four years. Two additional phenomena spiced up these elections. On the one hand, the congressional elections were conducted for the first time under the new electoral system, introduced in 2003, intended to strengthen the political parties. On the other hand, after reforming the constitution in 2004, an incumbent president ran for reelection for the first time in the recent history of the country.

Recent decades have seen a growing deinstitutionalization of Colombian political parties. Due in part to the existing electoral system, electoral activity had become very personalistic to the detriment of wider political party projects. After various attempts, a structural reform of the electoral system, designed to put an end to these phenomena of personalization and deinstitutionalization, was finally passed in 2003. The new electoral system limited the number of lists per district that each party could present, established electoral thresholds, and introduced a d'Hondt formula to replace the Hare system of coefficients and largest remainders to award seats. All these measures, despite maintaining certain personalist features (e.g., the preference vote), were an effort to provide individual candidates with incentives to group themselves into parties. Although this is not the place for a detailed discussion of the effects of this reform, it was clear that considerably fewer political parties competed with greater volumes of the vote under the new system in March 2006. Although this new system might have deficiencies, it does represent a step in the direction that the reformers intended.

The second significant phenomenon of the electoral year was the premiere of the constitutional reform removing the prohibition on presidential reelection. Based on his great popularity, and with the support of legislative majorities, President Uribe's administration managed to get this constitutional amendment passed in 2004. Two main criticisms were raised

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For a discussion of the electoral reform and its effects, see Rodríguez-Raga and Botero (2006); Hoskin and García (2006).



A 2% threshold was established for the Senate, and a half quotient [medio cociente - 0.5%] (number of votes divided by the number of seats) for each district of the House/Chamber [Cámara].

The previous system awarded seats according to electoral quotients (total number of valid votes divided by the number of seats under dispute) and, more importantly, according to the residuos mayores (residuals of the division of the candidate's vote by the quotient). The new d'Hondt system successively divides the votes for the parties by a series of divisores (1, 2, 3...) and awards seats according to the results of such divisions. In practical terms, while the previous Hare system stimulated the fracturing of the parties in various lists, since seats residually assigned disproportionately favors small votes, the d'Hondt system, also called 'cifra repartidora', punishes fracturing and favors candidates grouping themselves in parties

El sistema anterior otorgaba los escaños de acuerdo con los cocientes electorales (división del número de total de votos válidos por el número de escaños en disputa) y, más importante, de acuerdo con los residuos mayores (residuos de la división de la votación del candidato por el cociente). El nuevo sistema d'Hondt realiza divisiones sucesivas de las votaciones de los partidos por una serie de divisores (1, 2, 3...) y otorga los escaños de acuerdo con los resultados de tales divisiones. En términos prácticos, mientras que el sistema Hare anterior estimula el fraccionamiento de los partidos en varias listas, dado que la asignación de escaños por residuo premia desproporcionalmente las pequeñas votaciones, el sistema d'Hondt, también llamado de 'cifra repartidora', castiga el fraccionamiento y premia la agrupación de las candidaturas en partidos.

against this change. On the one hand, some analysts and opposition politicians consider it will make electoral competition very unequal due to the advantages with which an incumbent competes, able to count on wide state resources to back his or her campaign. On the other hand, it has been pointed out that the reelection could turn out to be an inappropriate concentration of power in the figure of the president, to the detriment of the system of checks and balances on which the separation of powers in the state is based. Despite the criticisms, the Constitutional Court approved this reform, putting an end to a long tradition in Colombia and opening a new era, the first episode of which occurred in 2006. Therefore, in May President Uribe successfully ran for president.

In this context, this chapter analyzes the perceptions and experiences of people in terms of political parties and elections. In the first section, we study public trust in the electoral system and the levels of party affiliation. In the second section, we show how respondents evaluate the job the administration is doing.<sup>4</sup> Finally, we describe Colombians' voting behavior and explore some hypotheses of the reasons why Colombians voted the way they did in the presidential elections of May 2006.

#### Trust in Electoral Institutions, Party Affiliation, and Political Activism

Elections and the activities related to them are a central component of democracy. In this section, we not only examine the trust that people have in electoral institutions but also how much they support political parties, and the intensity with which they participate in political proselytism.

#### Trust in Electoral Institutions

To measure public trust in institutions related to the electoral regime, we asked the following questions:

B47. ¿Hasta que punto tiene usted confianza en las elecciones?

B21. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en los partidos políticos?

B11. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el Consejo Nacional Electoral?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> It is worth noting that the surveys were conducted between the end of July and early August 2006, that is after President Uribe was reelected but before he took office for a second term



In the first place, Figure VIII-1 shows that Colombians trust their elections at a comparatively high level and are only surpassed by Costa Ricans.

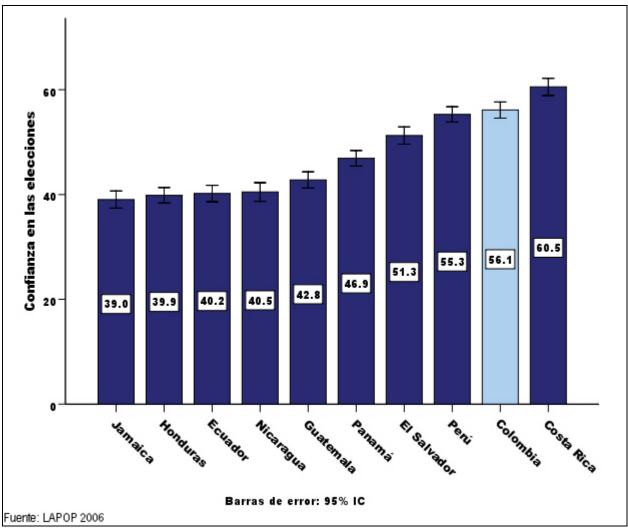


Figure VIII-1. Trust in Elections in Comparative Perspective- 2006



As seen in the earlier chapters, although political parties are the institution that Colombians least trust, their views are not so dramatic when this level is compared to that of the other countries in the region. Figure VIII-2 shows that Colombia is among the countries where there is greater trust in parties.

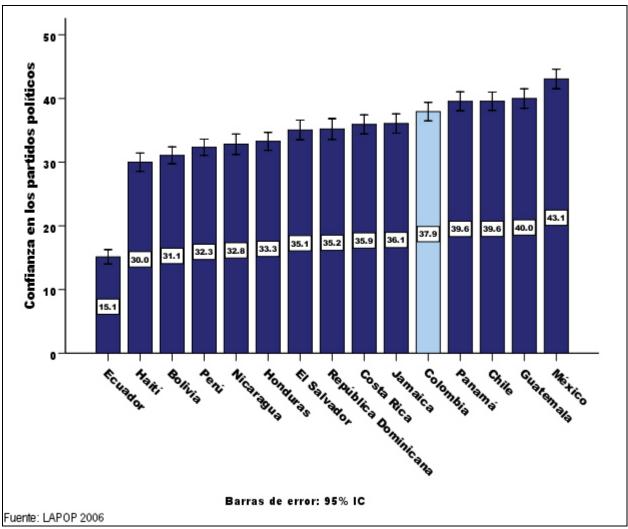


Figure VIII-2. Trust in Political Parties in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Finally, Colombians' trust in their Electoral Court (*Consejo Nacional Electoral*) is close to the average of the other countries, well below Mexico and Costa Rica, although clearly above Ecuador, as we see in Figure VIII-3.

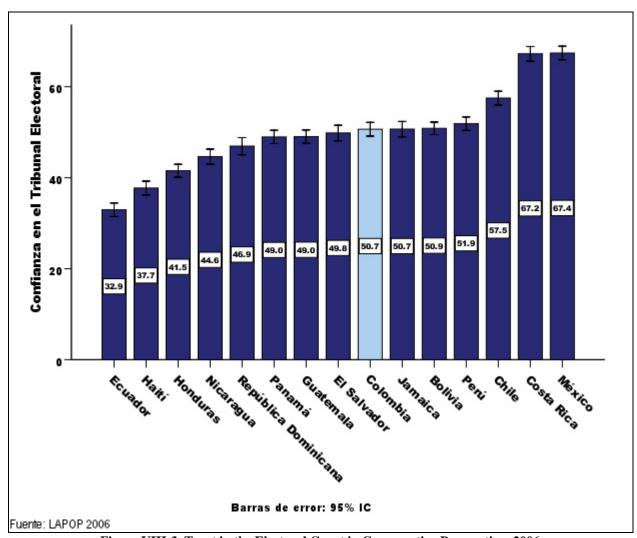


Figure VIII-3. Trust in the Electoral Court in Comparative Perspective- 2006



In fact, as we can appreciate in Figure VIII-4, public trust in electoral institutions has grown significantly in the last two years.

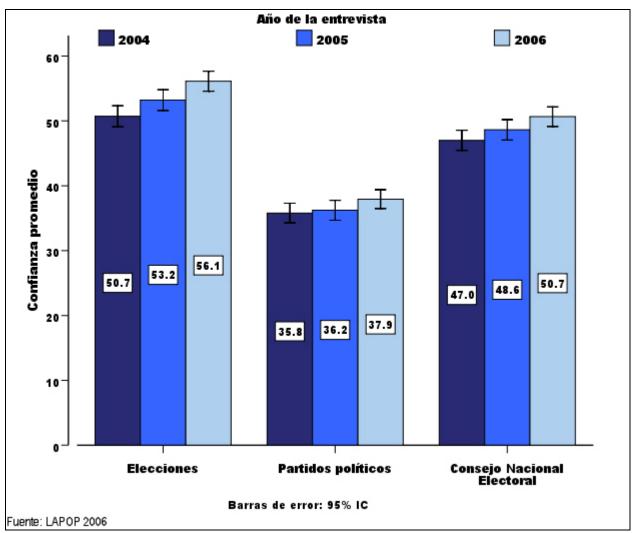


Figure VIII-4. Trust in Electoral Institutions in Colombia - 2004-2006



# **Party Affiliation**

Ninguno......5 NS/NR....8 INAP.....9

We also wanted inquire into the affinity that people have for political parties using the following questions:

VB10. ¿En este momento simpatiza con	algún partido político?
Sí1	
No2	
NS/NR8	
	mpatizante del Partido Conservador, del Polo Democrático, lítico, o se considera usted independiente o sin partido?"
Partido Conservador1	[PASA A POL1]
Polo Democrático2	[PASA A POL1]
Partido Liberal3	[PASA A POL1]
Otro4	[PASA A POL1]
Independiente/sin partido5	[Sigue con COLVB9]
NS/NR	8 [PASA A POL1]
	endiente/sin partido" EN LA PREGUNTA ANTERIOR] los Liberales, hacia los Conservadores o hacia el Polo
Liberales1	
Conservadores2	
Polo Democrático3	
Otro4	



According to the responses to the first of these questions, summarized in Figure VIII-5, just three out of ten Colombians consider themselves supporters of a political party, a comparatively low proportion.

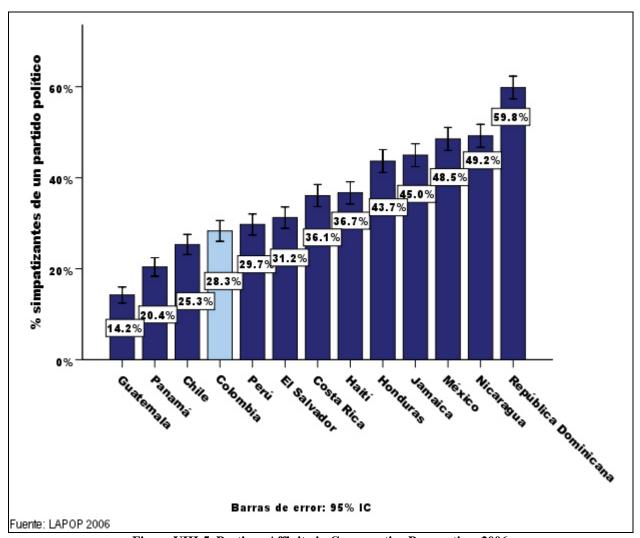


Figure VIII-5. Partisan Affinity in Comparative Perspective- 2006



This proportion appears a little higher when the question mentions specific parties. As we see in Figure VIII-6, however, the two traditional parties (Liberal and Conservative) appear to have lost a considerable portion of their supporters, especially to new parties (included in the "Other" category), between one year and the next, while the leftist party, the Polo Democrático Alternativo, has maintained its levels of support.

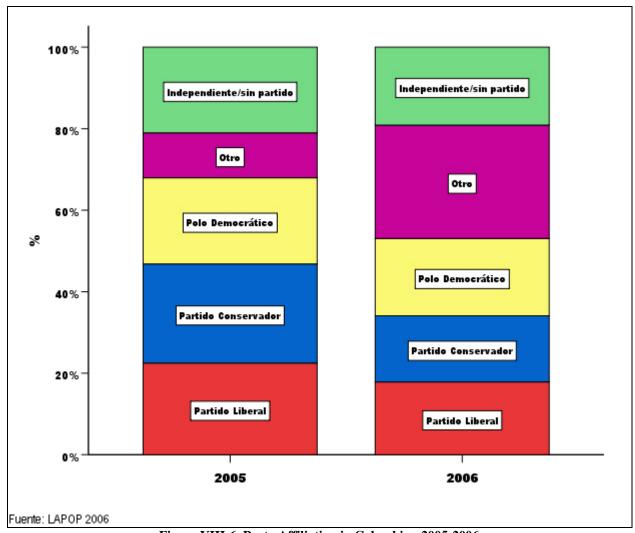


Figure VIII-6. Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2005-2006



This phenomenon is repeated even more sharply among those who initially considered themselves independent or without a party, as Figure VIII-7 shows.

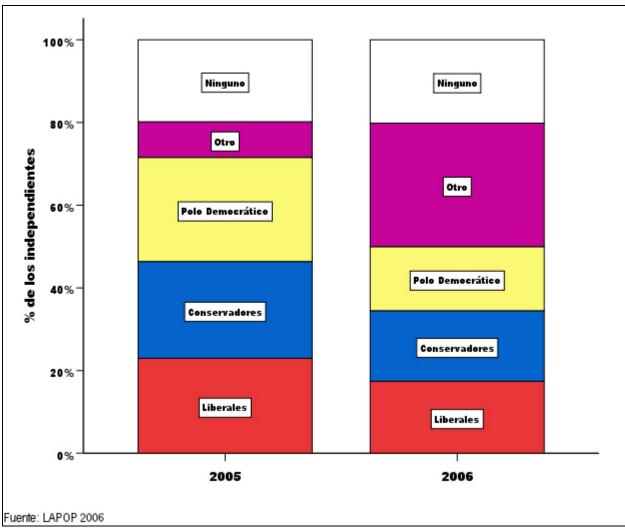


Figure VIII-7. Party Inclination of Independents or People Without a Party in Colombia - 2005-2006



In general terms, Colombians' self-defined ideological position has shifted slightly but significantly to the left, as we see in Figure VIII-8.

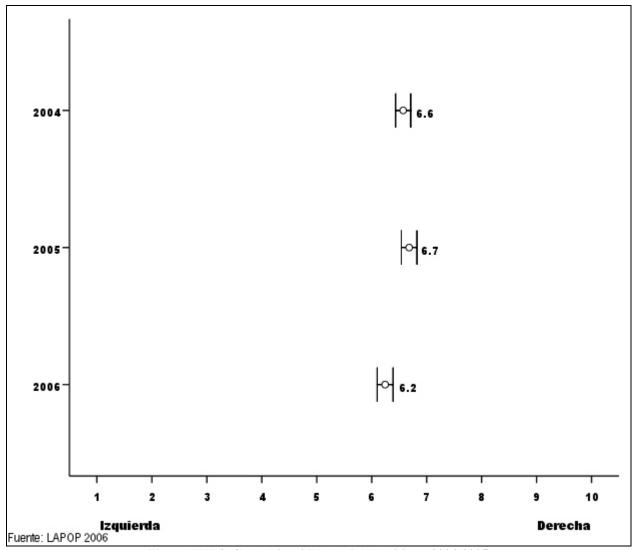


Figure VIII-8. Colombians' Ideological Position - 2004-2005

This slide toward the left is similar among the sympathizers of the different parties, as Figure VIII-9 shows.

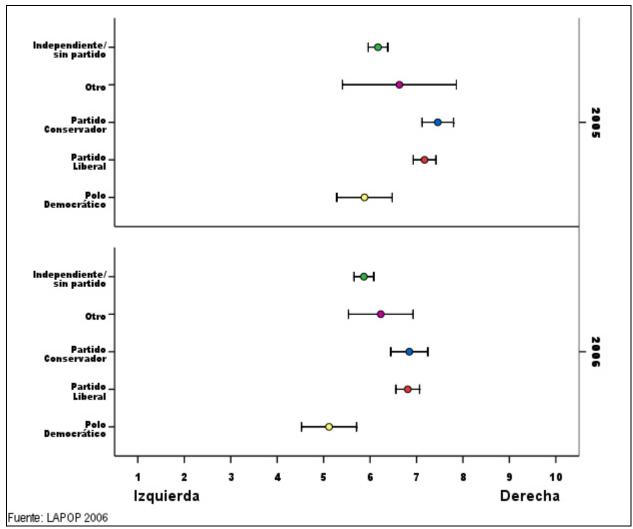


Figure VIII-9. Ideological Position by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2005-2006



To investigate what characterizes people who consider themselves to be supporters of a political party, we constructed a logistic regression model including the following predictors: the usual sociodemographic variables, ideological position, victimization by crime and the conflict, and an indicator of the fear of participating (see Chapter IX). The results of this exercise appear in Table VIII-1 in the annex to this chapter.

In Table VIII-1, we see, on the one hand, that none of the forms of victimization have a significant impact on the probability of being a political-party supporter. Among the significant predictors, the coefficient for the variable that measures age indicates that older people tend to affiliate themselves to a party more frequently than younger people. Figure VIII-10 shows that political-party supporters are significantly older than non-supporters. This tendency could be a concern if it indicates that there will be a lower level of support for parties when younger people take the reins of the system. It could also mean, however, that as younger people get older, the popularity of political parties will increase. To know which is correct, we would need a different sample with a panel design (that is, with successive interviews of the same persons that would be able to show change in an individual over time).

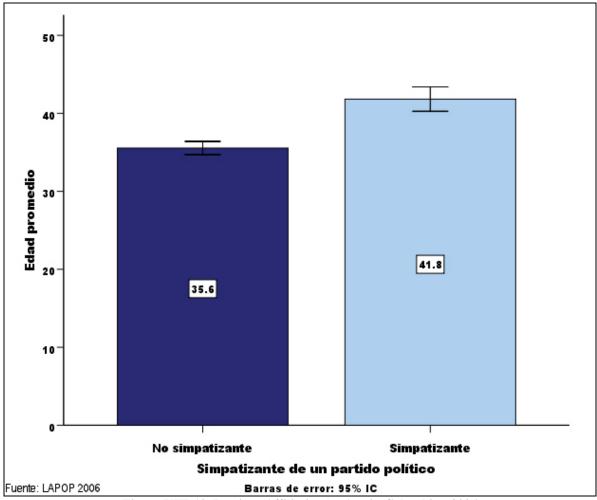


Figure VIII-10. Partisan Affiliation by Age in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, as we see in Figure VIII-11, the level of education also has a positive impact on the probability of supporting a party. These party supporters have, on average, close to one more year of completed education than people who do not support any party. This could be a good sign for the parties in that educational levels have been rising in recent years.

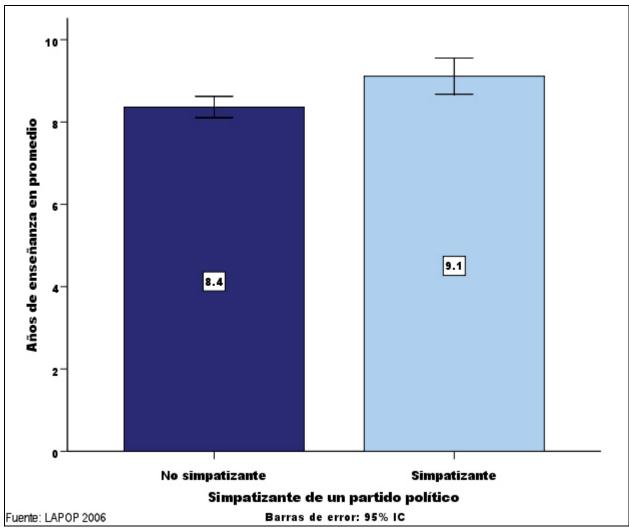


Figure VIII-11. Partisan Affiliation by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



Party supporters also locate themselves a little more to the right than non-supporters, as Figure VIII-12 shows.

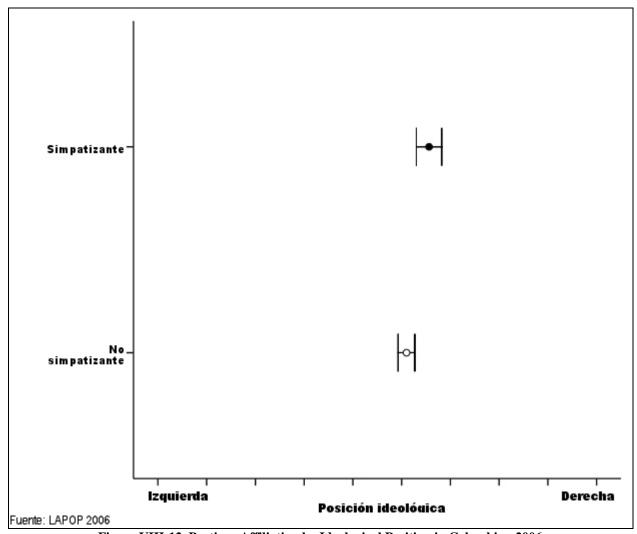


Figure VIII-12. Partisan Affiliation by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006



Finally, as expected, people who express greater fear of participating tend to affiliate themselves to a political party less frequently. As we see in Figure VIII-13, there is a significant difference in the level of fear between supporters and non-supporters.

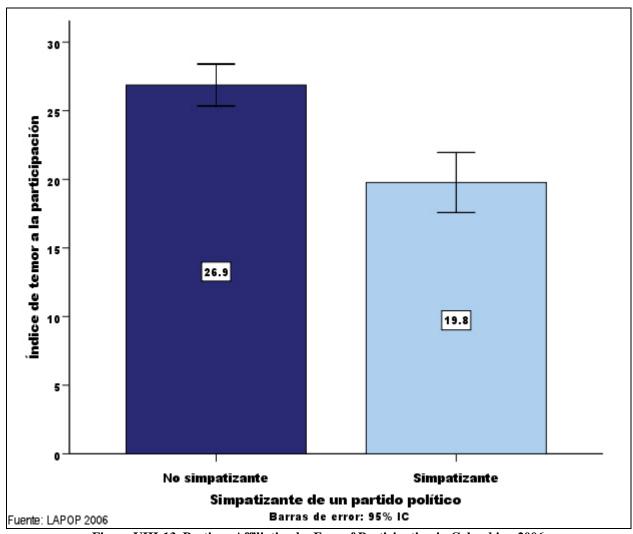


Figure VIII-13. Partisan Affiliation by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006



#### **Political Interest and Activism**

To examine the level of political interest and activism among Colombians, we asked the following questions:

POL1. ¿Qué tanto interés tiene usted en la política: mucho, algo, poco o nada?

Mucho1 Algo2 Poco3 Nada4 NS/NR8  POL2. ¿Con qué frecuencia habla usted de polít	ica con otras p	personas? [L	eer alternativ	/as]	
A diario       1         Algunas veces por semana       2         Algunas veces por mes       3         Rara vez       4         Nunca       5         NS/NR       8					
	Una vez a la semana	Una o dos veces al mes	Una o dos veces al año	Nunca	NS/N R
CP13. ¿De un partido o movimiento político? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
PP1. Ahora para cambiar el temaDurante otro para que vote por algún partido o candid convencer a otros para que vote por un parti Frecuentemente	dato. ¿Con qué	é frecuencia	ha tratado ust		
PP2. Hay personas que trabajan por algún p ¿Trabajó para algún candidato o partido en las p	asadas eleccio	ones preside	enciales de est	te año?	
Sí trabajó(1) No tr	abajó	(2)	NS/NR		(8)



Converted onto a scale of 0 to 100, the answers to the first of these questions, compared to the rest of the countries, shows that Colombians have an intermediate level of general interest in politics, as we see in Figure VIII-14.

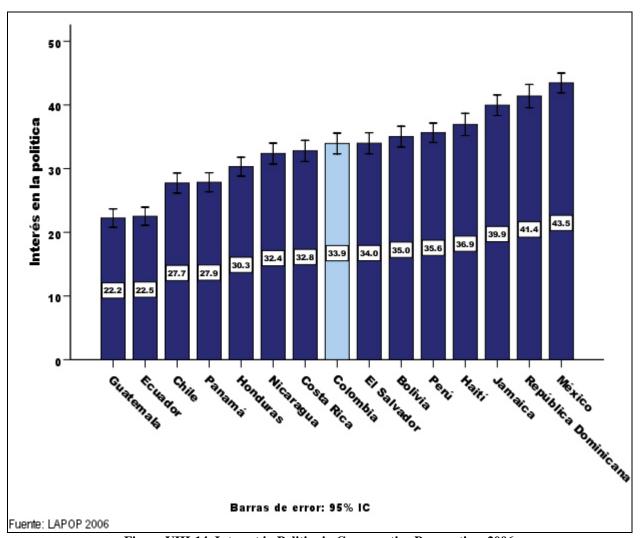


Figure VIII-14. Interest in Politics in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Perhaps contrary to domestic stereotypes, Colombians do not talk much about politics, especially when we compare them with people from the other countries included in the study, as Figure VIII-15 shows.

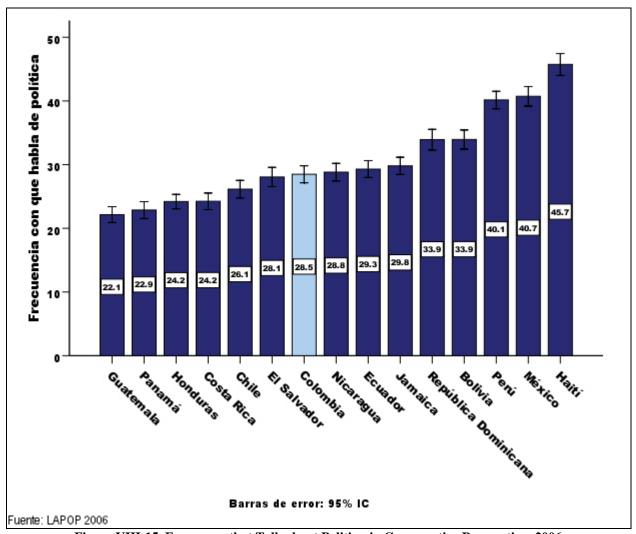


Figure VIII-15. Frequency that Talk about Politics, in Comparative Perspective- 2006



#### [You're missing text here about Figure VIII-16.]

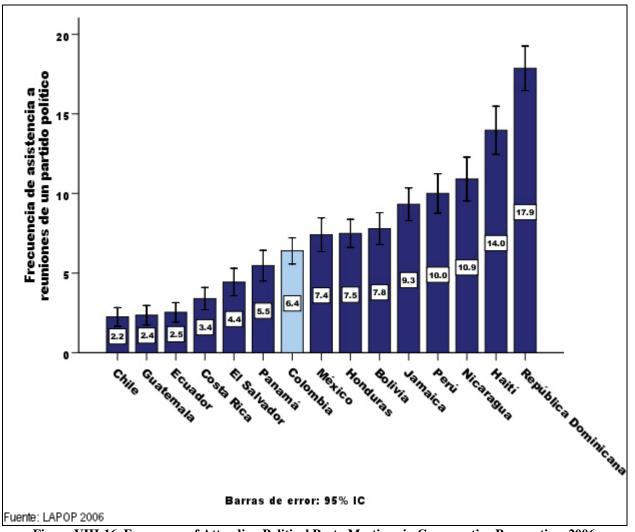


Figure VIII-16. Frequency of Attending Political Party Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Political proselytizing in favor of a candidate, even in an informal manner, is relatively rare in Colombia, judging by what Figure VIII-17 shows.

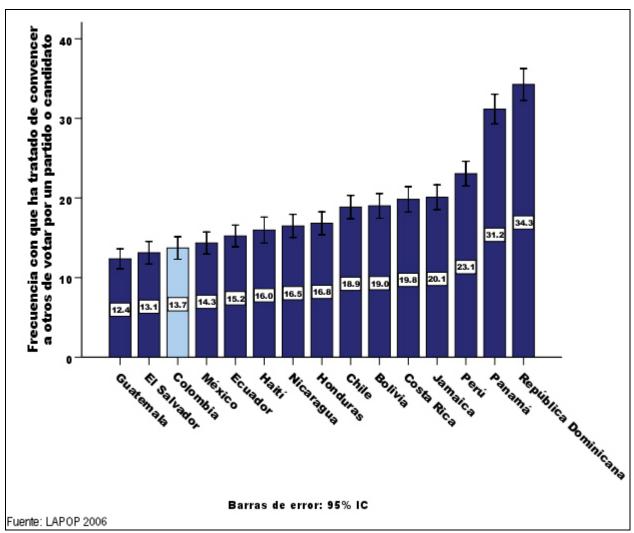


Figure VIII-17. Political 'Proselytism' in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Finally, close to 12% of respondents said that they had worked on the campaign of one of the 2006 presidential candidates, a rather high figure both in absolute and comparative terms, as can be seen in Figure VIII-18.

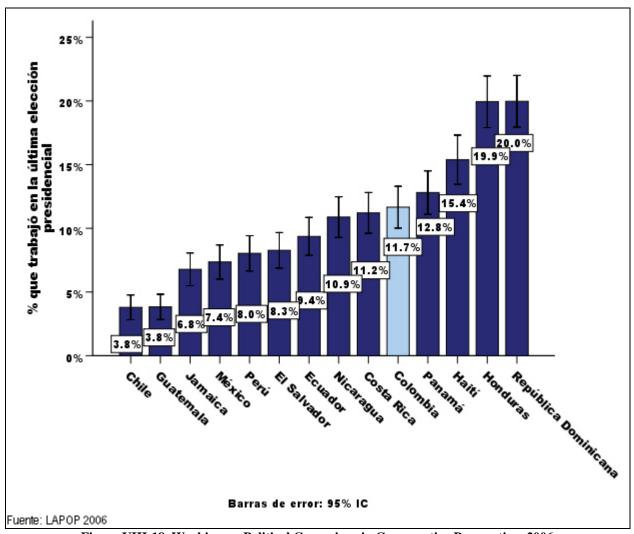


Figure VIII-18. Working on Political Campaigns in Comparative Perspective- 2006



With these five items, it is possible to construct an index of political interest and activism.<sup>5</sup> Figure VIII-19 shows that Colombia's level is slightly below the average of the countries included in this study.

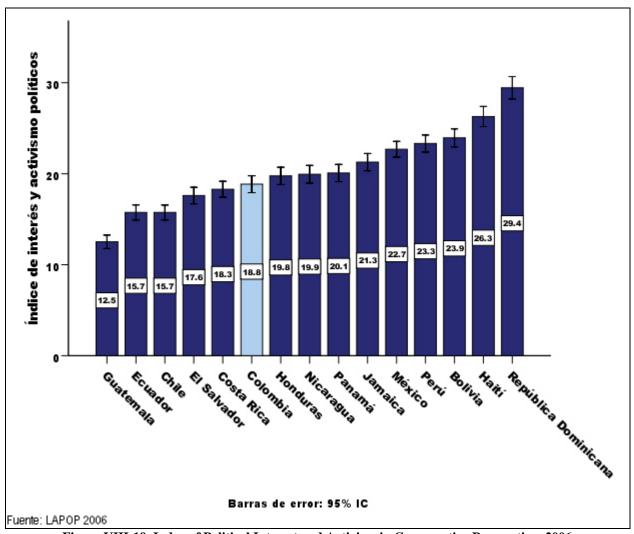


Figure VIII-19. Index of Political Interest and Activism in Comparative Perspective- 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The Cronbach's alpha for this index in Colombia (2006) is .614.



Crossing this index with the party-affiliation data, we see that the newest parties have the most active supporters, while the traditional affiliations, perhaps more a product of long-term ties and historical inheritances, show relatively low levels of interest and activism, as we see in Figure VIII-20.

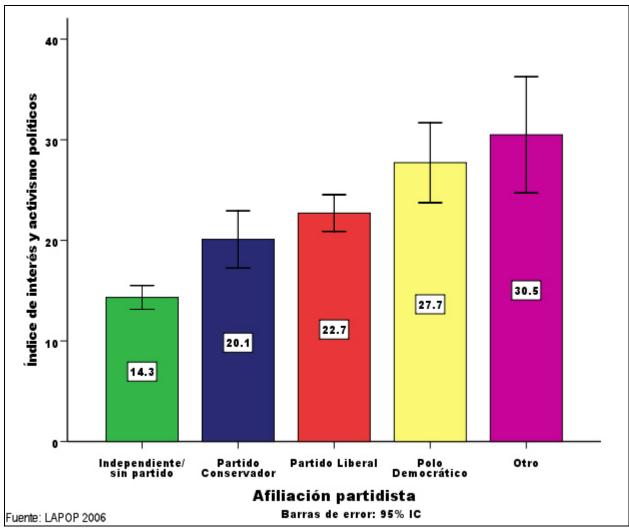


Figure VIII-20. Political Interest and Activism by Party Support in Colombia - 2006



A regression model, with this index of political interest and activism (whose results appear in the annex to this chapter) as the dependent variable, shows that the level of education, partisan affiliation, victimization by the conflict, and fear of participating have a significant impact on political interest and activism.

On the one hand, people with higher levels of education show greater interest and commit themselves more frequently to political and electoral activities, as we see in Figure VIII-21.

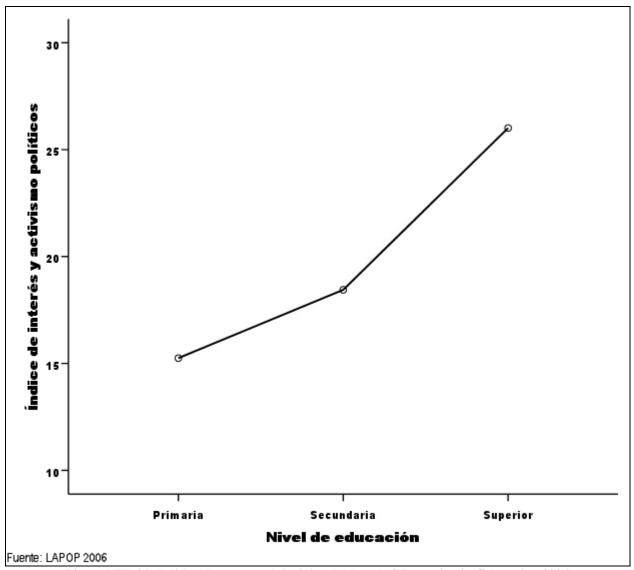


Figure VIII-21. Political Interest and Activism by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



On the other hand, people who consider themselves political-party supporters are naturally more interested in politics, as Figure VIII-22 shows.

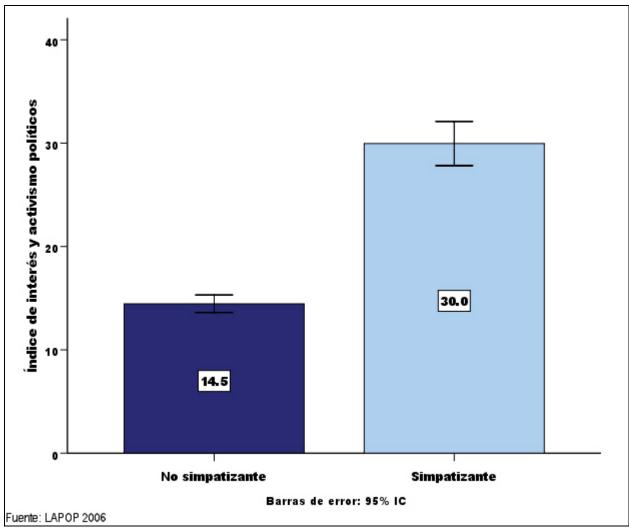


Figure VIII-22. Political Interest and Activism by Partisan Affiliation in Colombia - 2006



It is notable that people who have been victims of the conflict show greater interest in politics than people who have not suffered this problem, as we see in Figure VIII-23.

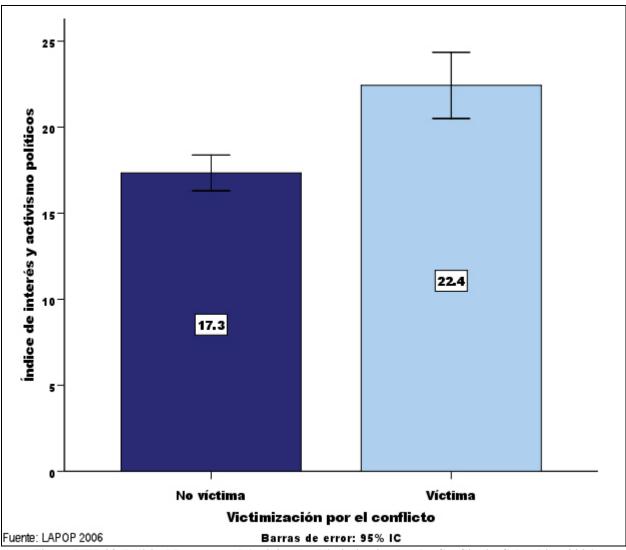


Figure VIII-23. Political Interest and Activism by Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2006



Finally, fear of participating naturally impacts the level of political interest and activism in a negative way. Figure VIII-24 shows this relation.

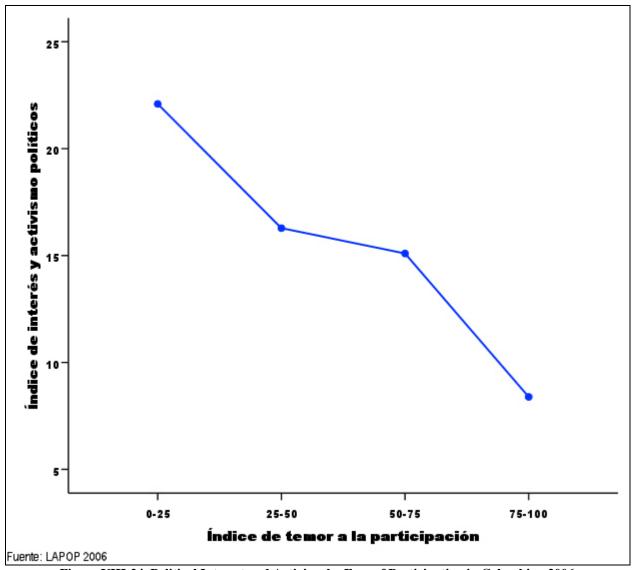


Figure VIII-24. Political Interest and Activism by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006

# **Evaluation of the Current Administration**

To examine people's perceptions and opinions, we asked the following questions:

Ahora, usando la tarjeta A, en esta misma escala, por favor conteste estas preguntas.	Anotar 1- 7,
(seguir con tarjeta A: escala de 1 a 7 puntos)	8 = NS/NR
<u>M1</u> . ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual combate la pobreza?	
N3. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual promueve y protege los principios democráticos?	
N9. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual combate la corrupción en el Gobierno?	
N10 [CON10] ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual protege los derechos humanos?	
COLN11. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual resuelve el conflicto armado?	
COLN12. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual sanea las finanzas estatales?	
N11. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual mejora la seguridad ciudadana?	
N12 [CON14] ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual combate el desempleo?	



With the three first questions, which were asked in all countries, we can construct an administration approval index that we can compare on a continental scale. As we see in Figure VIII-25, President Uribe's administration is one of the best evaluated among the countries included in the study, along with the Dominican and the Bolivian.

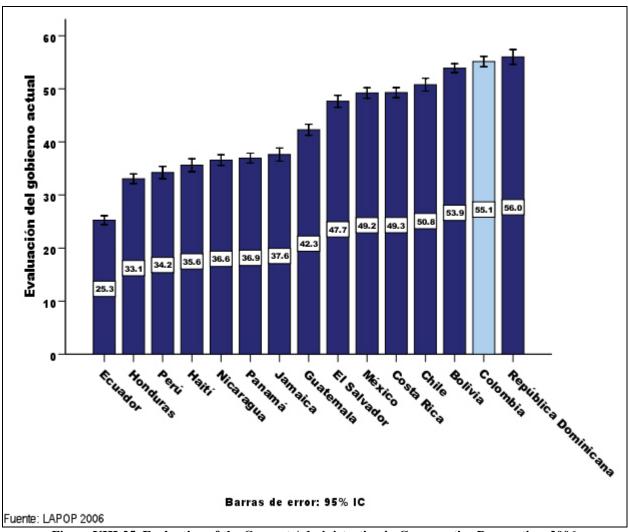


Figure VIII-25. Evaluation of the Current Administration in Comparative Perspective- 2006



A more detailed look at the different aspects evaluated, however, shows that the rating people gave each one fell substantially in the last year, as we see in Figure VIII-26. The way the administration has dealt with unemployment and poverty continue to be its weakest points, while security and the management of the conflict are the aspects of the administration that people most emphasize.

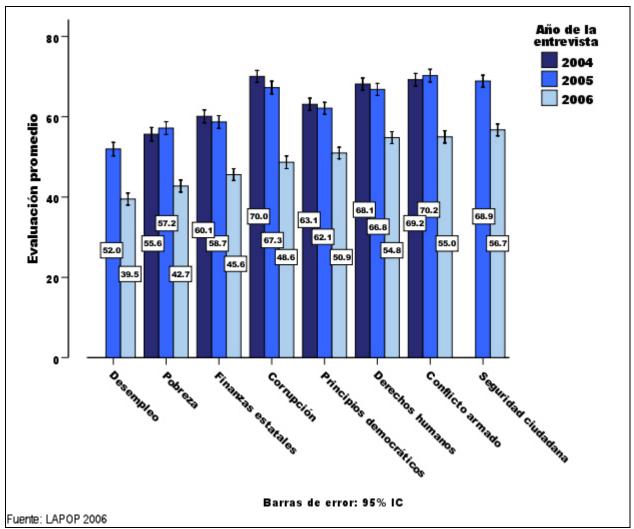


Figure VIII-26. Evaluation of Specific Aspects of the Administration's Performance in Colombia - 2004-2006

Figure VIII-27, in turn, shows that between 2005 and 2006 the most important fall in the way the public rated the administration was in control of corruption, perhaps motivated by important scandals involving high-ranking administration officials. Even on the issue of the conflict, the public's evaluation has fallen more than 20% compared to the previous year.

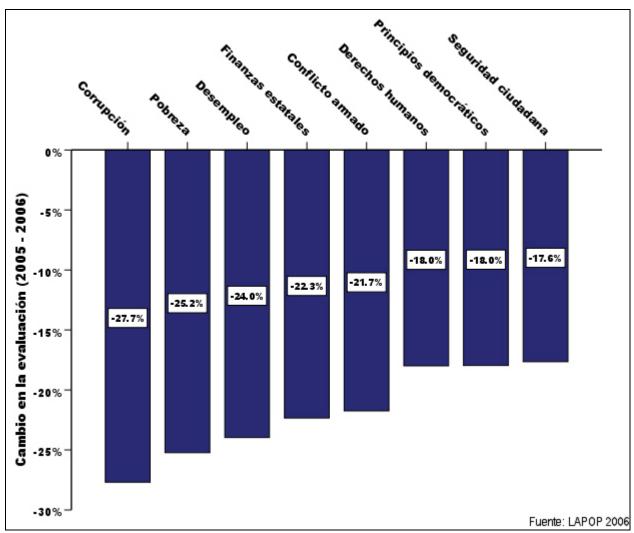


Figure VIII-27. Changes in the Evaluation of Administrative Performance in Colombia - 2005-2006



Taking an average of all eight dimensions shows that, in a general way, the administration's overall rating has fallen significantly, especially in the last year, as we see in Figure VIII-28.

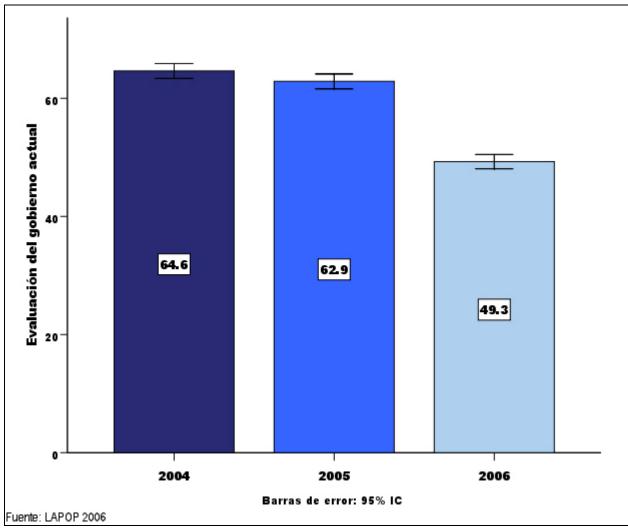


Figure VIII-28. General Evaluation of the Current Administration in Colombia - 2004-2006

As we can see in Figure VIII-29, supporters of the Polo Democrático Alternativo, the leftist party that is part of the opposition to the administration, are the most critical of the job President Uribe has done. In turn, it is the supporters of the "Other" parties (probably the new parties created under the guidance of the president) and the Conservative party, who best evaluate him. It is surprising to find, however, that despite the Liberal party's directives declaring itself in opposition to the administration, its supporters rate the president relatively well, at the same level as Conservatives.

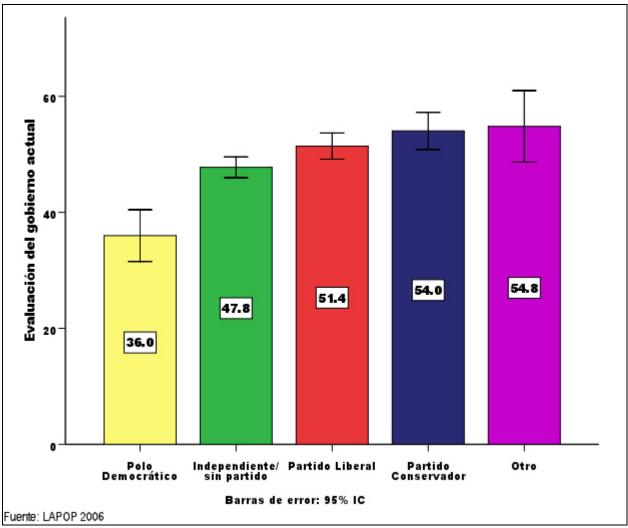


Figure VIII-29. Evaluation of the Current Administration by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006



#### **Electoral Behavior**

As mentioned above, congressional elections were held in March 2006, and a presidential election in May. In October 2003, the last local elections were held. We asked respondents whether they had participated in each one of these three elections. Figure VIII-30 shows the levels of participation reported by respondents.<sup>6</sup>

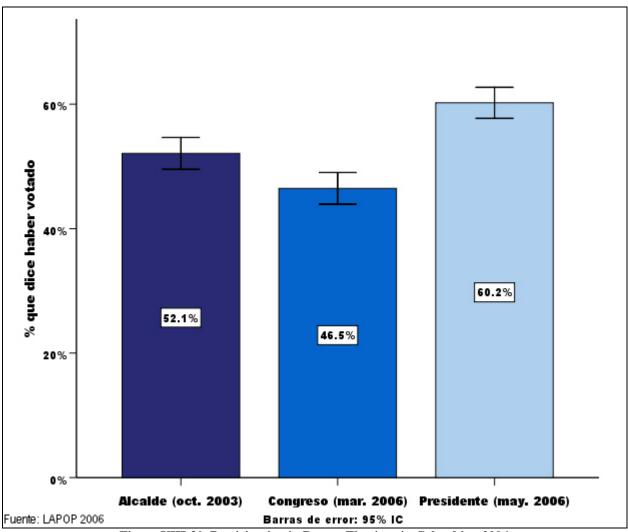


Figure VIII-30. Participation in Recent Elections in Colombia - 2006

As is common, participation figures are higher in this report than from official sources. For example, according to the data published (Nov., 21, 2006) by the Registraduría Nacional del Estado Civil (www.registraduria.gov.co), the turnout in the presidential election was 45%, while for Congress it was 41%. Besides the fact that the electoral census includes people living outside the country and people living in institutional housing – people who were not included in this study's sampling framework – this is a common phenomenon because, as people try to make a good impression and consider that voting in a presidential election is a civic act, surveys under-report abstention rates.



247

Figure VIII-31 shows the level of participation in the last Colombian presidential election compared to the other countries. In the figure, the countries where, according to the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, or IDEA (http://www.idea.int/vt/compulsory\_voting.cfm#compulsory), voting is obligatory, and non-voting carries sanctions, are marked with an asterisk.

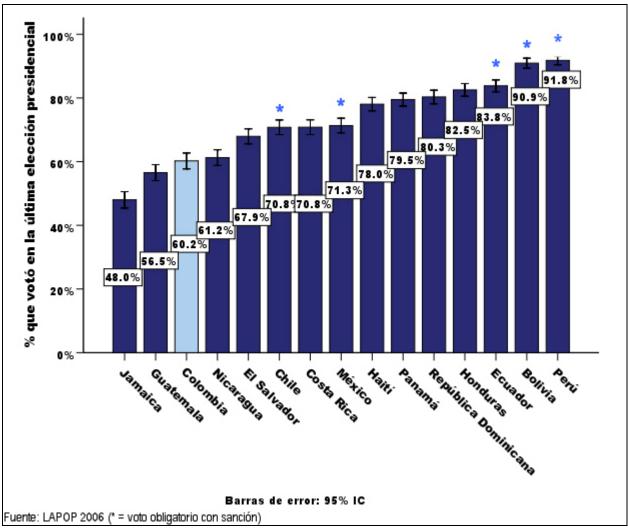


Figure VIII-31. Participation in the Last Presidential Election in Comparative Perspective- 2006



In order to investigate the characteristics of the people who participate in elections, we used a logistic regression model, including the following as predictors: (a) sociodemographic variables; (b) ideological position; (c) evaluation of the current administration; (d) partisan affiliation; (e) victimization by corruption, crime, and the conflict; (f) conception of democracy (normative or not); and (g) exposure to news on the radio, television, in the press, and on the internet. The results of this model appear in Table VIII-3 in the annex at the end of this chapter.

In the first place, older people tend to vote more than younger people, as Figure VIII-32 shows.

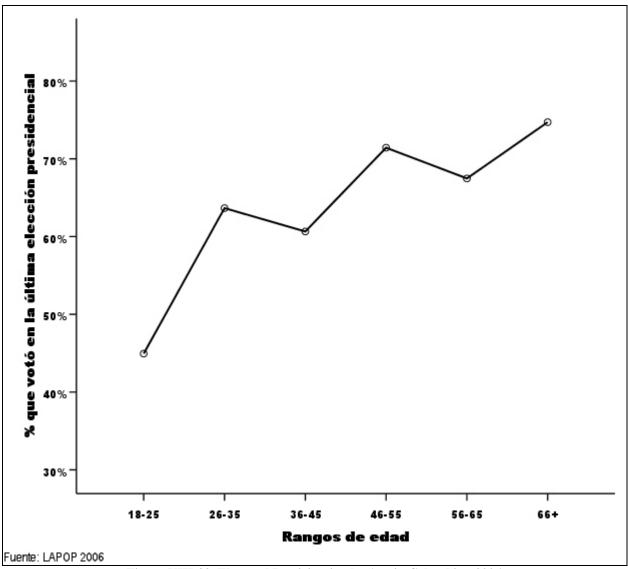


Figure VIII-32. Electoral Participation by Age in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, more educated people are more likely to participate in elections, as we see in Figure VIII-33. This phenomenon is common around the world, and is one of democracy's problems in that better educated people have more influence on the government because they participate more than people with less education, who also tend to be the poorest.

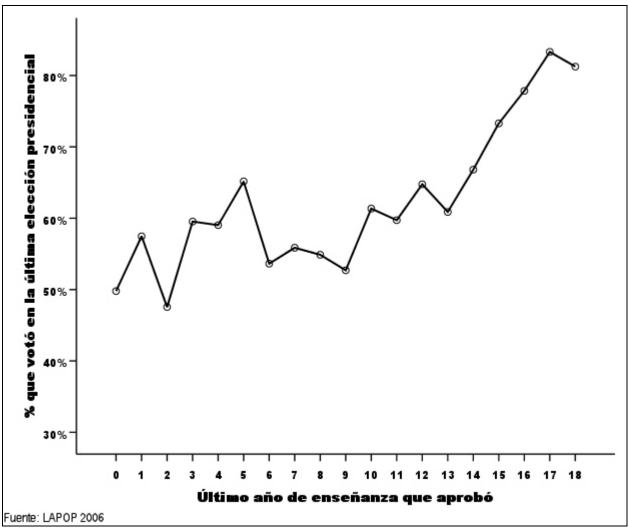


Figure VIII-33. Electoral Participation by Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



People who live in urban areas vote significantly less than residents of the Colombian countryside, as we see in Figure VIII-34.

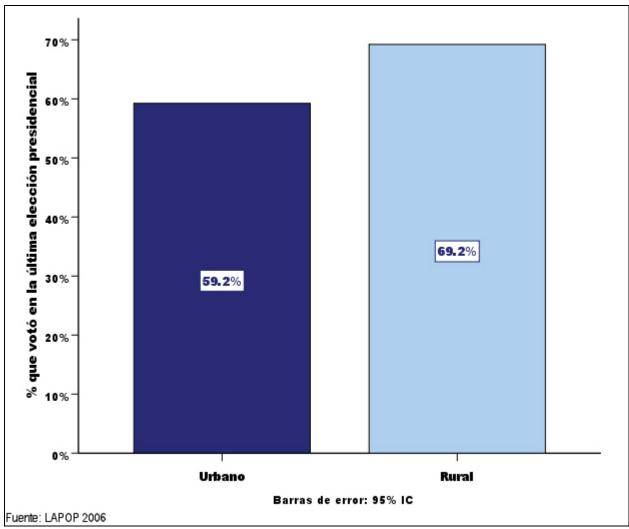


Figure VIII-34. Electoral Participation by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006



Similarly, people who are married or living with a partner also vote more frequently than people with a different civil status (single people more than anything), as can be seen in Figure VIII-35.

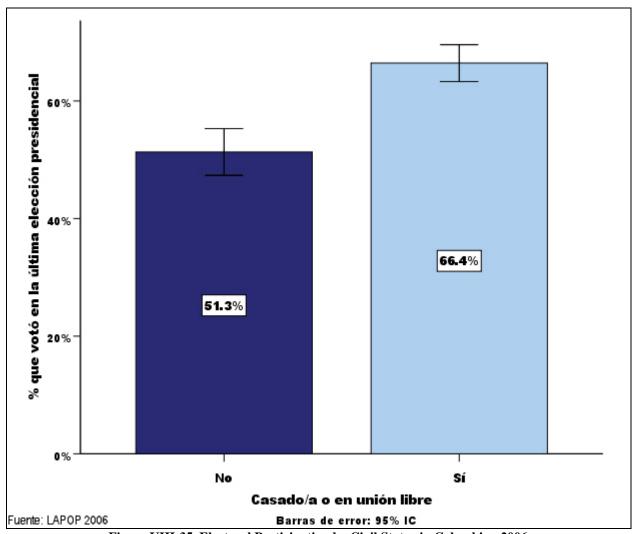


Figure VIII-35. Electoral Participation by Civil Status in Colombia - 2006



As is perhaps natural, given that President Uribe ran for reelection, the level of approval of the president's job has a positive impact on the probability of voting in the last presidential election, as we see in Figure VIII-36.

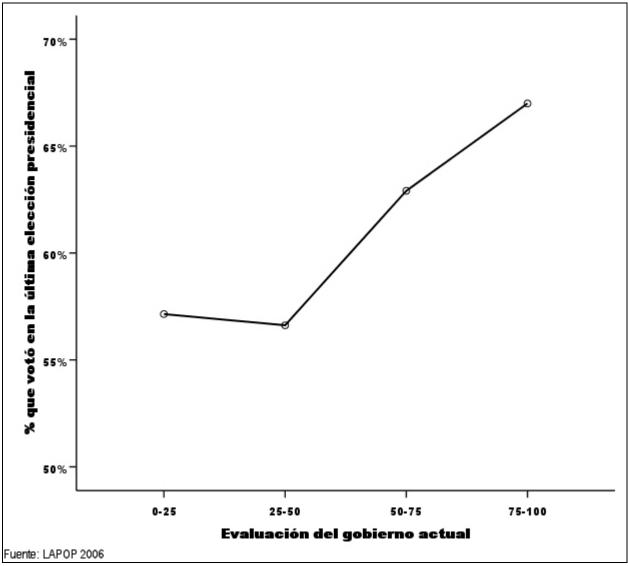


Figure VIII-36. Electoral Participation by Evaluation of the Current Administration in Colombia - 2006



Figure VIII-37 shows that people who consider themselves supporters of a political party also tend to vote with greater frequency.

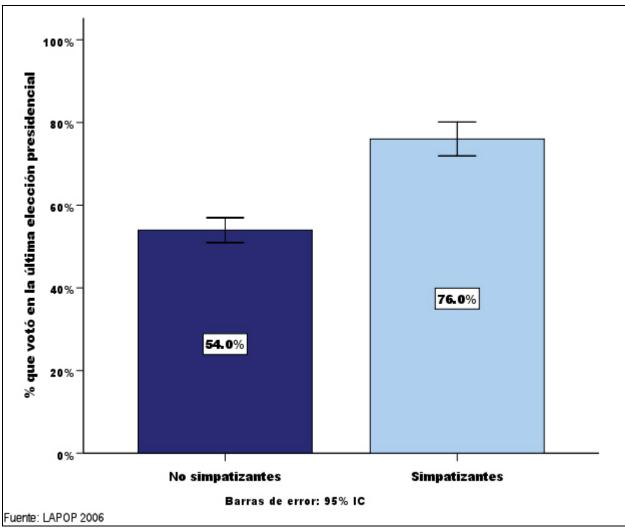


Figure VIII-37. Electoral Participation by Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006



In turn, Figure VIII-38 shows that people who have a normative conception of democracy were more likely to participate in the presidential election.

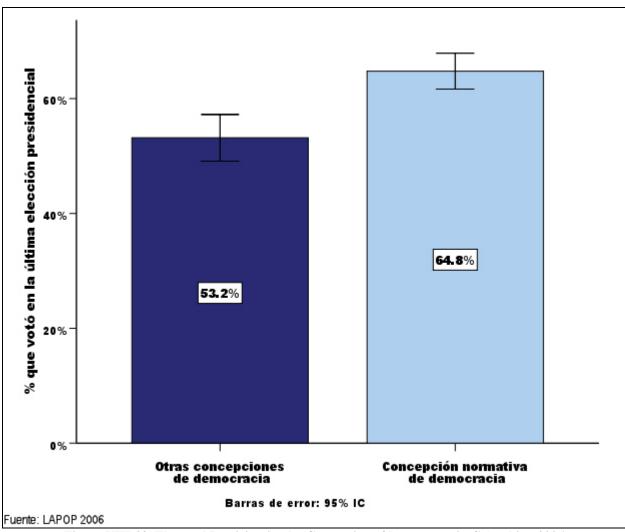


Figure VIII-38. Electoral Participation by Conception of Democracy in Colombia - 2006



Finally, exposure to television news has a positive impact on the probability of voting in the presidential election, as Figure VIII-39 shows.

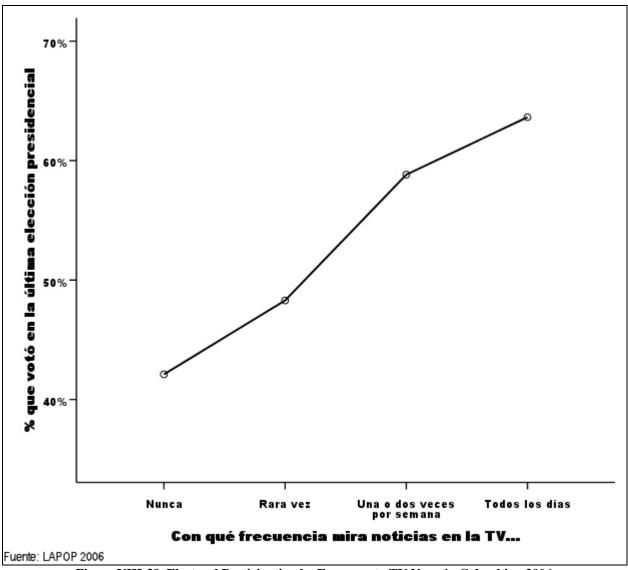


Figure VIII-39. Electoral Participation by Exposure to TV News in Colombia - 2006



### Annex

Table VIII-1. Predictors of Party Affiliation in Colombia - 2006

	В	E.S.	z	Sig.	
Male	.158	.144	1.09	.274	
Age	.046	.006	7.45	.000	***
Education	.067	.020	3.30	.001	**
Wealth	.003	.052	.05	.957	
Urban residence	029	.195	15	.880	
Married of living with partner	.008	.152	.05	.957	
Number of children	060	.044	-1.37	.171	
Ideological position	.071	.029	2.44	.015	*
Victim of crime	.119	.204	.58	.559	
Victim of the conflict	.275	.150	1.17	.243	
Fear of participating	013	.003	-3.78	.000	***
Constant	-3.299	.405	-8.14	.000	
N	1076				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.083				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05

Table VIII-2. Predictors of Political Interest and Activism in Colombia - 2006

Predictors	В	E. S.	t	Sig.	
(Constant)	6.860	2.900	2.37	.018	
Male	1.839	1.077	1.71	.088	
Age	.028	.045	.61	.539	
Education	.586	.154	3.8	.000	***
Wealth	.467	.387	1.21	.228	
Urban residence	026	1.428	0.02	.986	
Married of living with partner	.093	1.117	.08	.934	
Number of children	045	.229	20	.844	
Ideological position	.207	.213	.97	.331	
Party affiliation	13.975	1.177	11.87	.000	***
Victim of crime	2.834	1.561	.182	.070	
Victim of the conflict	4.926	1.130	4.36	.000	***
Fear of participating	089	.023	-3.80	.000	***
N <sub>o</sub>	1076				
R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.20				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

Table VIII-3. Predictors of Electoral Participation in Colombia - 2006

	В	E.S.	Z	Sig.	
Male	146	.134	-1.08	.279	
Age	.027	.006	4.39	.000	***
Education	.056	.023	2.49	.013	*
Wealth	.072	.051	1.42	.155	
Urban residence	487	.182	-2.67	.008	**
Married of living with partner	.573	.142	4.03	.000	***
Number of children	.034	.038	.88	.377	
Ideological position	.031	.027	1.15	.252	
Evaluation of administration	.007	.003	2.33	.020	*
Party affiliation	.668	.155	4.30	.000	
Victim of corruption	186	.217	86	.392	
Victim of crime	.136	.198	.69	.492	
Victim of the conflict	061	.143	43	.669	
Normative conception	.353	.150	2.36	.018	*
News from the radio	001	.002	61	.543	
News from the TV	.008	.003	3.07	.002	**
News from the press	000	.003	00	.998	
News from the internet	.004	.003	1.23	.218	
Constant	-2.775	.428	-6.49	.000	
N	1133				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.10				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

### References

Rodríguez-Raga, Juan Carlos and Felipe Botero. 2006. "Ordenando el caos. Elecciones legislativas y reforma electoral en Colombia". *Revista Ciencia Política. Universidad Católica. Chile* 26(1): 138-151.

Hoskin, Gary and Miguel García Sánchez (eds.). 2006. *La reforma política de 2003. ¿La salvación de los partidos políticos colombianos?* Bogotá: Uniandes – Ceso



## **IX. Civil Society Participation**

Now we turn to a very important topic: the participation of civil society. Academics have taken up this topic especially since Robert Putnam published *Making Democracy Work* in 1993, in which he analyzed the efficiency of democracy in Italy as a function of regional variations of civil society participation. Putnam and other authors have argued that the key to building democracy is the development of "social capital." Countries with high levels of social capital are those in which people trust each other and the government. Basically, this trust emerges from their participation in civil society organizations. Putnam and other researchers believe that the process of building social capital is long but that it cannot prosper without an active civil society.

Not all political scientists agree with Putnam that civil society plays a crucial role in a democracy. Some academics, guided by the recent work of Ariel Armory, have started to worry (and wonder) about "negative social capital." Their concern is that many authoritarian movements, such as those of Mussolini and Hitler, counted on extensive support from civil society. Also in Latin America, populist movements, such as that of Perón in Argentina and Vargas in Brazil, cultivated the participation of civil society.

This chapter starts by examining the levels and forms of people's participation in the solution of community problems. Next, we analyze different forms of participation in civil society organizations. The last two sections address respondents' participation in peaceful demonstrations, on the one hand, and their fear of participating, on the other.

# Participation in Solving Community Problems

To investigate who has helped solve community problems, the questionnaire asked the following question:

Ahora le voy a hacer algunas preguntas sobre su comunidad y los problemas que afronta...

**CP5**. ¿En el último año usted ha contribuido o ha tratado de contribuir para la solución de algún problema de su comunidad o de los vecinos de su barrio?

Sí......1 [Seguir con CP5A]
No.....2 [Pasar a COLEMP]
NS/NR.....8 [Pasar a COLEMP]

As we see in Figure IX-1, one out of three Colombians say they contributed to solving some problem in their community in the last year, a percentage that places the country near the average of the countries included in the study.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Armony, Ariel. *The Dubious Link: Civic Engagement and Democratization*. Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 2004.



261

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Putnam, Robert D. *Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1993.

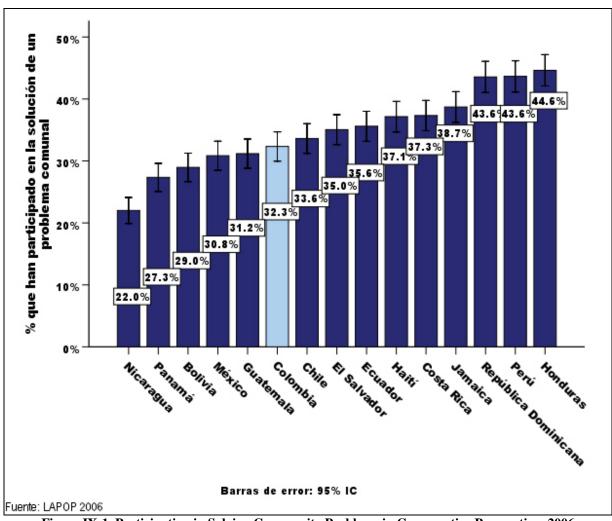


Figure IX-1. Participation in Solving Community Problems in Comparative Perspective- 2006



This level of participation has not varied significantly during the last three years, as can be appreciated in Figure IX-2.

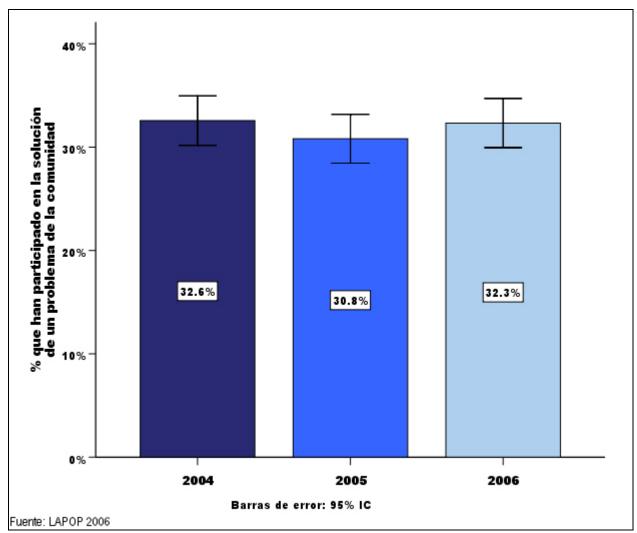


Figure IX-2. Participation in Solving Community Problems in Colombia - 2004-2006

We also wanted to examine how people choose to solve problems in their community. To do this, we formulated the following questions for those people who answered the previous question affirmatively.

	Sí	No	NS/NR
<b>CP5A</b> . ¿Ha donado Dinero o materiales para ayudar a solucionar algún problema de la comunidad o de su barrio?	1	2	8
CP5B. ¿Ha contribuido con su propio trabajo o mano de obra?	1	2	8
CP5C. ¿Ha estado asistiendo a reuniones comunitarias sobre algún problema o sobre alguna mejora?	1	2	8
CP5D. ¿Ha tratado de ayudar a organizar algún grupo nuevo para resolver algún problema del barrio, o para buscar alguna mejora?	1	2	8



Figure IX-3 summarizes the responses to these questions. The majority of people who contribute do so with their own labor. The least frequent way to contribute is to organize groups to work towards the solution of problems, which reflects the inherent difficulties of collective action.

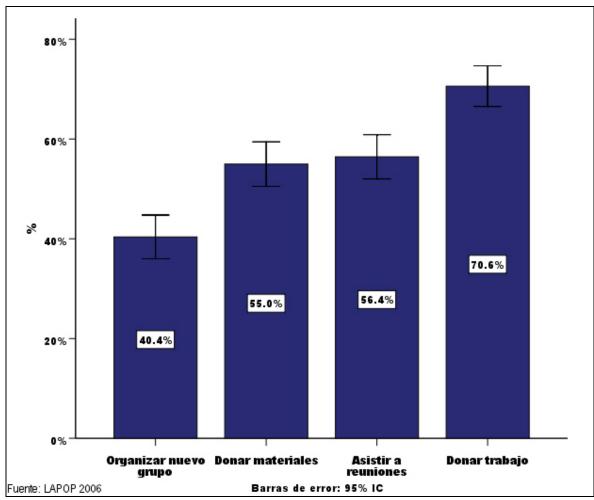


Figure IX-3. Forms of Participation in Solving Community Problems in Colombia – 2006

What characterizes people who contribute to solving problems in the community? To answer this question, we created a logistic regression model using whether or not the respondent said they had contributed during the last year as the dependent variable, and the usual sociodemographic variables, as well as ideological position, and fear of participating (which we will analyze later in this chapter) as the predictors. The results of this exercise appear in Table IX-2 in the annex at the end of this chapter.



Among the sociodemographic variables, the predictors that turned out to be significant of this type of participation are age (older people participate more) and level of education (more educated people participate more), as we see in Figure IX-4.

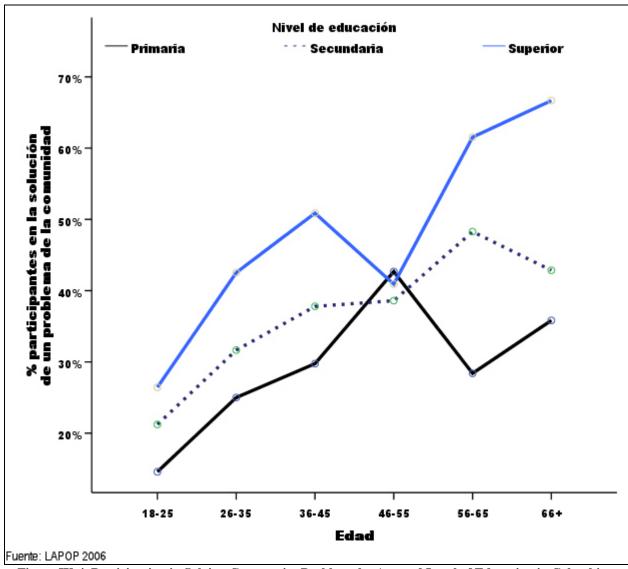


Figure IX-4. Participation in Solving Community Problems by Age and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006

Likewise, when we control for the other factors, the model indicates that residents of rural areas tend to contribute more frequently to solving community problems, as can be seen in Figure IX-5.

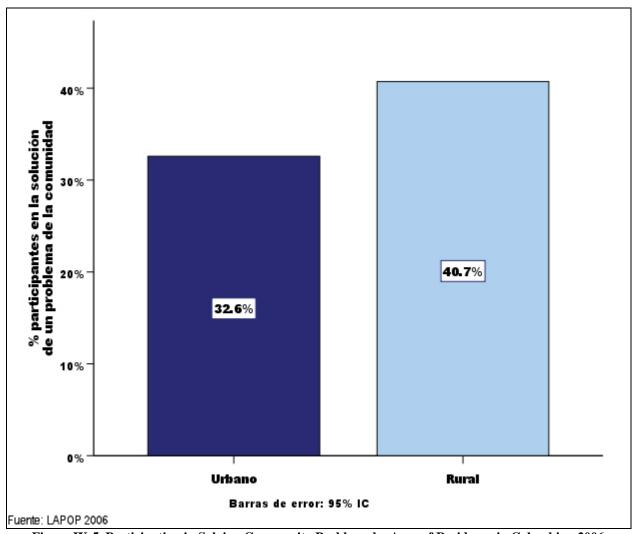


Figure IX-5. Participation in Solving Community Problems by Area of Residence in Colombia - 2006

Finally, Figure IX-6 shows that people who are fearful of participating, as expected, participate less. Fear is a factor that restricts civil society life in Colombia in ways that do not occur in other countries where there is much less civil conflict.

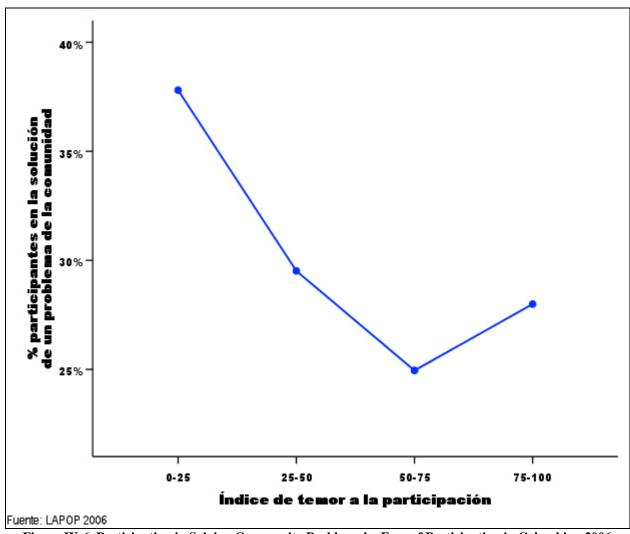


Figure IX-6. Participation in Solving Community Problems by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006



# Participation in Civil Society Associations and Organizations

To find out how often respondents attend the meetings of different groups, the study included the following battery of questions.

	Una vez a la semana	Una o dos veces al mes	Una o dos veces al año	Nunca	NS/N R
<b>CP6</b> . ¿Reuniones de alguna organización religiosa? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
<b>CP7</b> . ¿Reuniones de una asociación de padres de familia de la escuela o colegio? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
CP8. ¿Un comité o junta de mejoras para la comunidad? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
COLCP8A.; Reuniones de la Junta de Acción Comunal? ; Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
<b>CP9</b> . ¿De una asociación de profesionales, comerciantes o productores y/o organizaciones campesinas? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
CP10. ¿De un sindicato? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
CP11. ¿De una cooperativa? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
COLCP14. ¿Reuniones de grupos de mujeres? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8
CP13. ¿De un partido o movimiento político? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8

The responses to each of these questions were recoded onto a 0 to 100-point scale.



Figure IX-7 shows that Colombians attend religious meetings with an average frequency compared to the other countries of the sample. People from countries such as Peru, Chile, El Salvador, and Panama attend significantly less often, while people from the other countries, except Costa Rica, have much higher participation levels in these types of meetings.

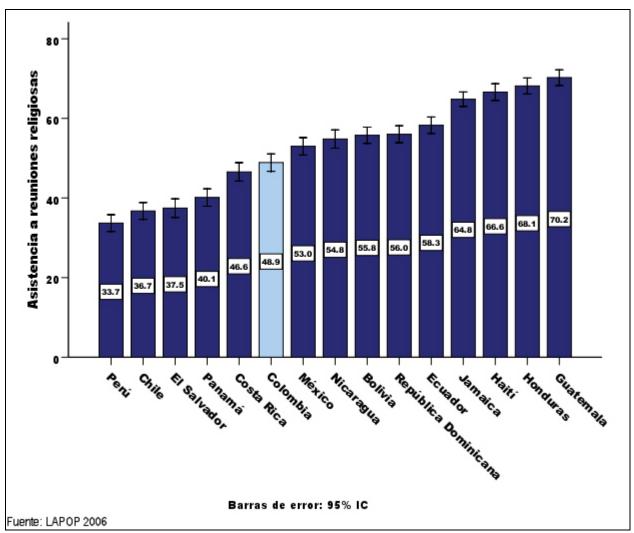


Figure IX-7. Attendance at Religions Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Figure IX-8, in turn, shows that Colombians infrequently attend parent-teacher association meetings compared to the other countries. Only in Costa Rica is there less attendance.

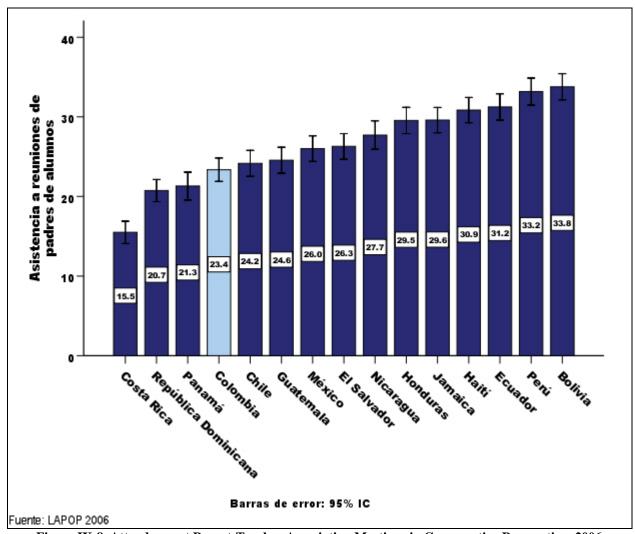


Figure IX-8. Attendance at Parent-Teacher Association Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006



The same thing happens in community-improvement committee meetings, as we can see in Figure IX-9.

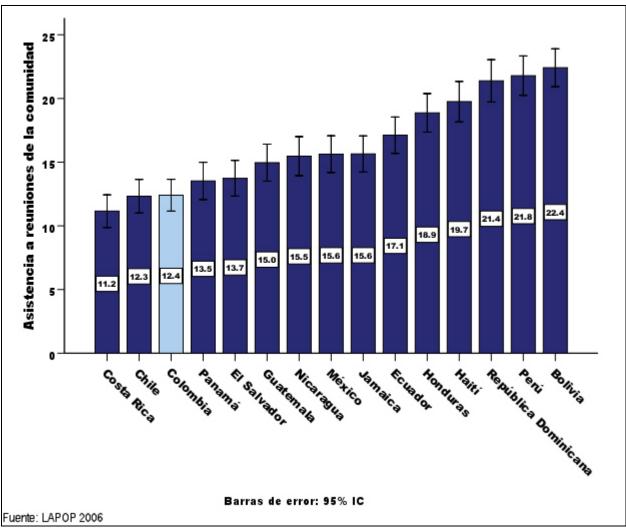


Figure IX-9. Attendance at Community-Improvement Committee Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006

Likewise, Colombia is in the group of countries with the lowest levels of participation in professional, merchant, or producer association meetings, as Figure IX-10 shows.

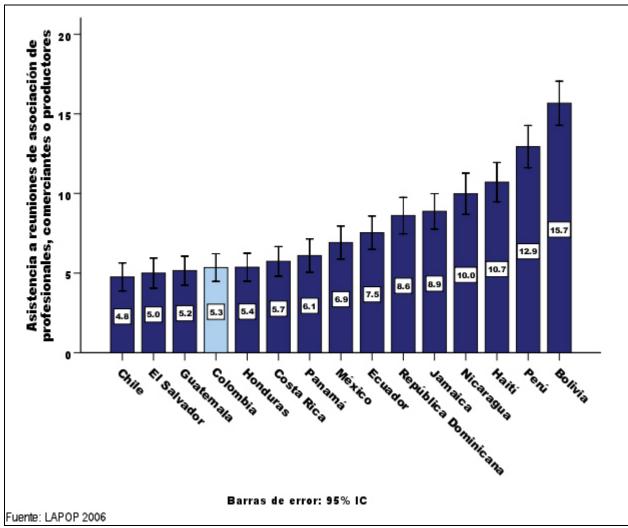


Figure IX-10. Attendance at Professional, Merchant, or Producer Association Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006



We see the same pattern (Figure IX-11) in terms of trade union meetings, which constitute another indicator of the country's comparatively low levels of unionization.

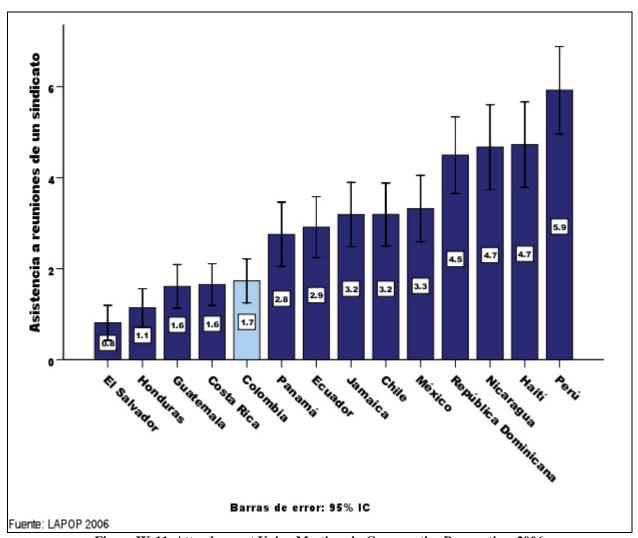


Figure IX-11. Attendance at Union Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Colombia finds itself closer to the average of the countries in terms of attendance at political party meetings, as we can see in Figure IX-12. We analyzed party-related issues in detail, however, in an earlier chapter.

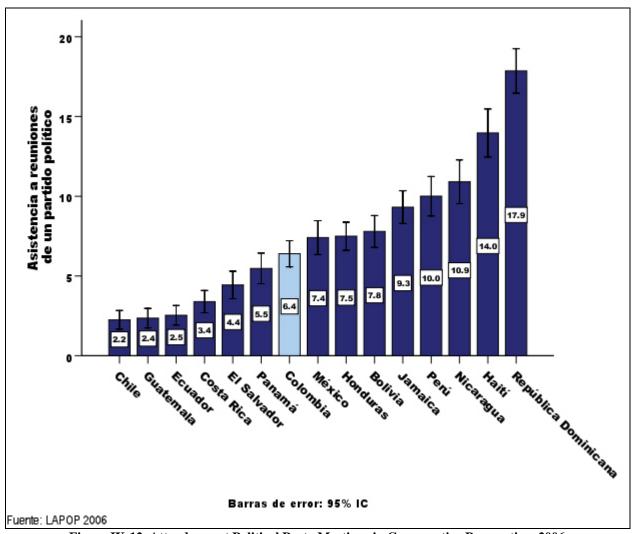


Figure IX-12. Attendance at Political Party Meetings in Comparative Perspective- 2006



The other forms of participation mentioned were not included in the questionnaires of the other countries, so it is not possible to make comparisons with them. However, we can compare the 2006 levels with those obtained in the two previous years in which the study was conducted in Colombia. Figure IX-13 shows the variations over time of these forms of participation. Since last year, we see a significant reduction in attendance at professional, merchant, or producer association meetings, as well as those of community-improvement committees. Additionally, there has been a significant increase in religious meeting attendance since 2005. The figure also shows that the most infrequent form of participation in the country is in trade unions, followed by cooperatives, professional associations, political parties, and women's groups. Religious meetings continue to be the most frequently attended.

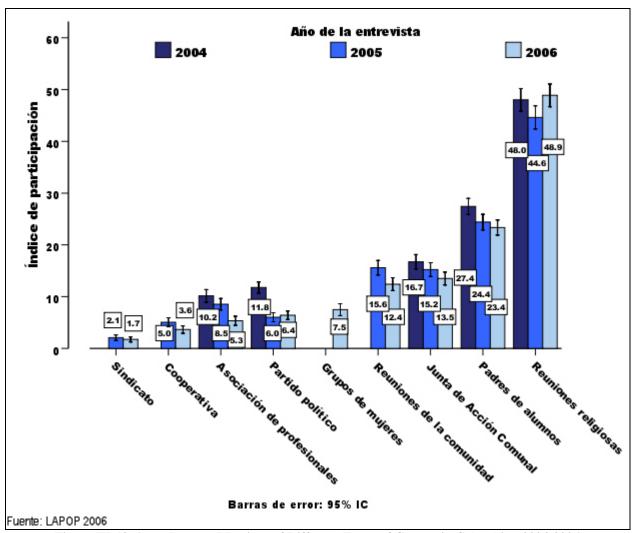


Figure IX-13. Attendance at Meetings of Different Types of Groups in Colombia - 2004-2006



What can we learn about the characteristics of people who participate in these different types of groups? Table IX-1 shows the results of the multiple regression models for each one of the mentioned-forms of participation, using the sociodemographic variables, ideological position, and fear of participating as the predictors. In the table, we only note those predictors that have a significant impact on the frequency of attending one of the different types of meetings, associations, and organizations, as well as whether the direction of the impact either is positive or negative.

According to the results of this exercise, we can conclude that men participate more than women in cooperative and political party meetings, while women attend religious, parent-teacher association, and women's group meetings more frequently.

Table IX-1. Predictors of the Different Forms of Participation in Colombia - 2006

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Male	-	-					+	-	+
Age	+	-	+			+			+
Education	+		+		+	+	+		+
Wealth									
Urban residence Married or living with partner		+	-	-	-				
Number of children		+			+				
Ideological position	+					-			
Fear of participating			-	-				-	-
Religious meetings Parent-teacher	1								
associations	2								
Community-improvement committees	3								
Junta de Acción Comunal	4								
Professional associations	5								
Trade union	6								
Cooperative	7								
Women's group	8								
Political parties	9								



Likewise, older people attend religious, community-improvement committee, trade union, and political party meetings more frequently, while people who attend parent-teacher association meetings are comparatively younger.

The level of education has a positive impact on attendance at religious, community-improvement committee, professional association, trade union, cooperative, and political party meetings.

Residents of rural areas participate more frequently in community-improvement committee, *Juntas de Acción Comunal*, and professional, merchant or producer association meetings.

Naturally, married people with children attend parent-teacher association meetings more frequently. This last factor also has a positive impact on attendance at professional, merchant, and producer association meetings.

There is an ideological component in certain forms of participation. People who say they are on the right tend to attend religious meetings more frequently, while people who locate themselves on the left participate more in trade union meetings.

Finally, fear of participating is a dissuasive factor for attending community-improvement committee, *Juntas de Acción Comunal*, women's group, and political party meetings, although surprisingly it is not related to participation in trade unions.

#### Participation in Demonstrations or Protests

Besides attending different types of the above-mentioned groups, we wanted to examine respondents' participation in public protests and demonstrations that seek to redress some issue of collective interest. To do this, we asked the following question:

	Algunas veces	Casi nunca	Nunca	NS/NR
<b>PROT1.</b> ¿Alguna vez en su vida ha participado Ud. en una manifestación o protesta pública? Lo ha hecho algunas veces, casi nunca o nunca?	1	2	3	8



After converting the responses onto a scale of 0 to 100, we can compare the level of Colombians' participation in public demonstrations. As we can see in Figure IX-14, the country has an intermediate position although relatively higher than in the forms of participation analyzed earlier. Among the countries studied, Bolivia and Peru have the highest indices of participation in protests.

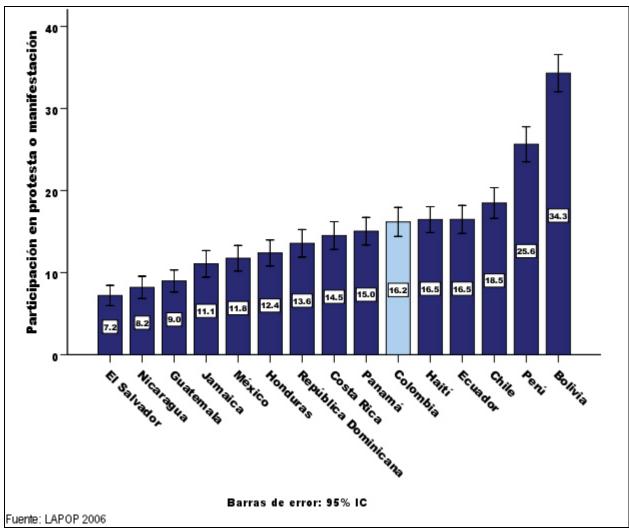


Figure IX-14. Participation in Public Protests or Demonstrations in Comparative Perspective- 2006



To explore the characteristics of people who have participated in protests or demonstrations, we constructed a logistic regression model using the usual sociodemographic variables as predictors, as well as ideological position, and fear of participating. The results of this exercise appear in Table IX-3 in the annex to this chapter.

Since this question inquires about participation in protests at some point in respondents' lives, it is expected that older people would report higher rates of involvement in this form of participation, as we see in Figure IX-15.

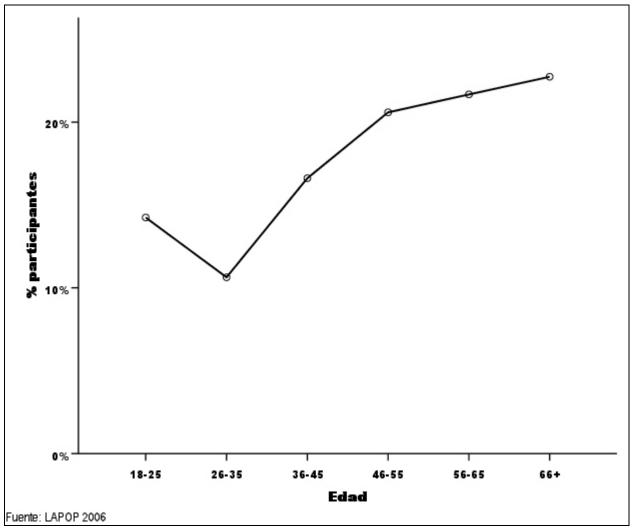


Figure IX-15. Participation in Protests or Demonstrations by Age in Colombia - 2006

In the same way, more educated people tend to participate more frequently in public demonstrations and protests, while people who are married or living with a partner tend to participate less. Figure IX-16 illustrates this double relation. This contradicts certain common assumptions, which are echoed in the news media, that it is mainly the masses of poor and people with little education who protest. In any case, another common assumption, that single people participate more in protests, is supported by the evidence shown.

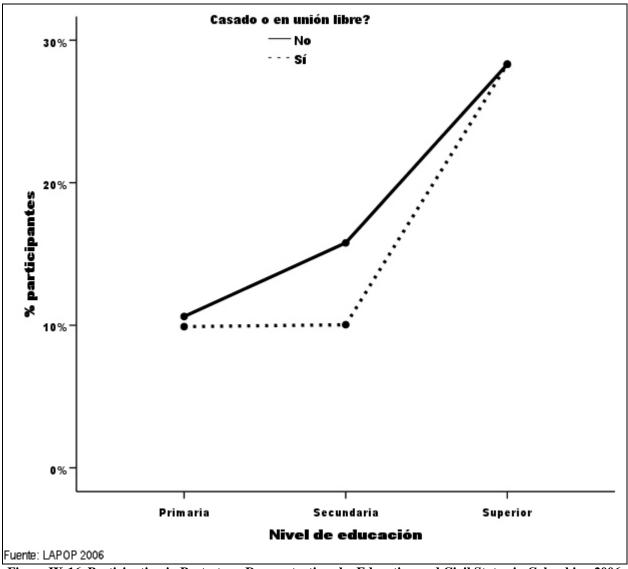


Figure IX-16. Participation in Protests or Demonstrations by Education and Civil Status in Colombia - 2006



Participation in protests and demonstrations has an ideological element. According to the results of the model, even when we control for the other factors, locating oneself more to the left increases the probability of having participated in this type of political expression, as can be seen in Figure IX-17.

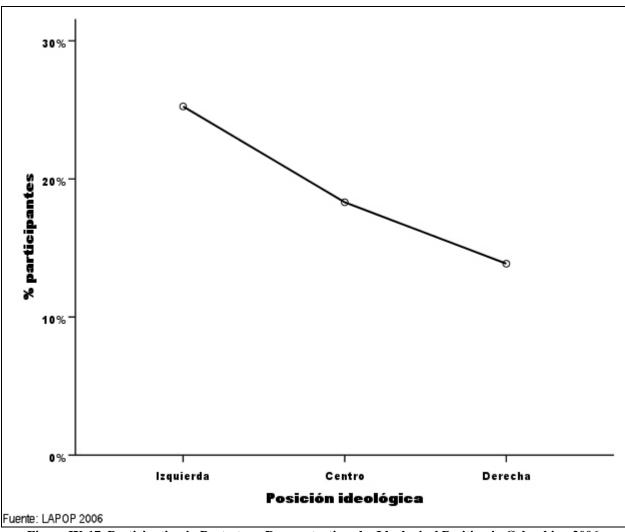


Figure IX-17. Participation in Protests or Demonstrations by Ideological Position in Colombia - 2006



Finally, fear of participating is, as was expected, a factor that inhibits participation in public protests and demonstrations, as we see in Figure IX-18.

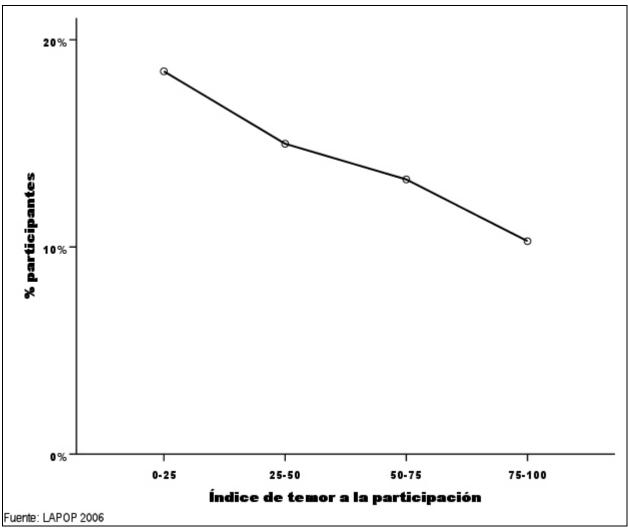


Figure IX-18. Participation in Protests or Demonstrations by Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006



## Fear of Participating

In an relatively violent environment like the Colombian, especially where political violence is significant, it is natural to want to examine how fearful people are of getting involved in a series of public activities. To investigate this issue more deeply, LAPOP included the following battery of questions.

Si usted decidiera participar en algunas de las actividades que le voy a mencionar, ¿lo haría usted sin temor, con un poco de temor, o con mucho temor? [VAYA LEYENDO LA LISTA, REPITIENDO LA PREGUNTA SI ES NECESARIO]	SIN TEMOR	UN POCO DE TEMOR	MUCHO TEMOR	NS/ NR
<b>DER1.</b> Participar para resolver problemas de su comunidad, ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8
DER2. Votar en una elección política, ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8
DER3. Participar en una manifestación pacífica, ¿lo haría…? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8
DER4. Postularse para un cargo de elección popular ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8



Figure IX-19 summaries the responses to this question for the last three years in Colombia. In 2006, as in previous years, fear increased with the degree of exposure inherent in each one of these forms of participation. There was, though, a decline in the average level of fear in all dimensions. With the t-test for difference of means, we can state that in all cases, except participation in a peaceful demonstration, the decline between 2005 and 2006 is statistically significant.

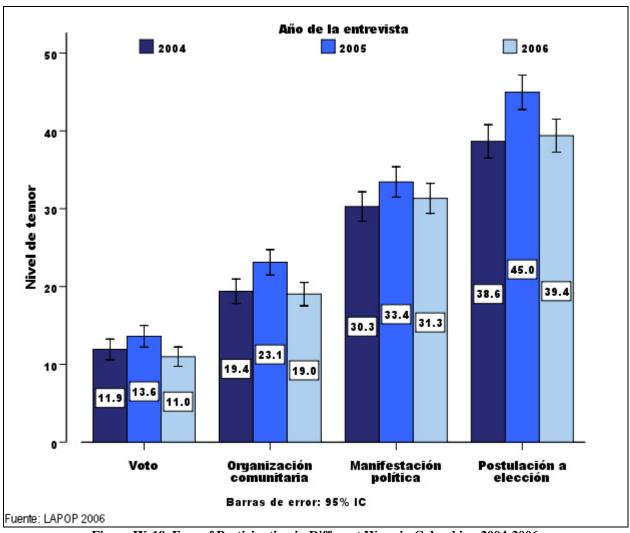
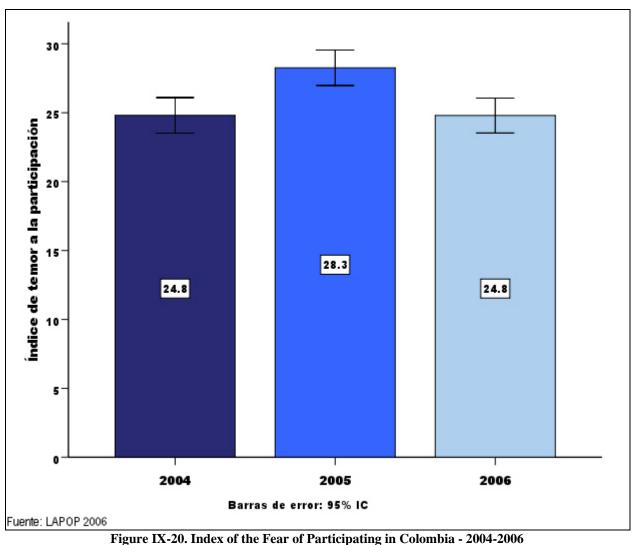


Figure IX-19. Fear of Participating in Different Ways in Colombia - 2004-2006



With these four items it is possible to construct the fear of participating index that has been used both in this and other chapters of this report.<sup>3</sup> As we can see in Figure IX-20, after increasing between 2004 and 2005, the average level of this aggregated index fell significantly in the last year, returning to the level it had two years ago.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This index is reliable, with a Cronbach's alpha of .724.



What factors influence the fear of participating? To answer this question, we constructed a linear regression model using the above-mentioned index as the dependent variable. We used the usual sociodemographic variables as the predictors, as well as the respondent's ideological position, and whether or not the person was a victim of the conflict or crime. The results of this model, which appear in Table IX-4 of the annex to this chapter, show that none of the mentioned forms of victimization have a significant impact on the general fear of participating. There is also no ideological bias in this index.

Among the statistically-significant predictors are sex and the respondent's educational level. Women show higher average levels of fear than men; and more educated people show lower levels of fear. Figure IX-21 shows this double relation.

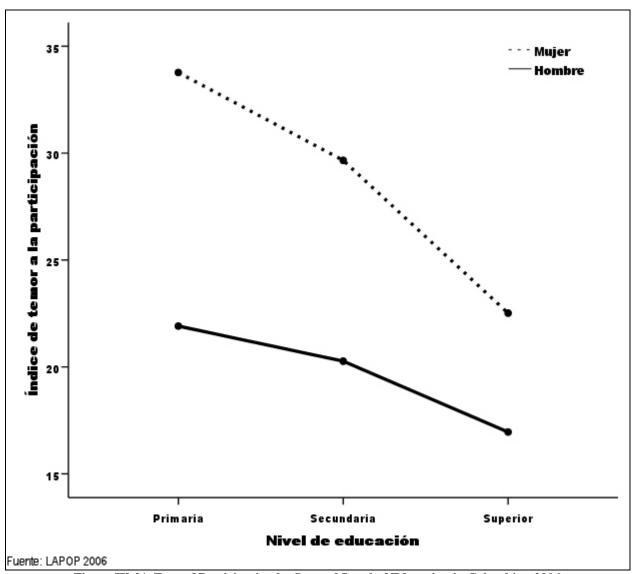


Figure IX-21. Fear of Participating by Sex and Level of Education in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, older people are less afraid of participating than younger ones, as we see in Figure IX-22.

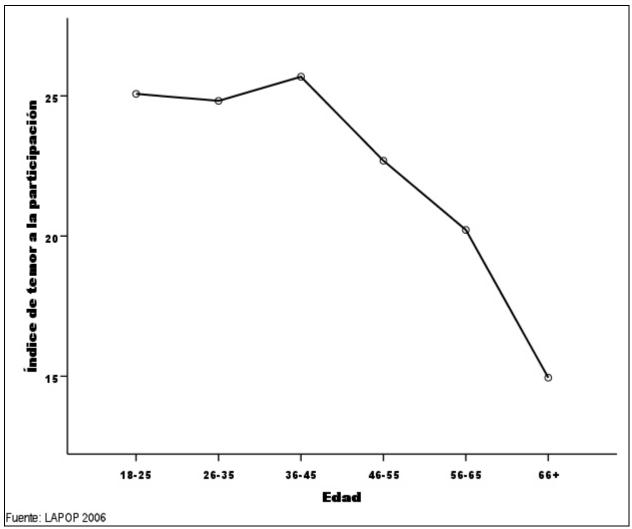


Figure IX-22. Fear of Participating by Age in Colombia - 2006

In sum, from this chapter we can conclude that associative life in Colombia is comparatively poor. In most of the cases of participation in civil society organizations, a lower percentage of Colombians get involved in such activities than the average of the countries included in the study. This also occurs in the forms of participation that seek to solve problems in the community, as well as activities related to demonstrations and protests.

Generally, among the factors that significantly affect participation, it is worth underlining that people with higher levels of education tend to participate more frequently, even in protests and demonstrations, than less educated people. This suggests the importance of fomenting education to stimulate participation. Additionally, a factor peculiar to the Colombian case is the fear of participating, which naturally inhibits participation in different ways.



# Annex

Table IX-2. Predictors of Participation in the Solution of Community Problems in Colombia - 2006

	В	E.S.	Z	Sig.	
Male	.092	.135	.68	.498	
Age	.027	.005	4.84	.000	***
Education	.040	.019	2.07	.039	*
Wealth	013	.049	27	.787	
Urban residence	366	.178	-2.05	.040	*
Married of living with partner	.121	.140	.86	.388	
Number of children	022	.030	74	.459	
Ideological position	.025	.027	.93	.354	
Fear of participating	008	.003	-2.67	.008	**
Constant	-1.688	.362	-4.66	.000	
N	1086				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.03				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05

Table IX-3. Predictors of Participation in Protests and Demonstrations in Colombia - 2006

	В	E.S.	Z	Sig.	
Male	014	.182	08	.939	
Age	.019	.007	2.71	.007	**
Education	.110	.026	4.28	.000	***
Wealth	.031	.064	.49	.622	
Urban residence	000	.264	00	.999	
Married of living with partner	-445	.186	-2.40	.017	*
Number of children	.023	.032	.74	.462	
Ideological position	137	.037	-3.73	.000	***
Fear of participating	014	.004	-3.20	.001	**
Constant	-2.264	.474	-4.78	.000	
N	1081				
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.08				

<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05



<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

<sup>\*\*</sup> sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

Table IX-4. Predictors of the Fear of Participating in Colombia - 2006

Coefficients	В	Std. Error	t	Sig.	
Constant	42.684	3.588	11.90	.000	
Male	-9.557	1.391	-6.87	.000	***
Age	126	.058	-3.95	.029	*
Education	795	.201	-3.95	.000	***
Wealth	289	.511	56	.572	
Urban residence	1.643	1.886	.87	.384	
Married of living with partner	1.479	1.474	1.00	.316	
Number of children	210	.302	70	.487	
Ideological position	396	.280	-1.42	.157	
Victim of the conflict	.460	1.492	.31	.758	
Victim of crime	321	2.061	16	.876	
N	1076				
R <sup>2</sup> adjusted	0.061				



<sup>\*</sup> sig. < .05
\*\* sig. < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> sig. < .001

## X. The Armed Conflict and Human Rights

The topics of the nine previous chapters are common to all the countries included in this study. A high percentage of the questions are identical in the questionnaires applied in all of them. This chapter, related directly to the armed conflict and the human rights situation, is specific to the Colombian case. The questions of the survey that we analyze here, therefore, are not comparable with the other countries in Latin America.

In the first section of this chapter, we will examine people's perceptions and attitudes regarding the conflict and possible solutions to it, including people's support and optimism of negotiating with the illegal armed groups, as well as their attitudes toward the demobilization and reinsertion of members of these groups.

The second section will analyze respondents' opinions and perceptions regarding the human rights situation. Generally, there seems to be the perception that the human rights situation has gotten worse in the last year.

The final section will explore the forms of victimization by the armed conflict in the country. It will also analyze the factors that characterize the victims of this violence (that is, it will examine victimization as a dependent variable). Additionally, we will look at the impact that victimization might have on people's attitudes toward democracy, the political system, the country's institutions, etc. (that is, we will study victimization as an independent variable or predictor of the other variables of interest).



#### Perceptions of the Conflict

It is possible to take an initial look at people's opinions regarding the conflict by examining what respondents mentioned as the worst problem facing the country. As we see in Figure X-1, one out of three respondents mentioned violence as the most serious problem in Colombia. And a little more than 46% mentioned problems related to the conflict (including forced displacement, the armed conflict itself, and violence) as the worst.

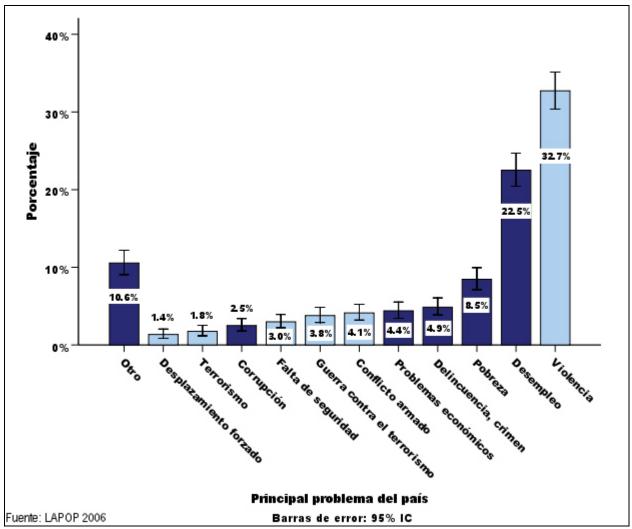


Figure X-1. The Worst Problem in Colombia - 2006



In fact, one of the features that characterize Colombians is their mention of this type of problem. As we see in Figure X-2, the percentage of Colombians who mention violence, when asked this question, is almost triple the proportion in the other countries included in this study.

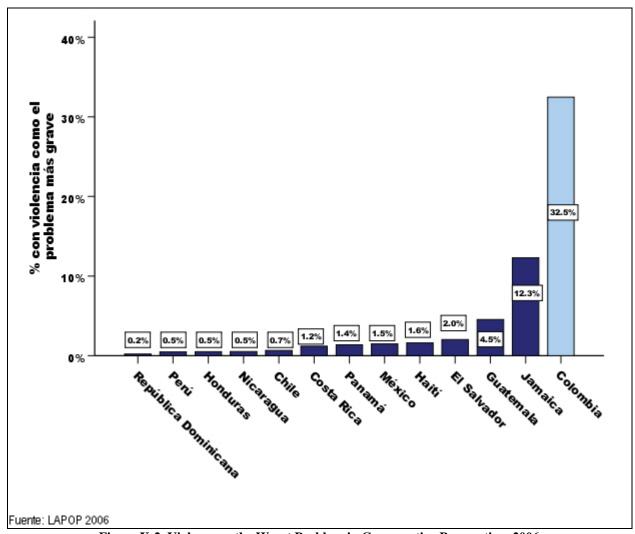


Figure X-2. Violence as the Worst Problem in Comparative Perspective- 2006



Concretely in the case of the armed conflict, the study asked the following questions to find out respondents' opinions regarding its possible solutions:

	Negociación	Uso de la fuerza militar	[No leer] Ambas
COLPAZ1A. De las siguientes opciones para solucionar el conflicto con la guerrilla, ¿cuál cree que es la mejor? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3
COLPAZ1B. Y con los grupos paramilitares, ¿cuál cree que es la mejor solución? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3

In the case of the guerillas, Figure X-3 shows that, just as in previous years, the great majority of people believe there should be a negotiated solution, without major variations in 2006.

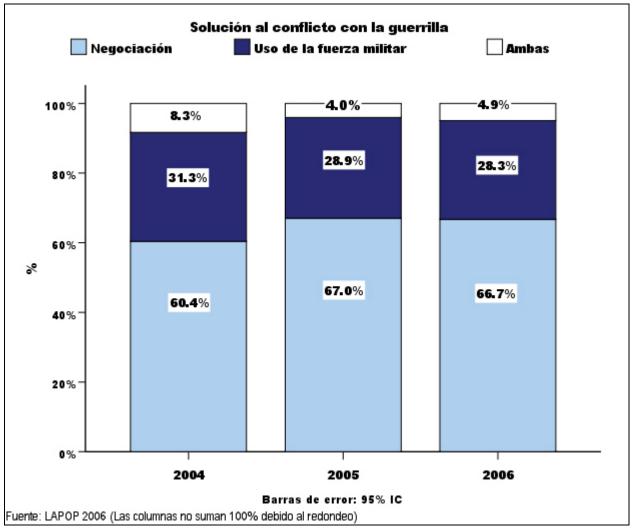


Figure X-3. Solutions to the Conflict with the Guerrilla in Colombia - 2004-2006



Figure X-4 shows the same tendency in the case of the conflict with the paramilitaries. Here, too, there were no major variations in the last year.

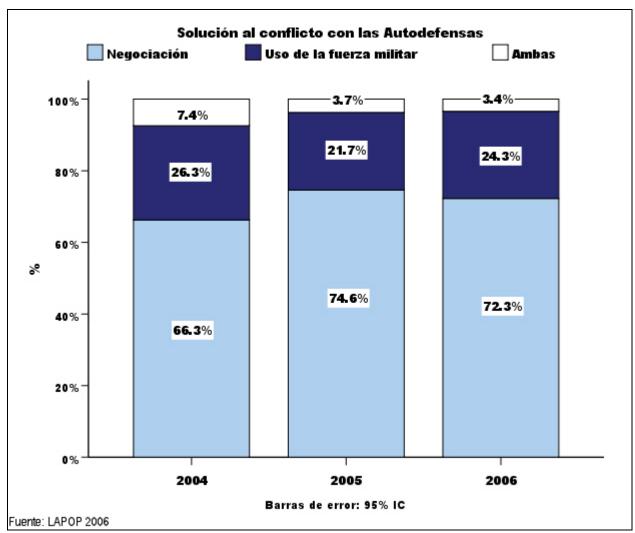


Figure X-4. Solutions to the Conflict with the Paramilitaries in Colombia - 2004-2006



We also wanted to know respondents' perception of the possibility of achieving a negotiated solution in the near future. To do this, we asked the following questions:

¿Qué tanto cree que es posible una solución negociada en un plazo razonable, diga usted de 4 años...: [repetir cada vez "muy posible", "posible", "poco posible", o "imposible"]

	Muy posible	Posible	Poco posible	Imposible	NS/NR
COLPAZ2A. Con las FARC	1	2	3	4	8
COLPAZ2B. Con el ELN	1	2	3	4	8
COLPAZ2C. Con los paramilitares	1	2	3	4	8

As we see in Figure X-5, respondents' optimism has diminished slightly but significantly in the case of the paramilitaries, probably as a result of this process wearing itself out over the last years.

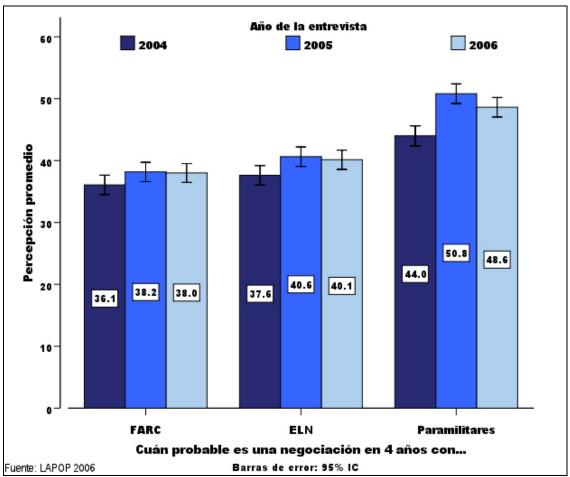


Figure X-5. Optimism for a Negotiated Solution with the Illegal Armed Groups in Colombia - 2004-2006



As a way to explore the post-conflict scenario, the questionnaire contained a series of questions regarding people's attitudes and beliefs in terms of the possibilities of demobilizing and reinserting the combatants of the illegal armed groups. The questions are the following:

¿Estaría de acuerdo con la desmovilización y reinserción de:

	Sí	No	NS/ NR
COLPAZ3A. La guerrilla	1	2	8
COLPAZ3B. Los paramilitares	1	2	8

COLPAZ4. ¿Cree usted que la desmovilización de grupos guerrilleros mejoraría o empeoraría la
seguridad de su región?
Mejoraría1
Empeoraría2
Se mantendría igual3 [No leer]
NS/NR8
COLPAZ5. ¿Cree usted que la desmovilización de grupos paramilitares mejoraría o empeoraría la
seguridad de su región?
Mejoraría1
Empeoraría2
Se mantendría igual3 [No leer]
NS/NR8

¿Usted ve posible el perdón y la reconciliación de los ciudadanos con miembros desmovilizados de:

	Sí	No	NS/NR
COLPAZ6A. La guerrilla	1	2	8
COLPAZ6B. Los paramilitares	1	2	8



With these questions, we constructed two indices that measure the favorability of respondents' attitudes in terms of the reinsertion of guerrilla fighters<sup>1</sup> on the one hand, and paramilitary ones on the other.<sup>2</sup> Figure X-6 shows the average levels of these two indices (which go from 0 to 100). We can see that support for the demobilization and reinsertion of the members of both the guerrilla and the paramilitary groups has declined considerably in the last year.

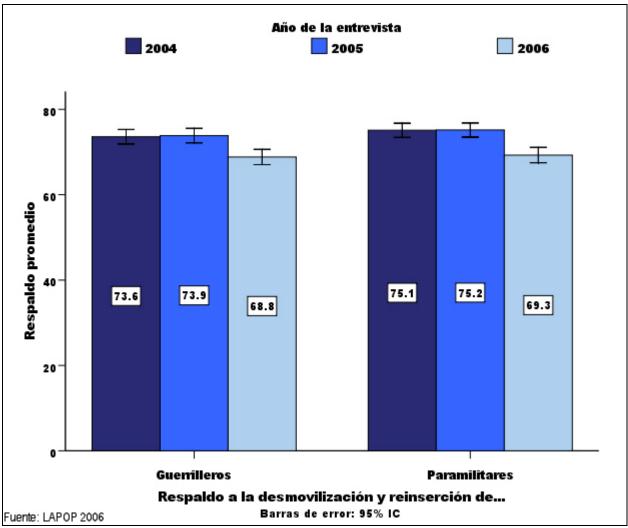


Figure X-6. Support for the Demobilization and Reinsertion of Members of the Guerrilla and Paramilitaries in Colombia - 2004-2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Cronbach's alpha for this index is .650.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Cronbach's alpha reliability indicator for this index is .637.

In the case of the members of the guerrilla, this decline is particularly pronounced in Bogotá and the Central and Eastern regions, as we can see in Figure X-7.

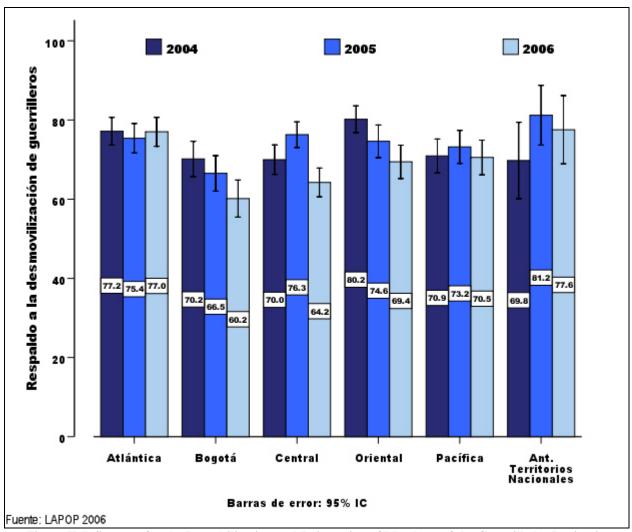


Figure X-7. Support for the Demobilization and Reinsertion of Members of the Guerrilla by Region in Colombia - 2004-2006



Figure X-8, in turn, shows that there was a decline in support for the reinsertion of members of the paramilitary groups during the last year, especially in the Central region and Bogotá.

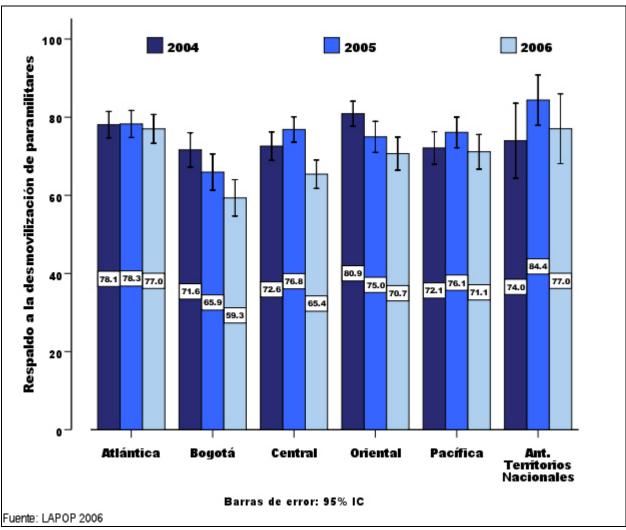


Figure X-8. Support for the Demobilization and Reinsertion of Members of the Paramilitaries by Region in Colombia - 2004-2006



To end this section, we introduced, starting last year, the following two questions to examine whether there was, at least in certain regions of the country or among certain people, some support of or trust in the illegal armed groups. Conscious that these are very sensitive topics and the answers to them can have serious problems of reliability, we ask readers to treat them with some skepticism. Nonetheless, beyond the distortion that can appear in these questions because of armed pressure, it is possible to compare the average levels with those of last year. The questions are:

COLB60. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en las FARC?

COLB61. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el ELN?

COLB62. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en las Autodefensas o paramilitares?

The findings, converted from the original scale (1 to 7) onto a more intuitive scale (0 to 100), appear in Figure X-9, where we can see a considerable decline of trust in all groups. The decline of trust in the paramilitary groups, which undoubtedly represents an important achievement of the negotiations between the government and these groups, is especially notable.

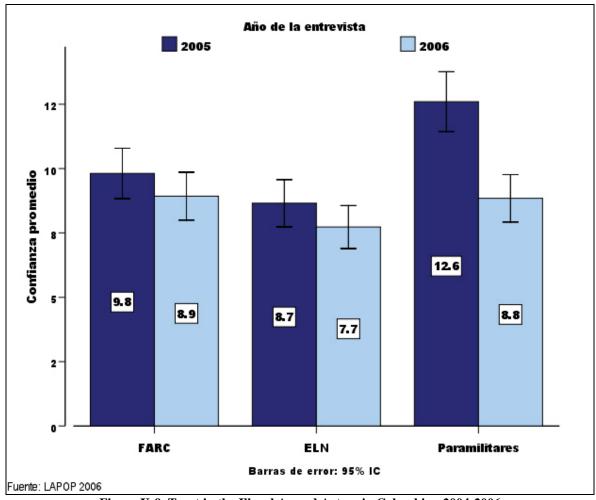


Figure X-9. Trust in the Illegal Armed Actors in Colombia - 2004-2006



### The Human Rights Situation

In terms of the topic of human rights, we started by asking the following question:

COLDH2. ¿En caso de tener conocimiento o ser objeto de una violación a los derechos humanos, a cuál de las siguientes instituciones acudiría usted para denunciar el hecho? Por favor, elija la más importante [leer opciones]

Defensoría del Pueblo	1
Policía	.2
Procuraduría General de la Nación	.3
Fiscalía General	.4
Personería municipal	.5
Ministerio del Interior y la Justicia	.6
Ninguna de las anteriores	.7 [no leer]
NS/NR	.8

Additionally, through the following question, we asked the people who responded "None of the above" why they did not denounce such a violation:

COLDH2A. ¿Por qué no acudiría a ninguna de estas instituciones? [Leer alternativas; marcar solo una opción]

Por temor	.1
Por falta de confianza	.2
Porque no es su función	.3
Por ineficiente	4
Porque no sirve de nada	5
NS/NR	8
INAP	. 9



Figure X-10 shows that, just as in previous years, most people would report these types of violations to the Human Rights Ombudsman. This finding corroborates the good image this institution has, as we saw in the chapter that addressed institutional trust.

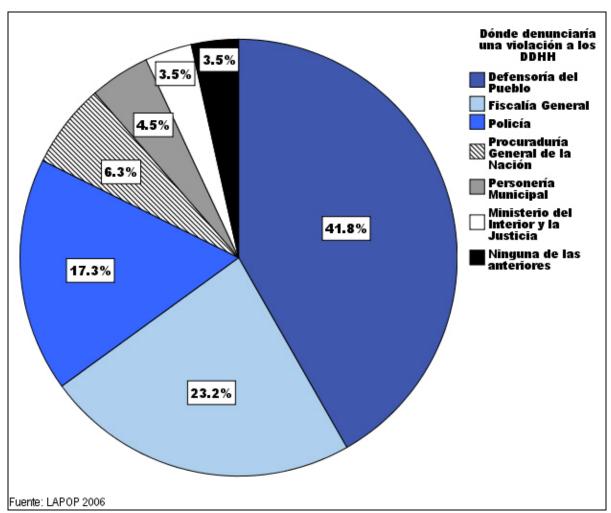


Figure X-10. Where Would You Report a Human Rights Violation? Colombia 2006



Among the people who responded that they would not report these kinds of violations, we wanted to know why. Figure X-11 summarizes the answers, and shows that a third of these respondents stated they were afraid or lacked the trust to do so. Two-thirds thought that the mentioned institutions are ineffective or that making a report would be useless.

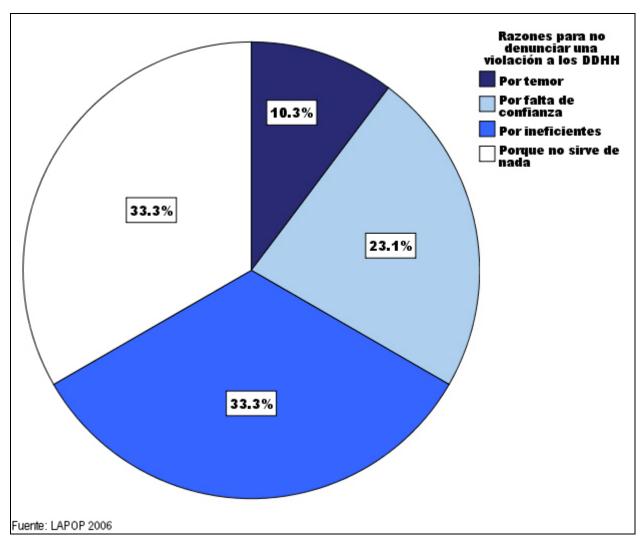


Figure X-11. Reasons for Not Reporting a Human Rights Violation in Colombia - 2006



To evaluate state policies in terms of human rights, the questionnaire included the following question:

**COLDH1.** ¿Qué tan eficiente ha sido el Estado Colombiano en prevenir las violaciones masivas a los Derechos Humanos (Masacres y Desplazamiento Forzado)? [leer alternativas]

Muy eficiente	1
Eficiente	2
Ineficiente	3
Muy ineficiente	4
NS/NR	.8

Figure X-12 shows the average response, converted onto a scale of 0 to 100, for the last three years. Between 2005 and 2006, we can see that there was a slight but significant decrease in the perception of the effectiveness of state policies in preventing human rights violations.

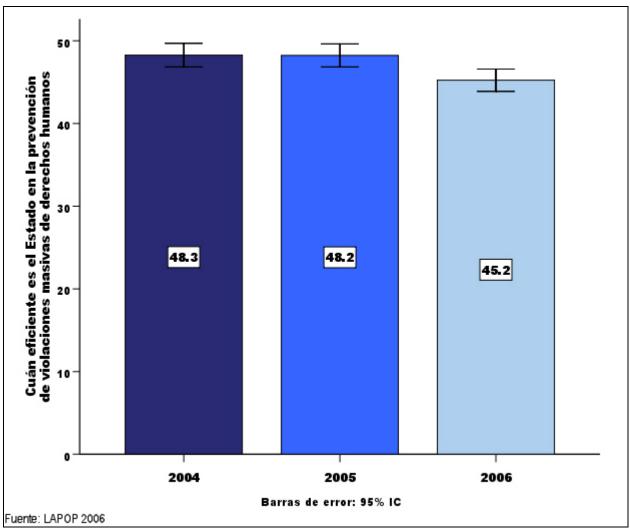


Figure X-12. Perception of the Effectiveness of the State in Preventing Human Rights Violations in Colombia - 2004-2006



Finally, to evaluate the job the administration has done in terms of human rights, the questionnaire included the following question:

<u>COLDH3</u>. Hay gente que dice que la política de seguridad democrática del presidente Álvaro Uribe ha incrementado —y otros dicen que ha disminuido— las violaciones a los derechos humanos como el desplazamiento forzoso, las masacres, los secuestros, y otras. ¿Usted cree que la política de Seguridad Ciudadana del presidente Álvaro Uribe, ha incrementado o disminuido las violaciones a los Derechos Humanos?

Incrementado	1
Disminuido	.2
Algunos tipos de violaciones a los derechos humanos han disminuido y otros aumentado	.3 [No leer]
NS/NR	8

Figure X-13 shows that although the majority of people think that the human rights situation has improved with President Uribe's Democratic Security policy, almost a third of respondents consider that the human rights violations have increased as a result of the policy.

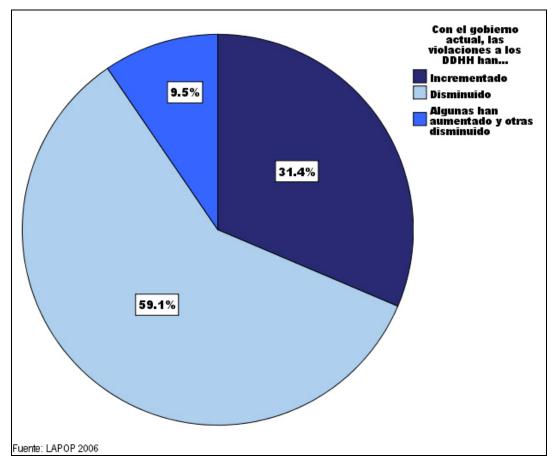


Figure X-13. Perception of the Democratic Security Policy in terms of Human Rights in Colombia - 2006



This percentage of critics of the government's human rights policy has slowly increased over the last three years, as Figure X-14 shows.

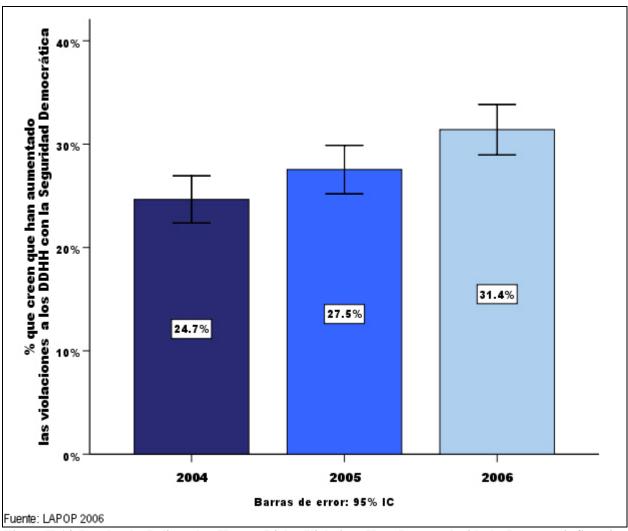


Figure X-14. People who Believe that Human Rights Violations Have Increased with the Democratic Security Policy in Colombia - 2004-2006



### Victimization by the Armed Conflict

The final section of this chapter focuses on the victims of the armed conflict, their characteristics, and the consequences that being a victim has on attitudes toward the political system in general.

To investigate this topic, the questionnaire included the following questions:

	Sí	No	NS/NR
<b>WC1.</b> ¿Ud. ha perdido algún miembro de su familia o pariente cercano, a consecuencia del conflicto armado que sufre el país? ¿o tiene un familiar desaparecido por el conflicto?	1	2	8
<b>WC2</b> . ¿Y algún miembro de su familia tuvo que refugiarse o abandonar su lugar de vivienda por razones del conflicto que sufre el país?		2	8
WC3. ¿Por razones del conflicto algún miembro de su familia tuvo que irse del país?	1	2	8

Additionally, among people who responded affirmatively to anyone of the above three questions, we asked the following:

¿Qué grupo, o grupos fueron responsables de estos hechos? [NO LEER LAS ALTERNATIVAS. EL ENCUESTADO PUEDE ELEGIR MAS DE UNA OPCION. ANOTAR TODAS LAS OPCIONES MENCIONADAS O (8) NS/NR]

	Sí	No	NS/NR
COLWC4A. La guerrilla	1	2	8
COLWC4B. Los paramilitares	1	2	8
COLWC4D. El ejército	1	2	8
COLWC4E. La policía	1	2	8
COLWC4F. Otro	1	2	8



Figure X-15 shows that the percentage of people who say they have lost a family member in the armed conflict has remained stable over the last three years, with a small but not significant decline.

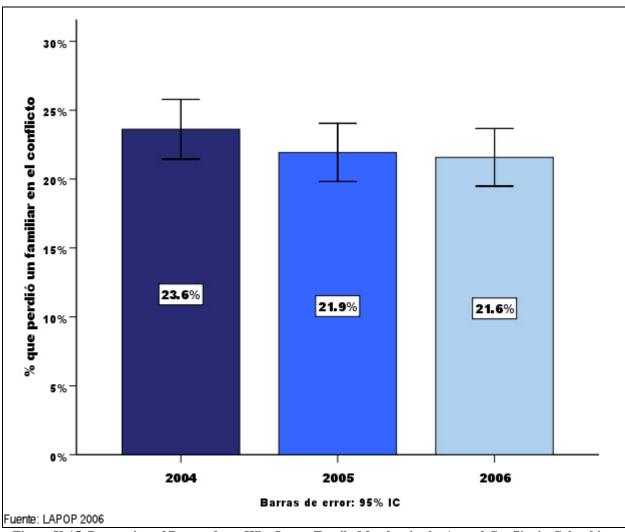


Figure X-15. Proportion of Respondents Who Lost a Family Member in the Armed Conflict in Colombia - 2004-2006



We see the same pattern in terms of people who say that a family member has been displaced because of the conflict (Figure X-16).

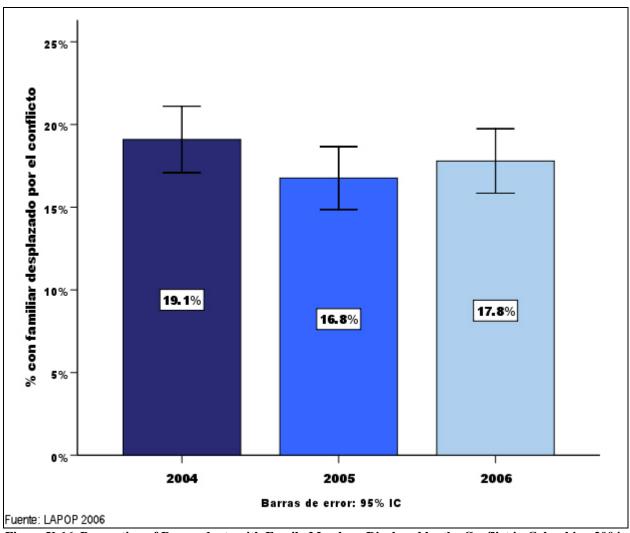


Figure X-16. Proportion of Respondents with Family Members Displaced by the Conflict in Colombia - 2004-2006



Likewise, in the last three years, around one out of every twenty respondents say that a family member has had to leave the country because of the conflict, as we see in Figure X-17.

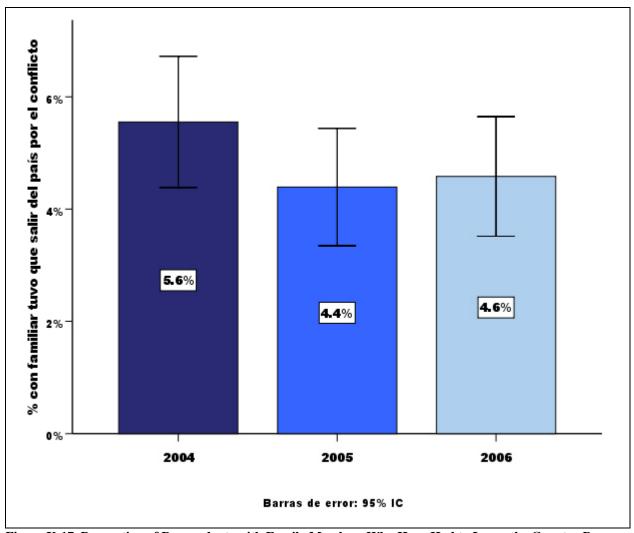


Figure X-17. Proportion of Respondents with Family Members Who Have Had to Leave the Country Because of the Conflict in Colombia - 2004-2006



In terms of the perpetrators of these forms of victimization, Figure X-18 shows that the percentage of victims of the guerrilla has declined significantly, which can be interpreted as an achievement of the government's security policy. Likewise, we should also emphasize the increase in people who say they were victims of unidentified actors (the "Other" column in the figure), a finding that may reflect the patterns typical of the post-conflict scenarios that appeared in Central America.

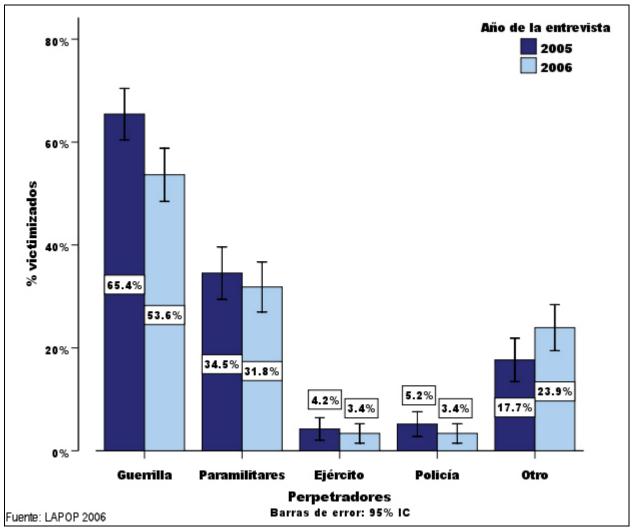


Figure X-18. Perpetrators of Acts of Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2005-2006

In fact, when we examine who, among the victims of the conflict, mention the guerrilla, the paramilitary, both, or none, this pattern appears clear, as we can see in Figure X-19. Concretely, this pattern might reflect the members of the demobilized paramilitary groups, now grouped into smaller and more anonymous organizations, rearming themselves.

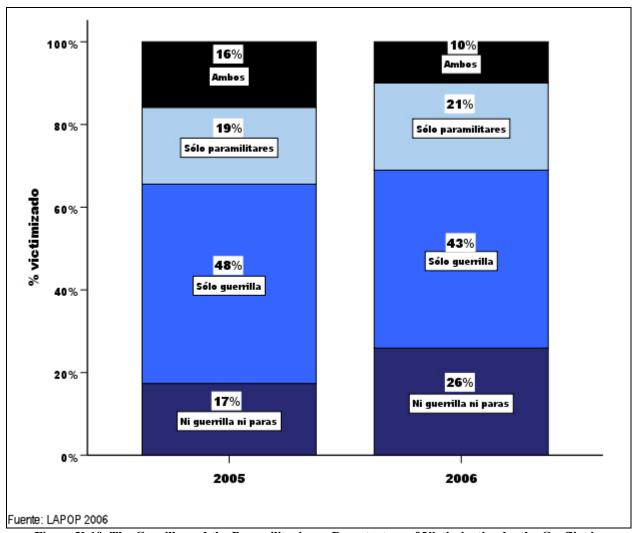


Figure X-19. The Guerilla and the Paramilitaries as Perpetrators of Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2005-2006



In order to investigate the characteristics of the victims of the conflict, we constructed three logistic regression models, one for each of the forms of victimization (loss, displacement, and exile of a family member). We used the sociodemographic variables and ideological position as predictors. Table X-1 summarizes the findings of these models; for the predictors that turned out to be statistically significant in each model, it indicates the direction of the impact on the probability of being a victim.

Table X-1. Predictors of Victimization by the Conflict in Colombia - 2006

	Loss	Displacement	Exile
Male	+		
Age	-		+
Education			
Wealth			+
Urban residence			
Married or living with partner			
Number of children			
Ideological position			

As we can see in the table, none of the factors included in the model turned out to be a significant predictor of the probability of being the victim of having a family member displaced because of the conflict.<sup>3</sup>

Among the significant factors for the other forms of victimization, the models say that men more often tend to be victims of the loss of a family member because of the conflict, while as age increases, the chances of being this kind of victim decreases.

In terms of people who have had a family member forced leave the country because of the conflict, the impact of age is the opposite: older people, as well as the more affluent, tend to more frequently be the object of this kind of victimization. In the following pages, we will examine these relations in more detail.

De hecho, a diferencia de años anteriores, estos factores han dejado de ser predictores significativos y el poder explicativo del modelo cae a la quinta parte. En otras palabras, los rasgos sociodemográficos ya no parecen distinguir a los familiares de víctimas del desplazamiento forzoso.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In fact, contrary to previous years, these factors are no longer significant predictors and the explanatory power of the model has fallen to a fifth of what is was. In other words, sociodemographic feastures no longer seem to distinguish the family members of forced displacement.

Figure X-20 shows the difference by sex for the first of the forms of victimization by the conflict.

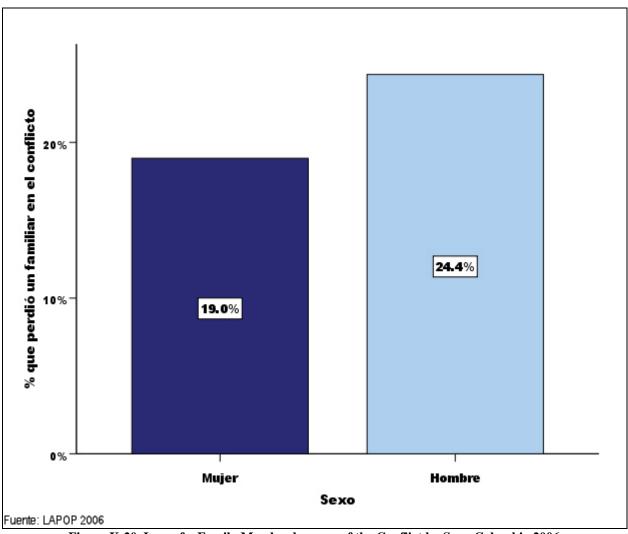


Figure X-20. Loss of a Family Member because of the Conflict by Sex - Colombia 2006



As mentioned above, the older a person is, the less chance there is that he or she will have lost a family member in the conflict, as Figure X-21 shows. This impact is consistent with what the same model found in previous years.

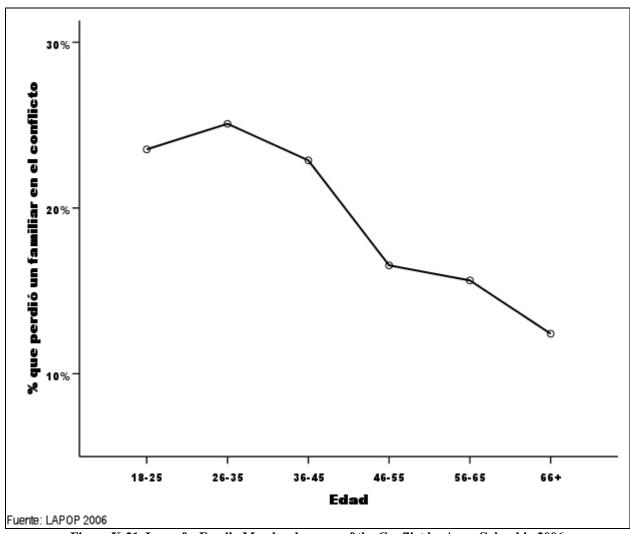


Figure X-21. Loss of a Family Member because of the Conflict by Age - Colombia 2006



The age factor, though, operates in the opposite direction in terms of people who have a family member forced leave the country because of the conflict. Figure X-22 illustrates this relation.

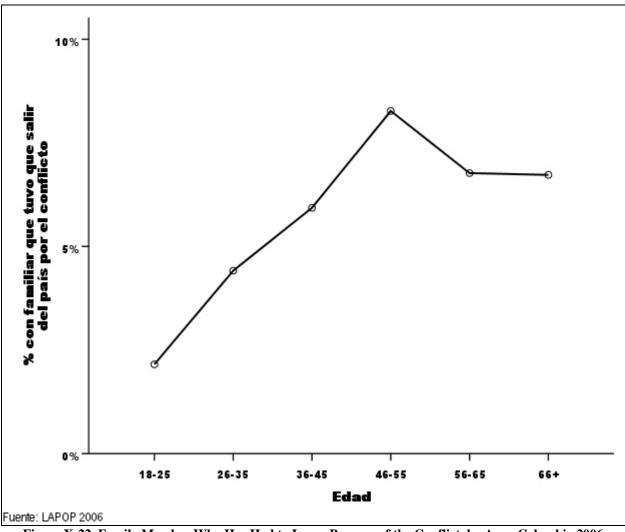


Figure X-22. Family Member Who Has Had to Leave Because of the Conflict, by Age - Colombia 2006

Finally, there is a class component to the "exile" of family members. The model shows that more affluent people are more likely to have a family member be forced leave the country because of the conflict. Figure X-23 shows the relation between socioeconomic strata and the probability of being the object of this kind of victimization by the conflict. Since we asked these questions to the family members of victims, we cannot know with any certainty what the sociodemographic characteristics of the victims are. Still, it is possible to state that the loss of a family member affects different kinds of people than those whose family member has had to leave the country. We are dealing with different groups of people: less affluent people and younger people have a greater chance of having lost a family member in the conflict, while older people and ones with more resources, for threats or other reasons, have had to see a family member leave the country.

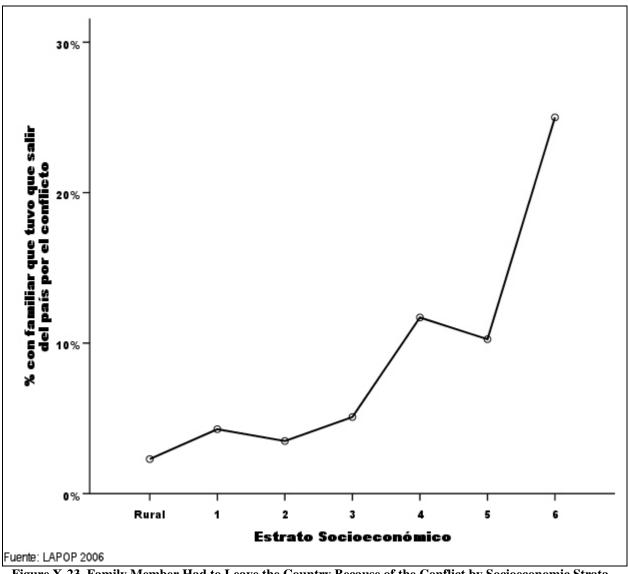


Figure X-23. Family Member Had to Leave the Country Because of the Conflict by Socioeconomic Strata - Colombia 2006



To end this chapter, we will briefly describe the findings of using victimization by the conflict as a predictor of the other variables of interest. Initially, it is necessary to mention that, when we include it as part of the multivariate model, that is when we control for the other factors, victimization neither has a significant impact on support for the political system nor political tolerance.

By analyzing the impact of victimization on trust in key institutions of the political system, what stands out is that people who have a family member displaced by the conflict show significantly more trust in the Constitutional Court than people who have not been victimized in this way, as we can see in Figure X-24. This can be explained by this institution's active role in defending the rights of displaced persons through rulings that obligate the government to attend to their needs.

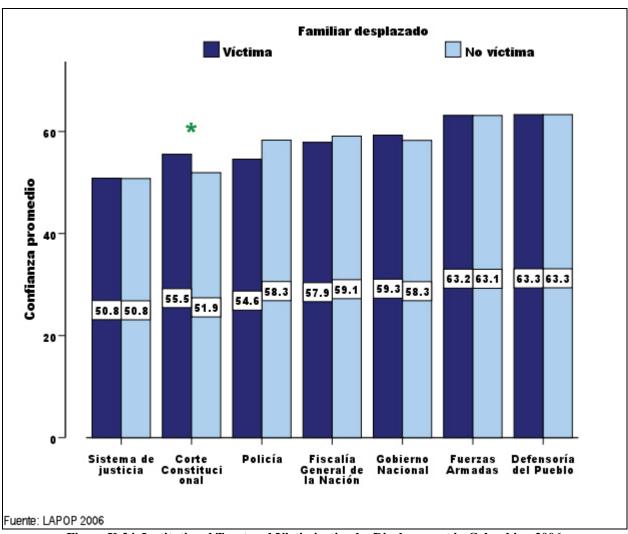


Figure X-24. Institutional Trust and Victimization by Displacement in Colombia - 2006



In turn, people who have had a family member forced to leave the country because of the conflict show lower levels of trust in the system of justice generally, the police, the Prosecutor General, the national government, the armed forces, and the Human Rights Ombudsman, as we see in Figure X-25.

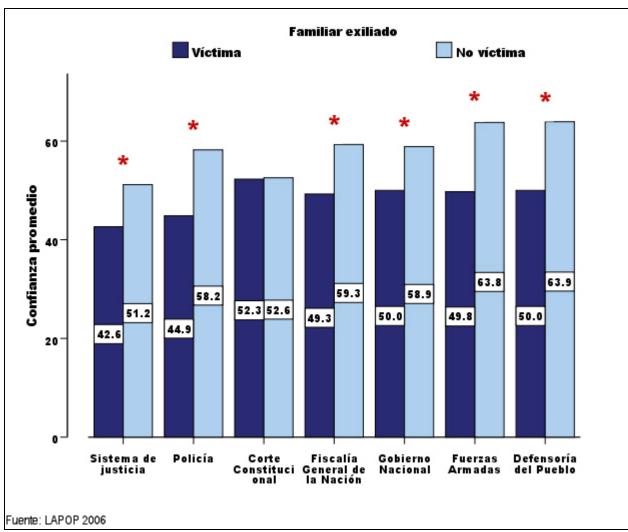


Figure X-25. Institutional Trust and Victimization by Exile in Colombia - 2006



Likewise, these victims would be less willing to accept reinserted members of the paramilitary groups, as we see in Figure X-26.

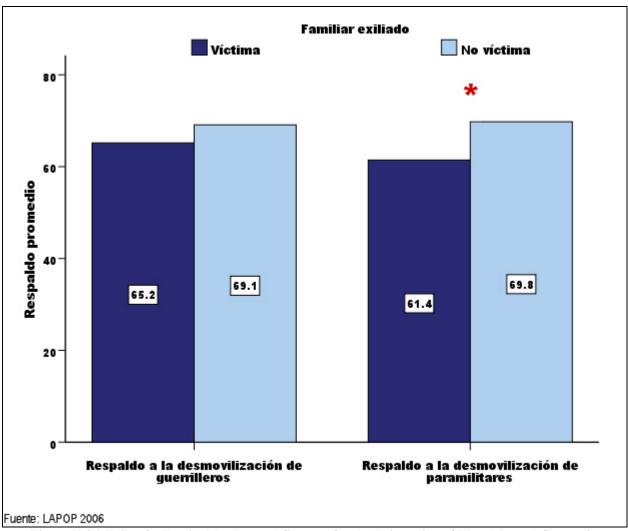


Figure X-26. Exile of a Family Member and Support for the Reinsertion of Illegal Armed Groups in Colombia - 2006



Finally, by contrast, people who have lost a family member in the conflict are more willing to support the reinsertion of the irregular combatants, as we can see in Figure X-27. Why people who have been victims of the conflict in different ways would have different attitudes toward the reinsertion of combatants still needs to be investigated more deeply. These differences are actually more a product of the sociodemographic characteristics that distinguish these groups of people.

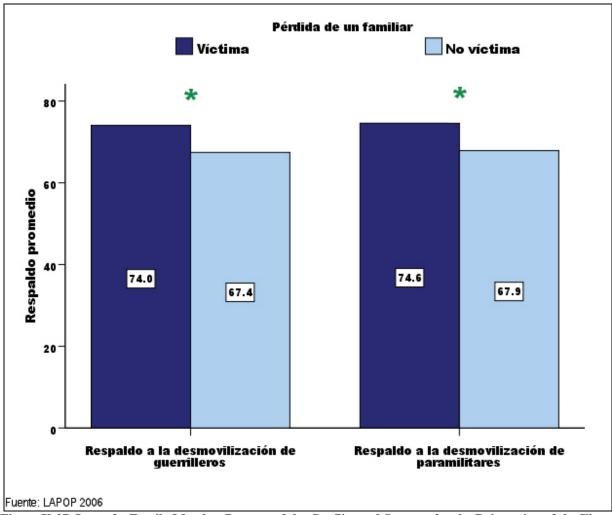


Figure X-27. Loss of a Family Member Because of the Conflict and Support for the Reinsertion of the Illegal Armed Groups in Colombia - 2006

From this chapter, it is possible to conclude that the attitudes towards the conflict do not appear to have varied in the last three years. Among other notable findings, it is worth highlighting how a majority of people continues to support a negotiated solution to the conflict.

Additionally, the respondents seem to note a deterioration in the human rights situation, which might be due to a peculiar scenario that combines the conflict with an incipient post-conflict situation in which the forms of violence are more chaotic and might turn out to be even more difficult to control.



# **Annex A Technical Description of the Sample**

# Sample Design<sup>1</sup>

In Colombia, the sample was designed to include all non-institutionalized adults (i.e., it excludes people living in jails, schools, hospitals, and on military bases). It is a random stratified sample. The stratification ensures the inclusion of the most important geographic regions in the country: the Pacific, Atlantic, Central, Eastern, Old National Territories (*Antiguos Territorios Nacionales*), and Bogotá. The sample was sub-stratified to include cities with more and with less than 300,000 inhabitants. Finally, the sample was further sub-stratified into urban and rural areas.

We used population projections for 2006 from the 1993 census, the most recent in Colombia. According to the census, 21.58% of the population lives in the Atlantic region, 17.57% in the Pacific region, 23.63% in the Central region, 18.31% in the Eastern region, 3.28% in the Old National Territories, and 15% in Bogotá.

Sample selection was also multistage. The first step was the municipality, then the census sector, followed by the census section, and finally the block, dwelling, and household. We used a system of sex and age quotas to select the respondent inside each household.

We interviewed 1,491 informants. Technically, our sampling error was  $\pm$  2.54%. This means that if we drew repeated samples in Colombia, 95% of them would reflect the views of the population with no less accuracy than  $\pm$  2.54%. Our sample, however, was stratified and clustered. This means that even though the stratification increased the accuracy of the sample, the clusters we used to control fieldwork costs reduced it. Of course, other factors beyond sampling can reduce the accuracy of the sample, including non-response, errors in selecting the respondent, misunderstanding the questions, among others. But in terms of the science of survey sampling, a confidence interval of  $\pm$ 2.54% is very good.

Table A-1 summarizes the standard errors and the design effects for some variables and indices in the survey. The design effects (DEF) indicate the efficiency of a cluster design compared to a simple random design. A DEF of 1 indicates that the variances obtained in both designs are the same, meaning that the cluster design was as efficient as a simple random design. If the DEF is greater than 1, it means that the cluster design had a variance greater than that produced by a simple random design. And if the DEF is less than 1, it means that the variance of the cluster design is even smaller than that produced by the random design.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The results of the census advanced by the government since 2005 were not available when the sample used in this study was designed.



323

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This section and the following were adapted from the 2004 Costa Rica report, "Cultura democrática, seguridad ciudadana y capital social en Costa Rica," by Luis Rosero-Bixby and Jorge Vargas-Cullell.

Table A-1. Standard Errors and Design Effects for Selected Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Error	DEF
q2 (age)	35.934	.315	.560
ed (level of education)	9.367	.191	2.336
Wealth (wealth index)	3.835	.097	3.767
PSA5 (support for the system)	57.211	.755	1.532
tol (political tolerance)	53.226	1.024	1.614
soct1r (evaluation of the national economy)	39.266	.628	1.242
I1 (self-defined ideological location)	6.244	.082	1.246
m1r (evaluation of the government)	63.998	.799	1.478
exc7r (perception of corruption)	73.423	1.008	1.359

strata=region (estratopri) upm=sector (colsect)

According to the above table, the cluster design for this survey was very efficient. In fact, with the exception of age, education, and wealth, all the DEF were close to 1. The standard errors for most variables were also very moderate.

### Sample Results and Description of the Respondents

The probabilistic design of the sample, as well as the availability of a good sampling framework, are sufficient conditions to expect that the interviewed group is representative of the Colombian population. However, due to the effects of random errors and inevitable distortions in the sampling design, the sample could deviate from the characteristics of the population it represents. It could include biases that should be reported. Table A-2 allows us to answer the question: how representative is the sample of the population? In it, we compare some characteristics of the sample with the 1993 census.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> There are no recent projections for most of the indicators we analyze here.



Table A-2. Sample vs. 1993 Census (18 years and older)

Characteristics	1993 Census	Survey in Colombia
(N)	26,735,000	1,491
% of men	49	50
% > 30 years old	62	60
% single	40	32
% married or living with partner	50	59
% with primary education	44	34
% with secondary education	34	46
% with post-secondary education	11	20
% in Atlantic region	22	22
% in Bogotá	15	15
% in Central region	24	24
% in Eastern region	18	18
% in Pacific region	18	17
% in Old National Territories	3	4

We can see that there is some congruity between the sample of this survey and the 1993 census. Some characteristics such as age, sex, and regional residence are virtually identical. There is a slight deviation in the percentages of married and single people. And finally, there is a gap in the three education variables, where the widest is for people with secondary education, which was 34% in the 1993 census and is 46% in the 2006 survey. The explanation for the gaps in marriage and education variables may lie in the fact that the census is almost 13 years old. This is a long enough period for there to be significant changes in these variables. Unfortunately, there are no reliable projections from the 1993 census in terms of education and age groups; the figures from the 2005 census are not available either. There are some projections that include current students, but this makes them a non-comparable statistic with the variables of this survey.

Because the sample is generally representative of the population, it does not need to be weighted. The sample is, therefore, self-weighted.



Table A-3 compares sample characteristics between men and women.

Table A-3. Characteristics of the Sample, by Sex

	• •	-	_
Characteristic	Total	Men	Women
(N)	1,491 (100%)	50%	50%
Average age	37.33	37.55	37.11
% married or living with partner	58.82	55.90	61.74
Family income (Mode) % between 361,000 and 420,000 pesos	26.95	26.48	27.43

We used sex and age quotas to select respondents. Therefore, the percentages of men and women that we have are very close. Their ages are also very similar. There is a small difference in the percentage of people who are married or living with a partner, where women have a slightly higher percentage (61.74%) than men. With regards to family income, there is a higher percentage of women in the 361,000 to 420,000-peso bracket, which is the mode of family income, although the gap is very small.

# Technical Description of the Sampling Design Universe

The survey universe has national coverage of adults living in all six regions of the country: Bogotá, the Atlantic, Pacific, Central, Eastern regions, and the Old National Territories. The universe is also comprised of all adults living in urban and rural areas.

The universe was divided in two sectors: one of cities more than 300,000 residents, and the other of cities with less than 300,000 inhabitants.

# **Population**

The sample was circumscribed to all non-institutionalized adults; in other words, it excludes people living in jails, schools, hospitals, and on military bases. Private households in these areas were included

#### **Final Unit of Selection**

Because the questionnaire included questions not only limited to the respondent but also to other household members, the statistical unit of observation was the household. The respondent could only live in one household.

Because each household belongs to a dwelling, sometimes shared by more than one household (often relatively stable over time), each dwelling was selected as the final unit of selection.



#### **Sampling Method**

We chose probabilistic, stratified, multistage sampling with a random selection of the units at each stage. First, the sample was stratified by the size of the municipality (cities with more and with less than 300,000 inhabitants), then by region and then by area (rural and urban).

It is multistage sampling because within each urban area, we started with primary sampling units (sectors), followed by secondary sampling units (sections), then third units (blocks), and then with final sampling units (clusters of dwellings) of 6 to 8 units in urban areas and 10 to 12 in rural areas. In each dwelling, the interviewer selected only one household as the observation unit.

The respondent was selected according to age and sex quotas. In each block, the surveyor had to include at least one man and one women in the following age groups:

18 to 27 years old 28 to 40 years old Over 40 years old

Each interviewer was assigned one specific block. Once in the block, interviewers listed the first 20 dwellings they encountered. They had instructions to do a minimum of 8 surveys of the 20 dwellings they listed, balancing the sex and age quotas.

We chose the method of selection according to the following considerations:

We needed representative samples at the following levels:

- National
- First stage strata:
  - o Cities with more than 300,000 inhabitants
  - o Cities with less than 300,000 inhabitants
- Second stage strata:
  - o Bogotá
  - o Atlantic region
  - o Pacific region
  - o Eastern region
  - o Central region
  - o Old National Territories



- Third stage strata:
  - o Urban area
  - o Rural area
- Study domains:
  - o Cities with more than 300,000 inhabitants (obliged selection)
  - o Cities with less than 300,000 inhabitants
- a) For each stage, we calculated margins of error that corresponded to minimum quality standards.
- b) We sought to facilitate the operability of the fieldwork.
- c) We worked with the best and most up-to-date sampling framework available for each municipality (population census, cartography, current housing unit lists, among others).

#### **Sampling Framework**

The sampling framework is constituted by the updated cartographic inventory and housing unit lists obtained from the 1993 census. The Centro Nacional de Consultoría obtained the 2003 versions from the Departamento Nacional de Estadística (DANE; National Statistics Department).

#### **Calculations by Strata**

The sample is composed of 193 sampling points: 160 urban and 33 rural, distributed over 53 municipalities in 26 out of the 32 departments of Colombia.

#### Sample Sizes, Confidence Intervals, and Margins of Error

The expected confidence interval for the national sample was 95% with a margin of error of 2.6%, assuming a 50/50 ratio in the dichotomous variables.



Table A-4 shows the margins of error for a 95% confidence interval.

Table A-4. Sample Size and Margins of Error (95% Level of Confidence)

Strata Regions	Sample Size	Margin of Error M.A.S.	% M.P.C.	
Atlantic	323	5.45	5.58	
Bogotá	231	6.45	6.59	
Central	358	5.18	5.29	
Eastern	274	5.92	6.05	
Pacific	251	6.19	6.32	
Old National Territories	54	13.34	13.63	
Areas				
Urban	1107	2.96	3.01	
Rural	384	5.00	5.11	
Country Total	1491	2.54	2.6	

# **Survey Team**

The CNC involved its five branches (Bogotá, Cali, Medellin, Barranquilla, and Bucaramanga) to ensure high quality in the least possible time. Due to the country's current security situation, we were advised to remain as little time as possible in most of the areas visited, which complicated the work.

Due to the complexity of the questionnaire, we used our most experienced surveyors, many of whom have more than 15 years of experience.

The CNC used a total of 99 staff members, distributed as follows:

Table A-5. CNC Personnel Who Participated in the Study

Activity	<b>Total personnel</b>
Fieldwork coordinators	5
Supervisors	15
Interviewers	40
Quality supervisors in the field	10
Codifiers	7
Data entry	7
Data verification	7
Subtotal fieldwork and data entry	91
Professional and management personnel	5
Administrative personnel	3
Total survey team	99



Table A-6. Population by Region: Urban and Rural Area (2006 Projections)

Region	Urban	Rural	Total
Atlantic	6,912,796 (70.9%)	2,843,894 (29.1%)	9,756,690
Bogotá	7,014,111 (100.0%)	1,517 (0.0%)	7,015,628
Central	7,659,319 (71.2%)	3,093,365 (28.8%)	10,752,684
Eastern	5,207,407 (62.6%)	3,106,566 (37.4%)	8,313,973
Pacific	5,322,949 (66.8%)	2,644,004 (33.2%)	7,966,953
Old National Territories	583,895 (39.6%)	890,830 (60.4%)	1,474,725
Total	32,700,477 (72.2%)	12,580,176 (27.8%)	45,280,653

Table A-7. Size and Distribution of the Sample by Strata (Region)

Region	Urban	Rural	Total
Atlantic			
> 300,000 inhabitants	127		127
< 300,000 inhabitants	112	84	196
Total Atlantic	239	84	323
Bogotá			
> 300,000 inhabitants	231		231
Total Bogotá	231		231
Central			
> 300,000 inhabitants	150		150
< 300,000 inhabitants	112	96	208
Total Central	262	96	358
Eastern			
> 300,000 inhabitants	66		66
< 300,000 inhabitants	112	96	208
Total Eastern	178	96	274
Pacific			
> 300,000 inhabitants	91		91
< 300,000 inhabitants	88	84	160
Total Pacific	179	72	251
Old National Territories			
< 300,000 inhabitants	18	36	54
Total Old National Territories	18	36	54
Total	1,107	384	1,491

Table A-8. Respondents and Primary Sampling Units (PSU) by Strata (Region)

by Strata (	Kegion)	
Region	Sample	PSU
Atlantic	323	32
Bogotá	231	34
Central	358	39
Eastern	274	26
Pacific	251	26
Old National Territories	54	6
Total	1,491	163



## Final Comments on Survey Fieldwork

**About the questionnaire:** the questionnaire was longer than previous LAPOP versions, 55 minutes on average according to interviewers, but respondents were generally willing to answer the questions and we had few uncompleted surveys.

**About the fieldwork:** For security reasons, it was not possible to do rural surveys in one of the municipalities. Additionally, since it was not possible to do surveys in Chalan (Sucre) in 2004 and 2005, this municipality was replaced in the 2006 survey.

Despite the fact that some respondents were located in areas where the illegal armed groups have a strong presence, there were no reports of any kind of pressure on respondents to influence their answers. On the contrary, the interviewers emphasized the freedom of opinion of the people who accepted to take part in the study.

As in previous years, the CNC would like to extend its gratitude to every staff member involved in this study, especially the brave men and women who defied security warnings and assumed great risk to accomplish very good work.



# **Annex B Questionnaire**

 $\textit{Versi\'on} \ \# \ 10R \ 20/07/2006 \ 8:30 \ p.m. \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \# \ 060187 \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ , \ \textit{Vanderbilt University IRB Approval:} \ \textit{Vanderb$ 







#### LA CULTURA POLÍTICA DE LA DEMOCRACIA: COLOMBIA, 2006

© Vanderbilt University and LAPOP 2006. Derechos reservados. All rights reserved.

6. Costa Rica 7. Pana 12. Paraguay 13. Chile	uatemala 3. El Salvador 4 má <b>8. Colombia</b> 9. Ecuad e 14. Uruguay 15. Brasil. 2 aica <b>24.Guyana 25. T</b>	lor 10. Bolivia 11. Perú 1. República Dominicana	PAIS	8
IDNUM. <b>Número de e</b> campo]:	ntrevista [asignado en la o —	oficina no en	IDNUM	
YEAR: Año de la ent	revista 2006		YEAR	2006
DOMINIO. Muestra i	nacional1		DOMINIO	1
ESTRATOPRI [COESTRA]. Estrato  Región Atlántica. Bogotá Central Oriental Pacífica	12 13 14		ESTRATOPRI	_8
Territorios Nal				
COLDEPA. <b>Departam</b>	ento:		COLDEPA	_
UPM	[ESTRASEC].	Municipio:	UPM	_  _
UR [ESTRATER]. Zon Urbano1 Rural2	18		UR	



COLCENTRO. Lugar: Corregimiento/Inspección1	COLCENTRO	
Vereda2		
Cabecera municipal3		
COLCENPOB. [=PSU rural] Centro poblado	COLCENPOB.	
COLESTSOC. Estrato Socioeconómico: 1 2 3 4 5 6  Rural sin estratificación7	COLESTSOC	
COLSECT. Sector:	COLSECT	
Inap (rural, no hay sectores) 9999  COLSECC. Sección:	COLSECC	
Inap (rural, no hay secciones) 9999  CLUSTER [COLMANZ] Manzana  Inap (rural, no hay manzanas) 9999	CLUSTER	
TAMANO. Tamaño del lugar: Capital nacional (área metropolitana)1 Ciudad grande	TAMANO	
COLIDIOMA. Idioma del cuestionario (1) Español	COLIDIOMA	1
Hora de inicio::[no digitar]	l	I
Fecha de la entrevista: día (dd): mes (mm): año: 2006	FECHA	
OJO: ES UN REQUISITO LEER SIEMPRE LA HOJA DE CONSENT ANTES DE COMENZAR LA ENTREVISTA	IMIENTO INFORMADO	0
Q1. Género (anotar, no pregunte): Hombre1 Mujer	2	Q1



A4 [COA4]. Para empezar, en su opinión ¿cuál es el problema más grave que está enfrentando el país? [NO LEER ALTERNATIVAS; SÓLO UNA OPCIÓN]			A4	
-		-		
Agua	19	Inflación, altos precios	02	
Caminos/vías en mal estado	18	Mal gobierno	15	
Conflicto armado	30	Medio ambiente	10	
Corrupción	13	Migración	16	
Crédito, falta de	09	Narcotráfico	12	
Delincuencia, crimen, violencia	05	Pandillas	14	
Derechos humanos, violaciones de	56	Pobreza	04	
Desempleo/falta de empleo	03	Políticos, los	59	
Desigualdad	58	Protestas populares (huelgas, cierre de carreteras, paros, etc.)	06	
Desnutrición	23	Salud, falta de servicio	22	
Desplazamiento Forzado	32	Secuestro	31	
Deuda Externa	26	Seguridad (falta de)	27	
Discriminación	25	Terrorismo	33	
Drogadicción	11	Tierra para cultivar, falta de	07	
Economía, problemas con, crisis de	01	Transporte, problemas con el	60	
Educación, falta de/mala calidad de	21	Violencia	57	
Electricidad, falta de	24	Vivienda	55	
Explosión Demográfica	20	Otro	70	
Guerra contra terrorismo	17	NS/NR	88	



**DEM13**. ¿En pocas palabras, qué significa para usted la democracia? [OJO: No leer alternativas. Después de la primera y segunda respuesta preguntar, "¿significa algo más?"]. [Aceptar hasta tres alternativas]

primera y segunaa respuesia preguniar, ~¿signiji	1.1	[Sondee] ¿Significa algo más?	[Sondee] ¿Significa algo más?
	1ª. Respuesta <b>DEM13A</b>	2ª. Respuesta <b>DEM13B</b>	3ª. Respuesta <b>DEM13C</b>
No tiene ningún significado	0	0	0
Libertad:			
Libertad (sin decir de qué tipo)	1	1	1
Libertad económica	2	2	2
Libertad de expresión, de voto, de derechos humanos	3	3	3
Libertad de movimiento	4	4	4
Libertad, falta de	5	5	5
Ser independientes	6	6	6
Economía:			
Bienestar, progreso económico, crecimiento	7	7	7
Bienestar, falta de; no hay progreso económico	8	8	8
Capitalismo	9	9	9
Libre comercio, libre negocio	10	10	10
Trabajo, más oportunidad de	11	11	11
Trabajo, falta de	12	12	12
Sufragio:			
Derecho de escoger líderes	13	13	13
Elecciones, voto	14	14	14
Elecciones libres	15	15	15
Elecciones fraudulentas	16	16	16
Igualdad:			
Igualdad (sin especificar)	17	17	17
Igualdad económica, de clases	18	18	18
Igualdad de género	19	19	19
Igualdad frente a las leyes	20	20	20
Igualdad de razas o étnica	21	21	21
Igualdad, falta de / desigualdad	22	22	22
Participación:			
Limitaciones de participación	23	23	23
Participación (sin decir de qué tipo)	24	24	24
Participación de las minorías	25	25	25
Poder el pueblo	26	26	26
Estado de derecho:			
Derechos humanos, respeto a los derechos	27	27	27
Desorden, falta de justicia, corrupción	28	28	28
Justicia	29	29	29
Obedecer la ley, menos corrupción	30	30	30
Gobierno no militar	31	31	31
Vivir en paz, sin guerra	32	32	32
Guerra, invasiones	33	33	33
Otra respuesta	80	80	80
NS/NR	88	88	88
Código [si da únicamente una respuesta se codifica 13B y 13C con 0. Si da dos respuestas, se codifica 13C con 0] [Si da una sola respuesta, marcar y pasar a	DEM13A	DEM13B	DEM13C



A1]				
<b>DEM13D.</b> ¿De estos significados de democracia d		Marcar	DEM13D	
en su opinión cuál es el más importante? [Pregun		código		
tres respuestas a la pregunta anterior. Anote el co	ódigo. Si menciona			
algo distinto a lo que respondió en la pregunta a	nterior, recordarle			
al informante cuáles fueron esas respuestas].				
<i>NS/NR</i> 88				
INAP (una o ninguna respuesta)	9			

Ahora, cambiando de tema [después de leer cada pregunta, repetir "todos los días una o dos veces por semana, rara vez o nunca", para ayudar al entrevistado]									
Con qué frecuencia	Todos los días	Una o dos veces por semana	Rara vez	Nunca	NS/NR				
A1. Escucha noticias por la radio	1	2	3	4	8	<b>A</b> 1			
A2. Mira noticias en la TV.	1	2	3	4	8	A2			
A3. Lee noticias en los periódicos	1	2	3	4	8	А3			
A4i. Lee noticias vía Internet	1	2	3	4	8	A4i			

Muy buena	SOCT1. ¿Cómo calificaría la situación económica del país? ¿Diría que es muy buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?	SOCT1	
Ni buena, ni mala3 Mala4 Muy mala5 NS/NR8  SOCT2. ¿Considera usted que la situación económica actual del país es mejor, igual o peor que hace doce meses? Mejor1 Igual2 Peor3 NS/NR8  IDIO1. ¿Cómo calificaría en general su situación económica? ¿Diría usted que es muy buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala? Muy buena			
Mala			
Muy mala			
SOCT2. ¿Considera usted que la situación económica actual del país es mejor, igual o peor que hace doce meses?  Mejor1 Igual2 Peor3 NS/NR8  IDIO1. ¿Cómo calificaría en general su situación económica? ¿Diría usted que es muy buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena			
SOCT2. ¿Considera usted que la situación económica actual del país es mejor, igual o peor que hace doce meses?  Mejor1 Igual2 Peor3 NS/NR8  IDIO1. ¿Cómo calificaría en general <u>su</u> situación económica? ¿Diría usted que es muy buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena1  Buena2  Ni buena, ni mala3  Mala4  Muy mala5  NS/NR8  IDIO2. ¿Considera usted que su situación económica actual es mejor, igual o peor que la de hace doce meses?	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
que hace doce meses?  Mejor1 Igual2 Peor3 NS/NR8  IDIO1. ¿Cómo calificaría en general su situación económica? ¿Diría usted que es muy buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena1  Buena2  Ni buena, ni mala3  Mala4  Muy mala5  NS/NR8  IDIO2. ¿Considera usted que su situación económica actual es mejor, igual o peor que la de hace doce meses?			
que hace doce meses?  Mejor1 Igual2 Peor3 NS/NR8  IDIO1. ¿Cómo calificaría en general su situación económica? ¿Diría usted que es muy buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena1  Buena2  Ni buena, ni mala3  Mala4  Muy mala5  NS/NR8  IDIO2. ¿Considera usted que su situación económica actual es mejor, igual o peor que la de hace doce meses?	SOCT2. ¿Considera usted que la situación económica actual del país es mejor, igual o peor	SOCT2	
IDIO1. ¿Cómo calificaría en general su situación económica? ¿Diría usted que es muy buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena			
buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena	Mejor1 Igual2 Peor3 NS/NR8		
buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?  Muy buena			
Muy buena		IDIO1	
Buena	buena, buena, ni buena ni mala, mala o muy mala?		
Ni buena, ni mala3 Mala4 Muy mala5 NS/NR8  IDIO2. ¿Considera usted que su situación económica actual es mejor, igual o peor que la de hace doce meses?			
Mala	<del></del>		
Muy mala			
NS/NR			
IDIO2. ¿Considera usted que su situación económica actual es mejor, igual o peor que la de hace doce meses?			
de hace doce meses?	NS/NR8		
de hace doce meses?	IDIO2 : Considera uetad que su situación económica actual es major, igual e neer que la	IDIO3	
		IDIOZ	



Ahora, para hablar de otra cosa, a veces la gente y las comunidades tienen problemas que no pueden resolver por sí mismos y para poder resolverlos piden ayuda a algún funcionario u oficina del gobierno.

¿Para poder resolver sus problemas alguna vez ha pedido usted ayuda o cooperación ?	Sí	No	NS/NR		
CP2. A algún Congresista	1	2	8	CP2	
CP4A. Al Alcalde de su municipio	1	2	8	CP4A	
<b>CP4.</b> A algún ministerio, institución pública, u oficina del Estado	1	2	8	CP4	
COLCP1. A algún concejal de su municipio	1	2	8	COLCP1	
COLCP2. A algún Conciliador o Juez de paz	1	2	8	COLCP2	
COLCP3. A la Policía	1	2	8	COLCP3	

		Algunas veces	S Casi nunc		NS/NF	2		
PROT1. ¿Alguna vez en su vida ha participa Ud. en una manifestación o protesta pública? ha hecho algunas veces, casi nunca o nunca	Lo Lo	1	2	3	8	F	PROT1	
PROT2. ¿En el último año, ha participado en una manifestación o protesta pública? ¿Lo ha hecho algunas veces, casi nunca o nunca?	1 ' '	lgunas eces	(2) casi nunca	(3) nunca	(8) NS/NR	9 Inap	PROT2	

Ahora le voy a hacer algunas preguntas sobre su comunidad y los problemas que afronta	CP5	
CP5. ¿En el último año usted ha contribuido o ha tratado de contribuir para la solución de algún problema de su comunidad o de los vecinos de su barrio?		
<b>Sí1</b> [Seguir con CP5A] <b>No2</b> [Pasar a COLEMP]		
NS/NR8 [Pasar a COLEMP]		

	Sí	No	NS/NR	Inap		
CP5A. ¿Ha donado Dinero o materiales para ayudar a solucionar algún problema de la comunidad o de su barrio?	1	2	8	9	CP5A	
CP5B. ¿Ha contribuido con su propio trabajo o mano de obra?	1	2	8	9	СР5В	
<b>CP5C</b> . ¿Ha estado asistiendo a reuniones comunitarias sobre algún problema o sobre alguna mejora?	1	2	8	9	CP5C	
<b>CP5D</b> . ¿Ha tratado de ayudar a organizar algún grupo nuevo para resolver algún problema del barrio, o para buscar alguna mejora?	1	2	8	9	CP5D	



<b>COLEMP.</b> ¿Usted diría que hoy las oportunidades de trabajo en su comunidad son mejores, iguales o peores que el año pasado?		
Mejores1	COLEMP	
Iguales2	OGZZIIII	
Peores3		
NS/NR8		

Ahora le voy a leer una lista de grupos y organizaciones. Por favor, dígame si asiste a reuniones de ellos por lo menos una vez a la semana, una o dos veces al mes, una o dos veces al año, o nunca [repetir "una vez a la semana", "una o dos veces al mes", "una o dos veces al año", o "nunca" para ayudar al entrevistado]

para ayuuar ar entrevistauo	Una vez a la semana	Una o dos veces al mes	Una o dos veces al año	Nunca	NS/NR		
CP6. ¿Reuniones de alguna organización religiosa? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP6	
CP7. ¿Reuniones de una asociación de padres de familia de la escuela o colegio? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP7	
CP8. ¿Un comité o junta de mejoras para la comunidad? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP8	
COLCP8A.; Reuniones de la Junta de Acción Comunal? ; Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	COLCP8A	
CP9. ¿De una asociación de profesionales, comerciantes o productores y/o organizaciones campesinas? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP9	
CP10. ¿De un sindicato? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP10	
CP11. ¿De una cooperativa? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP11	
COLCP14. ¿Reuniones de grupos de mujeres? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	COLCP14	
CP13. ¿De un partido o movimiento político? ¿Asiste	1	2	3	4	8	CP13	

COLSISBEN. ¿Está usted afiliado al SISBEN?	COLSISBEN	
Sí1		
No2		
NS/NR8		



COLFAMACC. ¿Está usted inscrito en el programa "Familias en Acción"?	COLFAMACC	
Sí1		
No2		
NS/NR8		

## Ahora vamos a hablar de eficiencia y rendición de cuentas

	Si	No	NS/NR		
COLCP15A ¿Ha participado usted, alguna vez, en algún comité de control ciudadano o de veeduría ciudadana?	1 [Siga]	2 [Pase a COLCP16A]	8 [Pase a COLCP16A]	COLCP15A	

COLCP15A1 ¿Considera que la información sobre la administración municipal fue?	Accesible	Poco accesible	Reservada	NS/NR	Inap.	COLCP15A1	
	1	2	3	8	9		

	Sí	No	NS/NR	Inap		
COLCP15B ¿Considera que la entidad pública a la que usted hizo control ciudadano cooperó con la veeduría?	1	2	8	9	COLCP15B	
<u>COLCP16A</u> ¿Usted considera que su <b>Municipio</b> rinde cuentas sobre el manejo de los recursos que administra?	1	2	8		COLCP16A	
COLCP16B [No aplica para Bogotá] ¿Usted considera que su Departamento rinde cuentas sobre el manejo de los recursos que administra?	1	2	8	9	COLCP16B	
COLCP16C ¿Usted Considera que el Gobierno Nacional rinde cuentas sobre el manejo de los recursos que administra?	1	2	8		COLCP16C	



Ahora vamos a hablar de la forma en que las autoridades se comunican con los ciudadanos y consultan con ellos... [repetir cada vez "Siempre", "Casi siempre", "De vez en cuando", "Casi nunca", o "Nunca"]

	Siempre	Casi siempre	De vez en cuando	Casi nunca	Nun ca	NS/ NR	Inap	
COLAC1A ¿En su opinión, su municipio consulta a los ciudadanos antes de tomar una decisión	1	2	3	4	5	8		COLAC1A
COLAC1B ¿En su opinión, su municipio hace públicos sus planes y decisiones	1	2	3	4	5	8		COLAC1B
COLAC1C ¿En su opinión, su municipio comparte la información abiertamente y a tiempo	1	2	3	4	5	8		COLAC1C
COLAC2A [No aplica para Bogotá] ¿En su opinión, su departamento consulta a los ciudadanos antes de tomar una decisión	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	COLAC2A
COLAC2B [No aplica para Bogotá] ¿En su opinión, su departamento hace públicos sus planes y decisiones	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	COLAC2B
COLAC2C [No aplica para Bogotá] ¿En su opinión, su departamento comparte la información abiertamente y a tiempo	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	COLAC2C
COLAC3A ¿En su opinión, el gobierno nacional consulta a los ciudadanos antes de tomar una decisión	1	2	3	4	5	8		COLAC3A
COLAC3B ¿En su opinión, el gobierno nacional hace públicos sus planes y decisiones	1	2	3	4	5	8		COLAC3B
<b>COLAC3C</b> ¿En su opinión, el <b>gobierno nacional</b> comparte la información abiertamente y a tiempo	1	2	3	4	5	8		COLAC3C



LS3. Hablando de otras cosas. En general ¿hasta qué punto se encuentra satisfecho con su vida? ¿Diría usted que se encuentra?	LS3	
Muy satisfecho1		
Algo satisfecho2		
Algo insatisfecho3		
Muy insatisfecho4		
NS/NR8		
	1 1	

IT1. Ahora, hablando de la gente de aquí, ¿diría que la gente de su comunidad es? (Leer alternativas)	IT1	
Muy confiable1		
Algo confiable2 Poco confiable3		
Nada confiable4 NS/NR8		

#### **ENTREGAR LA TARJETA D**

L1: Ahora para cambiar de tema.... En esta hoja hay una escala de 1 a 10 que va de izquierda a derecha. Hoy en día mucha gente, cuando conversa de tendencias políticas, habla de gente que simpatiza más con la izquierda y de gente que simpatiza más con la derecha. Según el sentido que tengan para usted los términos "izquierda" y "derecha" cuando piensa sobre su punto de vista político, ¿dónde se colocaría en esta escala? Indique la casilla que se aproxima más a su propia posición.

01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	L1
Izquierd	а							I	Derecha	(NS/NR=8 8)

#### Recoger la tarjeta D

Ahora vamos a hablar de su municipio...

	Sí	No	NS/NR		
<b>NP1</b> . ¿Ha asistido a un cabildo abierto o una sesión municipal durante los últimos 12 meses?	1	2	8	NP1	



	Mucho	Algo	Poco	Nada	NS/NR		
NP1B. ¿Hasta qué punto cree Ud. que los funcionarios del municipio hacen caso a lo que pide la gente en estas reuniones? Le hacen caso	1	2	3	4	8	NP1B	

	Sí	No	NS/NR		
<b>NP1A.</b> ¿Ha asistido a alguna reunión convocada por el alcalde durante los últimos 12 meses?	1	2	8	NP1A	
<b>NP4</b> [CONP1A] ¿Ha participado en alguna reunión para discutir o planificar el presupuesto o el plan anual de su municipio?	1	2	8	NP4	
NP2. ¿Ha solicitado ayuda o ha presentado una petición a alguna oficina, funcionario o concejal del municipio durante los últimos 12 meses?	1	2	8	NP2	

	Muy buenos	Buenos	Ni buenos, ni malos	Malos	Muy malos	NS/ NR	Inap., no hay servicio	
SGL1. ¿Diría usted que los servicios que el municipio está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8		SGL1
SGL1A y hablando del servicio municipal de agua potable ¿Diría que el servicio es? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	SGL1A



colsglib. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Salud que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	COLSGL1B
COLSGL1C. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Energía Eléctrica que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	COLSGL1C
SGL1D. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Recolección de Basura que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	SGL1D
COLSGL1E. ¿Diría usted que los servicios de Educación que el municipio le está dando a la gente son? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	COLSGL1E



LGL2. En su opinión, ¿se le debe dar más obligaciones y más dinero al municipio, o se debe dejar que el gobierno nacional asuma más obligaciones y servicios municipales?  Más al municipio	LGL2	
LGL3. [COLG3] ¿Estaría dispuesto a pagar más impuestos al municipio para que éste pueda prestar mejores servicios municipales, o cree que no vale la pena pagar más?  Dispuesto a pagar más impuestos	LGL3	

	Casi siempre	La mayoría de las veces	De vez en cuando	Casi nunca	Nunca	NS/ NR		
COLLG1. ¿Cree usted que el municipio responde a lo que quiere el pueblo? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLLG1	
colleg. ¿Considera usted que el municipio permite la participación ciudadana en la gestión municipal? [leer las alternativas]	1	2	3	54	5	8	COLLG2	

Ahora hablemos de otros temas. Alguna gente dice que en ciertas circunstancias se justificaría que los militares tomaran el poder por un golpe de estado. En su opinión bajo qué situaciones se justificaría que hubiera un golpe de estado por los militares. [leer alternativas después de cada pregunta]

JC1. Frente al Desempleo muy alto	Se justificarí a que los militares tomaran el poder			JC1	
JC4. Frente a muchas protestas sociales	Se justificarí a 1	No se justifica ría 2	NS/NR 8	JC4	



JC10. Frente a mucha delincuencia	Se justificarí a 1	No se justifica ría 2	NS/NR 8	JC10
JC12. Frente a la alta inflación, con aumento excesivo de precios	Se justificarí a 1	No se justifica ría 2	NS/NR 8	JC12
JC13. Frente a mucha corrupción	Se justificarí a 1	No se justifica ría 2	NS/NR 8	JC13
COLJC14 [JC14]. Frente a un agravamiento del conflicto armado	Se justificarí a 1	No se justifica ría 2	NS/NR 8	COLJC14
COLJC15 [JC15]. Frente a una seria amenaza terrorista	Se justificarí a 1	No se justifica ría 2	NS/NR 8	COLJC15

	Sí podría haber	Nunca habría razón	NS/NR		
JC15 ¿Cree usted que alguna vez puede haber razón suficiente para que el presidente cierre el Congreso o cree que no puede existir razón suficiente para eso?	1	2	8	JC15	
JC16: ¿Cree usted que alguna vez puede haber razón suficiente para que el presidente disuelva la Corte Constitucional o cree que nunca puede existir razón suficiente para eso?	1	2	8	JC16	
JC13A. ¿Cree Ud. que alguna vez puede haber razón suficiente para un golpe de estado o cree que nunca hay suficiente razón para eso?	1	2	8	JC13A	

Ahora, yo le voy a leer varias frases. Teniendo en cuenta la situación actual del país, quisiera que me dijera con cuál de las siguientes frases está más de acuerdo?  POP1. [Leer alternativas]  Para el progreso del país, es necesario que nuestros presidentes limiten la voz y el voto de los partidos de la oposición,	POP1	
Aunque atrase el progreso del país, nuestros presidentes no deben limitar la voz y el voto de los partidos de la oposición		
NS/NR8		



POP2. [Leer alternativas]  El Congreso impide mucho la labor de nuestros presidentes, y debería ser ignorado	POP2	
POP3. [Leer alternativas] Los jueces con frecuencia estorban la labor de nuestros presidentes, y deberían ser ignorados	POP3	
POP4. [Leer alternativas]  Nuestros presidentes deben tener el poder necesario para que puedan actuar a favor del interés nacional	POP4	
POP5. [Leer alternativas]  Nuestros presidentes deben hacer lo que el pueblo quiere aunque las leyes se lo impidan	POP5	

VIC1. ¿Ha sido víctima de al	gún acto de delincuencia en los últimos 12 meses?		
Sí1	[siga]		
No2	[Pasar a AOJ8]	VIC1	
NS/NR 8	[Pasar a AOJ8]		



VIC2. ¿Qué tipo de acto delincuencial s	ufrió? <b>[leer las alternativas]</b>	VIC2
Robo sin agresión o amenaza t	íísica01	
Robo con agresión o amenaza	física02	
Agresión física sin robo		
Violación o asalto sexual		
Secuestro		
Daño a la propiedad		
Robo de la casa		
Otro [no leer]		
NS/NR	88	
Inap (no víctima)	99	
AOJ1. [Si responde "Sí" a VIC1] ¿Der opciones]	nunció el hecho a alguna institución? [NO leer	AOJ1
Sí1	[siga]	
No lo denunció2	[Pasar a AOJ1B]	
NS/NR8	[Pasar a AOJ1B]	
Inap. (no víctima)9		
•	nunció el hecho? [No leer alternativas. Marcar na, averiguar cuál fue la primera institución a la	AOJ1A
Fiscalía	1	
Policía		
Juzgados		
Comisaría de familia	4	
_	_	1
Prensa		
Otro	7	
	8	



AOJ1B. ¿Por qué no denunció el hecho? [no leer alternativas; una sola respuesta]	AOJ1B	
No sirve de nada1		
Es peligroso y por miedo a represalias2		
No tenía pruebas3		
No fue grave4		
No sabe dónde denunciar5		
No hay policía acá6		
Otro7		
NS/NR8		
Inap. [no víctima o sí denunció]9		

AOJ8. Para poder capturar delincuentes, ¿Cree usted que: las autoridades siempre deben respetar las leyes o en ocasiones pueden actuar al margen de la ley?  Deben respetar las leyes siempre	AOJ8	
AOJ11. Hablando del lugar o barrio donde vive, y pensando en la posibilidad de ser víctima de un asalto o robo, ¿Se siente muy seguro, algo seguro, algo inseguro o muy inseguro?	AOJ11	
Muy seguro1 Algo seguro2		
Algo inseguro		
NS/NR8		

	Mucho	Algo	Poco	Nada	NS/ NR		
AOJ11A. Y hablando del país en general, ¿Qué tanto cree Ud. que el nivel de delincuencia que tenemos ahora representa una amenaza para el bienestar de nuestro futuro? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	4	8	AOJ11A	
AOJ12. Si fuera víctima de un robo o asalto, ¿Cuánto confiaría en que el sistema judicial castigaría al culpable? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	4	8	AOJ12	



De los trámites que Ud. o alguien de su familia haya hecho alguna vez con las siguientes entidades. ¿Se siente muy satisfecho, algo satisfecho, algo insatisfecho, o muy insatisfecho? [REPETIR LAS ALTERNATIVAS DE RESPUESTA EN CADA PREGUNTA]

	Muy satisfecho	Algo satisfecho	Algo insatisfecho	Muy Insatisfecho	[No leer] No hizo trámites	NS/NR		
ST1. La policía nacional	1	2	3	4	9	8	ST1	
ST2. Los juzgados o tribunales de justicia	1	2	3	4	9	8	ST2	
ST3. La fiscalía	1	2	3	4	9	8	ST3	
ST4. La alcaldía	1	2	3	4	9	8	ST4	

	Sí	No	NS/NR		
<b>WC1.</b> ¿Ud. ha perdido algún miembro de su familia o pariente cercano, a consecuencia del conflicto armado que sufre el país? ¿o tiene un familiar desaparecido por el conflicto?	1	2	8	WC1	
<b>WC2</b> . ¿Y algún miembro de su familia tuvo que refugiarse o abandonar su lugar de vivienda por razones del conflicto que sufre el país?	1	2	8	WC2	
<b>WC3</b> . ¿Por razones del conflicto algún miembro de su familia tuvo que irse del país?	1	2	8	WC3	

PREGUNTAR SÓLO SI LA RESPUESTA A WC1, WC2 o WC3 FUE "SÍ". DE LO CONTRARIO, SALTAR A COLPAZ1A.

¿Qué grupo, o grupos fueron responsables de estos hechos? [NO LEER LAS ALTERNATIVAS. EL ENCUESTADO PUEDE ELEGIR MAS DE UNA OPCION. ANOTAR TODAS LAS OPCIONES MENCIONADAS O (8) NS/NR]

	Sí	No	NS/NR	Inap. (no fue víctima)	
COLWC4A. La guerrilla	1	2	8	9	COLWC4A
COLWC4B. Los paramilitares	1	2	8	9	COLWC4B
COLWC4D. El ejército	1	2	8	9	COLWC4D
COLWC4E. La policía	1	2	8	9	COLWC4E
COLWC4F. Otro	1	2	8	9	COLWC4F



	Negociación	Uso de la fuerza militar	[No leer] Ambas	NS/NR		
COLPAZ1A. De las siguientes opciones para solucionar el conflicto con la guerrilla, ¿cuál cree que es la mejor? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8	COLPAZ1A	
COLPAZ1B. Y con los grupos paramilitares, ¿cuál cree que es la mejor solución? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8	COLPAZ1B	

¿Qué tanto cree que es posible una solución negociada en un plazo razonable, diga usted de 4 años...: [repetir cada vez "muy posible", "posible", "poco posible", o "imposible"]

	Muy posible	Posible	Poco posible	Imposible	NS/NR	
COLPAZ2A. Con las FARC	1	2	3	4	8	COLPAZ2A
COLPAZ2B. Con el ELN	1	2	3	4	8	COLPAZ2B
COLPAZ2C. Con los paramilitares	1	2	3	4	8	COLPAZ2C

¿Estaría de acuerdo con la desmovilización y reinserción de:

	Sí	No	NS/ NR	
COLPAZ3A. La guerrilla	1	2	8	COLPAZ3A
COLPAZ3B. Los paramilitares	1	2	8	COLPAZ3B

COLPAZ4. ¿Cree usted que la desmovilización de grupos guerrilleros mejoraría o empeoraría la seguridad de su región?  Mejoraría	COLPAZ4	
COLPAZ5. ¿Cree usted que la desmovilización de grupos paramilitares mejoraría o empeoraría la seguridad de su región?  Mejoraría	COLPAZ5	



¿Usted ve posible el perdón y la reconciliación de los ciudadanos con miembros desmovilizados de:

	Sí	No	NS/NR	
COLPAZ6A. La guerrilla	1	2	8	COLPAZ6A
COLPAZ6B. Los paramilitares	1	2	8	COLPAZ6B

#### [Dele la tarjeta "A" al entrevistado]

Ahora vamos a usar una tarjeta... Esta tarjeta contiene una escala de 7 puntos; cada uno indica un puntaje que va de 1 - que significa NADA hasta 7- que significa MUCHO. Por ejemplo, si yo le preguntara hasta qué punto le gusta ver televisión, si a usted no le gusta nada escogería el puntaje 1, y si, por el contrario, le gusta mucho ver televisión, escogería el puntaje 7. Si su opinión está entre nada y mucho elija un puntaje intermedio. ¿Entonces, hasta qué punto le gusta ver televisión? Léame el número. [Asegúrese que el entrevistado entienda correctamente].

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Nada						Mucho	(8) NS/NR

Ahora, usando la tarjeta "A", por favor conteste estas preguntas.

	Anotar 1-7, 8 =		
	NS/NR 9=Inap.		
<b>B1</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto cree que los tribunales de justicia de Colombia garantizan un juicio justo? Si cree que los tribunales no garantizan en nada la justicia, escoja el número 1; si cree que los tribunales garantizan mucho la justicia escoja el número 7 o escoja un puntaje intermedio.		В1	
<b>B2</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto tiene respeto por las instituciones políticas de Colombia?		B2	
<b>B3</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto cree que los derechos básicos del ciudadano están bien protegidos por el sistema político colombiano?		В3	
<b>B4</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto se siente orgulloso de vivir bajo el sistema político colombiano?		B4	
<b>B6</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto piensa que se debe apoyar el sistema político colombiano?		В6	
<b>B10A.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el sistema de justicia?		B10A	
B11. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el Consejo Nacional Electoral?		B11	
B12. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en las Fuerzas Armadas?		B12	
B13. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el Congreso Nacional?		B13	
B14. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el Gobierno Nacional?		B14	
B15. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Fiscalía General de la Nación?		B15	
<b>B16</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Procuraduría General de la Nación?		B16	
B17. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Defensoría del Pueblo?		B17	
B18. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Policía?		B18	
B19. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Contraloría?		B19	
B20. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Iglesia Católica?		B20	



	Anotar 1-7, 8 = NS/NR 9=Inap.		
B21. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en los partidos políticos?		B21	
<b>B31</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted confianza en la Corte Suprema de Justicia?		B31	
B32. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted confianza en su alcaldía?		B32	
COLB32A. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted confianza en el Concejo de su municipio?		COLB32A	
<b>B37</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted confianza en los medios de comunicación?		B37	
<b>B43</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto tiene usted orgullo de ser colombiano?		B43	
<b>B47.</b> ¿Hasta que punto tiene usted confianza en las elecciones?		B47	
B33 [COB48]. [No aplica a Bogotá]¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Gobernación de su departamento?		B33	
<b>B50</b> [B49]. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en la Corte Constitucional?		B50	
B23. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en los sindicatos?		B23	
COLB60. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en las FARC?		COLB60	
COLB61. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en el ELN?		COLB61	
COLB62. ¿Hasta qué punto tiene confianza en las Autodefensas o paramilitares?		COLB62	

### [RECOJER TARJETA "A"]

Ahora, en una escala diferente

COLB50. ¿Usted diría que las decisiones de las autoridades Judiciales son:		
Muy lentas1		
Lentas2		
Razonables en tiempo3	COLB50	
Rápidas4		
Muy rápidas5		
NS/NR8		

Cómo considera usted el **acceso** a los siguientes servicios de justicia: Muy Bueno, Bueno, Regular, Malo, Muy Malo

¿Cómo considera el acceso a los servicios	Muy bueno	Bueno	Regular	Malo	Muy malo	NS/NR	
COLB51A En las Comisarías de familia	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51A
COLB51B En la Fiscalía	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51B
COLB51C En las Inspecciones de Policía	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51C
COLB51D En los Consultorios Jurídicos	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51D
COLB51E En la Defensoría del Pueblo	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51E
COLB51F En los Juzgados	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51F



¿Cómo considera el acceso a los servicios	Muy bueno	Bueno	Regular	Malo	Muy malo	NS/NR		
COLB51G En la casa de justicia	1	2	3	4	5	8	COLB51G	

COLB52. Cuando usted enfrenta un conflicto legal, civil, interpersonal, etc., Usted: [Leer alternativas. Marcar sólo una opción; si más de una, indicar lo que haría principalmente.]  No hace nada	COLB52	
COLB53. ¿Usted ha participado en alguna conciliación? Sí	COLB53	
COLB53B. ¿Qué tan satisfecho quedó usted con la forma en que se llevó a cabo el proceso de conciliación?  Totalmente satisfecho	COLB53B	



1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Nada						Mucho	(8) NS/NR	

### [Mostrar la tarjeta A]

Ahora, usando la tarjeta A, en esta misma escala, por favor conteste estas preguntas.  (seguir con tarjeta A: escala de 1 a 7 puntos)	Anotar 1-7, 8 = NS/NR		
N1. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual combate la pobreza?		N1	
N3. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual promueve y protege los principios democráticos?		N3	
N9. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual combate la corrupción en el Gobierno?		N9	
N10 [CON10] ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual protege los derechos humanos?		N10	
COLN11. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual resuelve el conflicto armado?		COLN11	
COLN12. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual sanea las finanzas estatales?		COLN12	
N11. ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual mejora la seguridad ciudadana?		N11	
N12 [CON14] ¿Hasta qué punto el gobierno actual combate el desempleo?		N12	

### [Recoja tarjeta "A"]

M1. Y hablando en general del actual gobierno, diría que el trabajo que está realizando el	M1
Presidente Uribe es: [leer alternativas]	
Muy bueno1	
Bueno2	
Ni bueno, ni malo3	
Malo4	
Muy malo5	
NS/NR8	



#### [Entréguele al entrevistado tarjeta "B"]

Ahora, vamos a usar una tarjeta similar, pero el punto 1 representa "muy en desacuerdo" y el punto 7 representa "muy de acuerdo." Un número entre 1 y 7 representa un puntaje intermedio. Yo le voy a leer varias afirmaciones y quisiera que me dijera hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con esas afirmaciones.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Muy en d	esacuerdo	)		Muy	de acuerdo	)	NS/NR

	Anotar 1-7, NS/NR=8	
ING4. Puede que la democracia tenga problemas pero es mejor que cualquier otra forma de Gobierno. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con esta frase?		ING4
PN2. A pesar de nuestras diferencias, los colombianos tenemos muchas cosas y valores que nos unen como país. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con esta frase?		PN2
COLCONST1. La Constitución expresa los valores y las aspiraciones de los colombianos. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con esta frase?		COLCONST1
COLVB10A. Es bueno para el país que exista en general la posibilidad de la reelección presidencial. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con esta frase?		COLVB10A
<b>DEM23.</b> Puede haber democracia sin que existan partidos políticos. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con esta frase?		DEM23

[RECOGER TARJETA B]



PN4. En general, ¿diría que está muy satisfecho, satisfecho, insatisfecho o muy insatisfecho con la forma en que la democracia funciona en Colombia?	PN4	
Muy satisfecho1		
Satisfecho2		
Insatisfecho3		
Muy insatisfecho4		
NS/NR8		
PN5. En su opinión ¿Colombia es un país muy democrático, algo democrático, poco democrático, o nada democrático?	PN5	
Muy democrático1		
Algo democrático2		
Poco democrático3		
Nada democrático4		
NS/NR8		
PN6. ¿Basado en su experiencia en los últimos años, Colombia se ha vuelto más democrática, igual de democrática o menos democrática?	PN6	
Más democrática1		
Igual de democrática2		
Menos democrática3		
NS/NR8		

#### [Entréguele al entrevistado tarjeta "C"]

Ahora vamos a cambiar a otra tarjeta. Esta nueva tarjeta tiene una escala de 10 puntos, que van de 1 a 10, con el 1 indicando que **desaprueba firmemente** y el 10 indicando que usted **aprueba firmemente**. Voy a leerle una lista de algunas acciones o cosas que las personas pueden hacer para llevar a cabo sus metas y objetivos políticos. Quisiera que me dijera, mediante un número entre 1 y 10 en esta escala, con qué firmeza aprobaría o desaprobaría que las personas hagan las siguientes acciones.

(01)	(02)	(03)	(04)	(05)	(06)	(07)	(80)	(09)	(10)	(88)
Desapru	ieba firme	emente					Apru	eba firme	emente	NS/NR

	Anotar 1-10, 88 NS/NR		
E5. Que las personas participen en manifestaciones permitidas por la ley.		E5	
E8. Que las personas participen en una organización o grupo para tratar de resolver los problemas de las comunidades.		E8	
E11. Que las personas trabajen en campañas electorales para un partido político o candidato.		E11	



	Anotar 1-10, 88 NS/NR		
<b>E15</b> . Que las personas participen en un cierre o bloqueo de calles o carreteras.		E15	
E14. Que las personas invadan propiedades o terrenos privados.		E14	
E2. Que las personas ocupen fábricas, oficinas y otros edificios.		E2	
E3. Que las personas participen en un grupo que quiera derrocar por medios violentos a un gobierno elegido.		E3	
E16. Que las personas hagan justicia por su propia mano cuando el Estado no castiga a los criminales		E16	

### [No recoja tarjeta "C"]

Ahora vamos a hablar de algunas acciones que el Estado puede tomar. Seguimos usando una escala de uno a diez. Por favor vea la tarjeta C. En esta escala, 1 significa que desaprueba firmemente y 10 significa que aprueba firmemente.

(01)	(02)	(03)	(04)	(05)	(06)	(07)	(08)	(09)	(10)	(88)
Desapru	ieba firme			Apru	ueba firme	mente	NS/NR			

	Anotar 1- 10,88= NS/NR		
<b>D32.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba una ley que prohíba las protestas públicas?		D32	
<b>D33.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba una ley que prohíba reuniones de cualquier grupo que critique el sistema político colombiano?		D33	
<b>D34.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba que el gobierno censure programas de televisión?		D34	
<b>D36.</b> ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba que el gobierno censure libros que están en las bibliotecas de las escuelas públicas?		D36	
<b>D37</b> . ¿Hasta qué punto aprueba o desaprueba que el gobierno censure a los medios de comunicación que lo critican?		D37	



Las preguntas que siguen son para saber su opinión sobre las diferentes ideas que tienen las personas que viven en Colombia. Use siempre la escala de 10 puntos **[sigue tarjeta C]**.

(01)	(02)	(03)	(04)	(05)	(06)	(07)	(80)	(09)	(10)	(88)	l
Desaprueba firmemente							Aprı	ueba firm	emente	NS/NR	

	Anotar 1-10, NS/NR=88	
D1. Hay personas que siempre hablan mal de la forma de gobierno de Colombia, no sólo del gobierno de turno, sino la forma de gobierno, ¿con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba el derecho de votar de esas personas? Por favor léame el número de la escala: [Sondee: ¿Hasta qué punto?]		D1
D2. ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba el que estas personas puedan llevar a cabo manifestaciones pacíficas con el propósito de expresar sus puntos de vista? Por favor léame el número.		D2
D3. ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba que estas personas puedan postularse para cargos públicos?		D3
D4. ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba que estas personas salgan en televisión para dar un discurso?		D4
<b>D5.</b> Y ahora, cambiando el tema, y pensando en los <b>homosexuales</b> , ¿Con qué firmeza aprueba o desaprueba que estas personas puedan <b>postularse para cargos públicos</b> ?		D5

[Recoja tarjeta "C"]

<b>ACR1</b> . Ahora le voy a leer tres frases. Por favor dígame cuál de las tres describe mejor su opinión:	ACR1
La forma en que nuestra sociedad está organizada debe ser completa y radicalmente cambiada por medios revolucionarios, o1	
Nuestra sociedad debe ser gradualmente mejorada o perfeccionada por reformas, o2	
Nuestra sociedad debe ser valientemente defendida de los movimientos revolucionarios3	
NS/NR8	



COLDH1

<b>DEM2</b> . Con cuál de las siguientes tres frases está usted más de acuerdo:		DEM2
A la gente como uno, le da lo mismo un régimen democrático que uno <b>no</b> democrático1		
La democracia es preferible a cualquier otra forma de gobierno2		
En algunas circunstancias un gobierno autoritario puede ser preferible a uno democrático3		
NS/NR	8	
DEM14 [CODEM14] ¿Cuál es la mejor forma para fortalecer la democracia en Colombia? lea LENTAMENTE cada una de estas opciones. Sólo UNA alternativa.]  Fortaleciendo la justicia	[Por favor,	DEM1
Fortaleciendo la justicia		
Mejorando los servicios que ofrece el Estado3		
Combatiendo la corrupción4		
Desarrollando fuentes de empleo5		
Resolviendo el conflicto armado7		
[No leer] Ninguna de las anteriores6		
NS/NR8		
ALITA Llov gente que dice que necesitames un líder fuerte que no tengo que	AUT1	
AUT1. Hay gente que dice que necesitamos un líder fuerte que no tenga que ser elegido a través del voto. Otros dicen que aunque las cosas no funcionen bien, la democracia electoral, o sea el voto popular, es siempre lo mejor. ¿Qué piensa? [leer las alternativas]	AUTI	
Necesitamos un líder fuerte que no tenga que ser elegido1		
La democracia electoral (voto popular) es lo mejor2		
NS/NR8		
Ahora vamos a hablar sobre derechos humanos		
COLDH1. ¿Qué tan eficiente ha sido el Estado Colombiano en prevenir las violaciones masivas a los Derechos Humanos (Masacres y Desplazamiento Forzado)? [leer alternativas]		
Muy eficiente1		



Eficiente.....2

Ineficiente......3
Muy ineficiente.....4
NS/NR.....8

COLDH2. ¿En caso de tener conocimiento o ser objeto de una violación a los derechos humanos, a cuál de las siguientes instituciones acudiría usted para denunciar el hecho? Por favor, elija la más importante [leer opciones]  Defensoría del Pueblo	COLDH2	
COLDH2A. ¿Por qué no acudiría a ninguna de estas instituciones? [Leer alternativas; marcar solo una opción]  Por temor	COLDH2A	
COLDH3. Hay gente que dice que la política de seguridad democrática del presidente Álvaro Uribe ha incrementado —y otros dicen que ha disminuido— las violaciones a los derechos humanos como el desplazamiento forzoso, las masacres, los secuestros, y otras. ¿Usted cree que la política de Seguridad Ciudadana del presidente Álvaro Uribe, ha incrementado o disminuido las violaciones a los Derechos Humanos?  Incrementado	COLDH3	



<b>PP1</b> . Ahora para cambiar el temaDurante las elecciones, alguna gente trata de convencer a otro para que vote por algún partido o candidato. ¿Con qué frecuencia ha tratado usted de convencer a otros para que vote por un partido o candidato? <i>[lea las alternativas]</i>	PP1	
Frecuentemente1		
De vez en cuando2		
Rara vez3		
Nunca4		
NS/NR8		
<b>PP2</b> . Hay personas que trabajan por algún partido o candidato durante las campañas electorales. ¿Trabajó para algún candidato o partido en las pasadas elecciones presidenciales de este año?	PP2	
Sí trabajó		
ABS5. ¿Cree que el voto puede mejorar las cosas en el futuro o cree que como quiera que vote, las cosas no van a mejorar?	ABS5	
El voto puede mejorar las cosas1		
Las cosas no van a mejorar2		
NS/NR8		

Me gustaría que me indicara si usted considera que las siguientes actuaciones son y deben ser castigadas; 2) corruptas pero justificadas bajo las circunstancias; o 3) r	, .	
<b>DC1.</b> Por ejemplo: Un congresista acepta una mordida de diez mil dólares pagada por una empresa. ¿Considera usted que lo que hizo el congresista es [Leer alternativas]:	DC1	
Corrupto y debe ser castigado		
NS/NR8		
COLDC1A. ¿Y lo que hizo la empresa que pagó los diez mil dólares? ¿Considera usted que es [Leer alternativas]:	COLDC1A	
Corrupto y debe ser castigado		
NS/NR8		
<b>DC10.</b> Una madre con varios hijos tiene que sacar una partida de nacimiento para uno de ellos. Para no perder tiempo esperando, ella le paga diez mil pesos de más al empleado público municipal. ¿Cree usted que lo que hizo la señora es [Leer alternativas]:	DC10	
Corrupto y debe ser castigado		
NS/NR8		



<b>DC13</b> . Una persona desempleada es cuñado de un político importante, y éste usa su palanca para conseguirle un empleo público. ¿Usted cree que el político es [Leer alternativas]:	DC13	
Corrupto y debe ser castigado		
NS/NR8		

Ahora queremos hablar de su experiencia personal con cosas que pasan en la vida...

	No	Sí	NS/NR	INAP		
<b>EXC1</b> . ¿Ha sido acusado durante el último año por un agente de policía por una infracción que no cometió?	0	1	8		EXC1	
<b>EXC2</b> . ¿Algún agente de policía le pidió una mordida en el último año?	0	1	8		EXC2	
EXC6. ¿Un empleado público le ha solicitado una mordida en el último año?	0	1	8		EXC6	
EXC11. ¿Ha tramitado algo en la alcaldía en el último año?  No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:  Para tramitar algo en el municipio/delegación (como un permiso, por ejemplo) durante el último año, ¿ha tenido que pagar alguna suma además de lo exigido por la ley?	0	1	8	9	EXC11	
EXC13. ¿Usted trabaja?  No → Marcar 9  Sí → Preguntar:  En su trabajo, ¿le han solicitado alguna mordida en el último año?	0	1	8	9	EXC13	
EXC14. ¿En el último año, tuvo algún trato con los juzgados? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar: ¿Ha tenido que pagar una mordida en los juzgados en el último año?	0	1	8	9	EXC14	



	No	Sí	NS/NR	INAP		
EXC15. ¿Usó servicios médicos públicos en el último año? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:	0	1	8	9	EXC15	
Para ser atendido en un hospital o en un puesto de salud durante el último año, ¿ha tenido que pagar alguna mordida?						
EXC16. ¿Tuvo algún hijo en la escuela o colegio en el último año? No → Marcar 9 Sí → Preguntar:	0	1	8	9	EXC16	
En la escuela o colegio durante el último año, ¿tuvo que pagar alguna mordida?						

[leer todas las alternativas cada vez]								
Teniendo en cuenta su experiencia o lo que ha oído mencionar,	Muy generalizada	Algo generalizada	Poco generalizada	Nada generalizada	NS/ NR			
<b>EXC7</b> . ¿la corrupción de los funcionarios públicos está?	1	2	3	4	8	EXC7		
COLEXC7. ¿la corrupción de los funcionarios municipales está?	1	2	3	4	8	COLEXC7		
COLEXC10. ¿la corrupción de los funcionarios departamentales está?	1	2	3	4	8	COLEXC10		
COLEXC11. ¿la corrupción de los jueces está?	1	2	3	4	8	COLEXC11		

Ahora queremos saber cuánta información sobre política y sobre el país se le transmite a la gente	Correcto	Incorrecto (NS/NR)		
GI1. ¿Cuál es el nombre del actual presidente de los Estados Unidos? [No leer, George W. Bush]	1	2	GI1	
GI3 [GI2]. ¿Cuantos departamentos tiene Colombia? [No leer, 32]	1	2	GI3	
GI4 [GI3]. ¿Cuánto tiempo dura el período presidencial en Colombia? [No leer, cuatro años]	1	2	GI4	
GI5 [GI4]. ¿Cómo se llama el presidente de Brasil? [No leer, Luis Inácio Lula da Silva; aceptar también Lula]	1	2	GI5	



Si usted decidiera participar en algunas de las actividades que le voy a mencionar, ¿lo haría usted sin temor, con un poco de temor, o con mucho temor? [VAYA LEYENDO LA LISTA, REPITIENDO LA PREGUNTA SI ES NECESARIO]	SIN TEMOR		MUCHO TEMOR			
<b>DER1.</b> Participar para resolver problemas de su comunidad, ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8	DER1	
DER2. Votar en una elección política, ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8	DER2	
DER3. Participar en una manifestación pacífica, ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8	DER3	
DER4. Postularse para un cargo de elección popular ¿lo haría? [leer alternativas]	1	2	3	8	DER4	

VB10. ¿En este mome	nto simpatiza co	n algún partido político?	VB10
Sí1	,		
No2			
NS/NR8			
VB1. Para hablar de ot	ra cosa ¿Tien	e cédula de ciudadanía?	VB1
Sí1 N NS/NR8	o2	En trámite3	
COLVB2. ¿Por quién v años (2002)? [NO LEER ALTERNAT		ones presidenciales de hace cuatro	COLVB2
Votó en blanco		0	
Lucho Garzón		1	
Noemí Sanín		2	
Álvaro Uribe		3	
Horacio Serpa		4	
Otro		5	
No votó		6	
NS/NR		8	
VB2. ¿Votó en las elec	ciones presidend	ciales del pasado 29 de mayo?	VB2
Sí votó1 [Pase	COLVB3]		
No votó2 [Siga]			
NS/NR8 [Pase	a COLVB10B1		



<u>VB4</u> . [Sólo para los que no votaron]	VB4
¿Por qué no votó en las pasadas elecciones presidenciales? [No leer alternativas; anotar una sola respuesta]	
Falta de transporte	
COLVB3. ¿Por quién votó para presidente en las últimas elecciones presidenciales? [NO LEER LISTA]	COLVB3
Votó en blanco o anuló el voto00	
Carlos Arturo Rincón Barreto01	
Enrique Parejo González02	
Álvaro Uribe Vélez	
Carlos Gaviria Díaz04	
Horacio Serpa Uribe	
Álvaro Leyva Durán06	
Antanas Mockus07	
Otro	
NS/NR88	
Inap. (no votó)99	



COLVB15. ¿Cuánto tiempo antes de las elecciones decidió por quién votar? [leer alternativas]	COLVB15
Menos de una semana antes de las elecciones1	
Una semana antes de las elecciones2	
Un mes antes de las elecciones3	
Tres meses antes de las elecciones4	
Más de tres meses antes de las elecciones5	
NS/NR8	
Inap (no votó)9	
VB8. Cuando votó, ¿cuál fue la razón más importante de su voto? [Leer LENTAMENTE todas las opciones] [Sólo aceptar una respuesta]	VB8
Por las cualidades del candidato01	
Por el partido político del candidato02	
Por el programa de gobierno del candidato03	
Para que no ganara otro04	
Porque se sentía comprometido y le debía lealtad05	
Porque era el que iba a ganar06	
Porque era de su región07	
Porque iba ganando en las encuestas08	
Porque le cree al candidato09	
Otra razón	
NS/NR	
Inap (no votó)99	



más impactó su decisión de voto? [Leer LENTA opciones] [Sólo aceptar una respuesta]	imeitie todas las	
Los vecinos	01	
La familia	02	
Los compañeros de trabajo	.03	
Los amigos	.04	
El apego a su partido político	.05	
La campaña política	06	
Su jefe	.07	
Un político	08	
La prensa escrita	09	
Los noticieros de televisión	10	
La radio	11	
Las encuestas	12	
La publicidad política	13	
Las amenazas de los violentos	14	
Otro	15 <b>[no leer]</b>	
NS/NR	.88	
Inap. (no votó)	.99	

De los siguientes medios de comunicación, ¿qué tan importante fue para usted la información ofrecida por ellos para decidir `por cuál candidato a la presidencia votar? [leer alternativas cada vez]

	Nada impor- tante	Poco impor- tante	Ni poco ni muy impor- tante	Impor-tante	Muy impor- tante	No consu-me el medio [NO LEER]	NS/NR	Inap	
COLVB21A. Noticieros de TV	1	2	3	4	5	0	8	9	COLVB21A
COLVB21B. Programas de radio	1	2	3	4	5	0	8	9	COLVB21B
COLVB21C. Periódicos	1	2	3	4	5	0	8	9	COLVB21C
COLVB21D. Revistas de actualidad y de noticias	1	2	3	4	5	0	8	9	COLVB21D



[Entréguele al entrevistado tarjeta "D"] En esta hoja hay una escala de 1 a 10, que va de izquierda a derecha. En esta escala de tendencias políticas, ¿Dónde ubicaría los siguientes candidatos presidenciales?  COLVB10B. Horacio Serpa (ANOTAR 1 a 10)	COLVB10B	
NS/NR88		
<b>COLVB10C.</b> Álvaro Uribe (ANOTAR 1 a 10) NS/NR88	COLVB10C	
<b>COLVB10D.</b> Carlos Gaviria(ANOTAR 1 a 10) NS/NR88	COLVB10D	
<b>COLVB10E</b> . Antanas Mockus (ANOTAR 1 A 10) NS/NR88	COLVB10E	

[Recoja la tarjeta D]

Voy a mencionarle el nombre de algunos de los candidatos a la presidencia y me gustaría que me dijera si el concepto que usted tiene de ellos es muy desfavorable, desfavorable, favorable o muy favorable. [leer opciones cada vez, LENTAMENTE]

	Muy desfavorable	Desfavorable	Favorable	Muy Favorable	No lo conoce [NO LEER]	NS/ NR	
COLVB 17A. Álvaro Uribe	1	2	3	4	0	8	COLVB17A
COLVB 17B. Horacio Serpa	1	2	3	4	0	8	COLVB17B
COLVB 17C. Carlos Gaviria	1	2	3	4	0	8	COLVB17C
COLVB 17D. Antanas Mockus	1	2	3	4	0	8	COLVB17D

[Entregue la tarjeta B]

Ahora, pensando en los mismos candidatos, me gustaría que expresara su acuerdo o desacuerdo frente algunas expresiones sobre ellos, usando esta escala de 1 a 7, donde 1 es "muy en desacuerdo" y 7 es "muy de acuerdo". [No leer como pregunta sino como afirmación]	Marcar 1 a 7 8=NS/NR		
---	----------------------------	--	--



COLVB18A. Hablando de Álvaro Uribe Álvaro Uribe es un hombre honesto. ¿hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo?	COLVB18A
COLVB18B. Álvaro Uribe es un hombre preparado para gobernar	COLVB18B
COLVB18C. Álvaro Uribe es el mejor líder	COLVB18C
COLVB18D. Álvaro Uribe es capaz de conducir el país hacia la paz	COLVB18D
COLVB19A. Y ahora hablando de Horacio Serpa Horacio Serpa es un hombre honesto, ¿hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo?	COLVB19A
COLVB19B. Horacio Serpa es un hombre preparado para gobernar	COLVB19B
COLVB19C. Horacio Serpa es el mejor líder	COLVB19C
COLVB19D. Horacio Serpa es capaz de conducir el país hacia la paz	COLVB19D
COLVB20A. Y ahora sobre Carlos Gaviria Carlos Gaviria es un hombre honesto, ¿hasta qué punto está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo?	COLVB20A
COLVB20B. Carlos Gaviria es un hombre preparado para gobernar	COLVB20B
COLVB20C. Carlos Gaviria es el mejor líder	COLVB20C
COLVB20D. Carlos Gaviria es capaz de conducir el país hacia la paz	COLVB20D

[recoger la tarjeta B]



A continuación voy a entregarle una serie de tarjetas que tienen unas escalas en donde cada extremo representa políticas gubernamentales opuestas. Por favor ubíquese usted mismo en algún punto de la escala, según lo que usted piensa.

[Entregue la tarjeta G]

	Marcar 1 a 5 8=NS/NR	
COLVB22A. ¿Dónde se ubicaría usted con respecto a esta escala, donde los extremos son si el gobierno debería resolver el conflicto armado por la vía militar o si debería resolverlo por la vía del diálogo? Dígame un número entre el 1 y el 5.		COLVB22A
COLVB22B. Y ahora, en esta misma escala, ¿dónde cree que se ubicaría Álvaro Uribe?		COLVB22B
COLVB22C. Siempre en la misma escala, ¿dónde cree que se ubicaría Horacio Serpa?		COLVB22C
COLVB22D. ¿Y dónde cree que se ubicaría Carlos Gaviria?		COLVB22B

#### [Recoja la tarjeta G]

[Entregue la tarjeta H]

	Marcar 1 a 5 8=NS/NR	
COLVB23A., ¿Dónde se ubicaría usted mismo con respecto a esta escala, donde los extremos son si el gobierno debería tomar en consideración las críticas de la oposición o si debería ignorarlas? Dígame un número entre el 1 y el 5.		COLVB23A
COLVB23B. Y ahora, en esta misma escala, ¿dónde cree que se ubicaría Álvaro Uribe?		COLVB23B
COLVB23C. Siempre en la misma escala, ¿dónde cree que se ubicaría Horacio Serpa?		COLVB23C
COLVB23D. ¿Y dónde cree que se ubicaría Carlos Gaviria?		COLVB23B

#### [Recoja la tarjeta H]

[Entregue la tarjeta l]

	Marcar 1 a 5 8=NS/NR	
COLVB24A. Finalmente, ¿dónde se ubicaría usted mismo con respecto a esta escala, donde los extremos son si el gobierno debería aumentar el gasto social o dejarlo en los niveles actuales? Dígame un número entre el 1 y el 5.		COLVB24A
COLVB24B. Y ahora, en esta misma escala, ¿dónde cree que se ubicaría Álvaro Uribe?		COLVB24B



	Marcar 1 a 5 8=NS/NR		
COLVB24C. Siempre en la misma escala, ¿dónde cree que se ubicaría Horacio Serpa?		COLVB24C	
COLVB24D. ¿Y dónde cree que se ubicaría Carlos Gaviria?		COLVB24B	

### [Recoja la tarjeta l]

VB5 [COVB5]. Ahora dígame ¿Votó usted en las últimas elecciones para Alcalde en el 2003?	VB5
Sí votó1 No votó2 NS/NR8	
VB6. [COVB6]. ¿Y votó usted en las últimas elecciones para Congreso en marzo?	VB6
Sí votó1 <b>[siga]</b>	
No votó2 [pase a COLVB8]	
NS/NR8 <b>[pase a COLVB8]</b>	
COLVB7. ¿Por cuál partido votó para Senado en las últimas elecciones? [NO LEER LAS ALTERNATIVAS]	COLVB7
Votó en blanco o anuló el voto.00Partido Liberal.01Por el país que soñamos.02Colombia Democrática.03Movimiento MIRA.04Conservatismo Independiente.05Alas – Equipo Colombia.06C4.07Polo Democrático Alternativo.08Convergencia Ciudadana.09Partido de la U.10Movimiento Nacional Progresista.11Cambio Radical.12Movimiento Únete Colombia.13Mov. Reconstrucción Democrática Nacional.14Partido Conservador.15Dejen Jugar al Moreno.16Movimiento de Participación Comunitaria.17Movimiento Comunal y Comunitario de Colombia.18Visionarios con Antanas Mockus.19Movimiento Colombia Viva.20Otro2119NS/NR.88Inap. (no votó).99	



COLVB8. Se considera Usted miembro o simpatizante del Partido Conservador, del Polo Democrático, del Partido Liberal, de otro movimiento político, o se considera usted independiente o sin partido?" [SÓLO UNA OPCIÓN]	COLVB8
Partido Conservador1 [PASA A POL1]	
Polo Democrático2 [PASA A POL1]	
Partido Liberal3 [PASA A POL1]	
Otro4 [PASA A POL1]	
Independiente/sin partido5 [Sigue con COLVB9]	
NS/NR8 [PASA A POL1]	
COLVB9. [SÓLO SI CONTESTÓ "(5) Independiente/sin partido" EN LA PREGUNTA ANTERIOR] Considera usted que se inclina más hacia los Liberales, hacia los Conservadores o hacia el Polo Democrático? [SÓLO UNA OPCIÓN] Liberales1 Conservadores2 Polo Democrático3	COLVB9
Otro4	
Ninguno5	
NS/NR8	
INAP9	



<b>POL1.</b> ¿Qué tanto interés tiene usted en la política: mucho, algo, poco o nada?	POL1	
Mucho1 Algo2 Poco3 Nada4		
NS/NR8		
POL2. ¿Con qué frecuencia habla usted de política con otras personas? [Leer alternativas]	POL2	
A diario		
NS/NR8		

[Entréguele al entrevistado tarjeta B]	Anotar 1 a		
Ahora vamos a hablar de algunas actitudes que tienen las personas. En esta escala del 1 al 7, donde 1 significa "muy en desacuerdo" y 7 significa "muy de acuerdo", ¿hasta qué punto está de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones?	NS/NR=8		
AA1. Una manera muy eficaz de corregir los errores de los empleados es regañarlos frente a otros empleados. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo con esta práctica?		AA1	
AA2. La persona que aporta más dinero a la casa es la que debería tener la última palabra en las decisiones del hogar. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo?		AA2	
AA3. En la escuela, los niños deben hacer preguntas solamente cuando el maestro lo indique. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo?		AA3	
AA4. Cuando los niños se portan mal, se justifica a veces que sus padres les den nalgadas. ¿Hasta qué punto está de acuerdo?		AA4	

[Recoja la tarjeta B]



Ahora cambiando de tema, ¿Alguna vez se ha sentido discriminado o tratado de manera injusta por su apariencia física o su forma de hablar en los siguientes lugares:	Sí	No	NS/NR		
<b>DIS2</b> . En las oficinas del gobierno (juzgados, ministerios, alcaldías)	1	2	8	DIS2	
<b>DIS3</b> . Cuando buscaba trabajo en alguna empresa o negocio	1	2	8	DIS3	
DIS4. En reuniones o eventos sociales	1	2	8	DIS4	
<b>DIS5</b> . En lugares públicos (como en la calle, la plaza o el mercado)	1	2	8	DIS5	

Ahora para terminar, le vo	by hacer algunas preguntas p	ara fines estadísticos
ED. ¿Cuál fue el último año de	e enseñanza que aprobó?	
[Encuestador: llenar:]		<del></del> (i
		le abajo para código y poner un circulo
alrededor del número que c	orresponde]	

Ninguno = 00	Primer año de	Segundo año de	Tercer año de	Cuarto año de	Quinto año de	Sexto año de	Séptimo año de	ED
Primaria	1	2	3	4	5			
Secundaria	6	7	8	9	10	11		
Universitaria	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
Superior no universitaria	12	13	14	15				
NS/NR	88							

Q2. ¿Cuál es su edad en años cumplidos? años (0= NS/NR)	Q2	<u>  </u>
Q3. ¿Cuál es su religión? [no leer alternativas]	Q3	
Católica1		
Cristiana no católica (incluye testigos de Jehová2		
Otra no cristiana3		
Evangélica5		
Ninguna4		
NS/NR8		



Q10. [Mostrar lista de rangos Tarjeta E ]	Q10	
¿En cuál de estos rangos se encuentran los ingresos <b>familiares mensuales</b> de esta casa, incluyendo las remesas del exterior y el ingreso de todos los adultos e hijos que trabajan?		
Ningún ingreso0		
Menos de \$90.0001		
Entre \$91.000-\$180.0002		
\$181.000 - \$360.0003		
\$361.000 - \$720.0004		
\$721.000 - \$1.000.0005		
\$1.000.001 - \$1.500.0006		
\$1.500.001 - \$2.000.0007		
\$2.000.001 - \$3'000.0008		
\$3.000.001 - \$4.000.0009		
\$4.000.001 – o más10		
NS/NR88		
[recoger Tarjeta E]		
Q10A. ¿Recibe su familia remesas o giros del exterior?	Q	10A
No: Marcar 99 y pasar a Q11		
Sí: preguntar:		
¿Cuánto recibe por mes? [anotar la cantidad y especificar la moneda (pesos, dólares, etc.)]		
72		
NS/NR: Marcar 88 y pasar a Q11		
Q10B. ¿Hasta qué punto dependen los ingresos familiares de esta casa de las remesas del exterior? [leer alternativas]	Q	10B
Mucho1 Algo2 Poco3 Nada4		
NS/NR8 Inap9		
Q11. ¿Cuál es su estado civil? [no leer alternativas]	G	211
Soltero1		
Casado2		
Unión libre (acompañado)3		
Divorciado4		
Separado5		
Viudo6		
NS/NR8		\doldo
Q12. ¿Cuántos hijos(as) tiene? (0 = ninguno)	G	112
NS/NR88		



<b>COLETID.</b> ¿Se considera blanco(a), mestizo(a), indígena o negro(a)/afrodescendiente? [no leer alternativas]	COLETID
Blanco(a)1	
Mestizo(a)2	
Indígena3	
Negro(a)/afrodescendiente4	
Otro	
NS/NR8	

### Para finalizar, podría decirme si en su casa tienen: [leer todos]

R1. Televisor	No0			Sí1	R1	
R3. Nevera	No0			Sí1	R3	
R4. Teléfono convencional (no celular)	No0			Sí1	R4	
R4A. Teléfono celular	No0			Sí1	R4A	
R5. Vehículo [no moto]	No 0	Uno 1	Do s 2	Tres o más 3	R5	
R6. Lavadora de ropa		No0	)	Sí1	R6	
R7. Microondas		No0	)	Sí1	R7	
R8. Motocicleta		No0			R8	
R12. Agua potable dentro de la casa	No0			Sí1	R12	
R14. Cuarto de baño dentro de la casa	No0			Sí1	R14	
R15. Computador		No0	)	Sí1	R15	



OCUP1. Cuál es su ocupación principal? [No leer alternativa contesta que está sin trabajo o desempleado, preguntar cu ocupación anterior (anotar código) y luego marcar "No" en pregunta siguiente (OCUP4)]	uál era su	OCUP1	
Profesional, directivo			
Jornalero o peón agrícola (trabaja la tierra para otros)06 Artesano			
MIG1]	Salte a [Salte a		
-	Salte a		
OCUP4. ¿Está usted trabajando actualmente?  Sí		OCUP4	
OCUP1A En esta ocupación por lo general Usted es: [leer		OCUP1A	
alternativas]  Asalariado del gobierno?  Asalariado sector privado?  Patrono o socio de empresa?  Trabajador por cuenta propia?  Trabajador no remunerado o sin pago?  NS/NR	.2 3 .4 .5		
Inap			



OCUP1B. ¿En total cuántos empleados hay en la empresa o en el lugar donde usted trabaja? [leer alternativas]		
Menos de 5 empleados		
OCUP1C. ¿Tiene usted seguridad social?		
Sí1		
No2		
NS/NR8 Inap9		
[pase a MIG1]		
DESOC2. [sólo si respondió "NO" a OCUP4] ¿Por cuántas semanas durante el último año no ha tenido trabajo? semanas NS/NR88		
Inap99		
MICA Directo ou siño a describió cotado sincipale esta 2 an el casa a 2	MIO4	
MIG1. Durante su niñez, ¿dónde vivió usted principalmente? en el campo? en un pueblo? O en una ciudad?:	MIG1	
En el campo		
NS/NR8		
MIG2. Hace 5 años, ¿donde residía usted? [Leer alternativas]	MIG2	
En este mismo municipio		
NS/NR	15100	
MIG3. El lugar donde vivía hace 5 años era: [Leer alternativas]	MIG3	
Un pueblo o una ciudad más pequeño que éste		
NS/NR8		

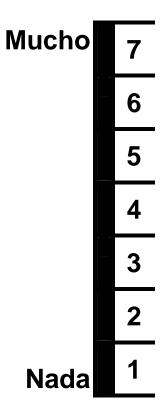


### The Political Culture of Democracy in Colombia: 2006

<u>FINAL</u>		11	
Hora terminada la entrevista:			
<b>TI</b> . Duración de la entrevista <b>[min</b>	utos, ver página # 1]		
Estas son todas las preguntas que tengo. M	Auchísimas gracias por su colaboración.		
Yo juro que esta entrevista fue llevada a c	cabo con la persona indicada.		
Firma del entrevistador	Fecha/	campo	
Firma del codificador			
Comentarios:			
Firma de la persona que digitó los datos _			
Firma de la nersona que	verificó los datos		

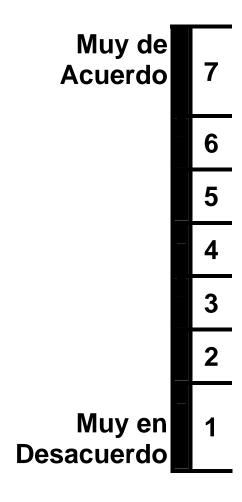


# Tarjeta A



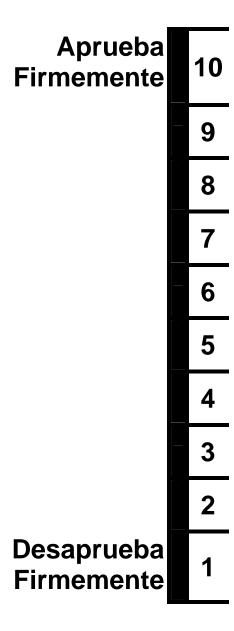


# Tarjeta B





# Tarjeta C





# Tarjeta D

1	2	2	4	_		7	0	0	10
1	2	3	4	5	0		8	9	10

Izquierda Derecha



## Tarjeta E

# Los ingresos familiares *mensuales* de esta casa:

- (0) Ningún ingreso
- (1) Menos de \$90.000
- (2) Entre \$91.000-\$180000
- (3) \$181.000 \$360.000
- (4) \$361.000 \$720.000
- (5) \$721.000 \$1.000.000
- (6) \$1.000.001 \$1.500.000
- (7) \$1.500.001 \$2.000.000
- (8) \$2.000.001 \$3'000.000
- (9) \$3.000.001 \$4'000.000
  - (10)\$4.000.001 o más



# Tarjeta G

1	2	3	4	5
El gobierno debe resolver el conflicto armado por la vía militar				El gobierno debe resolver el conflicto armado por la vía del diálogo



# Tarjeta H

1	2	3	4	5
El gobierno debe tomar en consideración las críticas de la oposición				El gobierno debe ignorar las críticas de la oposición



### **Annex C: Design Effects**

#### **Accuracy of the Findings**

Two types of errors affect all surveys: non-sampling errors and sampling ones. Non-sampling errors are those that are committed during the data collection and processing. These can be controlled using a good measuring instrument, adequately training the surveyors, supervising the fieldwork, and with appropriate data collection programs. These errors can be controlled but not quantified. However, comparing the sample results with those of the population gives us an idea of whether these errors have generated biases that reduce the representativeness of the sample. The use of handheld computers (palm pilots) probably reduced these errors by carrying out consistency checks of the responses and flow of the interview at the same time and place that it was done. Additionally, by eliminating the process of data entry, we eliminated the errors that this activity generates. With the traditional procedures of paper-based questionnaires, processes of coding and critiquing the data must be carried out in the office (eliminated by using palm pilots), which can also generate errors. With paper questionnaires, computer-based consistency checks can only be run several weeks after the data was collected. Correcting errors detected in the office during the critique or by programs that detect inconsistencies is difficult or impossible given the separation in time and space between the moment of the interview on paper and the detection of these errors.

Sampling errors are a product of chance and from surveying a sample and not the entire population. When a sample is selected, this sample is one of many possible samples that could be selected from the population. The variability that exists between all these possible samples is the sampling error, which we could measure if all these samples were available, obviously an impossible situation. In practice, what is done is to estimate this over the variance obtained from the sample itself.

To estimate the sampling error of a statistic (average, percentage, or ratio), we calculate the standard error, which is the square root of the population variance of the statistic. This allows us to measure how close the statistic is to the result that would have been obtained if the entire population were interviewed under the same conditions. To calculate this error, it is very important to consider the design with which the sample was selected. The design effect (DEF – above is DEF) indicates the efficiency of the design used in relation to a unrestricted random sampling design (URS). A value of 1 indicates that the standard error (SE) obtained for both designs (the complex and the URS) is equal; that is, the complex sampling is as efficient as the URS with the same-sized sample. If the value is greater than 1, the complex sampling produces a SE greater than that obtained with a URS.

 $DEF = SE_{complex} / SE_{URS}$ 



The table shows the 95% confidence intervals (1.96 times the SE) and the design effects (DEF). The table also shows the value of the statistic in question (average or percentage). The SE were estimated with the Stata 9 computational package. Extreme values come from a high degree of homogeneity within each cluster. In other words, in these cases there is an important spatial segregation of people according to their socioeconomic condition, which reduces the efficiency of cluster sampling to measure these characteristics.

It is worth stating that sampling error is usually 10% to 40% greater than that which would have been obtained with unrestricted random sampling. For example, in the case of Costa Rica, the important index of support for democracy (PSA5) has a sampling error of 0.66. This means that the 95% confidence interval (1.96 times the SE) for the average of this index (64.0) goes from 62.7 to 65.3. According to the DEF of the table, this interval is 26% greater than that which would have been obtained with a URS.



### The Political Culture of Democracy in Colombia: 2006

Country	Average	Std. Error	DEF	Average	Std. Error.	DEF	Average	Std. Error	DEF		
	Wealth			it1r	it1r			Corvic			
Mexico	4.93	0.10	2.12	58.61	1.21	1.62	37.12	1.99	1.63		
Guatemala	3.19	0.22	4.25	59.09	1.40	1.87	18.02	1.36	1.37		
El Salvador	3.37	0.13	2.71	62.25	1.22	1.48	13.36	1.05	1.29		
Honduras	3.28	0.21	4.23	67.21	1.32	1.65	16.09	1.76	1.91		
Nicaragua	2.43	0.24	5.73	60.22	0.98	1.24	17.99	1.26	1.38		
Costa Rica	5.78	0.08	2.01	66.98	1.32	1.60	19.33	1.13	1.11		
Panama	2.70	0.21	4.40	49.43	0.99	1.33	11.26	1.27	1.57		
Colombia	3.68	0.13	2.93	62.72	1.34	1.66	9.73	0.93	1.21		
Ecuador	3.79	0.25	8.20	55.16	1.31	2.33	29.37	1.55	1.84		
Bolivia	2.83	0.17	5.56	46.99	0.89	1.61	32.35	1.21	1.42		
Peru	3.24	0.30	6.87	42.98	0.80	1.12	30.27	1.33	1.12		
Chile	5.13	0.09	2.02	58.95	1.61	2.02	9.43	0.81	1.08		
Dominican R.	3.74	0.17	3.75	60.36	1.36	1.68	17.68	1.32	1.35		
Haiti	1.71	0.18	4.16	42.12	2.09	2.61	50.09	2.50	2.02		
Jamaica	4.08	0.09	1.76	58.94	0.95	1.43	34.04	2.18	1.84		

Country	Average	Std. Error	Deft	Average	Std. Error	Deft	Average	Std. Error	Deft
	PSA5			tol			Efigob		
Mexico	60.80	0.83	1.57	56.25	1.10	1.65	43.89	1.19	1.90
Guatemala	52.21	0.76	1.37	52.71	0.82	1.29	33.75	1.04	1.55
El Salvador	55.36	0.91	1.71	55.76	0.69	1.10	43.85	1.11	1.66
Honduras	55.03	0.97	1.91	46.21	1.40	2.20	32.16	0.64	1.26
Nicaragua	45.34	1.14	1.97	53.49	2.34	3.49	32.20	0.97	1.76
Costa Rica	63.97	0.66	1.26	62.20	1.04	1.37	43.05	0.84	1.34
Panama	46.63	1.00	1.82	48.00	1.41	2.25	40.68	0.99	1.67
Colombia	56.99	1.00	1.83	51.83	1.14	1.60	48.88	1.19	1.90
Ecuador	37.68	1.06	2.60	46.27	0.90	1.83	20.43	0.67	1.77
Bolivia	51.60	0.69	1.89	43.16	0.61	1.49			
Peru	43.92	0.64	1.23	53.55	1.11	1.78	33.83	0.86	1.56
Chile	53.18	0.94	1.67	56.31	1.81	2.37	51.43	1.12	1.99
Dominican R.	57.65	0.78	1.36	58.94	1.15	1.39	55.04	0.84	1.26
Haiti	41.61	1.41	2.39	62.09	1.20	1.74	31.79	1.01	1.93
Jamaica	48.87	0.92	1.58	72.67	1.11	1.81	37.49	0.84	1.53

