

# A Database of Prominent 1935-2009 Mexican Politicians

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## Abstract

This paper presents and describes a novel database of Mexican politicians. The database is constructed with information from a directory of Mexican politicians who held public office between 1935 and 2009, and includes data on politicians' educational backgrounds, elective and appointive positions in government, political party positions, special-interest positions, the private sector and the military. It also contains information on documented personal family and social relationships of included individuals, which allows me to reconstruct political networks. I present summary statistics of the database, analyze the most common career paths followed by top-ranking politicians, and examine the structural features of reconstructed political networks. Then I discuss potential applications and venues of research that can be pursued with the information collected in the database.

*Keywords:* Mexican Politics, Database, Political Networks

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## 1. Introduction

The database introduced with this paper was built with information collected in the directory “Mexican Political Biographies 1935-2009” by Roderic Ai Camp. In this directory Camp (2011) provides information about politicians’ birthdates, birthplaces, educational backgrounds, elective and appointive positions within government, political parties, unions, the private sector, and the military. It also presents documented relationships between politicians, including family relationships, friendship ties, business or political associations, mentor-disciple relationships, and employment relationships.

I describe the criteria a politician needed to satisfy to have been included in the directory, and the sources of information consulted by the author to produce all biographies included. I then present a detailed account of the steps I followed to build the database based on the directory text, and additional steps undertaken to populate the database with variables that facilitate statistical analysis. Afterward, I report a series of summary statistics about the most common educational backgrounds among included politicians, the most common governmental and political organizations and positions of power mentioned in the directory, and the most common relationship types. I also reconstruct political networks based on provided relationship information and present summary statistics about the size and structure of these networks, under a number of different assumptions regarding which relationship types are allowed to constitute a network link or edge.

I finalize this paper by briefly discussing a series of potential applications of the database for political and economic research.

## 2. Main data source

Mexican Political Biographies 1935-2009 by Roderic Ai Camp presents the biographies of most prominent Mexican politicians who held a public office between 1935 and 2009. The volume updates the wealth of information published in the third edition of Mexican Political Biographies 1935-1993, by the same author. Additional information is on politicians’ family ties, union positions, governmental positions for which data was not previously available, and

entries corresponding to the three Presidential administrations ruling Mexico between 1994 and 2009.

Each biography is divided into sections with information on date and place of birth, education, elective positions, political party positions, appointive government positions, interest group activities, private-sector positions and self-employment activities, family ties, friendships, mentorships and other close relationships, military experience, and other miscellaneous information.

### *2.1. How are politicians selected into the directory?*

The directory includes a large selection of politicians and government bureaucrats who held office between 1935 and 2009. Selection into the volume depends both on availability and reliability of politicians' biographical information, and on the rank of their most important position within government or within the main Mexican political parties or unions. To be precise, for a politician to be included in the directory, satisfying two criteria was necessary and sufficient. The first of these two criteria is belonging to one of the top six levels of "political prestige" defined in "The Making of Modern Mexico" by Frank Brandenburg, an authoritative work on the structure and inner-workings of the ruling Mexican political party after the 1910 Revolution. The six levels are:

1. The "head of the Revolutionary Family", title given by Brandenburg to whoever is most widely, even if unofficially, considered the leader of the political elite in power. Every individual with this title in the period focused by Ai Camp was at some point president of Mexico, which is the second level of "political prestige". Consequently, I don't need to use the "head of the Revolutionary Family" title anywhere in this work, which I avoid solely on the grounds that it is an unofficial title.
2. The President of Mexico
3. Members of what Brandenburg calls the "Inner Circle of the Revolutionary Family". Ai Camp's work explicitly identifies politicians who belong to this group, according to Brandenburg. As with the "head of the Revolutionary Family" title, I make no use of politician's "Inner Circle" membership. However, every politician in this group

reached at some point in their career one of the next three levels of political prestige—all composed of official government positions—so their inclusion in the directory and the database is still warranted.

4. Members of the Presidential cabinet, meaning the heads of the federal Secretariats and main Departments of the executive branch. Also in this level are the governor of the Federal District, the heads of “major state industries” like Petroleos Mexicanos (Pemex) and the Mexican Institute of Social Security (IMSS), and leaders of many large autonomous organizations and banks like the Bank of Mexico.
5. State governors, ambassadors in important posts like the United States and United Kingdom embassies and the permanent delegations to the UN, military commanders, and the president of the Institutional Revolution Party (PRI).
6. Senators, justices of the Supreme Court, the seconds-in-command of the federal Secretariats, Departments, largest state industries, parastatal agencies, and the PRI, and the leaders of the main opposition parties and unions.

Outside of positions featured in the top six levels of Brandenburg’s political prestige ladder, Ai Camp has also included many politicians who reached the position of “Official Mayor” (the highest level administrative officer), which is the third highest-ranking position within Mexican federal secretariats. Also included are politicians who were federal deputies on at least two occasions.

The second criterion for inclusion into the directory relates to the availability and reliability of politicians’ biographical information: Any given politician was only included if their most important position, the one which satisfies the prominence criterion, could be cross-referenced in at least two sources of information. Furthermore, politicians were omitted if there was no information available for at least three of the career information categories. Ai Camp states that more than three hundred politicians who satisfied the political prestige criterion could not be included due to insufficiency of sources.

Table 1: Number of Politicians per  
Brandenburg Position Category

Position category	Brandenburg's prestige level	Num. Politicians with position in category
Presidents of Mexico	2	15
Secretariat Heads	4	350
Federal District Governors	4	24
Military Chiefs of Staff	4	124
Private Secretaries of President	4	31
Parastatal Heads	4	226
Autonomous Agency Heads	4	34
Governors	5	590
Ambassadors	5	266
Military Zone Commanders	5	118
PRI Presidents	5	65
Supreme Court Justices	6	173
Senators	6	831
Secretariat Assistant Heads	6	644
Parastatal Assistant Heads	6	156
Autonomous Agency Assistant Heads	6	25
PRI Secretaries General	6	78
Opposition Parties Presidents	6	139
Opposition Parties Secretaries General	6	132
Unions Secretaries General	6	180
Secretariat Oficial Mayor	> 6	310
Federal Deputies	> 6	1,539

The total number of politicians with a biographical entry in Ai Camp's directory is 2,953. A majority of these held multiple government and political positions, and many of them held more than one of the positions placed in the first six levels of Brandenburg's political prestige ladder. Table 1 lists these positions, ranked by their placement in the prestige ladder, along with the number of politicians included in the directory who held each position.

Table 2: Number of Politicians per  
Brandenburg Prestige Level

Brandenburg's prestige level	Num. politicians with most prominent position in prestige level
2	15
4	645
5	572
6	1,066
> 6	546
Other	109
Total	2,953

Table 2 presents the number of politicians who reached each of the relevant levels in the prominence ladder. A number of politicians, which I account for in the “other” prominence level, were included by Ai Camp because they were the rector of the National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM) and the National Polytechnic Institute (IPN). The author indicates these rectorships are often politicians’ stepping-stones to some of the prominent government positions.

## 2.2. Categories of biographical information

The education category lists available information on school names and time of attendance for the elementary, secondary, preparatory, and higher education levels. The author mentions that many politicians undertake some higher education but don’t complete their degrees, which is identified in the text explicitly, for example, noting that a politician had either “economics studies” or an “economics degree.” This category also contains information on teaching positions.

The elective positions category provides information on all positions attained (officially, at least) via an electoral process, including the positions of President of Mexico, the governors of Mexican states, mayors, and federal and state-level legislators. The party positions category lists formal positions within a political party or electoral campaign, and reports if a politician was some party’s unsuccessful candidate for an elective position. The governmental positions category presents, generally in chronological order, the individual’s most important appointive positions in every branch and level of government. The most numerous

of governmental positions included are those within the federal and state secretariats. The category of interest group activities lists positions within unions, political groups other than parties and political movements, and professional organizations outside of government like student federations, private sector chambers and associations of professionals.

Positions in all these categories are described with their title, the organization under which they were held, possibly a sub-organization (e.g., a specific department within a secretariat), and in most cases the time range in which they were held.

The biographical segments with information on family ties and other personal relationships reports the occupation of parents and government positions held by friends and relatives of the politician. For this thesis I collect all government and political positions of friends and relatives and incorporate them into the database the same as any other position. By doing this, the total number of politicians in my database grows beyond the number of politicians who have their own entry in Ai Camp’s directory. Among the reasons many of such friends and relatives who held political and government jobs do not have their own entry in the directory are that the time during which they worked in government is outside the 1935-2009 period focused by Ai Camp, and/or the positions they held do not satisfy the prominence criterion for inclusion.

Table 3: Number of Politicians per Biographical Position Category

Position category	Position count	Num. politicians with position in category
Elective Positions	8,214	2,000
Political Party Positions	5,927	1,859
Governmental Positions	13,513	2,483
Interest Group Positions	2,933	1,183
Private Sector Positions	3,572	1,560
Military Positions	3,100	404
All Position Categories	37,259	2,952

Table 3 presents the number of positions identified in the directory for each of the position categories, and the number of politicians who have at least one position within each of these

categories<sup>1</sup>.

### *2.3. Sources of biographical information*

The biographies in this work are built from publicly available government and private directories, newspapers, and magazines. A few of them draw from sources like monographs centered around an individual politician. Ai Camp also personally conducted numerous interviews via correspondence with politicians included because of their rank or prominence.

#### *2.3.1. Private directories*

Among the privately published directories, two that stand out to Ai Camp for their accuracy and richness of information are “Who’s Who in Latin America” and the “Biographical Encyclopedia of the World”. The third and last edition of the former, published in 1946, is considered by Ai Camp to be the most accurate source on Mexican political biographies before 1988. The last three editions of the latter were published between 1946 and 1954 and are Ai Camp’s main private source for politicians’ information in this period. Also valuable are the various editions of the “International Year Book and Statesmen’s Who’s Who”, still published every year, which include biographies of Federal cabinet members, justices, and governors in a number of countries. For politicians active in the second half of the century, the private sources which are preferred for the amount of information they report and their accuracy are “Who’s Notable in Mexico”, “Bibliografía Biográfica Mexicana”, “Enciclopedia de México”, “Encyclopedia of Latin American History and Culture”. A comprehensive private directory with information on prominent Mexican politicians who held office in the last two decades accounted by Ai Camp is “Quién es quién en la Política Mexicana”. The author also lauds the comprehensiveness of some private directories devoted to members of Congress, from which information on specific committee assignments can be extracted. Among these are “Manual Biográfico del Congreso de la Unión, LII Legislatura”, “Índice Biográfico de la XXLI Legislatura Federal”, and a number of editions of “Quién es Quién en el Congreso”.

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<sup>1</sup>One politician of the 2,953, José Enrique Villa Rivera, was included in the directory because he was appointed head of the National Polytechnic Institute for the period 2003-2006, but this position is only mentioned in the education segment within his biographical entry and thus is not accounted for in Table 3.



To identify the family members and other relations of Mexican politicians, Ai Camp leverages the information on historical and political affairs contained in “Diccionario Porrúa”. This work is also helpful because it reports the names and tenures of cabinet members, and its last edition by the time of publication of Ai Camp’s own encyclopedia came out in 1994. Another important source of family relations is “Libro de Oro de México”, which was published every year from 1924 to 1973 and included the names of spouses of most Mexican politicians in the top levels of government.

### *2.3.2. Government directories*

The Mexican federal government has published various manuals and directories which record names and positions of officials at different levels on government for each of the three branches of power. The “Directorio del Gobierno Federal”, with editions printed yearly from 1947 to 1951, is among the first to list most federal government positions. Similar directories published in the 1960s and 1970s, including the “Manual de Organización del Gobierno Federal” and the “Directorio del Poder Ejecutivo Federal”, are not as extensive, covering only cabinet agencies or highly ranked officials. Federal government reports with information on public servants become more detailed and comprehensive in the 1980s, starting with “Quién es quién en la Administración Pública de México” and “Diccionario Biográfico del Gobierno Mexicano”. For the executive branch, these works provide information and biographies of top-ranking servants including departments’ directors general within federal secretariats. The “Diccionario” editions, in particular, are useful to Ai Camp in identifying the career patterns of high-ranking officials at the state level. The author also relies on the information collected in several directories of federal legislators, including the “Directorio de la Cámara de Diputados” and “Directorio de la Cámara de Senadores” titles published since the 1930s, and the “Directorio del Congreso Mexicano” editions for legislatures starting on 2000. The main government source for information on the judicial branch are volumes published by the Supreme Court, titled “Directorio Biográfico del Poder Judicial de la Federación”, which contain biographies of most Supreme Court justices since 1917. The website [www.e-local.gob.mx](http://www.e-local.gob.mx) set up by the Secretariat of Government provided the names of the mayors of each Mexican

municipality, chronologically, starting from 1950 in most cases.

### *2.3.3. Magazines, newspapers, and monographs*

Although they present information in a less structured manner, political magazines like “Tiempo”, most relevant from the 1960s to 1980s, are valuable to Ai Camp for their inclusion of biographical information on lower-ranking officials and governors, and for keeping track of events like resignations and appointments. The magazines “¿Por qué?” and “Proceso” are good sources of information on the personal ties of politicians and their political networks. The author comments that many politicians’ family histories can be gleaned from the biographical information in “Líderes”, which conducts interviews of many successful and prominent Mexicans. The newspaper “Excélsior” also provided information on resignations and appointments; its “Frentes Políticos” section divulges the political careers of many of the protagonists of Mexican elections. Some periodical sources published by the main Mexican political parties, including “Polémica” by the PRI, and “La Nación” and “¿Quiénes son el PAN?” by the PAN, were useful to Ai Camp in summarizing the careers of these parties’ members and presidents.

The author also considers some monographs worthy of citation as they provide important details about the careers and families of some politicians within the scope of his work. Among these are “México Visto en el Siglo XX”, based on recorded interviews which provide insights about the personal relationships of Mexican politicians, and “Familias, Política y Parentesco: Jalisco, 1919-1991”, which contains detailed information about family ties of politicians of all levels of government, albeit focused on only one Mexican state. The works “La Vida en México en el Período Presidencial de Lázaro Cárdenas”, and “La Vida en México en el Período Presidencial de Miguel Alemán” help complement the biographies of prominent politicians from the 1930s to the 1960s with information on their friendships and political ties.

## **3. Database creation - overview**

The process of transforming Ai Camp’s directory into a database that is accessible with common statistical software and ready for empirical research involved three stages.

1. **Data parsing:** I first produced a digital library of all separate pieces of information provided for each politician with an entry. These “pieces of information” can be identified in the text with relative ease because they’re separated with semicolons, which facilitated using text-analysis software to parse and collect them.
2. **Populating main variables:** Each biographical entry is separated into segments, and the pieces of information within any given segment are uniform in the type of information provided. Within the education category, for example, pieces of information relay the names of institutions attended by politicians, or the specific field pursued and educational level attained. Within the categories that report governmental and political positions, the relevant details are position titles and the institutions in which these positions were held. I use the library of pieces of information obtained on step 1 to determine and populate the variables that can be produced for each politician.
3. **Creating additional variables:** The organizations and institutions under which all positions were held can be further categorized into broader organization types, government branches, and institutional settings (e.g. military organizations, unions, political parties, the judicial, executive, and legislative branch, etc.) Non-military governmental positions were also classified based on whether they belong to the executive, legislative, or judicial branch. For most work in this thesis where government branches are relevant I distinguish between executive branch positions that are elective and those that are appointive. I don’t do this for the other branches because almost 100 percent of legislative positions in the directory are elective and the totality of judicial positions are appointive. Furthermore, information about politicians’ personal relationships with other politicians allows me to reconstruct the networks to which they belong. The third stage thus involves adding variables to my database to permit the categorization of positions, organizations, and to associate politicians to their networks.

The first section in the Appendix reports with more detail the implementation of these stages.

#### 4. Summary statistics

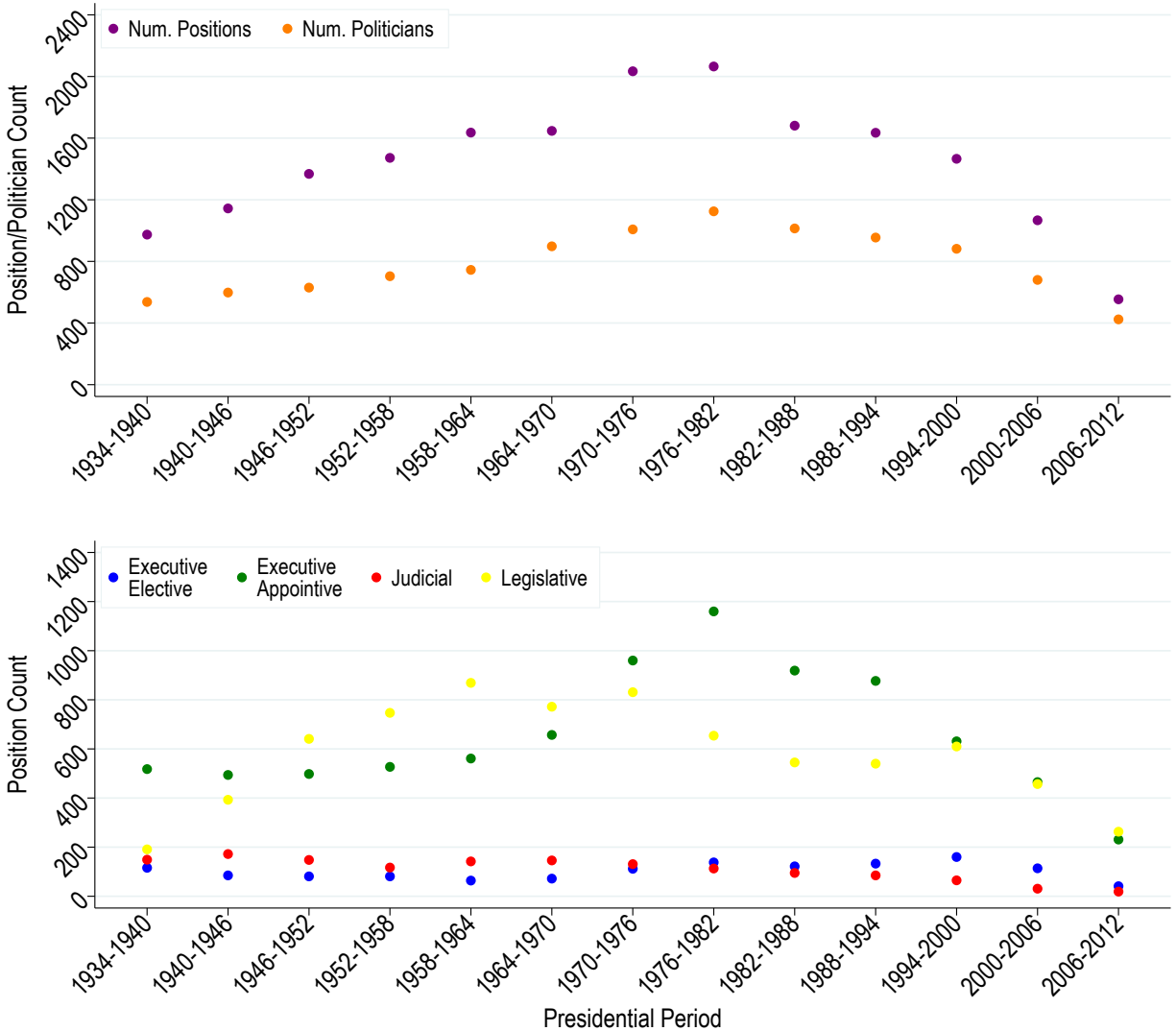


Fig. 1. Position and Politician Counts by Presidential Term

Figure 1 shows that the distribution of positions reported in the directory is not uniform over time. To construct this figure I used only government positions for which a year range is provided. I exclude positions held before 1934 and assign every remaining position to the 6-year presidential term in which they started<sup>2</sup>. Then I count the number of positions assigned to every presidential period and the number of politicians who held at least one position

<sup>2</sup>Positions which started before 1934 and ended some time during the 1934-1940 administration are assigned to it.

belonging to each period. The top panel of the figure shows the total count of positions grows towards the presidential terms of 1970-1976 (Luis Echeverría Álvarez) and 1976-1982 (José López Portillo y Pacheco) and decreases gradually in the terms that follow.

The second panel of the figure reveals this trend is driven by positions in the legislative branch and appointive positions in the executive branch. Adding up counts corresponding to the 1970-1976 and 1976-1982 presidential terms, the most frequently mentioned positions are those of “Member of a specialized committee in the Federal Chamber of Deputies” and “Federal Deputy from a State”. These positions represent 25.8 and 21.9 percent of the total position count for the legislative branch in these two periods. The spike in position counts could therefore be partially explained by an unusual wealth of information available to Ai Camp regarding Congress committee membership during those presidential terms. In the executive branch, the most frequently mentioned positions for this time range are those of “Director” and “Assistant Secretary” within federal secretariats, with 14.2 and 8 percent of the position count for this branch during this time range. These tend to be positions held by politicians who reach their top-ranked position somewhere in the presidential terms of 1982-1988 and 1988-1994, individuals for which there likely was a relatively large amount of well-vetted information at the time the directory was produced.

Table C.1 in the third Appendix section reports the distribution of state-specific positions, politicians’ state of employment and state of birth.<sup>3</sup> The Federal District (now the state called City of Mexico) is the most common birth-state among politicians included in the directory, with 647 (21.9 percent) of them born there. It is also the most common state associated to state-specific positions. A total of 1,862 (15.7 percent) of all state-specific positions in the database are associated with the Federal District. The most common among these are “Federal Deputy” positions, counted 256 times, and state-level and local judgeships, with a count of 208. Of all 2,953 politicians included in the directory, 1,101 of them (37.3 percent) held some state-specific position associated with the Federal District. The Federal District leads in all these variables due in part to its population size, being the second largest

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<sup>3</sup>By state-specific positions I refer not only to positions in state-level organizations, but also to federal-level executive branch positions associated with specific states, like federal secretariat delegates to state governments, and federal legislative positions which represent the interests of specific states

entity in Mexico. Another reason is that most federal level secretariats and autonomous federal government organizations are headquartered there, making it easier for Federal District politicians to reach positions in those agencies and thus feature in the prominence ladder that triggers their inclusion in the directory. The distribution of positions and politicians across the remaining Mexican states is mostly consistent with the distribution of population, more populated states being more likely to have prominent politicians and requiring more representatives in the federal legislative branch.

#### 4.1. Career paths

A central criterion guiding Ai Camp in deciding which government positions are important enough to include biographical entries for the politicians who hold them is whether those positions are typical “stepping-stones to more influential positions”. The following tables focus on the career-paths followed by politicians who reach the top-ranks of the executive branch and illustrate how some positions facilitate or may be necessary in attaining access to such competitive jobs.

Table 4: Most Common Last Positions before President of Mexico

Position, Organization type	Last position	2nd to last position	3rd to last position	Any of last 3 positions
Secretary, Federal Secretariat	13	3	0	13
Governor of a State	2	2	1	5
Assistant Secretary, Federal Secretariat	0	3	3	6
Official Mayor, Federal Secretariat	0	1	3	4
Director, Federal Secretariat	0	1	2	3
Senator from a State	0	1	1	2

Table 4 shows the most frequent job politicians have before becoming President of Mexico is heading one of the federal secretariats. Of the 15 Presidents of Mexico with an entry in the directory, 13 of them were federal secretaries in their last position before attaining the

presidency, and only 2 of them (Vicente Fox, 2000-2006, and Enrique Peña Nieto, 2012-2018) were state governors. Of the 13 who were federal secretaries, 5 were at the helm of the influential Secretariat of Government, 3 headed the Secretariat of Programming and Budget (which incorporated into the Secretariat of the Treasury in 1994), and 3 were at the top of the Secretariat of National Defense (previously called Secretariat of War.)

The position of Governor, though not a common -last- position before reaching the presidency, is still a typical stepping-stone getting there: 5 of the 15 included politicians who became President were state governors in one of their last 3 jobs before that. Another common position in the career of Mexican heads of state is that of Assistant Secretary in a federal secretariat, with 6 of the 15 included presidents holding this title in one of their last 3 positions before the presidency.

The Assistant Secretary position is an usual stepping-stone before becoming a federal Secretary, as can be seen in Table 5. Of the 330 politicians in the directory who reached the position of federal Secretary, 73 of them (22.1 percent) were assistant secretaries in their previous post, 35 had the top-ranking post in a different secretariat. In the path leading to a governorship, the most common last positions are those of Senator and Federal Deputy. Of the 428 politicians in the directory who were Governors at some point in time, 186 of them (43 percent) were federal deputies and 140 (33 percent) were senators in one of their last 3 jobs. The most common positions held before reaching the top ranks of the judicial and legislative branch are reported in Table C.2 in the third Appendix section.

The path towards high-ranking careers begins well before politicians hold their first government jobs. In the second Appendix section I report the most common education fields and attained educational levels for included politicians who became presidents of Mexico, governors, presidents of the Supreme Court of Justice or either chamber of Congress, and federal secretariats.

Table 5: Most Common Last Positions before Federal Secretary (top), Governor (bottom)

Num. federal secretaries: 330 Position, Organization Type	Last position	2nd to last position	3rd to last position	Any of last 3 positions
Assistant Secretary, Federal Secretariat	73	32	21	115
Secretary, Federal Secretariat	35	14	9	53
Director, Federal Org. Non Secretariat	29	16	13	51
Director, Federal Secretariat	28	34	34	87
Governor of a State	28	13	12	53
Ambassador	16	10	11	32
Senator from a State	12	15	9	35
Federal Deputy from a State	8	16	15	39
Oficial Mayor, Federal Secretariat	8	9	6	22
Director, Federal Banking Org. Non BoM	8	8	1	17
Num. governors: 428 Position, Organization Type	Last position	2nd to last position	3rd to last position	Any of last 3 positions
Senator from a State	102	25	14	140
Federal Deputy from a State	67	71	52	186
Mayor of a Municipality	41	21	12	73
Assistant Secretary, Federal Secretariat	22	13	9	41
Secretary, Federal Secretariat	21	9	3	27
Secretary General, State Secretariat	20	20	10	47
Director, Federal Org. Non Secretariat	13	12	8	30
Oficial Mayor, Federal Secretariat	13	11	5	27
Local Deputy of a State	11	16	24	46
Director, Federal Secretariat	8	9	25	40



#### 4.2. Family Relationships

Table 6: Family Relationships with Other Politicians

Relationship type	Relative has own entry in directory?		Relative is politician or bureaucrat?		Num. politicians
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Child of	129 (4.4%)	1,729 (58.6%)	405 (13.7%)	1,453 (49.2%)	1,858 (62.9%)
Parent of	122 (4.1%)	316 (10.7%)	310 (10.5%)	128 (4.3%)	438 (14.8%)
Sibling of	162 (5.5%)	394 (13.3%)	398 (13.5%)	158 (5.4%)	556 (18.8%)
Spouse of	22 (0.7%)	1,661 (56.2%)	61 (2.1%)	1,622 (54.9%)	1,683 (57.0%)
Grandchild of	15 (0.5%)	261 (8.8%)	102 (3.5%)	174 (5.9%)	276 (9.3%)
Grandparent of	14 (0.5%)	33 (1.1%)	33 (1.1%)	14 (0.5%)	47 (1.6%)
Nephew or Niece of	72 (2.4%)	168 (5.7%)	158 (5.4%)	82 (2.8%)	240 (8.1%)
Uncle or Aunt of	70 (2.4%)	77 (2.6%)	110 (3.7%)	37 (1.3%)	147 (5.0%)
Cousin of	78 (2.6%)	69 (2.3%)	114 (3.9%)	33 (1.1%)	147 (5.0%)
Child in law of	22 (0.7%)	67 (2.3%)	45 (1.5%)	44 (1.5%)	89 (3.0%)
Parent in law of	21 (0.7%)	123 (4.2%)	27 (0.9%)	117 (4.0%)	144 (4.9%)
Sibling in law of	75 (2.5%)	166 (5.6%)	109 (3.7%)	132 (4.5%)	241 (8.2%)

The biographical sections on family ties and other relationships in Ai Camp’s directory are helpful in identifying political dynasties and networks, and the degree to which politicians tend to follow the careers of their relatives. Table 6 shows the proportions of politicians included in the directory for which family relationship information is provided, broken by relationship type and by whether or not their relatives are also politicians/included politicians.

Of the 2,953 politicians with an entry in the directory, the biographical entries of 1,858 (63 percent) contain information about at least one their parents (in other words, their entry

contains at least one “Child of” relationship piece of information.) There are 405 (14 percent) politicians included whose parents are also a politician or held some government position, and 129 (4 percent) of these are the child of a politician also included in the directory. About 10.5 percent of included politicians are parents —and 13.5 percent are siblings— of individuals who are also politicians or government bureaucrats.

Table 7: Family Relationships with Other Politicians  
by High Ranking Position

Relationship Type	Presidents of Mexico (N = 15)		Governors of a State (N = 467)		Federal Secretaries (N = 365)		All Politicians (N = 2953)	
	Relative is a politician or bureaucrat?							
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Child of	4 (26.7%)	10 (66.7%)	78 (16.7%)	220 (47.1%)	75 (20.5%)	195 (53.4%)	405 (13.7%)	1,453 (49.2%)
Parent of	5 (33.3%)	1 (6.7%)	94 (20.1%)	28 (6.0%)	69 (18.9%)	22 (6.0%)	310 (10.5%)	128 (4.3%)
Sibling of	5 (33.3%)	1 (6.7%)	84 (18.0%)	23 (4.9%)	80 (21.9%)	31 (8.5%)	398 (13.5%)	158 (5.4%)
Spouse of	2 (13.3%)	12 (80.0%)	3 (0.6%)	281 (60.2%)	6 (1.6%)	243 (66.6%)	61 (2.1%)	1,622 (54.9%)
Grandchild of	2 (13.3%)	2 (13.3%)	25 (5.4%)	40 (8.6%)	16 (4.4%)	40 (11.0%)	102 (3.5%)	174 (5.9%)
Grandparent of	1 (6.7%)	1 (6.7%)	16 (3.4%)	4 (0.9%)	11 (3.0%)	3 (0.8%)	33 (1.1%)	14 (0.5%)
Nephew or Niece of	2 (13.3%)	1 (6.7%)	32 (6.9%)	24 (5.1%)	27 (7.4%)	15 (4.1%)	158 (5.4%)	82 (2.8%)
Uncle or Aunt of	2 (13.3%)	1 (6.7%)	28 (6.0%)	9 (1.9%)	28 (7.7%)	7 (1.9%)	110 (3.7%)	37 (1.3%)
Cousin of	4 (26.7%)	0 (0.0%)	31 (6.6%)	11 (2.4%)	22 (6.0%)	9 (2.5%)	114 (3.9%)	33 (1.1%)
Child in law of	2 (13.3%)	1 (6.7%)	8 (1.7%)	9 (1.9%)	15 (4.1%)	12 (3.3%)	45 (1.5%)	44 (1.5%)
Parent in law of	3 (20.0%)	2 (13.3%)	9 (1.9%)	35 (7.5%)	9 (2.5%)	34 (9.3%)	27 (0.9%)	117 (4.0%)
Sibling in law of	1 (6.7%)	3 (20.0%)	21 (4.5%)	25 (5.4%)	27 (7.4%)	31 (8.5%)	109 (3.7%)	132 (4.5%)

High ranking Mexican politicians are even more likely to have close relatives in government. Table 7 breaks down, by each of the top positions in the executive branch, the information relayed in columns 4 and 5 of Table 6. Politicians in the directory who reached the ranks of President of Mexico, Governors, or federal Secretary, are more likely than average

included politicians to be the child of an individual who was also a politician or government bureaucrat.

Table 8: Non-Family Relationships with Other Politicians

Relationship type	Acquaintance has own entry in directory?		Acquaintance is politician or bureaucrat?		Num. Politicians
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Friend of	329 (11.1%)	25 (0.8%)	348 (11.8%)	6 (0.2%)	354 (12.0%)
Studied with	244 (8.3%)	7 (0.2%)	248 (8.4%)	3 (0.1%)	251 (8.5%)
Student of	130 (4.4%)	15 (0.5%)	133 (4.5%)	12 (0.4%)	145 (4.9%)
Acquainted with	122 (4.1%)	7 (0.2%)	128 (4.3%)	1 (0.0%)	129 (4.4%)
Member of Group with	116 (3.9%)	3 (0.1%)	118 (4.0%)	1 (0.0%)	119 (4.0%)
Teacher of	99 (3.4%)	0 (0.0%)	99 (3.4%)	0 (0.0%)	99 (3.4%)
Disciple of	84 (2.8%)	10 (0.3%)	86 (2.9%)	8 (0.3%)	94 (3.2%)
Collaborator of	70 (2.4%)	9 (0.3%)	75 (2.5%)	4 (0.1%)	79 (2.7%)
Mentor of	76 (2.6%)	2 (0.1%)	77 (2.6%)	1 (0.0%)	78 (2.6%)
Coworker of	43 (1.5%)	11 (0.4%)	47 (1.6%)	7 (0.2%)	54 (1.8%)
Other Non-Family Relations	365 (12.4%)	47 (1.6%)	402 (13.6%)	10 (0.3%)	412 (14.0%)
Other Family Relations	158 (5.4%)	264 (8.9%)	298 (10.1%)	124 (4.2%)	422 (14.3%)

To some extent, these relatively high proportions of top-ranking politicians with family members in government can be attributed to the simple fact there is a higher chance of finding information about the relatives of very prominent individuals. But if one calculates proportions using only politicians for whom family information is provided the difference between top-ranking and average politicians decreases but does not vanish. For example, of the 270 federal Secretaries whose biographical entries contain parental information, 75 (27.8 percent) were the child of a politician or government bureaucrat. Counting -all- included politicians with information provided about their parents, the proportion who are child of a

politician or government bureaucrat is only 21.8 percent (405 of 1,858.)

#### 4.3. *Other Relationship Types*

Apart from familial ties, the relationship sections within most politician entries in Ai Camp’s directory also report other known links between politicians, including friendship, classmate, mentor-disciple, and teacher-student relationships, as well as business and political associations. Table 8 presents the most common relationship types mentioned in the text. There are 354 politicians (12 percent of the 2,953 with a biographical entry) for whom information about at least one of their friends is reported. Of these, 348 are friend with an individual who is a politician, including 329 who are friends with a politician who has their own entry in the directory.

#### 4.4. *Networks*

I use reported information about family, business and social relationships in the directory to reconstruct the political networks of individuals with a biographical entry and the individuals with whom they have documented ties. The nodes of these political networks represent individuals and edges or links between any two nodes in the network represent a reported relationship between two individuals. The number and size of networks obtained from this process depends on the relationships that are accepted to represent network links. For example, one may be interested in reconstructing family networks only. This requires the assumption that a link between two nodes in a network exists only if the two nodes are relatives.

In Table 9 I present node and link summary statistics for the sets of networks that can be constructed using four different categories of relationships allowed to represent a network link. These categories are:

- *Any relation.* All different relationship types are allowed to represent a network link.
- *Close family.* Only the most immediate blood or in-law family ties are allowed to represent a network link. This category includes the following relationship types: “Child of”, “Parent of”, “Sibling of”, “Spouse of”, “Grandchild of”, “Grandparent of”, “Nephew or Niece of”, “Uncle or Aunt of”, “Cousin of”, “Child in law of”, “Parent in law of”, “Sibling in law of”.

- *Family*. All family relationship types, whether they are blood ties or in-law ties, are allowed to represent a network link. This category extends the *Close Family* category by including relationship types like “Great Grandchild of”, “Great Nephew or Niece of”, and the somewhat vague “Relative” type which often indicates some politician is the cousin of another politician’s parent, or the spouse of another politician’s cousin.
- *Family, Friends & Collaborators*. The relationship types allowed to represent a network link are all those in the *Family* category, along with the “Associate of”, “Collaborator of”, “Friend of”, and “Compadre of” relationships. The 4 additional relationship types included in this category represent the non-familial ties most likely to be present between individuals who would plausibly be willing and able to influence one another’s career. In the accompanying paper, titled “Self-Perpetuation of Political Networks: Evidence from Mexico”, I use this category of relationships to reconstruct political networks, so I present here the summary statistics of the networks the category allows me to reconstruct.

Table 9: Node and Edge Network Summary Statistics

Allowed links	Num. networks	Nodes					Links				
		Min	Max	Avg.	SD	Med	Min	Max	Avg.	SD	Med
Any Relation links	1,965	1	3,806	4.88	85.82	3.00	0	10,431	9.40	235.28	3.00
Family, Friends & Collabs links	2,453	1	1,945	3.91	39.28	3.00	0	5,891	7.14	119.13	3.00
Family links	2,830	1	101	3.39	3.88	3.00	0	527	6.01	17.36	3.00
Close Fam. links	2,928	1	92	3.28	3.45	3.00	0	406	5.48	13.14	3.00

Regardless of which category of relationship types I use to define the existence of network links, the median number of both nodes and edges in reconstructed networks is always 3. The average number of nodes across networks ranges from 3.3 to 4.9, and the average number of links from 5.48 to 9.40. Going from the “Family” category to the “Family, Friends & Collaborators” category, which includes only 4 additional relationship types, extends the number of individuals in the largest network from 101 to 1,945. This suggests that many political family networks are connected by documented relationships of friendship, and business and political association between their members. When allowing all possible relationship types

to represent a link between two nodes, the largest network contains 3,806 individuals, about a third of all names mentioned in the directory, including politicians and their documented relations.

Table 10 presents summary statistics for the largest network that is formed depending on the category of relationship types allowed to represent a link. The density of a network represents the proportion of all pairs of nodes that have a link between them, that is, the ratio of existing links to potential links. In the largest network formed using only family ties, which contains 101 individuals, about 10.4 percent of all node pairs have a link between them. If all relationship types are allowed to represent a link, the largest network formed contains 3,806 nodes, and about 0.14 percent of potential links actually exist. Using only family relationship types, the shortest path between any two members of the largest network contains on average 3.6 nodes. This suggests that politician pairs in the network have on average one or two individuals in between them with whom they share a relationship. For the largest network formed when all relationship types are accepted as links, the average shortest length path between individuals contains 6.8 nodes, consistent with the “six-degrees of separation” rule of thumb.

A network’s diameter is the number of nodes in the largest of all its shortest-possible paths between any two nodes. The largest network formed with all relationship types has a diameter of 20, about 2.5 times the diameter of the largest family network, despite containing 38 times the number of nodes.

The degree centrality of a specific node is the fraction of nodes in the network that are directly linked to it. The betweenness centrality of a node is the fraction of all shortest-possible paths of the network that pass through that node. In the largest family network, a node exists directly connected to 26 percent of the network members. This node corresponds to politician Antonio Ortiz Mena, former Secretary of the Treasury in Mexico, with 26 family relationships documented in the directory, including being uncle of ex-President Carlos Salinas de Gortari. The network also has a node with betweenness centrality of 25.3 percent. This is the proportion of shortest-possible paths in the network that pass through politician Patrocinio González Garrido, who was governor of the state of Chiapas, and son-in-law of Antonio Ortiz Mena, which also means he was married to a cousin of ex-President Salinas.

Table 10: Largest Network Summary Statistics - by Link Definition

Allowed links				
	Any Relation links	Family, Friends & Collabs links	Family links	Close Family links
Num. nodes	3,806	1,945	101	92
Num. links	10,431	5,891	527	406
Density	0.14	0.31	10.44	9.70
Average shortest path length	6.81	7.53	3.60	3.95
Diameter	20	17	8	10
Degree centrality				
Min	0.03	0.05	1.00	1.10
Max	1.76	1.95	26.00	25.27
Avg.	0.14	0.31	10.44	9.70
SD	0.11	0.21	5.97	5.06
Med	0.11	0.26	9.00	8.79
Betweenness centrality				
Min	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Max	14.46	30.56	25.30	36.96
Avg.	0.15	0.34	2.63	3.28
SD	0.64	1.34	5.07	6.84
Med	0.00	0.00	0.11	0.59

## 5. Applications

In this paper I have presented a novel database of Mexican politicians, described its variables and features, and reported a series of its summary statistics. This database can fa-

facilitate research on the relation between human capital and political outcomes like attainment of elective and appointive government positions and political career length, the determinants of recruitment within political parties, unions, and the military, occupational inheritance in politics, the role of personal relationships in determining access to public office, corruption, the distribution of politician characteristics across regions with varying economic features, and more.

For the accompanying paper, titled “Self-Perpetuation of Political Networks: Evidence from Mexico”, I use the database introduced here to conduct research on the hypothesis of political elite self-perpetuation, contributing to the literature of political dynasties. To this end I exploit available data on politicians’ familial and social relationships, and the types of government and political positions they hold and *when* they hold them. I use the positions of power held by politicians in my database to assess their personal attainment outcomes. This is done by ascribing to most political and government positions a prominence level which is partly inferred from features like the type of organization in which a position is held, the specificity of the position title description, and the level of government to which they may belong.

## **Appendix A. Database creation - detailed steps**

### *Appendix A.1. Data parsing*

I first used a battery of Python tools to produce a digital library with every piece of information indexed by politician and biographical information category. The directory lends itself to this process due to a number of features in the way information is presented in the original text file. For example, the name of every politician at the beginning of each entry is written in all caps and in bold. Within each entry, the beginning of each category of information is marked with a single letter followed by a long dash, e.g. “a—” for date of birth information, “c—” for education, “f—” for governmental appointive positions, etc. Finally, within each information category, every distinct piece of information is separated by a semicolon.



## *Appendix A.2. Populating main variables*

The second stage involved parsing each piece of information to identify the relevant elements that should be stored as variables in the database. For the place of birth category, for example, the relevant elements are the names of states and municipalities corresponding to politicians' birthplaces if they were born in Mexico, or the name of the country and perhaps a state, region, or province if they were born abroad.

For the education category, the relevant elements are the names of schools or institutions in which politicians enrolled or taught, the type or field of education, and the level of education they achieved. For many politicians there is information available all the way down to their elementary education, but most entries contain only information about higher education levels.

For the category of elective positions, the relevant elements include the position title, location names, and often the political party represented by the politician.

This biographical information category in politicians' entries also identifies their membership to specialized committees within both federal legislative chambers. I include such mentions in the database as individual positions separate from those of federal deputies and senators, but am careful not to consider them when working exclusively with elective positions.

For the categories that list appointive, political and special-interest positions, the relevant elements include position titles, subtitles, the name of the organization in which the position was held, and the name of the department within the organization, when applicable. Many of these positions are associated in the directory text with specific municipalities, states, foreign locations, and references to other politicians (when a position title is that of private secretary, adviser, or aide) which I retrieve and collect in separate data variables.

Analyzing individual pieces of information to identify relevant elements was done with a combination of algorithms that leverage certain textual features (e.g., organization names are chains of words with the first letter capitalized) and manual correction of the output of these algorithms. In a few occasions, I personally adjusted positions and features retrieved from the directory to account for information I obtained from secondary sources. When identifying organizations and educational institutions it was necessary to carefully recognize when two

seemingly different names or spellings referred in fact to the same entity. For example, the Monterrey Institute of Technology and Higher Education could show up as “Tec de Monterrey”, its commercial name, or “ITESM”, which is the abbreviation of its name in Spanish. In these cases, I simply chose one of the many names and assigned it uniformly to all instances of the referred entity. Certain organizations have changed names over time. For example, throughout its history the Mexican Secretariat of Health has been called “Department of Health”, “Department of Public Health”, “Secretariat of Public Health”, and “Secretariat of Health and Public Welfare”. In these cases I chose the name based on the time range, when available, in which the position mentioned in the information piece was held. When a time range is not provided for a politician’s position and I can’t find it elsewhere, I keep whichever organization name is most similar to the one mentioned in the text.

The relevant elements of information to extract from the biographical category that lists family ties, friendships and other relationships are the relationship type itself and the person with whom the politician is related. I codify most relationship types so that they can be thought of as answering the question “what is politician A to politician B”, where A is the politician in whose entry the relationship is mentioned and B is the politician mentioned in the piece of information within the entry.

### *Appendix A.3. Creating additional variables*

The third phase in constructing the database involves creating additional variables to categorize organizations into organization types, and assign positions to the government branches or institutional setting they belong. I categorize all organizations mentioned in the biographical segments of elective and appointive governmental, political party, and interest group positions, and those mentioned within the personal relationship segments. The organization *type* assigned to each organization is informed by the name of the organization, their branch and level of government (if they are governmental organizations), and by how frequently the organization is mentioned in the directory. The purpose of this categorization is simplifying empirical analysis by sensibly grouping organizations and positions that are similarly placed within the government structure, even if they differ in mission and reach. With this categorization approach some organizations, like the federal-level secretariats, are grouped into the same type. Other organizations have their own type, like the Supreme

Court of Justice and the Bank of Mexico, because they are relatively large and mentioned frequently.

## Appendix B. Summary statistics - education background

Table B.1: Most Common Education Types of High Ranking Politicians

Position	Education type	Num. politicians	Prop %	Baseline prop %
President of Mexico	Law	8	61.5	39.9
	Business Admin.	4	30.8	13.4
	Public Admin.	4	30.8	7.5
Governor of a State	Law	160	41.5	39.9
	Engineering	60	15.5	14.7
	Economics	48	12.4	18.1
President, Supreme Court of Justice	Law	23	95.8	39.9
	Business Admin.	2	8.3	13.4
	Arts/Humanities	2	8.3	8.6
	Economics	2	8.3	18.1
President, Chamber of Deputies or Senate (Fed)	Teaching	2	8.3	9.1
	Law	48	60.8	39.9
	Teaching	11	13.9	9.1
	Sociology	10	12.7	5.2

Table B.1 shows the most common education fields of the top-ranking included politicians. The last column in this table presents, to facilitate comparisons, the proportions of all politicians in the directory who have a degree, certificate, or at least some education in the fields listed in column 2. Almost 40 percent of included politicians have a background in law and this field is even more likely to feature in the education backgrounds of high-ranking politicians. Of the 13 included Presidents of Mexico who went beyond the elementary level, 8 of them (61.5 percent) either have a law degree or at least some amount of law education.<sup>4</sup> The same goes for 60.8 percent of the presidents of either chamber of Congress and, unsurprisingly, 95.8 percent of presidents of the Supreme Court of Justice. The educational

<sup>4</sup>Abelardo L. Rodriguez, 1932-1934, and Lázaro Cárdenas del Río, 1934-1940, only had elementary level education.

backgrounds of state governors are more similar to those of the average Mexican politician, though they are less likely to have an education in economics.

Table B.2: Common Education Types of Federal Secretaries  
(at Most Common Secretariats)

Secretariat	Education type	Num. politicians	Prop %	Baseline prop %
Agriculture + similar	Engineering	23	46.0	14.7
	Agriculture	14	28.0	4.9
	Law	12	24.0	39.9
Government	Law	32	71.1	39.9
	Economics	9	20.0	18.1
	Arts/Humanities	8	17.8	8.6
Treasury, Prog. and Budget	Economics	22	61.1	18.1
	Law	15	41.7	39.9
	Public Admin.	12	33.3	7.5
Education	Law	22	66.7	39.9
	Economics	9	27.3	18.1
	Arts/Humanities	8	24.2	8.6
Defense/War + Navy	Military	24	77.4	9.1
	Engineering	9	29.0	14.7
	Law Enforcement	5	16.1	1.9
Economy + similar	Economics	15	53.6	18.1
	Law	8	28.6	39.9
	Engineering	5	17.9	14.7
Foreign Rels.	Law	16	61.5	39.9
	Economics	7	26.9	18.1
	International Rels.	6	23.1	2.2
Communications	Engineering	12	46.2	14.7
	Economics	6	23.1	18.1
	Business Admin.	5	19.2	13.4
Labor + similar	Law	22	91.7	39.9
	Political Science	5	20.8	8.3
	Arts/Humanities	4	16.7	8.6
Health + similar	Medicine	20	87.0	7.4
	Biological Science	5	21.7	2.6
	Military	3	13.0	9.1
Tourism	Business Admin.	4	36.4	13.4
	Arts/Humanities	3	27.3	8.6
	Engineering	3	27.3	14.7
Energy + similar	Economics	7	63.6	18.1
	Law	6	54.5	39.9
	Business Admin.	5	45.5	13.4

Table B.2 lists the most common fields of education in the backgrounds of politicians who reached the position of federal Secretary, broken down by the most common secretariats. For the most part, the counts and proportions listed in this table are consistent with what one would expect for such officials: the heads of the Secretariats of Agriculture, Treasury, Education, Defense, Foreign Relations, and Health are more likely than the average included politician to have some education in agriculture, economics, arts and humanities, military, international relations, and medicine, respectively. A high proportion of Secretaries of Government have a law education background, which is reflected in the backgrounds of Mexican presidents, 5 of which were previously Secretaries of Government.

Table B.3: Education Attainment of High Ranking Politicians by Level

Education Level	President of Mexico	Governor	Federal Secretary	President, Supreme Court	President, Congress	All positions
Elementary	0 (0.0%)	7 (1.8%)	2 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (2.5%)	28 (1.1%)
Secondary	0 (0.0%)	12 (3.1%)	5 (1.5%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.3%)	56 (2.1%)
Preparatory	2 (15.4%)	12 (3.1%)	10 (2.9%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.3%)	59 (2.2%)
Diploma	0 (0.0%)	5 (1.3%)	1 (0.3%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.3%)	26 (1.0%)
Certificate or Technical Deg.	0 (0.0%)	6 (1.6%)	5 (1.5%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (3.8%)	76 (2.9%)
Bachelor's Degree	5 (38.5%)	293 (75.9%)	211 (61.7%)	24 (100.0%)	63 (79.7%)	1,674 (63.5%)
Master's Degree	3 (23.1%)	24 (6.2%)	57 (16.7%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (6.3%)	353 (13.4%)
PhD	3 (23.1%)	12 (3.1%)	44 (12.9%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (2.5%)	205 (7.8%)

Table B.3 breaks down by education level the highest academic attainments of the top-ranking politicians with an entry in the directory. Column 1, for example, shows that of the 13 included Mexican presidents for whom information exists about educational institutions

attended, 3 attained a PhD, 3 at most obtained a Master's Degree, 5 at most a Bachelor's degree, and 2 of them (Manuel Ávila Camacho, 1940-1946, and Adolfo Ruiz Cortines, 1952-1958) only finished High School. Included federal secretaries are more likely than the average included politician to have master's degrees and PhD's, while governors are more likely to have bachelor's degrees as their highest academic attainment. Somewhat oddly, all politicians who've reached the rank of President of the Supreme Court of Justice have a Bachelor's degree, but none have a Master's or a PhD.

## Appendix C. Additional tables

Table C.1: Politician and Position Proportions, by State

State	Prop. of politicians by birth	Prop. of positions	Prop. of politicians by employment	Prop. of 2020 population
Federal District	21.9	15.7	37.3	7.3
Veracruz	6.2	5.3	8.9	6.4
Mexico State	3.1	4.9	8.5	13.5
Jalisco	5.0	5.7	7.6	6.6
Michoacan	4.7	3.7	6.7	3.8
Puebla	3.8	4.4	6.3	5.2
Guanajuato	3.7	3.9	6.0	4.9
Oaxaca	3.3	3.4	5.3	3.3
Nuevo Leon	3.3	3.1	5.3	4.6
Chihuahua	2.9	3.2	5.1	3.0
Hidalgo	2.3	3.0	4.8	2.4
Coahuila	3.0	2.6	4.7	2.5
San Luis Potosi	2.6	2.6	4.6	2.2
Baja California	0.4	2.5	4.6	3.0
Yucatan	2.2	3.1	4.5	1.8
Sonora	2.7	2.5	4.5	2.3
Chiapas	2.5	2.4	4.4	4.4
Tamaulipas	2.3	2.4	4.4	2.8
Guerrero	2.4	2.4	4.3	2.8
Sinaloa	2.8	2.6	4.0	2.4
Durango	2.3	2.5	3.9	1.5
Tabasco	1.9	1.9	3.6	1.9
Zacatecas	1.9	2.0	3.4	1.3
Morelos	0.9	1.6	3.2	1.6
Campeche	1.8	2.1	2.9	0.7
Nayarit	1.2	1.6	2.9	1.0
Queretaro	1.1	1.4	2.9	1.9
Colima	1.5	1.8	2.8	0.6
Tlaxcala	1.2	1.7	2.6	1.1
Aguascalientes	1.0	1.4	2.6	1.1
Baja California Sur	0.9	1.5	2.3	0.6
Quintana Roo	0.3	1.0	2.1	1.5

Table C.2: Most Common Last Positions  
before Presidents of Supreme Court (top) and Congress (bottom)

Num. Presidents of Supreme Court: 26 Position, Organization Type	Last position	2nd to last position	3rd to last position	Any of last 3 positions
Judge, Supreme Court of Justice	25	0	4	25
Judge, Judiciary System	1	5	2	7
President, Supreme Court of Justice	0	4	0	4
Assistant Secretary, Federal Secretariat	0	3	0	3
President, Federal Tax Court	0	2	0	2
Federal Deputy from a State	0	2	0	2
Secretary, Supreme Court of Justice	0	1	2	3
Num. Presidents of Congress: 83 Position, Organization Type	Last position	2nd to last position	3rd to last position	Any of Last 3 Positions
Federal Deputy from a State	45	5	20	60
Senator from a State	21	5	1	26
Plurinominal Federal Deputy from a Party	4	1	2	6
Director, Federal Secretariat	1	6	3	10
Assistant Secretary, Federal Secretariat	1	4	1	6
Manager, Federal Banking Org. Non BoM	1	2	0	3
Director, Department of the Federal District	1	2	0	3
Provisional Governor of a State	1	1	1	3
Coordinator of a Party delegation in Chamber of Deputies	1	1	1	3



## References

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