

Democratic Erosion Event Database

Codebook v.2 - August 2019



BROWN



CHICAGO CENTER ON
DEMOCRACY

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The
Bush School
OF GOVERNMENT & PUBLIC SERVICE
TEXAS A&M UNIVERSITY 

Collaborating Institutions:

1. Albany State University
2. American University
3. Arizona State University
4. Barnard College
5. Ben-Gurion University of the Negev
6. Boston University
7. Brown University
8. Columbia University
9. DC Jail
10. Duke University
11. George Mason University
12. Georgetown University
13. Georgia State University
14. Indiana University
15. National University for Political Science and Administrative Studies,
Bucharest, Romania
16. Ohio State University
17. Rhode Island School of Design
18. Rollins College
19. Rutgers University, Camden
20. Sacramento State University
21. Saint Louis University
22. Salem State University
23. Skidmore College
24. Stanford University
25. Suffolk University
26. Texas A&M University
27. The University of Sydney
28. University of California, Berkeley
29. University of California, Davis

30. University of California, Los Angeles
31. University of Chicago
32. University of Denver
33. University of Louisiana, Lafayette
34. University of Memphis
35. University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill
36. University of Pennsylvania
37. University of Pittsburgh
38. University of Sydney
39. University of the Philippines, Diliman
40. University of the West of England, Bristol, UK
41. University of Virginia
42. University of West Georgia
43. Utah State University
44. Yale University

Acknowledgements:

This codebook is an extension of the original writing of Christopher Hill, Kyle Rueschhoff, Silvio Simonetti Neto, Joanne Teng, and Bryce Watson in the DEED codebook v1. We would also like to thank Kevin Kromash and Sue Stokes at the Chicago Center on Democracy and the Swearer Center at Brown University for supporting the project during summer 2019.

Contents

- 1 Explanatory Notes** **1**
 - 1.1 What's New in Version 3 of the Dataset? 1
 - 1.2 Variable Information 1
 - 1.3 Suggested Citation 2
 - 1.4 Coders of Data 3
 - 1.5 Inclusion of Countries in the Dataset 3
 - 1.6 Countries 5

- 2 Dataset Indicators** **7**
 - 2.1 Timestamp (Timestamp) 7
 - 2.2 Coder (Coder) 7
 - 2.3 Course Instructor of Case Study Author (Instructor) 8
 - 2.4 Case Study Name (CaseStudyName) 8
 - 2.5 Country (Country) 8
 - 2.6 Year (Year) 9
 - 2.7 Type of Event (Type) 9
 - 2.8 Event Category (Category) 9
 - 2.9 Event Description (EventDescription) 10
 - 2.10 Unconfirmed (Unconfirmed) 10
 - 2.11 Source Type (SourceType) 10
 - 2.12 Source (SourceDescription) 11
 - 2.13 Erosion Rating Provided by Student (StudentRating) 11
 - 2.14 Erosion Rating Provided by Coder (CoderRating) 12
 - 2.15 Entry Identifier (id) 12

Contents

3	Precursor Categorization	13
3.1	Threats to Horizontal Accountability	13
3.1.1	Delegitimizing or Weakening the Judiciary	13
3.1.2	Delegitimizing or Weakening the Legislature	14
3.1.3	Delegitimizing or Weakening Subnational Units	15
3.1.4	Manipulation of Civil Service	16
3.1.5	Coup or Regime Collapse	17
3.1.6	Horizontal Corruption	18
3.2	Threats to Vertical Accountability	19
3.2.1	Co-optation of the Opposition	19
3.2.2	Mal-apportionment	20
3.2.3	Electoral Fraud	22
3.2.4	Electoral Violence	23
3.2.5	Increasing Control over Civil Society	24
3.2.6	State-Conducted Violence or Abuse	25
3.2.7	Media Bias	27
3.2.8	Lack of Legitimacy	27
3.2.9	Polarization	29
3.2.10	Extremist/Populist Parties	31
3.2.11	Party Weakness	32
3.2.12	Vertical Corruption	33
3.3	Exogenous Risk Factors	35
3.3.1	Non-state Violence	35
3.3.2	Refugee Crisis	36
3.3.3	External Influence	37
3.3.4	Economic Shocks	38
4	Symptom Categorization	40
4.1	Reduction in Horizontal Accountability	40
4.1.1	Reduction in Judicial Independence	40
4.1.2	Reduction in Legislative Oversight	41
4.1.3	Weakened Civil Service or Integrity Institutions	42

Contents

4.1.4	Suspension of Laws or the Constitution	43
4.1.5	Relaxation of Term Limits	43
4.1.6	Revision of the Constitution	44
4.1.7	Reducing Autonomy of Subnational Units	45
4.2	Reduction in Vertical Accountability	45
4.2.1	Repression of the Opposition	45
4.2.2	Systemic Reduction in Election Freedom and Fairness	46
4.2.3	Curtailed Civil Liberties	47
4.2.4	Media Repression	48
4.2.5	No-Confidence Votes or Decreased Voter Turnout .	49
5	Resistance Categorization	50
5.1	Increase in Horizontal Accountability	50
5.1.1	Check on Executive by Judiciary	50
5.1.2	Check on Executive by Legislature	51
5.1.3	Check on Central Power by Subnational Units . . .	52
5.1.4	Check on Central Power by Civil Service	53
5.1.5	Post-Democratic Transition to New Constitution . .	54
5.2	Increase in Vertical Accountability	55
5.2.1	Coalitions or Elite Pacts	55
5.2.2	Increase in Electoral Integrity	56
5.2.3	Increase in Civic Capacity	57
5.2.4	Nonviolent Protest	57
5.2.5	Violent Protest	58
5.2.6	Increase in Media Protections/Media Liberalization	59
5.3	Other	60
5.3.1	Pressure from Outside Actor	60
5.3.2	Exit of People or Money	60
5.3.3	State Attempts to Prevent Backsliding	61
	Bibliography	62

1 Explanatory Notes

1.1 What's New in Version 3 of the Dataset?

Version 3 of the Democratic Erosion Event Database (DEED) includes a revised classification scheme and new sourcing procedure. DEED categories have been further developed with the inclusion of 11 new event categories. The quality of the data has also been improved through stricter sourcing requirements for coders.

Furthermore, the date range of data entries now captures erosion-related events between 2000 and 2018. More countries are now included, due in part to the expansion of the date range. The data presented in DEED v3 includes information on 98 countries, rather than the previous 66. DEED v3 incorporates 1772 unique erosion events, building upon the 823 events presented in DEED v2.

1.2 Variable Information

The following information is available by variable (if applicable) in Part 2, Data Set Indicators.

- **Question:** The question that the variable attempts to measure.

1 Explanatory Notes

- **Clarification:** Definition of key terms, clarification of scope-conditions, contexts, and any other features needed to understand the question (if any).
- **Responses:** Numeric, Percentage, Text, Date, Countries, or specific response categories.
- **Answer-Types:**
 - *Multiple-choice:* Where a coder can select only one answer.
 - *Multiple-selection:* Where a coder can select more than one answer.

1.3 Suggested Citation

Democratic Erosion Event Dataset:

Gottlieb, Jessica, Rob A. Blair, Hannah Baron, Aries Arugay, Cameron Ballard-Rosa, Don Davidson, Laura Gamboa, Guy Grossman, Shelby Grossman, Christina Kulich-Vamvakas, Nancy Lapp, Jennifer McCoy, Amanda Robinson, Steven Rosenzweig, Eric Royer, Cathy Lisa Schneider, Sue Stokes, and Megan Turnbull. 2019. "Democratic Erosion Event Dataset v3." *Democratic Erosion: A Cross-University Collaboration*.

Democratic Erosion Event Dataset Codebook

Bairey, Charlotte, Rob Blair, Hannah Baron, Dakota Fenn, Jessica Gottlieb, Isabela Karibjanian, Meryl Seah, and Carter Squires. "Democratic Erosion Event Dataset Codebook v2." *Democratic Erosion: A Cross-University Collaboration*.

1.4 Coders of Data

DEED v3: Charlotte Bairey, Dakota Fenn, Isabela Karibjanian, Meryl Seah, and Carter Squires

DEED v1/v2: Christopher Hill, Kyle Rueschhoff, Silvio Simonetti Neto, Joanne Teng, and Bryce Watson

1.5 Inclusion of Countries in the Dataset

To identify the original list of case studies for the meta-analysis on democratic backsliding, we use the Varieties of Democracy dataset (v8) (Coppedge et al., 2018). The country-year dataset was restricted to describe the 2000-2018 period.

Because we are looking for cases of democratic erosion, we define 'democratic backsliding' as starting in a country-year in which the country is coded as an electoral democracy. To identify all countries-years that qualify as electoral democracies, we use the Regimes in the World index (e.v2x_regime). In the original iteration, we require a score of 2 or higher for year $t=1$. In year $t=2$, the regime can backslide to a score of 1, which is equivalent to having a score of 2 on the multiparty elections variable. The full coding of this variable is as follows:

- 0: Closed autocracy: No de-facto multiparty elections for the chief executive).
- 1: Electoral autocracy: De-facto multiparty elections for the chief executive, but failing to achieve a minimum level of Dahl's institutional prerequisites of polyarchy as measured by V-Dem's Electoral Democracy Index (v2x_polyarchy).

1 Explanatory Notes

- 2: Electoral democracy: Free and fair multiparty elections and a minimum level of Dahl's institutional prerequisites for polyarchy as measured by VDem's Electoral Democracy Index (v2x_polyarchy), but liberal principles of respect for personal liberties, rule of law, and judicial as well as legislative constraints on the executive unsatisfied as measured by VDem's Liberal Component Index (v2x_liberal).
- 3: Liberal democracy: Free and fair multiparty elections and a minimum level of Dahl's institutional prerequisites for polyarchy as measured by VDem's Electoral Democracy Index (v2x_polyarchy), and liberal principles of respect for personal liberties, rule of law, and judicial as well as legislative constraints on the executive satisfied as measured by V-Dem's Liberal Component Index (v2x_liberal).

To code democratic backsliding, we use the liberal democracy index (v2x_libdem). This measure places special weight on constraints on executive power. We code a country-year t as backsliding if the country received a lower score on the Liberal Democracy Index in year t than in year $t-1$. Moreover, the country had to receive a score of at least 1 in year t and a score of at least 2 on the Regimes in the World index (indicating an electoral democracy) in year $t-1$. In addition to coding if backsliding occurred in that country-year, we also code the change in backsliding as a percentage (defined by a change in Liberal Democracy Index divided by last year's score).

To prioritize cases, we constrained the list using two criteria.

- We eliminated island or micro-states.
- We eliminated cases in which the mean amount of backsliding was less than 1%.

1 Explanatory Notes

1.6 Countries

The following **92 countries** are in our country sample, identified using the methodology described above.

- Albania
- Argentina
- Bangladesh
- Belgium
- Benin
- Bhutan
- Bolivia
- Botswana
- Brazil
- Bulgaria
- Burkina Faso
- Canada
- Chile
- Colombia
- Croatia
- Czech Republic
- Denmark
- Dominican Republic
- Ecuador
- El Salvador
- Finland
- Georgia
- Ghana
- Greece
- Guatemala
- Guinea-Bissau
- Guyana
- Haiti
- Honduras
- Hungary
- India
- Indonesia
- Iraq
- Ireland
- Israel
- Italy
- Ivory Coast
- Jamaica
- Japan
- Kenya
- Kosovo
- Latvia
- Lebanon
- Liberia
- Lithuania
- Macedonia
- Malawi
- Mali
- Mauritania
- Mexico
- Moldova
- Mongolia

1 Explanatory Notes

- Montenegro
- Namibia
- Nepal
- Nicaragua
- Niger
- Nigeria
- Pakistan
- Paraguay
- Peru
- Philippines
- Poland
- Portugal
- Romania
- Russia
- Senegal
- Serbia
- Sierra Leone
- Slovakia
- Slovenia
- Somaliland
- South Africa
- South Korea
- Spain
- Sri Lanka
- Suriname
- Sweden
- Switzerland
- Taiwan
- Tanzania
- Thailand
- Timor-Leste
- Togo
- Tunisia
- Turkey
- Ukraine
- United Kingdom
- United States of America
- Uruguay
- Venezuela
- Zambia

However, there are **6** additional countries represented in DEED v3 dataset, coded out of interest, for a total of **98 countries**, including Austria, China, France, Iceland, Kyrgyzstan, and Liberia.

2 Dataset Indicators

This section lists all variables contained in DEED v3.

2.1 Timestamp (Timestamp)

- **Clarification:** This information is noted by the coding form to indicate when the event data was recorded by the coder.
- **Responses:** Date and time.

2.2 Coder (Coder)

- **Question:** Who coded the erosion-related event?
- **Clarification:** There were five coders categorizing the erosion-related events in DEED v3: Carter, Charlotte, Dakota, Isabela, and Meryl.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice.

2.3 Course Instructor of Case Study Author (Instructor)

- **Question:** Which instructor taught the course in which the case study author was enrolled?
- **Clarification:** 23 professors have taught versions of the Democratic Erosion course that produced country case studies.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice.

2.4 Case Study Name (CaseStudyName)

- **Question:** What is the identifier for the case study?
- **Clarification:** Each case study has a unique identifying label to clarify the source of the case study, i.e. instructor, academic year and semester, and country case.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice.

2.5 Country (Country)

- **Question:** In which country did the erosion-related event occur?
- **Clarification:** 92 countries are included in DEED v3.
- **Responses:** Countries.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice.

2.6 Year (Year)

- **Question:** In what year(s) did the event occur?
- **Clarification:** While coders worked to record erosion-related events in the year they occurred, certain events warrant a range of years (e.g., the consistent influence of organized crime in Mexico since 2006, the start of Mexico's War on Drugs).
- **Responses:** Date.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-selection

2.7 Type of Event (Type)

- **Question:** Is the captured event evidence of a precursor to, symptom of, or resistance to democratic erosion?
- **Clarification:** We distinguish between events that lead to severe erosion (precursors) and events where erosion is institutionalized (symptoms). Citizens or institutions may also push back against erosion-related events (resistance).
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Type:** Multiple-choice.

2.8 Event Category (Category)

- **Question:** How is this event more specifically categorized?
- **Clarification:** Every event type (e.g. precursor) has multiple categories. More information is provided about these categories in chapters 3, 4, and 5 of this codebook.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Type:** Multiple-choice.

2.9 Event Description (EventDescription)

- **Question:** How can this event be described qualitatively?
- **Clarification:** This category provides a qualitative description of the erosion event.
- **Responses:** Text.

2.10 Unconfirmed (Unconfirmed)

- **Question:** Is there reason to question the veracity of the entry?
- **Clarification:** Despite the new requirements for sources, some events are still classified as "unconfirmed," indicating that a reliable source for the event could not be found. For example, in 2008, journalists filming a documentary in El Salvador were allegedly harassed, yet there were no independent accounts confirming the incident.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice.

2.11 Source Type (SourceType)

- **Question:** What type of source was used to verify this event?
- **Clarification:** Our coders sought to verify every event with a source. This variable describes the type of source used (e.g., news article).
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice.

2.12 Source (SourceDescription)

- **Question:** How can the source be located if a user would like to review it?
- **Clarification:** Identifying information is included for each source (author, title, date of publication, and publisher).
- **Responses:** Text.

2.13 Erosion Rating Provided by Student (StudentRating)

- **Question:** What overall erosion rating of the case study country did the author provide?
- **Clarification:** Case study authors were asked to rate the overall erosion of a country's democracy on the following five-point scale:
 - 0: No backsliding, and weak threat of future backsliding.
 - 1: There are precursors to backsliding, e.g. the rise of extremist parties, but erosion of democratic institutions has not yet taken place.
 - 2: There is weak erosion of democratic institutions, perhaps the institutions being eroded are not critical for the functioning of democracy.
 - 3: There is moderate erosion of democratic institutions.
 - 4: There is severe erosion of democratic institutions; it is unclear whether democracy will recover.
- **Responses:** Numeric.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice

2.14 Erosion Rating Provided by Coder (CoderRating)

- **Question:** What overall erosion rating of the case study country did the coder provide?
- **Clarification:** Case study authors were asked to rate the overall erosion of a country's democracy on the same five-point scale identified above:
 - 0: No backsliding, and weak threat of future backsliding.
 - 1: There are precursors to backsliding, e.g. the rise of extremist parties, but erosion of democratic institutions has not yet taken place.
 - 2: There is weak erosion of democratic institutions, perhaps the institutions being eroded are not critical for the functioning of democracy.
 - 3: There is moderate erosion of democratic institutions.
 - 4: There is severe erosion of democratic institutions; it is unclear whether democracy will recover.
- **Responses:** Numeric.
- **Answer-Types:** Multiple-choice

2.15 Entry Identifier (id)

- **Clarification:** Each event was given a unique identifier based on coder, case study instructor, and event number.
- **Responses:** Text.

3 Precursor Categorization

3.1 Threats to Horizontal Accountability

3.1.1 Delegitimizing or Weakening the Judiciary

Charged with interpreting a country's laws and constitution and ruling accordingly, the judiciary plays a critical role in protecting democracy. The judiciary can help prevent backsliding by ensuring respect for laws, ruling certain threats to democracy as illegal, and convicting those responsible. (Gibler and Randazzo, 2011). Ideally, the judiciary acts as an independent party in the legal process, free of party loyalty (Shapiro, 1981). This autonomy safeguards against power consolidation by other branches of government. Attempts by political parties and individual members to weaken the judiciary's checking ability or disavow its decisions can lead to democratic erosion.

Examples

- In 2011, Prime Minister Sali Berisha of Albania argued against the judiciary's decision to detain police accused of killing protesters. The court struggled against his attempts to hide evidence and discredit the prosecution, and were only able to detain the men after severe international backlash against Berisha.

3 Precursor Categorization

- In 2015, the Polish Civic Platform (PO) party passed a law allowing the government to replace judges with terms ending in 2015, ensuring the seats would be PO-appointed. The judges would have otherwise been chosen by the incoming elected government, who opposed the PO.

3.1.2 Delegitimizing or Weakening the Legislature

A robust legislature can check the authority of an executive. By responding to constituents, the legislature can also boost public trust in democratic governance.

Executives who undermine democracies may attack or weaken the legislature in an attempt to expand their own power (Levitsky and Way, 2002). A would-be authoritarian benefits from eroding trust and support for the legislature, so that the executive and their office may become the primary or sole legitimate governing institution (Linz, 1990). Frequently, as a precursor to erosion, an executive publicly denounces the legislature for inefficiency or unresponsiveness to the people, especially if an opposition party controls the legislature.

Other instances of delegitimizing or weakening the legislature include attacks on opposition parties or coalitions, the closing of one or more legislative chambers, and the stripping of constitutional powers from the legislature.

Examples

- After the Mauritanian Senate blocked President Aziz's proposed amendment to abolish the Senate and merge the civil and Islamic

3 Precursor Categorization

courts, Aziz passed the amendment in a legally dubious public referendum.

- Macedonian Prime Minister Nikola Gruevski ejected opposition lawmakers and journalists from the parliament chamber, then proceeded to pass the government's budget for the next year without dissent or press coverage.
- President Guterres of Timor-Leste dissolved parliament when the opposition coalition blocked the Fretilin party agenda and prevented budgets from passing.

3.1.3 Delegitimizing or Weakening Subnational Units

In federalist political systems, a certain degree of power and autonomy is allocated to subnational units, namely states or provinces. These powers, such as referenda, subnational judiciaries, or discretion in applying certain laws and regulations, check the central government. When the federal government of a country attempts to delegitimize or weaken the power of these subnational units, it can be a precursor to erosion.

Note on coding: Not all cases of a national government attempting to weaken a subnational unit are signs of erosion *per se*. For example, such actions may be legitimate if a subnational unit is promoting undemocratic agendas or attempting to unduly consolidate power. Some of these cases may be situationally complex or politically contentious. If unsure whether an event constitutes a precursor, make a note of this in the coding of the event.

3 Precursor Categorization

3.1.4 Manipulation of Civil Service

Broadly, a case of manipulation of the civil service occurs when an executive or incumbent party uses nonpartisan, bureaucratic institutions for political, electoral, or personal gain.

The civil service is sometimes thought to be insulated from political contests, insofar as civil servants are not elected directly by the people. Bureaucracies, however, can and do safeguard democracy. Huq and Ginsburg, 2018 note that effective civil services restrict state officials from misusing state power for private or electoral gains and can mobilize and represent groups otherwise shut out of politics.

Authoritarian tendencies can manifest in the executive manipulating the civil service to aggrandize power or weaken democracy generally. Sometimes, this appears as suppression of speech or intimidation of bureaucrats. Conversely, the executive may buy support from elites and the public by overpopulating the civil service with their allies (Brancati, 2014). This patronage system undermines electoral institutions, since opposition parties or groups cannot necessarily provide the same rewards. Moreover, filling the civil service with loyalists effectively removes another constraint on executive power.

Examples

- Hungarian Prime Minister Viktor Orbán reorganized a number of government agencies, including those responsible for transparency and accountability. He removed incumbent officials from the civil service in the Budget Council, the Media Council, and the Election Commission, among others, and replaced them with party loyalists.

3 Precursor Categorization

- Argentinian President Cristina Kirchner fired the head of the Central Bank and forced the National Institute for Statistics to report lower inflation figures.
- Zambian President Edgar Lungu enacted an amendment stipulating that all public servants must have at least a high school education, disenfranchising many ordinary Zambians from holding bureaucratic office.

3.1.5 Coup or Regime Collapse

A coup, coup attempt, or other event threatening regime collapse, such as the illegal ousting of officials, can lead to democratic erosion. Successful coups, necessitating an abrupt shift in power, pose particular threats to democracy. When a democratic regime is ousted or collapses, there is often a sudden loss of democracy and reversion to authoritarianism (Huq and Ginsburg, 2018). While coup d'états in the typical sense have become less frequent, promissory coups, which instead frame the coup as a temporary but necessary step for an improved version of democracy, have become more frequent (Bermeo, 2016). Promissory coups are conducive to backsliding in that they often falsely promise an eventual return to democracy, and may thus be met with complacency.

Even failed coups can lead to the destabilization of a democratic regime. The government's legitimacy can come into question, especially if it struggles to combat the coup. Moreover, coups often become excuses for the government to limit media freedom, expand their power, or even suspend the constitution in the name of preventing further insurrections.

3 Precursor Categorization

Examples

- When newly-elected President of Mauritania Sidi Ould Cheikh Abdhali attempted to lessen military influence in government by removing four military leaders from high-level government positions, General Mohamed Ould Abdel Aziz launched a coup and overthrew the regime.
- Following a failed coup in Turkey in 2016, the government limited press freedom in the name of preventing terrorism and further revolutionary action.
- In November 2008, following months of tension with the military, President of Guinea-Bissau Joao Bernardo Viera was blamed for a bombing on military headquarters (which had killed a military general), and was subsequently assassinated by the military.

3.1.6 Horizontal Corruption

Horizontal corruption occurs between government actors, encompassing abuses of public office for private gain or for the benefit of friends and allies. Generally, horizontal corruption involves less direct interaction with the citizenry.

Horizontal corruption may entail individuals insulating themselves from undesired policies or actions. This would include policymakers, executives, and legislators deliberating on how an issue affects their own power or resources, rather than the public welfare (Bailey, 2009). Horizontal corruption also covers more egregious abuses of authority, including embezzlement, misallocation of funds, cronyism, nepotism, sale of party nominations, and tax evasion.

By distorting policy decisions, horizontal corruption thus decreases a government's responsiveness to its citizens. It can also reduce the ability

3 Precursor Categorization

of democratic institutions or other agencies to function properly, as corrupt executives appoint unqualified or ill-intentioned allies to high-ranking posts. Parties may also reward wealthy allies or donors with high-ranking government positions or party nominations.

Examples

- The Mensalão scandal in Brazil involved clandestine payments to legislators by the PT party in return for support of certain policies.
- South African President Jacob Zuma appointed ally Arthur Fraser, formerly a spy in Zuma's intelligence networks, to serve as Director-General of the State Security Agency (SSA). Fraser then restructured the agency so the bureau heads reported directly to him.
- In Hungary, loyalists of the dominant Fidesz Party were appointed to lead ostensibly independent institutions, including the State Audit Office, the Competition Authority, and the Constitutional Court.

3.2 Threats to Vertical Accountability

3.2.1 Co-optation of the Opposition

Political competition and meaningful opposition between parties support democratic elections and democracy more broadly. The mere existence of opposition parties is insufficient, as these opposition parties must be able to meaningfully compete for votes and potentially win power from the incumbent. Co-optation of the opposition allows an incumbent regime to appear democratic while ensuring their own electoral victory (Levitsky and Ziblatt, 2018). Co-optation occurs when the ruling party strategically

3 Precursor Categorization

incorporates members of, or entire, opposing political parties into their own. This consolidation can lead to a lessened ability to form rival coalitions challenging the regime, the silencing of dissent in exchange for patronage, and the transfer of voters from smaller opposing parties to the incumbent. While overt repression of the opposition is outwardly undemocratic, co-optation allows regimes to continue to hold seemingly free and competitive elections, concurrent to the weakening of opposition parties and the strengthening of the regime.

Examples

- In Namibia, the South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) brought on former head of the Democratic Turnhalle Alliance (DTA), a figure they had historically criticized, in order to gain local support in a region where the SWAPO had historically performed poorly.

3.2.2 Mal-apportionment

Robert Dahl's most basic conception of democracy necessitates that all citizens have their preferences weighed equally in the conduct of the government, ensuring equitable government responsiveness (Dahl, 1972). In essence, democracies must uphold the principle of 'one person, one vote.' Malapportionment entails a discrepancy between shares of seats in a legislature and the populations of districts represented by those seats (Samuels and Snyder, 2001). This can lead to outcomes where a party or candidate does not receive a majority of votes, yet receives a majority of seats or wins election. This undermines each citizen's ability to have their preferences considered equally by government.

Bermeo notes that modern democratic backsliding can take the form of strategic electoral manipulation, in which the playing-field is tilted in

3 Precursor Categorization

favor of incumbent or dominant parties. Electoral manipulation differs from fraud because it often occurs through legal means, months or even years before elections take place (Bermeo, 2016). This manipulation manifests as malapportionment, as incumbent parties can redraw electoral boundaries which favor the election of their party's candidates. Malapportionment decreases democratic responsiveness by offering incumbents easier re-election and making them less beholden to their constituents (Norris and Grömping, 2017).

Examples

- Moldova added a law which transitioned their proportional-representation electoral system into a mixed system, in which half of legislators would be elected by individual constituencies but the other half via a national vote. By institutionalizing a national winner-take-all system for half of the seats in Parliament, Moldova increased the margins of plurality for the two largest parties in the country, further decreasing the ability of smaller parties and interests to have a say in government.
- The Tanzanian constitution was amended to allow candidates to win by a plurality of votes instead of a majority. Due to the amount of opposition parties in Tanzania diluting the vote, this rule has enabled the dominant party to consistently win the majority of the seats.
- Since 2017, the Mapuche natives in Chile (10% of the population) have held only 1 of 43 Senate seats and 1 of 155 seats in the Chamber of Deputies.

3 Precursor Categorization

3.2.3 Electoral Fraud

When opposition groups are electorally threatening, incumbents, especially those with authoritarian ambitions, may be tempted to safeguard electoral victories through electoral manipulation (Schedler, 2002).

Electoral fraud entails serious bias in the administration of elections. Such fraud includes: forging voter ID cards, deleting names from voter lists, stuffing or burning ballot boxes, expelling voters from polling stations, and padding the vote totals of favored parties and candidates, among others (Schedler, 2002).

Electoral fraud is a precursor insofar as it tends to occur in sporadic and decentralized instances—often, it appears as massive irregularities at polling stations on election day. Events in which elections are systemically and systematically made unfree and unfair should instead be coded as “Systemic Reduction in Election Freedom/Fairness,” detailed under the “Symptoms” category. If electoral districts are drawn unfairly or voter preferences are not weighted equally, the event should be coded as “Malapportionment” (Bermeo, 2016).

Examples

- The 2009 elections in El Salvador the Supreme Electoral Tribunal included 85,000 deceased voters in the registry and released the registry prior to the publication of updated census data.
- During the 2010 parliamentary elections in Kosovo, over 40% of the votes cast had to be recounted, over 500 officials were indicted for committing fraud, and widespread vote buying attempts occurred in ethnic Albanian and Serbian municipalities.

3 Precursor Categorization

- The 2005 elections in Togo were marred by widespread allegations of fraudulent votes, voter intimidation, and a complete blackout of media and communication on election day.

3.2.4 Electoral Violence

A functioning democracy requires that citizens are able to hold the government to account by expressing their preferences in elections. Electoral violence marks a breakdown in the electoral process, creating an environment where would-be authoritarians face fewer constraints on their power.

Electoral violence takes many forms, including: pro-state militias targeting the supporters of opposition parties; states using security forces to repress dissidents and intimidate the electorate; political parties building armed wings; and insurgents attacking voters and candidates, among others (Schedler, 2002). Electoral violence does not always manifest as election-day attacks on voters near polling stations (though this is an all-too-common occurrence, especially in sub-Saharan African elections). Schedler notes that sustained or common electoral violence can fundamentally change political practices by stifling the democratic voice among citizens, who lack coercive capability themselves. This trend undermines democratic consolidation and emboldens authoritarians (Schedler, 2002).

Examples

- In 2007, the home of the chairwoman of a municipal electoral committee in Bulgaria was set on fire.

3 Precursor Categorization

- Religious extremists drastically decreased voter turnout in northern Mali during the presidential election, with 20% of polling stations affected by violent disruptions.
- Following incumbent President Laurent Gbagbo's refusal to step down after his electoral defeat in the Ivory Coast, a civil war broke out between his supporters and those of opposition candidate Alasane Ouattara.

3.2.5 Increasing Control over Civil Society

An open and robust civil society helps citizens defend democracy. Participation in civil society organizations can provide political information, develop civic virtues, serve as a medium for broad political discourse, and equalize representation—all of which enables effective resistance, alternative governance, social coordination, and democratic legitimization (Fung, 2003). When civil society comes under threat, so does this litany of benefits.

This category captures the less-institutionalized threats to civil society that tend to impede its full and free operation rather than directly repress it. Events indicating an increased control of civil society include: requiring organizations to report all funding sources (especially foreign sources); mandating registration, certification, or re-certification with the government; and increased regulation of the freedom of association, among other possible events. While these may not portend democratic erosion *per se*, all such actions expand government control over what should ideally be independent organizations.

Instances where a government has banned large civil society organizations or categories thereof, arrested activists, or otherwise directly repressed civil society, are more severe and should instead be coded

3 Precursor Categorization

as “Curtailed Civil Liberties” found under the “Symptoms” category. To note, control over opposition groups, specifically, is a distinct event, coded either as “Cooptation of the Opposition” or “Repression of the Opposition.”

Examples

- The Law and Justice Party (PiS) in Poland changed the ways in which NGOs can receive funding through government channels, supporting NGOs more in line with party values and directly harming those that diverge from those ideals.
- In 2016, the Israeli Knesset passed legislation which created new registration and identification requirements for NGOs who receive foreign funds. The vast majority of NGOs falling under the law’s jurisdiction, 25 of 27 NGOs listed by the Justice Ministry, were left-wing.
- The Indian government used the Foreign Contributions Relations Act to restrict the entry and exit of civil society organizations, and an estimated 20,000 organizations have lost their licenses under the new regime.

3.2.6 State-Conducted Violence or Abuse

This category examines instances where a government’s use of violence puts democracy at risk. Events that should be coded as state-conducted violence or abuse include: violent suppression of protests by police/military, police brutality, extrajudicial killings of suspected or actual criminals, and the use of thugs/gangs/terror groups by state actors.

Dahl writes that a functioning democracy requires citizens can form and express preferences, and later scholars deemed protests a key tool of

3 Precursor Categorization

dissent that checks the government by disrupting daily order (Krastev, 2014). When police forces brutally or violently repress protests, it not only hampers that particular protest's ability to create change, but also creates a climate of self-censorship in which would-be protesters are less likely to take to the streets.

The executive may circumvent the law through other abuses of violence, including extrajudicial killings and the use of gangs and thugs. When an executive is less beholden to judicial criminal processes, a constraint on executive power is removed (Thompson, 2016). The support of violent criminal groups by state actors (executives, legislators, judges, etc.) further places governing officials above the rule of law, undermining core democratic norms.

Examples

- The Spanish central government directed authorities to stop the 2017 independence referendum in Catalonia, leading to the assault of voters and the use of rubber bullets.
- In 2013, the Justice and Development Party (AKP) in Turkey violently responded to mass protests during the Gezi Park movement, killing five protestors and injuring more than 9,000.
- In Kenya, following the withdrawal of opposition candidate Raila Odinga's name from the ballot and incumbent President Kenyatta's subsequent landslide re-election, immense political violence broke out, with police and government-sponsored gangs targeting protestors in response. Approximately 150 people were killed.

3.2.7 Media Bias

A free press is essential to liberal democracy, increasing the accountability of elected officials and the general transparency of the democratic process. Increased restrictions on media lead to less competitive elections and a reduction in the ability to check the executive (Hill and Lupu, 2017). The reduction of media freedom is conducive to erosion by increasing media bias. Media bias attempts to influence either the content of the media or the perception of the media itself without exercising the direct control implied by media oppression. Media bias can impact the dissemination of information which is essential for the public to hold the government accountable and make informed decisions.

Examples

- In 2010, a loyalist to the South Korean government was appointed the network president of MBC, the country's second-largest television network, skewing MBC's coverage in favor of the administration.
- During the 2014 Bolivian Presidential elections, state-run Bolivia TV showed a soccer game instead of a debate between President Morales' opponents.
- The Ghanaian Parliament in 2015 required operators of electronic communications or broadcasting services to get approval from a government media commission for information broadcasts.

3.2.8 Lack of Legitimacy

Democracies, more than any other form of government, require broad support for the activation and implementation of policies. This requires

3 Precursor Categorization

public legitimacy, so that the government may effectively make and enforce its decisions. No government will be perfectly legitimate in the eyes of all citizens, but democracy cannot survive unless a substantial number of citizens, politicians, and members of the armed forces believe the government to be legitimate. Notably, even members of the opposition ought to recognize legitimacy (Linz and Stepan, 1996). The relative legitimacy of a government can decide its longevity and capacity to endure crises such as economic downturn or military defeat (Lipset, 1959).

A lack of legitimacy arises when the current government institutions are not considered those best suited for the society (Lipset, 1959). This belief can come from the citizenry, the opposition, or the armed forces. Events which demonstrate a lack of legitimacy may include: polls showing a dramatic decrease in public trust in government; unelected candidates or opposition figures declaring themselves the “rightful” authority; failure of the government to respond to urgent needs; failure to govern the entire territory of the country; existence of breakaway territories or other self-determination movements; and dissent by opposing political actors through political stalemates or electoral boycotts.

All of these events can weaken public trust and dedication to a country’s democracy, leading the citizenry to doubt that the status quo (i.e. democratic) institutions are those best-suited for society. This introduces a risk that the public abandons democratic institutions in exchange for support of more authoritarian alternatives.

Note on coding: Lack of legitimacy can be a standalone event, but it can also be either a cause or an effect of another precursor or symptom of erosion. For example, a lack of legitimacy may be caused by corruption or an executive attack on the judiciary, or lack of legitimacy may have the effect of low voter turnout or non-state violence. An instance of corruption causing a lack of legitimacy should thus be coded as two distinct events: the cause (corruption) and the effect (lack of legitimacy).

3 Precursor Categorization

If the causal link is inverted (i.e. lack of legitimacy causing to low voter turnout), code as such, again as two events.

On polling data: Polling data can be helpful for identifying a sharp decline in a government's legitimacy (for instance, trust in the government of Ghana fell from 60% to 30% following fraudulent elections). That said, if a sharp decline or other compelling sign of legitimacy decreasing is not evident in polls, then general polling data should not be coded.

Examples

- In the 2017 Kenyan re-elections, opposition-supporting voters boycotted the election after their candidate Raila Odinga withdrew his name from the ballot.
- In Thailand in 2012, Prime Minister Yingluck's rice subsidy program led to billion-dollar losses and large piles of unsold rice, causing resentment and distrust of the government among farmers.
- Viktor Yanukovich, a Russian-supported presidential candidate in Ukraine, won the election, despite opinion polls showing that opposition candidate Yushchenko was by far the most popular. Mass protests ensued, resulting in a new election.

3.2.9 Polarization

Political polarization, typically instigated by political elites and then expressed in the general public, can enable democratic erosion. While some political polarization is normal and perhaps expected, extreme polarization increases the stakes of politics and reduces parties' desire and ability to cooperate. Extreme polarization can also lead to a general disrespect for political pluralism and the abandonment of the notion that other parties have a right to exist, both of which are fundamental to

3 Precursor Categorization

democracy. Polarization can result in a lack of forbearance and extreme political maneuvers to ensure one's opponent stays out of power (Levitsky and Ziblatt, 2018). This can then transfer to the public—when one group believes that they are fundamentally at odds with another group, the former will perhaps be more willing to grant power to political leaders so as to circumvent institutional structures, ensuring the competitor loses (Svolik, 2019).

Polarization, especially in nascent democracies, often occurs across ethnic, racial, religious, or other cultural lines. While these cultural differences may certainly be an opportunity for elites to capitalize upon social divisions and foster political polarization, the existence of differences does not, in itself, represent polarization (Posner, 2004). That said, an event of increasing polarization can occur when elites or politicians stoke fear, distrust, or disunity among a society's disparate groups. Other events which should be coded as polarization include: violence along ethnic/racial/religious lines, failure of political parties to cooperate at the expense of effective governing, the codification of preferences for one group above another, extreme political appeals to ethnic/religious/racial division, among others.

Examples

- In 2018, the Islamabad High Court decided that Pakistani citizens had the right to know the religious affiliations of high-profile government officials, reinforcing already-inflamed social cleavages and sectarian tensions.
- In 2016, the Democratic Socialist Party (DPS) and the Socialist Democratic Party of Montenegro (SDP) split. The SDP boycotted their parliamentary seats in 2018, accusing the DPS of electoral fraud, leading to protests and the stalling of EU membership.

3 Precursor Categorization

- Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu sought to turn out Likud voters by asserting that leftist NGOs were busing Arab voters to the polls.

3.2.10 Extremist/Populist Parties

The rise of extremist and populist parties is a pressing concern for democracy globally. Populism is a political logic which separates a “pure” or “true” people, from political elites and outsiders (Mudde, 2004). Populist leaders pose themselves as the only ones able to represent the will of this “pure” or “true” people, while painting other politicians as corrupt. This often also includes a rejection of outsiders, such as refugees and immigrants, who are seen as a threat to the purity of a country’s populus. Populism relies on the belief that there is only one group of people who are “true,” and one leader or party who can represent them. This ideology poses a threat to democracy in three particular ways. Firstly, it allows for the accumulation of a large amount of power, the rejection of certain democratic institutions, and authoritarian-leaning actions justified as “the will of the people.” Secondly, it encourages the expression of nationalist sentiment and hatred towards outsiders, often resulting in the oppression of groups such as refugees and immigrants. Lastly, it rejects political pluralism, an essential aspect of democracy (Muller, 2016).

Examples

- Established in 2001, the Law and Justice (PiS) party in Poland has become the largest party in Parliament. Running on nationalistic and anti-immigrant platforms, PiS has been rising in popularity since.

3 Precursor Categorization

- In October of 2018, Jair Messias Bolsonaro was elected the president of Brazil. With his history of threats to the opposition and the press, endorsement of military dictatorship and police violence, and homophobic, racist and sexist remarks, Bolsonaro took advantage of a state of political instability in Brazil to gain power.
- The New People's Party (NPA) is an increasingly-popular armed wing of the Communist Party of the Philippines. The number of NPA attacks went from 60 in 2016 to 260 in 2017 with the group killing or wounding 281 in 2018.

3.2.11 Party Weakness

In both presidential and parliamentary electoral systems, political parties have the ability to influence who does and does not gain power. Particularly, strong political parties can prevent individuals they see as too extreme or unfit to rule from gaining power within their own party through gatekeeping. This strategy can include expressing a public lack of support, using institutional checks, and leveraging their political clout (Levitsky and Ziblatt, 2018). While not entirely successful, U.S. politician Mitt Romney's public condemnation of Donald Trump in 2016 can be seen as an attempt at gatekeeping within the Republican party. When a political party becomes too weak to gatekeep, perhaps due to internal fragmentation, outsiders who may create instability or introduce extreme ideas have a greater opportunity to gain power.

Alternatively, strong opposition parties and coalitions can prevent individuals with authoritarian or anti-democratic leanings from other parties from gaining power. When these parties and coalitions weaken, they open the door for such individuals to take control.

3 Precursor Categorization

Examples

- In Serbia, the Democratic Opposition of Serbia was a large alliance of political parties which formed to oust of the ruling Socialist Party. By the 2003 presidential election, the coalition had fragmented and the individual parties proved to be too weak, allowing for the election of Tomislav Nikolić of the Serbian Radical party.
- Unable to prevent the the appointment of Jussi Halla-aho as the head of the Finns Party in 2017, the coalition of which Finns Party was a member split due to the belief that Halla-aho is too extreme.

3.2.12 Vertical Corruption

Vertical corruption is corruption in the input procedures in democracy, or procedures and norms which are necessary for citizens to have their interests equally represented in, and responded to, by government actors through democratic channels (Bailey, 2009).

Instances of vertical corruption reduce the responsiveness and accountability of the government, or its willingness and ability to listen to the preferences of the public and pass them on to decision and policy making bodies (Bratton, 2012). When corruption is prevalent, political decisions are made in the pursuit of personal enrichment, rather than the fulfillment of the preferences of the people. If bribery is seen as a normal “cost of doing business,” then corruption, rather than taxation, becomes the economic link between the citizens and their government. This causes elected officials and bureaucrats to be less responsive to the needs and requests of the citizenry without bribery (Bratton, 2012).

Vertical corruption may also impact electoral outcomes, as wealthy elites allied with a regime can fraudulently fund campaigns or finance lobbying efforts to circumvent a democracy’s responsiveness to the public. Finally,

3 Precursor Categorization

vertical corruption may occur as a result of a conflict of interest, in which government contracts are sold to firms owned by party or regime loyalists, providing unique and exclusive economic benefits to political allies.

In short, examples of vertical corruption include: bribery of government officials or bureaucrats, extortion/blackmail, influence peddling, sale of government contracts to party loyalists or regime allies, patronage networks, ties to organized crime groups, campaign finance abuse, and illegal lobbying.

Examples

- South Korean President Park Geun Hye and her adviser and friend Choi Soon Sil embezzled state money, which led to Choi amassing a "large, private fortune." Choi was found to have immense influence over Park, and they were accused of coercing the business community to make donations that support the presidency.
- Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu and his wife accepted cigars, jewelry, and champagne from Israeli expatriates in return for the extension of a 10-year tax exemption to expatriate Israelis returning to the country.
- In a scandal known as Oilgate, South Africa's state oil company, PetroSA, paid 15 million Rand in 2004 to a company called Imvume Management as an advance payment for oil condensate, which the company then diverted to the ANC (African National Congress party) to help fund election campaigns.

3.3 Exogenous Risk Factors

3.3.1 Non-state Violence

The presence of non-state violence—organized crime, terrorist groups, gangs, and violent cartels, among others—is a precursor to democratic backsliding for two main reasons. First, the endemic existence of violent non-state actors indicates weak rule of law and may undermine citizen perception of regime legitimacy. Second, non-state violence poses a threat insofar as candidates from populist, extremist, or authoritarian parties can rise to power, promising to eradicate the threat by any means necessary, including the erosion of democratic institutions (Norris, 2017). This second reason has materialized in Europe with the rise of extreme-right parties in France, Germany, Hungary, and Poland, in response to sporadic terrorist attacks on the continent. In the Philippines, Rodrigo Duterte has similarly campaigned on and implemented tough-on-crime policies, often at the expense of civil liberties and judicial processes.

Examples

- In 2001, an armed conflict between ethnic Albanians and Slavic Macedonians killed dozens.
- In 2011, weapons from Libya, following the collapse of the Qaddafi regime, stream into Mali and end up in the hands of Tuareg insurgents, resulting in heightened violence in the Northern regions of the country and the inability of the military to quell it.

3 Precursor Categorization

3.3.2 Refugee Crisis

The influx of refugees into a country does not itself pose a risk to democracy, but it may create conditions which inspire harsh reactionary movements that can threaten democracy. Harsh reactionary movements often lead to other precursors to erosion, as the capacities of host countries come under increased strain (Mudde, 2013). Thus, a massive refugee crisis, and in particular a heavy influx of refugees into a single country, can be considered a precursor to democratic erosion.

For instance, since the start of the Syrian Civil War and the subsequent influx of refugees into Europe and Syria's neighbors, several authoritarian right-wing parties have gained traction, primarily campaigning against open borders and the harboring of refugees (Norris and Inglehart, 2019). In some cases, these parties have successfully won the highest national offices with such rhetoric, as did Viktor Orbán and his Fidesz party in Hungary, which have since eroded Hungarian democracy. Even when such parties do not win majorities, they often have significant influence on national politics, as demonstrated by the National Front in France, AfD in Germany, and UKIP in the United Kingdom. Many such parties became nationally relevant only once they began campaigning against refugee policies, stoking anger and nationalist sentiments (Norris and Inglehart, 2019).

Examples

- Beginning in the summer of 2012, the Syrian refugee crisis has spilled into Lebanon, leading to deadly clashes between Sunni Muslims and Alawites in Lebanon's major cities. About one million Syrians have sought refuge in Lebanon, now comprising approximately 1/4 of Lebanon's population, thus exacerbating pre-existing

3 Precursor Categorization

tensions in a country already beset with a weak economy and complex political situation.

- In 2015, a large number of foreign migrants entered Hungary. After the EU began to mandate quotas for how many asylum applications EU countries must accept, Prime Minister Viktor Orbán refused to participate in the EU resettlement program.

3.3.3 External Influence

External political alignment can take many forms, including membership in international organizations, economic agreements, or military alliances with other countries. International organizations, such as the EU, often have requirements for membership and threaten to revoke membership (and the benefits that come with it) if they are not upheld. International organizations can thus hold member countries to certain base standards, including standards that safeguard democratic institutions. On the other hand, when a country leaves an international organization, it may lose a level of accountability to uphold certain democratic norms. This same accountability mechanism is seen in alliance structures or certain bilateral agreements, where states can threaten to withhold benefits or break the relationship if another country acts undemocratically. The choice to leave an international organization or end an international agreement can be a sign that a government no longer wants to be held accountable, and can open the door for future actions that may erode democratic institutions.

Alternatively, countries can politically align themselves with international actors (e.g. a larger, more authoritarian neighbor) that reduces local independence or hopes to diminish local democracy. This localized erosion may happen in exchange for financial support or political favors from the more powerful country.

3 Precursor Categorization

Examples

- In 2013, Ukrainian president Yanukovich made a deal with Russia, following a financial crisis, for 15 billion dollars and a cut to natural gas prices . This was seen as reducing the president's independence from Russian influence.
- Starting in 2010, media groups associated with the Chinese government began to purchase stakes in Taiwanese media outlets and air propaganda, influencing Taiwanese elections.

3.3.4 Economic Shocks

Democracies are often most fragile in the face of economic shocks, crashes, or crises (Przeworski, 1996b). These shocks may include a dramatic drop in the price of a key export, a monetary crisis, a global recession, among others. Such crises also tend to increase economic inequality, further heightening social tension and making democratic erosion even more likely (Huntington, 1991).

If shocks persist, public frustration with the government response can lead to a perceived de-legitimization of democratic governance more broadly. Facing economic crisis, the public may favor drastic measures that can be imposed only by (more) authoritarian governments (Huntington, 1991). At the least, economic shocks set the stage for outsider entries into political, especially executive, office. Riding a wave of popular support, would-be authoritarian outsiders can exploit majoritarianism, especially in the absence of robust party and civil society opposition, and use their political mandate of repairing the economy to justify the removal of horizontal checks, the extension of term limits, the reduction of civil liberties, and the subversion of elections (Haggard and Kaufman, 2016). Due to the myriad potential impacts to democracy, economic

3 Precursor Categorization

shocks are thus a precursor to erosion.

Examples

- The 2009 Eurozone Crisis caused an employment shock throughout the EU, though the UK was less affected due to use of the Pound. The UK then began to absorb unemployed individuals from the EU.
- De Beers diamond company lost control over the global diamond supply, causing the volatility of global diamond prices to increase, hurting Botswana's economy. In 2009, Ian Khama's first year as president, Botswana's GDP contracted by 7.8%, and GDP has continued to drop since.
- Brazil experienced an economic crisis when its economy contracted by nearly 7% in 2015-2016.

4 Symptom Categorization

- **Question:** If defined as a symptom, how should the erosion-related event be categorized?
- **Clarification:** The symptoms were split into two subcategories: reduction in vertical accountability and a reduction in horizontal accountability. Within each subcategory, there are several labels to describe a particular event.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Type:** Multiple-choice.

4.1 Reduction in Horizontal Accountability

4.1.1 Reduction in Judicial Independence

A study by Gibler and Kirk found that established, independent judiciaries prevent backsliding to hybrid regimes or competitive authoritarianism. Established judiciaries may prevent the executive from gaining undue power under the guise of a crisis, and can directly check the power of the executive, thus maintaining democracy (Gibler and Randazzo, 2011). In authoritarian regimes, governments often try to subjugate the judiciary through various means including impeachment, co-optation,

4 Symptom Categorization

extortion, or bribery (Levitsky and Way, 2002). We define judicial independence as when a judiciary operates as a neutral third party that impartially resolves conflict and is insulated from political actors (Shapiro, 1981). When a judiciary's failure to be independent is institutionalized or codified, we code this event as a *reduction* in judicial independence, rather than a delegitimizing or weakening of the judiciary. Court packing, circumvention of judicial power, or judicial decisions unduly privileging the executive are all symptoms of a reduction in judicial independence.

Examples

- In 2017, Turkish President Recep Tayyip Erdogan appointed 14 of 19 Constitutional Court judges, changing the orientation and disposition of the body from secularist to favoring Erdogan's Justice and Development Party.
- In 2016, the Polish Law and Justice party lowered the mandatory retirement age for Supreme Court judges and the National Council of the Judiciary, resulting in the termination of 31 of 83 judges.

4.1.2 Reduction in Legislative Oversight

In a functioning democracy, the legislature is capable of serving as a check on the other branches of government. Lust and Waldner argue that the legislature places external restrictions on members of the government, and is therefore an important component of horizontal accountability (Lust and Waldner, 2015). A reduction in legislative oversight may manifest as executive actions or constitutional amendments that limit the legislature's formal powers. It may also take the form of a weakened legislature failing to act as an effective check on the executive, seen in "delegative democracies," where the executive rules without meaningful input from the

4 Symptom Categorization

legislative body. Such cases demonstrate that the elimination of formal checks is not always necessary for an institutional reduction in oversight. (O'Donnell, 1994). In either case, institutional weakening of the legislative branch signifies a clear decrease in horizontal accountability.

Examples

- In January 2016, President Edgar Lungu of Zambia signed an amendment granting him the ability to dismiss the National Assembly at will.
- In 2017, Venezuela's Supreme Tribunal of Justice dissolved the National Assembly and assumed legislative powers.

4.1.3 Weakened Civil Service or Integrity Institutions

Both the civil service and international integrity institutions can check executive power through nonviolent, deliberate resistance (Ingber, 2018). The related precursor category describes replacing these officials with party loyalists, manipulation via patronage networks, or intimidation. However, there are also instances where state agencies are placed directly under executive control or are restructured to reduce their influence. As Huq and Ginsberg discuss, when the executive takes control over the bureaucracy, it eliminates a potential check on their actions (Huq and Ginsburg, 2018). Similarly, international integrity institutions—such as the International Commission Against Impunity in Guatemala (CICIG), or third party electoral evaluators in Bangladesh—may serve as a check on executive power. Impeding or removing these international integrity institutions also qualifies as the institutional elimination of potential avenues for resistance.

4 Symptom Categorization

Examples

- In 2018, Romania's Social Democratic Party (PSD) fired the chief of the National Anti-corruption Directorate, in what was seen as punishment for attempting to prosecute corrupt elites.
- In 2018, Nepal's President Oli restructured the Nepalese civil service such that the National Investigation Department, the Social Welfare Council, Revenue Investigation and Money Laundering Investigation were placed under his office's control.

4.1.4 Suspension of Laws or the Constitution

Emergency powers enable executives to gain new powers and circumvent democratic procedures. These moments of exception are often utilized by the executive to fulfill an undemocratic agenda. Under a state of emergency, the executive may establish a curfew or suspend the right to assembly (depending on the specific state). These types of emergency powers are easily manipulated to weaken opposition movements, undermine election processes, or otherwise incapacitate democratic machinery. Huq and Ginsberg describe these cases of quick democratic collapse as "authoritarian reversions" (Huq and Ginsburg, 2018). In some cases, the suspension of the rule of law might be a proportional response to a genuine emergency, such as the outbreak of a disease. The abuse of emergency powers, however, is symptomatic of executive aggrandizement, thus institutionalizing the erosion of democracy (Freeman, 2003).

4.1.5 Relaxation of Term Limits

Democratic erosion often occurs through executive aggrandizement, the increased power and liberty of the executive to act as they please. One

4 Symptom Categorization

of the primary signs of executive aggrandizement is the extension, relaxation, or abolition of term limits placed on the executive or members of the executive's coalition (e.g. members of a legislative body). Executive term limits constrain the power of the executive, limit incumbency advantages, and promote competition and alternation in power (Maltz, 2007). Successful attempts to extend term limits demonstrate an institutionalized reduction in the quality of democracy. Although often related to the symptom category of Constitutional Revision, the relaxation of term limits remains qualitatively distinct due to its role in executive aggrandizement (Baturo, 2014).

Examples

- In December 2002, President Eyadema of Togo passed an amendment to the constitution that abolished presidential term limits and would allow him to run for an unlimited number of elections.
- In 2017, Bolivia's Supreme Court eliminated term limits, permitting President Evo Morales to stand for reelection in 2019.

4.1.6 Revision of the Constitution

Not all constitutional amendments should be viewed as democratic erosion events, but revisions that consolidate executive power or undermine checks and balances are symptomatic of democratic erosion. Many executives with authoritarian tendencies have turned to constitutional amendments for executive aggrandizement, a practice termed "abusive constitutionalism" (Landau, 2013). When the executive eliminates checks through constitutional revision, it is a clear sign of institutionalized democratic erosion (Huq and Ginsberg, 2018).

4 Symptom Categorization

Examples

- In 2008, Evo Morales passed a new constitution in Bolivia via referendum.
- In 2011, Viktor Orbán's Fidesz party rewrote the Constitution and adopted the new Fundamental Law as a replacement.

4.1.7 Reducing Autonomy of Subnational Units

As noted is the corresponding precursor, some degree of power and autonomy is allocated to subnational units in many federalist systems. This distribution of power allows such units to check the powers of the central government (Vale, 2017).

When the central government of a country reduces the autonomy of these subnational units, it can be symptomatic of erosion, representing an accumulation of power and the elimination of institutionalized limits on the exercise of that power.

4.2 Reduction in Vertical Accountability

4.2.1 Repression of the Opposition

According to Schedler, the freedom to “form, join, and support conflicting parties, candidates, and policies” and the freedom to “learn about available alternatives through access to alternative sources of information” are integral to democratic choice (Schedler, 2002). We therefore define this category as when the state represses opposition parties through force or harassment or deliberately engineers an uneven playing field for the

4 Symptom Categorization

opposition. An uneven playing field exists when the incumbent abuses state infrastructure to create disparities in access to resources, media, or state institutions, impairing the opposition party's ability to organize and compete for office (Levitsky and Way, 2010). To create these conditions, the state may curtail the opposition's ability to disseminate information or assemble.

Examples

- In 2014, South Korean President Park Geun-Hye endorsed the dissolution of the Unified Progressive Party (UPP), an opposition party.
- In 2015, the Polish Law and Justice Party conducted an audit of its main opponent, the Civic Platform (PO) party, six months after the election.

4.2.2 Systemic Reduction in Election Freedom and Fairness

Elections must be "fair and free" to qualify as democratic (Schedler, 2002). The difference between electoral democracy and electoral authoritarianism is the "freedom, fairness, inclusiveness, and meaningfulness" of the elections (Diamond, 2002). Elections are considered free when there are few barriers to entry into politics, when candidates and supporters of different parties are free to campaign, and when voters do not experience substantial coercion in making choices in elections (Diamond, 2002). Accordingly, per Levitsky and Way, political systems become electoral authoritarianism when there is "an uneven playing field" between the incumbent and the opposition. In most liberal democracies, however, the incumbent has certain structural advantages, such as greater access

4 Symptom Categorization

to the media, better fundraising, and government transportation and staff during the campaign. We therefore define a systemic reduction in election freedom/fairness as the institutionalization of an uneven playing field between the government and the opposition, thereby giving the incumbent an artificial electoral advantage.

Examples

- In 2014, 48 million registered voters were denied the opportunity to vote in the Bangladeshi general election.
- In 2004, South Korean President Roh Moo-Hyun violated the constitutional requirement that the president remain impartial in elections by openly advocating for his party in National Assembly elections.

4.2.3 Curtailed Civil Liberties

Schedler asserts that for elections to be democratic, they must occur in an “open environment where civil and political liberties are not subject to repression” (Schedler, 2002). Citizens must have the freedom to join and support conflicting candidates and policies, the right to express their electoral preferences, and access to multiple sources of information. Similarly, according to Dahl, two of the four key attributes of procedural democracy are the protection of civil liberties necessary to free and fair elections, including universal adult suffrage and the freedoms of speech, press, and association (Dahl, 1972). When the public is denied these rights by the government, democratic erosion has occurred.

4 Symptom Categorization

Examples

- In 2016, the Basic Law for the Protection of Public Safety was enacted in Spain, resulting in fines levied for disrespecting the police, speaking critically of the government, and photographing police operations.
- In 2016, several reports came out of Turkey that trials lacked due process, prisoners faced challenges obtaining legal representation, and detainees were subject to physical and sanitary mistreatment.

4.2.4 Media Repression

News media and other independent groups act as public watchdogs and promote government transparency by providing information and commentary critical of officials and their policies (Varol, 2015). Restrictions on independent media weaken institutional checks and diminish competition among political parties and factions. While media repression may entail jailing journalists, shutting down news outlets, and outright censorship, some authoritarians may opt for less traditional or direct methods. Such leaders may use libel lawsuits against prominent journalists, compelling self-censorship among news outlets, thereby undermining the public's ability to observe the incumbent's behavior and get obtain critical news coverage (Varol, 2015).

Examples

- In 2012, the Polish government attacked the largest private television channel, TVN24, demanding \$3 million in unpaid taxes.
- In 2017, in Turkey, an estimated 245 journalists were jailed, while another 140 faced outstanding arrest warrants.

4 Symptom Categorization

4.2.5 No-Confidence Votes or Decreased Voter Turnout

Once a substantial number of people living in a democratic society believe they do not have a voice in the political process and choose to no longer participate, then that democracy may lose its legitimacy (Moy and Pfau, 2000). Public confidence is an indication of how well the political system is performing and how responsive it is to the people's concerns. An erosion of confidence in representative democracy is a serious threat to that democracy (Newton and Norris, 1999). Politicians facing no-confidence votes or a large decrease in voter turnout are indications that there is a lack of confidence in the political system and that democratic erosion has taken place.

Examples

- In 2017 and 2018, South African President Jacob Zuma faced multiple no-confidence votes.
- In 2014, the voter turnout for the Bangladeshi election was just 22%, down from 87% in the prior election cycle.

5 Resistance Categorization

- **Question:** If defined as resistance, how should the erosion-related event be categorized?
- **Clarification:** The resistance categorizations were distinguished by three subcategories: an increase in horizontal accountability, an increase in vertical accountability, and an “other” category. Within each subcategory, there are a number of labels to describe a particular event.
- **Responses:** Text.
- **Answer-Type:** Multiple-choice.

5.1 Increase in Horizontal Accountability

5.1.1 Check on Executive by Judiciary

In the context of democratic erosion, the judiciary plays an important role in preventing, or allowing, backsliding. Gibler and Randazzo found evidence that independent judiciaries that have existed for at least three years mitigate democratic erosion (Gibler and Randazzo, 2011). Constitutional courts, for instance, can declare laws totally or partially unconstitutional, preventing a potential authoritarian from manipulating laws for aggrandized executive power. Constitutional courts can serve as powerful veto

5 Resistance Categorization

players in their own right, dependent on the particular political system and powers of the court (Brouard and Hönnige, 2017).

Judiciaries that lack independence can also engage in acts of resistance. Helmke argues that under certain conditions of institutional insecurity, a lack of judicial independence can actually motivate strategic defection on the part of judges from the government, drawing from data on the Argentine Supreme Court (Helmke, 2002).

Examples

- In 2014, the court system of Botswana overturned an attempt by President Ian Khama to elect a vice president via a show of hands vote, rather than by secret ballot.
- In 2008, the Constitutional Court of Kosovo ruled that Fatmir Sejdiu could not serve as both President of Kosovo and president of the political party Democratic League of Kosovo (LDK).

5.1.2 Check on Executive by Legislature

Key to many definitions of democracy (Schumpeter, 1947, Dahl, 1972, Schmitter and Karl, 1991b, Przeworski, 1996a) is a competitively-elected legislative branch, which operates alongside an executive and exists to legislate voters' priorities. Though they may vary in composition and exact capabilities, legislatures in democracies can often serve as important checks on executive power through impeachment proceedings, public critique, and votes on legislation or constitutional amendments. Within the legislative branch itself, multiparty coalitions can serve as formal "gatekeepers," preventing executive aggrandizement and the manipulation of existing democratic structures (Levitsky and Ziblatt, 2018).

5 Resistance Categorization

Examples

- In 2015, the Congress of Guatemala voted to strip President Otto Perez Molina of his immunity in response to corruption allegations, leading to his resignation from office the following day.
- In 2011, the opposition-controlled Congress in Paraguay blocked a constitutional amendment that would have eliminated presidential term limits.

5.1.3 Check on Central Power by Subnational Units

In federalist systems, subnational governments such as provinces or states can serve as checks on the power of the central government, (Vale, 2017). Subnational institutions can harness powers conferred to them by the central government, such as regulation and discretion in policy implementation, and their own capacity to autonomously legislate to express dissent and curb central government power (Bulman-Pozen and Gerken, 2009). Acts of “uncooperative federalism” at the subnational level—or “uncooperative localism” at the municipal level—can contest, and even alter, national policy (Bulman-Pozen and Gerken, 2009 and Gerken, 2017).

Note on coding: Not all instances of uncooperative federalism or localism is a sign of resistance against democratic erosion. In fact, some may be politically contentious to code and should be noted as such. A historical example of this can be found in the United States’s Civil Rights movement, during which some states used the rhetoric of “states’ rights” to maintain segregation.

5 Resistance Categorization

Examples

- Several states in the U.S. resisted implementing portions of the Patriot Act that conflicted with constitutional rights (Montana, Connecticut, and others).
- India's subnational governments have become increasingly involved in matters of international diplomatic relations, decentralizing the country's foreign policy-making process (Jain and Maini, 2017).

5.1.4 Check on Central Power by Civil Service

Central to effective democratic governance is autonomous bureaucratic capacity. Through its insulation from political control at the day-to-day level, an autonomous bureaucratic capacity serves as a barrier to the misuse of state power, prevents rapid change, facilitates lasting decision-making, and creates a meritocratic infrastructure of career civil servants, rather than patronage networks (Huq and Ginsburg, 2018).

In such instances where government—or executive—agendas are perceived to be illegal, immoral, or against the stated mandate of a bureaucratic agency, civil servants or government employees can resist through deliberate, nonviolent acts of disobedience or defiance (See Nou, 2019, Ingber, 2018, Kestenbaum, 2017). Depending on the act of resistance itself, and whether it emerges from within the bounds of the functional or formal power of the bureaucracy, it can come with great risks to those choosing to execute it. Examples include withholding information or approval, releasing public statements of dissent, leaking information to the press, limiting the discretion of political appointees, and seeking judicial recourse.

5 Resistance Categorization

Example

- United States Foreign Service Officers and other diplomats drafted a dissent memo opposing President Donald Trump's executive order restricting the entry of refugees and immigrants from majority-Muslim countries into the U.S.

5.1.5 Post-Democratic Transition to New Constitution

The creation of a new, democratic constitution can be a sign of the process of democratic consolidation. Linz and Stepan note that one of the three main conditions for democratic consolidation relies on the content of a state's constitution—that all major actors and state organs reflect democratic norms and practices (Linz and Stepan, 1996). Acemoglu and Robinson also note that the detailed structures of durable political institutions must be present for consolidation (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2006).

The institutions designed and how a constitution is drafted have a greater effect on the prospect of democratic consolidation than the act of creating a constitution itself (Munck, 1994). The most democratic and sustainable constitutions forged during transitions arise from wide coalition-building and broad-based citizen input (Todd A. Eisenstadt and Maboudi, 2015). Transition constitutions must seek to resolve conflict and tensions between the old guard and those advocating for a democratic transition. They must also develop electoral systems that reflect citizen preferences, establish transparent legal procedures, and build durable institutions (Lowenthal and Bitar, 2017). Otherwise, constitutions that appear democratic may, in reality, be drafted in such a way as to facilitate a power-grab by a select group. Such instrumentalization depends on the structure of the executive branch, the strength of constitutionally-mandated checks, the

5 Resistance Categorization

provision of term limits, and other similar factors (Todd A. Eisenstadt and Maboudi, 2015, Lowenthal and Bitar, 2017).

Example

- Following the Arab Spring uprisings in Tunisia and Egypt, both countries drafted new constitutions. Today, Egypt remains a hybrid regime, whereas Tunisia's democracy continues to strengthen, a phenomenon that many point to as a direct result of a more deliberative, inclusive constitution-drafting process in Tunisia.

5.2 Increase in Vertical Accountability

5.2.1 Coalitions or Elite Pacts

Though political scientists debate the importance of power sharing among elites in relation to active participation of the citizenry, many agree that elite pacts can be beneficial to democratic health. North notes that elite pacts are at the heart of a functioning democracy, creating an understanding that if all political actors respect the rules of democracy, each may have the opportunity to win power in the future, thus reinforcing democratic norms (North, 1990).

On a related note, Levitsky and Ziblatt emphasize the importance of multiparty coalitions as formal "gatekeepers" to prevent the rise of potentially authoritarian executives or party platforms (Levitsky and Ziblatt, 2018). Even if an undemocratic candidate should take office, scholars such as Levitsky and Ziblatt (Levitsky and Ziblatt, 2018) and Gandhi and Buckles (Gandhi and Buckles, 2016) agree that if coalitions

5 Resistance Categorization

form, they can prevent further harm to the democracy and even unseat an authoritarian.

Examples

- In Ireland, a coalition between the Fine Gael and Fianna Fail parties helped counter extremism and led to the 2017 election of a young, immigrant, and openly homosexual Prime Minister: Leo Varadkar.
- In 2014, the Spanish Socialist Workers' Party (PSOE) and the People's Party (PP) signed an agreement to increase transparency in an attempt to lower corruption.

5.2.2 Increase in Electoral Integrity

When the infrastructure allowing for free and fair elections comes under threat through partisan electoral manipulation or tampering from an outside actor, the integrity of a democracy is put at risk (Schedler, 2002). To resist this, states can take proactive steps to reinforce the security of the ballot box by increasing the scale of electoral monitoring and broadening planning requirements for electoral management bodies (Darnolf, 2018).

States can expand access to the ballot box, by extending the right to vote to formerly disenfranchised groups (e.g., the restoration of voting rights to certain formerly-incarcerated persons in Florida, the global women's suffrage movement) and increasing opportunities to vote (e.g., implementing vote-by-mail, early voting, or absentee ballot programs). Further, states can overturn former policies that restricted access to the ballot box or ensured particular electoral outcomes (e.g., voter ID laws or redrawing districts after gerrymandering).

5.2.3 Increase in Civic Capacity

Civic capacity, or the capacity of individuals and organizations to create and sustain collective action (Letki, 2019), contributes to citizens' sense of ownership over their democracy and the decisions it makes. By increasing the avenues through which citizens, coalitions, and civil society organizations can meaningfully contribute to the policy-making and implementation processes, the degree of perceived legitimacy and accountability of the democracy can increase (Gilman and Rahman, 2017). Often accomplished at the local level, increasing civic capacity can take various forms including soliciting public feedback on policy proposals, engaging a community through participatory budgeting, or expanding the reach and scale of civil society organizations (Gilman and Rahman, 2017).

5.2.4 Nonviolent Protest

For a democracy to function, it must protect and promote freedom of speech and assembly for its citizens (Dahl, 1972). Without this, citizens are restricted from meaningfully expressing their preferences, and the space for voicing opposing views is limited. By harnessing the freedom of assembly, citizens can participate in nonviolent protest outside the spaces created for traditional political engagement, opposing government policies and institutions they see as threatening the sanctity of the democracy (Krastev, 2014). Stephan and Chenoweth find that these nonviolent campaigns are more effective than violent protests in producing loyalty shifts and policy changes, particularly when they gain legitimacy among a wide cross section of a population (Stephan and Chenoweth, 2008).

5 Resistance Categorization

Examples

- In 2014, after the Regiment of Presidential Security (RPS) orchestrated a coup, mass protests forced it to apologize and reinstate the former Government of Burkina Faso.
- In Guatemala, citizens took to the streets to peacefully protest when the La Linea corruption scandal was uncovered by the International Commission against Impunity in Guatemala (CICIG) and Attorney General Thelma Aldana.
- In 2017, 150 Serbian news outlets and advocacy groups organized a media blackout and warned of media censorship.

5.2.5 Violent Protest

Though Stephan and Chenoweth conclude that nonviolent campaigns are more effective than violent protests in producing loyalty shifts and policy changes (Stephan and Chenoweth, 2008), citizen-led protests against a regime may escalate and become violent. Krastev notes that, ideally, nonviolent protests and elections should give citizens an outlet outside of violence through which to voice their opposition or disapproval (Krastev, 2014). However, protests resisting acts of democratic erosion may turn violent, whether deliberately or as a declaration of desperation.

Note on coding: In coding events, it is important to differentiate between violent acts of resistance *against* a government and violence that erupts *between* nonviolent protesters and state forces. A terrorist attack against a democratic government, for instance, should not be marked as “violent protest,” nor should police violence against protesters. “Violent protest” should be used exclusively when the protesters themselves initiate or participate in violent acts.

5 Resistance Categorization

Examples

- In 2009, a peaceful protest demanding the Latvian government's resignation due to a struggling economy turned violent when hundreds of people threw stones at the parliamentary building and looted stores.
- In 2017, protesters in Asuncion, Paraguay entered the Congress building and set it on fire in response to a proposed bill to lift presidential term limits.

5.2.6 Increase in Media Protections/Media Liberalization

Though the scholarship on media liberalization and democratization remains divided about whether independent media leads or follows democratic consolidation (Nael Jebril and Loveless, 2013), deliberate steps by a government to improve protections for independent media or enable further media liberalization can create a landscape open to independent voices, critical opinions, and potential government watchdogs. Implementing laws that reverse criminal libel laws, increase constitutional protections for journalists, privatize formerly state-run media sources, break up media conglomerates, and other state actions can serve to resist media repression.

It is important to note, however, that not all private media outlets are examples of a free and healthy landscape for independent journalism; in Hungary, for instance, the pro-government, but "independent" media conglomerate KESMA reaches 80 percent of the Hungarian audience, while other independent media houses have been closed (Joinken, 2019).

5.3 Other

5.3.1 Pressure from Outside Actor

Outside actors, including nongovernmental organizations and international organizations, play a large role in holding states accountable to uphold international democratic norms. The role these peer actors play in naming, shaming, and punishing states for breaching accepted standards of conduct or for lapses in democratic governance, can serve to alter behaviors and strengthen democratic norms. Finnemore and Sikkink write of a “norms cascade” process during which pressure for conformity and a desire for increased legitimacy among actors on the international stage can push states to change their behavior (Finnemore and Sikkink, 1998). Ways outside actors can pressure states include releasing statements of public condemnation, publishing critical reports, imposing economic sanctions, withholding aid, and preventing said state from joining an international organization.

Examples

- In 2018, The United Nations (UN) condemned new laws in Hungary which targeted non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society.
- In 2017, the European Union (EU) rescinded funding to Poland as a result of its neglect of the Rule of Law framework.

5.3.2 Exit of People or Money

In some contexts, citizens face legal or institutional barriers to voicing their dissatisfaction with government actions through protests or elec-

5 Resistance Categorization

tions, or perceive that their actions will not accomplish any change. In such instances, exit becomes an attractive option, though not without its own barriers. Removing a significant amount of human or physical capital from a particular state can pressure a state to change (Paul, 1992) or draw international attention to the conditions at play. For example, more than 7 percent of Venezuela's population has fled the country since 2014 as conditions continue to deteriorate under the Maduro regime. A historical example of the exit of physical capital to pressure policy change favoring democratic reforms is the international divestment movement against apartheid-era South Africa, which contributed to pressuring the South African government into dissolving apartheid.

5.3.3 State Attempts to Prevent Backsliding

Particular actions by the state may have the consequence of preventing democratic backsliding, though that may not be the expressed intent. This category should be used to classify actions taken by the state to deliberately prevent backsliding that do not fall under existing categories. This can include the creation of programs to resolve long standing ethnic, political, or social divides through the reversal of discriminatory statutes (e.g. legally-mandated racial or ethnic segregation, or the legal distinction of citizens by caste) or through truth and reconciliation commissions. State attempts to prevent backsliding can also take the form of reversing previous policies that allowed for executive aggrandizement or weakened the autonomy of particular branches of government. For instance, upon taking office, President of Argentina Cristina Fernández de Kirchner removed persons from the judiciary that were loyalists to a previous government.

Bibliography

- Acemoglu, Daron and James Robinson (2006). *Economic Origins of Dictatorship and Democracy*. Cambridge University Press. New York (cit. on p. 54).
- Bailey, John (2009), pp. 60–76 (cit. on pp. 18, 33).
- Baturo, Alexander (2014). *Democracy, Dictatorship, and Term Limits*. University of Michigan Press. Ann Arbor, MI (cit. on p. 44).
- Bermeo, Nancy (2016). “On Democratic Backsliding.” In: *Journal of Democracy* 27(1), pp. 5–19 (cit. on pp. 17, 21, 22).
- Brancati, Dawn (2014). “Democratic Authoritarianism: Origins and Effects.” In: *Annual Review of Political Science* 17, pp. 313–326 (cit. on p. 16).
- Bratton, Michael (2012). “Citizen Perceptions of Local Government Responsiveness in Sub-Saharan Africa.” In: *World Development* 40(3), pp. 516–527 (cit. on p. 33).
- Brouard, Sylvain and Christoph Hönnige (2017). “Constitutional courts as veto players: Lessons from the United States, France and Germany.” In: *European Journal of Political Research* 56, pp. 529–552 (cit. on p. 51).
- Bulman-Pozen, Jessica and Heather Gerken (2009). “Uncooperative Federalism.” In: *The Yale Law Journal* 118(7), pp. 1256–1310 (cit. on p. 52).
- Coppedge, Michael et al. (2018). *V-Dem Codebook v8*. Varieties of Democracy (V-Dem)Project (cit. on p. 3).
- Dahl, Robert (1972). *Polyarchy: Participation and Opposition*. Yale University Press. New Haven, CT (cit. on pp. 20, 47, 51, 57).

Bibliography

- Darnolf, Staffan (2018). "Safeguarding Our Elections: Enhanced Electoral Integrity Planning." In: *SAIS Review of International Affairs* 38(1), pp. 39–51 (cit. on p. 56).
- Diamond, L. J. (2002). "Thinking About Hybrid Regimes." In: *Journal of Democracy* 13(2), pp. 21–35 (cit. on p. 46).
- Finnemore, Martha and Kathryn Sikkink (1998). "International Norm Dynamics and Political Change." In: *International Organization* 52(4), pp. 887–917 (cit. on p. 60).
- Freeman, Michael (2003). *Freedom or Security: The Consequences for Democracies Using Emergency Powers to Fight Terror*. Praeger. London (cit. on p. 43).
- Fung, Arch (2003). "Associations and Democracy: Between Theories, Hopes, and Realities." In: *Annual Review of Sociology* 29 (cit. on p. 24).
- Gandhi, Jennifer and Grant Buckles (2016). "Opposition Unity and Cooperation in Hybrid Regimes." In: (cit. on p. 55).
- Gehlbach, Scott and Konstantin Sonin (2014). "Government Control of the Media." In: *Journal of Public Economics* 118, pp. 163–171.
- Gerken, Heather (2017). "We're about to See States' Rights Used Defensively against Trump." In: (cit. on p. 52).
- Gibler, Douglas and Kirk Randazzo (2011). "Testing the Effects of Independent Judiciaries on the Likelihood of Democratic Backsliding." In: *American Journal of Political Science* 55(3), pp. 696–709 (cit. on pp. 13, 40, 50).
- Gilman, Hollie Russon and K. Sabeel Rahman (2017). "Building Civic Capacity in an Era of Democratic Crisis." In: (cit. on p. 57).
- Haggard, Stephan and Robert R. Kaufman (2016). *Dictators and Democrats. Masses, Elites, and Regime Change*. Princeton University Press (cit. on p. 38).
- Helmke, Gretchen (2002). "The Logic of Strategic Defection: Court-Executive Relations in Argentina under Dictatorship and Democracy." In: *The American Political Science Review* 96(2), pp. 291–303 (cit. on p. 51).

Bibliography

- Hill, Daniel and Yonatan Lupu (2017). "Restrictions on the news media are a bellwether for two disturbing trends." In: (cit. on p. 27).
- Huang, Haifeng (2017). In: *British Journal of Political Science* 47(2), pp. 283–311.
- Huntington, Samuel P. (1991). "Democracy's Third Wave." In: *Journal of Democracy* 2, pp. 12–34 (cit. on p. 38).
- Huq, Aziz and Tom Ginsberg (2018). "How to Lose a Constitutional Democracy." In: *UCLA Law Review* 65 (cit. on p. 44).
- Huq, Aziz and Tom Ginsburg (2018). *How to Save a Constitutional Democracy*. The University of Chicago Press. Chicago, IL (cit. on pp. 16, 17, 42, 43, 53).
- Ingber, Rebecca (2018). "Bureaucratic Resistance and the National Security State." In: *Iowa Law Review* 104, pp. 139–221 (cit. on pp. 42, 53).
- Jain, Purnendra and Tridivesh Singh Maini (2017). "India's Subnational Governments Foray into the International Arena." In: *Japanese Journal of Political Science* 18(2), pp. 286–312 (cit. on p. 53).
- Joinken, Matilda (2019). "#IPIWoCo: 'Communist Methods' Return to Eastern Europe's Media Landscape." In: (cit. on p. 59).
- Jr., Daniel Hill and Yonatan Lupu (2017). "Restrictions on the news media are a bellwether for two disturbing trends." In:
- Kestenbaum, Dave (2017). "Act Six: A Change in the Office Climate in The Revolution Starts at Noon." In: (cit. on p. 53).
- Knight, Brian and Ana Tribin (2016). "The Limits of Propaganda: Evidence from Chavez's Venezuela." In: *National Bureau of Economic Research*.
- Krastev, Ivan (2014). "From Politics to Protest." In: *Journal of Democracy* 25(4), pp. 5–19 (cit. on pp. 26, 57, 58).
- Landau, David (2013). "Abusive COnstitutionalism." In: *UC David Law Review* 189 (cit. on p. 44).
- Letki, Natalia (2019). "Civic Capacity." In: (cit. on p. 57).
- Levitsky, Steven and Lucan Way (2002). "The Rise of Competitive Authoritarianism." In: *Journal of Democracy* 2, pp. 51–65 (cit. on pp. 14, 41).

Bibliography

- Levitsky, Steven and Lucan Way (2010). "Why Democracy Needs a Level Playing Field." In: *Journal of Democracy* 21 (cit. on p. 46).
- Levitsky, Steven and Daniel Ziblatt (2018). *How Democracies Die*. Broadway Books. New York (cit. on pp. 19, 30, 32, 51, 55).
- Linz, Juan J. (1990). "The Perils of Presidentialism." In: *Journal of Democracy* 1, pp. 51–69 (cit. on p. 14).
- Linz, Juan J. and Alfred Stepan (1996). *Problems of Democratic Tradition and Consolidation. Southern Europe, South America, and Post-Communist Europe*. Johns Hopkins University Press (cit. on pp. 28, 54).
- Lipset, Seymour Martin (1959). "Some Social Requisites of Democracy: Economic Development and Political Legitimacy." In: *American Political Science Review* 53(1), pp. 69–105 (cit. on p. 28).
- Lowenthal, Abraham F. and Sergio Bitar (2017). "Getting to Democracy." In: (cit. on pp. 54, 55).
- Lust, Ellen and David Waldner (2015). *Unwelcome Change: Understanding, Evaluating, and Extending Theories of Democratic Backsliding*. USAID (cit. on p. 41).
- Maltz, Gideon (2007). "The Case for Presidential Term Limits." In: *Journal of Democracy* 18(1) (cit. on p. 44).
- Moy, Patricia and Michael Pfau (2000). "With Malice Toward All? The Media and Public Confidence in Democratic Institutions." In: (cit. on p. 49).
- Mudde, Cas (2004). "The Populist Zeitgeist." In: *Government and Opposition* 39(4), pp. 541–563 (cit. on p. 31).
- Mudde, Cas (2013). "Three decades of populist radical right parties in Western Europe: So what?" In: *European Journal of Political Research* 52, pp. 1–19 (cit. on p. 36).
- Muller, Jan-Werner (2016). *What is Populism*. University of Pennsylvania Press. Philadelphia, PA (cit. on p. 31).
- Munck, Gerardo L. (1994). "Democratic Transitions in Comparative Perspective." In: *Comparative Politics* 26(3), pp. 355–375 (cit. on p. 54).

Bibliography

- Nael Jebril, Václav Stetka and Matthew Loveless (2013). "Media and Democratisation: What Is Known about the Role of Mass Media in Transitions to Democracy." In: Oxford, UK (cit. on p. 59).
- Newton, Kenneth and Pippa Norris (1999). "Confidence in Public Institutions: Faith, Culture or Performance?" In: (cit. on p. 49).
- Norris, Pippa (2017). "Is Western Democracy Backsliding? Diagnosing the Risks." In: *Journal of Democracy* 28, pp. 1–26 (cit. on p. 35).
- Norris, Pippa and Max Grömping (2017). "Populist Threats to Electoral Integrity: The Year in Elections, 2016-2017." In: (cit. on p. 21).
- Norris, Pippa and Ronald Inglehart (2019). "Cultural Backlash: Trump, Brexit, and the Rise of Authoritarian Populism." In: *Cambridge University Press* 1, pp. 407–470 (cit. on p. 36).
- North, Douglass Cecil (1990). *Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance*. Cambridge University Press. New York (cit. on p. 55).
- Nou, Jennifer (2019). "Civil Servant Disobedience." In: *Chicago-Kent Law Review* 94(2), pp. 349–381 (cit. on p. 53).
- O'Donnell, Guillermo (1994). "Delegative Democracy." In: *Journal of Democracy* 5(1), pp. 55–69 (cit. on p. 42).
- Paul, Samuel (1992). "Accountability in Public Services: Exit, Voice and Control." In: *World Development* 20(7), pp. 1047–1060 (cit. on p. 61).
- Posner, Daniel Nolan (2004). "The Political Salience of Cultural Difference: Why Chewas and Tumbukas Are Allies in Zambia and Adversaries in Malawi." In: *American Political Science Review* 98(4), pp. 529–545 (cit. on p. 30).
- Przeworski, Adam (1996a). "Classifying Political Regimes." In: *Studies in Comparative International Development* 31(2), pp. 3–36 (cit. on p. 51).
- Przeworski, Adam (1996b). "What Makes Democracy Endure?" In: *Journal of Democracy* 7, pp. 39–55 (cit. on p. 38).
- Przeworski, Adam (2008). "The Poor and Viability of Democracy." In: *In Poverty, Participation, and Democracy: A Global Perspective*.

Bibliography

- Samuels, David and Richard Snyder (2001). "The Value of a Vote: Malapportionment in Comparative Perspective." In: *British Journal of Political Science* 31(4), pp. 651–671 (cit. on p. 20).
- Schedler, Andreas (2002). "The Menu of Manipulation." In: *Journal of Democracy* 13(2), pp. 36–50 (cit. on pp. 22, 23, 45–47, 56).
- Schmitter, Philippe C. and Terry Lynn Karl (1991a). "What Democracy Is... and Is Not." In: *Journal of Democracy* 2(3), pp. 3–16.
- Schmitter, Philippe C. and Terry Lynn Karl (1991b). "What Democracy Is... And Is Not." In: *Journal of Democracy* 2(3), pp. 3–16 (cit. on p. 51).
- Schumpeter, Joseph A. (1947). *Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy*. Harper & Brothers. New York (cit. on p. 51).
- Shapiro, Martin M. (1981). "Courts: A Comparative and Political Analysis." In: (cit. on pp. 13, 41).
- Stephan, Maria J. and Erica Chenoweth (2008). "Why Civil Resistance Works: The Strategic Logic of Nonviolent Conflict." In: *International Security* 33(1), pp. 7–44 (cit. on pp. 57, 58).
- Svolik, Milan (2019). "When Polarization Trumps Civic Virtue: Partisan Conflict and the Subversion of Democracy by Incumbents." In: *Journal of Democracy* 30(3), pp. 20–32 (cit. on p. 30).
- Thompson, Mark (2016). "Bloodied Democracy: Duterte and the Death of Liberal Reformism in the Philippines." In: *Journal of Current Southeast Asian Affairs* 35(3) (cit. on p. 26).
- Todd A. Eisenstadt, A. Carl LeVan and Tofigh Maboudi (2015). "When Talk Trumps Text: The Democratizing Effects of Deliberation during Constitution-Making." In: *American Political Science Review* 109(3), pp. 592–612 (cit. on pp. 54, 55).
- Vale, Hélder Ferreira do (2017). "African state governance: subnational politics and national power." In: *Democratization* 24(4), pp. 777–779 (cit. on pp. 45, 52).
- Varol, Ozan O. (2015). "Stealth Authoritarianism." In: *Iowa Law Review* 100(4) (cit. on p. 48).

Bibliography

- Weber, Max (1947). *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*. London Free Press.
- Young, Ernest A. (2013). "A Research Agenda for Uncooperative Federalists." In: *Tulsa Law Review* 48(3), pp. 427-453.