

# *Accents as Capital: Experimental Evidence from Colombia*<sup>\*</sup>

Leopoldo Fergusson<sup>†</sup> Natalia Garbiras-Díaz<sup>‡</sup> Michael Weintraub<sup>§</sup>

November 7, 2024

First draft. Please do not circulate.

*Please read the latest version [here](#).*

## **Abstract**

Can the sound of an accent change how individuals interact with others? To study this question, we conduct conjoint experiments embedded in an online survey with 6,000 respondents in Colombia. We present pairs of hypothetical individuals along with audios featuring voices with accents corresponding to different socio-economic groups. Respondents are also provided information about each profile's income, education, and other attributes. We document the presence of an “accent premium,” whereby respondents prefer profiles with high-class accents over those with lower-class accents in everyday and work-related interactions. We further show that these effects are not driven by individuals' income, education, or personality traits. Importantly, the accent premium is not observed when the audios feature high-class *foreign* accents. Additionally, we find that class-based accents have downstream effects: they increase individuals' concerns about inequality, especially among respondents with low socioeconomic status, and lead to lower interpersonal trust. Overall, our findings suggest that accents exacerbate the barriers individuals of lower socio-economic status face, impacting their success. Our paper has broad policy implications for addressing inequality and improving citizens' prospects for social mobility.

---

\*We thank Hernán Carvajal and Jorge Luis Ochoa for their excellent research assistance. We also appreciate the feedback received during an EGAP Express Review Session, the EGAP 2023 and 2024 LatAm Regional Meeting, the REPAL 2024 Annual Conference, the 2024 LatAm EGAP Learning Days, the 2024 Congreso de Economía Colombiana, the Second Congress of Social Sciences and Government (Triada) 2024, and the Society for the Study of Economic Inequalities (ECINEQ) Meeting at ColMex. We thank Juana García for contributions to earlier versions of this project.

<sup>†</sup>Facultad de Economía, Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá, Colombia, lfergusson@uniandes.edu.co

<sup>‡</sup>Harvard Business School, Harvard University, ngarbirasdiaz@hbs.edu

<sup>§</sup>Escuela de Gobierno and Centro de Estudios sobre Seguridad y Drogas, Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá, Colombia, mlw@uniandes.edu.co

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Accents—the distinctive ways a language is pronounced, including the articulation of specific sounds, stress patterns in words, intonation, and rhythm—are potent signals of a person’s background. Accents vary at many levels: national, regional, ethnic, gender, generational, etc. Accents thus encode diverse characteristics that influence how people are perceived and treated by others. Differential treatment based on accents begins early in childhood: while five-year-olds prefer peers of the same race, they prefer those who share their accent to an even greater extent ([Kinzler et al., 2009](#)).

Variation in accents by social class can be stark. The field of sociolinguistics has extensively documented the distinct speech patterns associated with different social classes ([Labov, 2006](#)). Labov’s influential study ([Labov, 1972](#)) on the use of the (r) sound as a marker of higher social status in New York department stores found that its usage was highest in Saks (the most expensive store) and lowest in Kleins (the cheapest). Lower-class shoppers were also more likely to use the (r) sound when they were more aware of being listened to by a stranger.

Class-based accent variations can also have profound consequences. These differences are perceived in everyday encounters and more structured interactions in the workplace. In these interactions, first impressions are formed quickly and may leave lasting effects, constituting a significant source of bias.<sup>1</sup> Also, in many brief yet decisive encounters, such as job interviews or casual conversations, individuals might not have the opportunity to entirely demonstrate relevant traits and merits, like skills or education, to counteract any negative stereotypes associated with their accent. Evidence confirms that higher-status accents are routinely deemed more hireable than their lower-status counterparts ([Spence et al., 2024](#)).

This paper asks whether class-based accents influence interpersonal relations, expected performance in the labor market, and broader societal views. Our starting point is recognizing that class-based accents are daily reminders of gaps between socioeconomic groups and their relative status. Moreover, class-based accents convey that an unequal society is not merely fragmented along income or education lines. Indeed, differences in how we speak reflect the social and cultural abyss between social classes: we speak differently because we shared a particular social circle with a specific culture during our formative years. If, as a result, higher-status individuals are preferred over lower-status people, then class-based accents can be a form of capital: they do not just reflect class and status differences but may reproduce them.

Exploring these ideas empirically is challenging. Establishing that class-based accents matter for how we perceive others, our beliefs about their professional performance, or our broader views about society is relatively straightforward. However, uncovering the mechanisms driving any potential effects is much more difficult. In particular, people might prefer to interact with individuals speaking with a high-class accent because they rely on accent cues to make inferences about their interlocutor’s other desirable characteristics. Most notably, class-based accents also convey differences along two crucial correlated forms of capital: human capital (education) and economic capital (income or wealth).

---

<sup>1</sup>On snap judgments more broadly, see [Ambady and Rosenthal \(1993\)](#); [Todorov et al. \(2005\)](#).

We implement an experiment that directly undertakes the challenge of “unbundling” the extent to which class-based accents reflect causal mechanisms simply reflecting economic or human capital differences. We rely on an online conjoint survey experiment conducted in Bogotá, Colombia, with over 6,000 respondents. The survey asks respondents to evaluate pairs of hypothetical individuals with randomly varied attributes, including, crucially, whether they have a high-class or low-class accent. By also randomly varying the hypothetical subjects’ education levels, incomes, and other attributes related to ability and likability, we can isolate the effect of accents from other forms of capital.

We find a clear premium for those with high-class accents: they are deemed more empathetic, trustworthy, and more successful in the labor market over and beyond what is derived from education and income. Regarding outcomes related to more intimate interpersonal relationships, the marginal effect of having a high-class accent ranges from 4 to about 8.4 percentage points, a premium that is always positive, unlike the impact of other forms of capital, which can sometimes produce negative effects. For example, individuals with a high-class accent are perceived as 8.4 points more trustworthy and 7.3 points more likely to be preferred for friendship than profiles with a low-class accent. We also find sizable effects on labor market outcomes.

#### [Causal mechanisms effects]

Our design also allows us to test the downstream effects of making class-based accents more salient. In one experimental condition, which serves as a “control,” we describe speakers’ profiles using text, omitting the audio component entirely. By comparing this group with “treated” respondents who only observed profiles with clear class-based accents, we address an essential question: can the awareness of the cultural and social dimensions of prevailing inequality affect individuals’ beliefs and expectations about the society in which they live? We examine effects on six outcomes: economic aspirations, expectations of social mobility, beliefs about meritocracy, concerns about inequality, and trust in others and the state. We find that those exposed to the audio snippets report a higher gap between the level of trust they have towards those closest to them (friends and family) relative to strangers. This pattern is consistent with features of “familism” that stand in the way of societies acting together for the common good ([Banfield, 1958](#)). Importantly, we find that it also increases perceptions that inequality is the main problem in the country, providing empirical support for our expectation that awareness of class-based accents influence societal views. A greater concern with inequality, moreover, is consistent with subjects’ understanding that these differences help entrench social divisions and inequality.

Finally, we examine the high-class accent premium across borders with a simple exercise. We hypothesize that natives may be less able to identify the class-based accent cues of foreigners. As a result, migration could help reduce cultural barriers and promote social mobility. This benefit has been underemphasized compared to migration’s purely financial rewards on one hand, and the cultural challenges it presents on the other. We test this empirically by including class-based accents from different places of origin: both native and foreign. We find that the high-class premium falls, and even disappears, when respondents evaluate foreign profiles. We interpret this result as evidence that natives have difficulty distinguishing class-based differences in foreign accents.

The Colombian case is particularly appropriate for studying the effect of class-based accents on social and economic outcomes. Like many Latin American countries, Colombia has a longstanding history of significant social and economic disparities ([Eslava and Valencia Caicedo, 2023](#)). Wealth inequality in the region, and in Colombia in particular, is among the highest in the world ([Carranza et al., 2023](#)).<sup>2</sup> These features lead to limited intergenerational mobility ([Brunori et al., 2023](#)) and reinforce persistent class divisions.

Crucially, economic concentration has created a segregated society, in which wealthy households frequently opt out ([Hirschman, 1970](#)) of the public service systems ([de la O et al., 2023; Fergusson, 2019](#)), further widening the social and cultural gap between different socioeconomic groups. This phenomenon is particularly acute and present since early ages, with an education system that is deeply segregated along income lines ([Cárdenas et al., 2021](#)). As a result, socioeconomic status is deeply embedded in individuals' identities, often creating hard-to-bridge social divisions. [Uribe-Mallarino \(2008\)](#). Recent studies further reveal that cross-class interactions in Bogotá come with significant relational costs, as lower-income students often face barriers such as discrimination and gaps in cultural and economic resources when interacting with more privileged peers ([Álvarez-Rivadulla et al., 2023](#)). Stark contrasts between high and low-class accents are potent indicators of these divisions.

Our findings concerning the mechanisms through which accents affect outcomes and potentially perpetuate social stratification are crucial for providing concrete public policy solutions to lasting problems of income inequality, employment disparities, and educational attainment. Indeed, if biases towards class-based accents reflect more than preferences towards more affluent or educated individuals, policies aimed at income redistribution or expanding educational opportunities may be insufficient to achieve equality of opportunity. Individuals may attempt to emulate high-status speech patterns—not always successfully—to improve their socioeconomic prospects ([Trudgill, 1974; Petyt, 1985](#)). As famously depicted in George Bernard Shaw's *Pygmalion*, Eliza Doolittle sought to change her accent to escape her lower-class status, as her accent imperiled her social and economic future. However, unlike income or education, which can be adjusted or improved over time, an accent is deeply tied to an individual's social circle and identity, making it much harder to change. Changing accents may also entail a trade-off: adopting a different accent distances a speaker from their original community. In fact, people may seek to preserve their accent to maintain vital support and belonging ([Labov, 1963](#)). In short, overcoming accent-based discrimination may require policies considering the deep cultural and social dimensions underpinning persistent inequality.

Persistent inequality; it is an asset

Accents as capital beyond class (region, ethnic, national, etc.).

While scholarship in economics and political science has examined the consequences of in-

---

<sup>2</sup>The country's Gini coefficient for income inequality in 2022 was 0.56, higher than that for every OECD country. Indeed, Colombia's top 10% of earners receive almost 40% of the country's income. Access to higher education, a driver of upward economic and social mobility, is highly unequal: 61% of individuals from the wealthiest households aged 18-23 are enrolled in higher education, whereas just 25% of those from this age group in the poorest households are enrolled ([Colombia Reports, 2019](#)).

come inequality (Albertazzi et al., 2021; Alesina et al., 2018; Cavaille, 2023; Kuziemko et al., 2015; Londoño-Vélez, 2022; Lupu and Pontusson, 2011; Sands, 2017),<sup>3</sup> it has not focused on accent and language as a source of inequality and an obstacle to social mobility. A long tradition of sociological work has studied cultural capital and stratification (e.g., Bourdieu, 1986; Bourdieu, 1994; Hall, 1980; Lamont, 1992), but has not focused on causally identifying the effects of accent on different dimensions of social stratification.

We contribute to recent empirical literature in sociology by unbundling the mechanisms through which accents operate. Unlike previous studies that demonstrate how people can detect class from brief speech cues (Kraus et al., 2019), our research isolates the effects of class-based accents on perceptions and biases in both interpersonal and labor market contexts. Our work, therefore, expands our understanding of how class-based accents shape intergroup dynamics and reinforce social hierarchies.

We contribute to the economics literature on segregation by proposing how accents reinforce social and economic stratification, similar to how neighborhood and school segregation perpetuate inequality. Economic and racial segregation significantly inhibits intergenerational mobility, as individuals from more segregated areas face reduced upward mobility due to restricted access to resources and networks (Chetty et al., 2014,0). Similarly, our study shows that accents act as a form of “segregation by sound,” influencing everyday social interactions and labor market opportunities by reinforcing class divisions and biases. By highlighting the role of class, our research complements studies on other sources of segregation and aligns with recent work suggesting the importance of class as a barrier to achieving equality of opportunity (Chetty et al., 2024).

Finally, our work contributes to the literature in communication psychology that examines how speech accents shape individual attitudes, including stigma and social trust (see Fuertes et al. 2012 for a meta-analysis). Our contribution is twofold. Methodologically, our conjoint experiment controls for preferences related to other descriptive and ascriptive markers (e.g., sex, geographic region, and, most notably, income and education). Theoretically, we extend beyond viewing language merely as an in-group/out-group cue and link it to markers of socioeconomic status, developing expectations about its effects on relationships and substantively important attitudes.

## 2 RESEARCH DESIGN

### 2.1 Recruitment and Sample

To test our argument, we conducted an online survey with embedded survey experiments among more than 6,000 respondents in Bogotá, Colombia, between March 6 and June 15, 2024. We focus specifically on Bogotá because the differences we document are more meaningful in urban areas, and rural Colombia is relatively more equal and poorer (Banco Mundial, 2021). This city resembles many others in Latin America with profound social and economic inequality. The city’s entrenched social stratification is evident in everyday settings, such as education, where op-

---

<sup>3</sup>For example, it has looked at effects on citizens’ attitudes toward redistribution, social trust and beliefs about deservingness and inequality.

portunities for upward mobility remain limited to a small fraction of high-achieving, low-income individuals who gain access to elite institutions through targeted programs ([Bank, 2018](#)). One of the clearest expressions of segregation in the city stems from a system introduced in the early 1990s called *Sistema de Estratificación*, originally designed as a policy tool to cross-subsidize public services. Over time, however, this system has evolved into a social marker, resulting in sociologically and geographically clustered classes and contributing to a highly segregated society ([Uribe-Mallarino, 2008](#)).<sup>4</sup>

We used a three-stage matched-quota sampling design to achieve sample distributions that reflect Bogotá’s population distribution in terms of gender, age, and income level. This method also ensures the participation of a sufficient number of subjects from hard-to-reach socio-demographic groups, especially high-income respondents.

We first create strata by combining sex, age, and income level, and determine the number of subjects in each stratum in Bogotá using data from the 2018 Colombian Population Census. To maintain a low cost per survey, we define three income groups, proxied by an administrative classification related to location and utility costs, namely the *estratos* described above.<sup>5</sup> We also create two age groups and two sex groups. Thus, our strata consist of men and women, either younger or older than 35 years old, belonging to *estratos* 1 and 2 (low-income group), *estratos* 3 and 4 (middle-income group), or *estratos* 5 and 6 (high-income group). Using these strata, we then contrast the information with the potential reach of the Facebook and Instagram APIs. The Appendix Table F.1 provides details on our sampling strata, while more information on our recruitment strategy can be found in the Appendix F.

## 2.2 Measuring and manipulating class-based accents

We hired male and female professional actors to read scripts in high-class and low-class accents for each location: a Bogotá accent and a foreign accent from Santiago de Chile. We embed the class-based accent in the hypothetical individual’s self-introduction of her personality. We avoided a “class-neutral” accent for several reasons. First, it is disputable whether a “class-neutral” exists at all. Second, the attempts at a “class-neutral” accent that we piloted typically produced more professional-sounding voices: profiles exhibiting accents with a hard-to-classify class origin were often interpreted as the voice of a more able and professional individual, capable of speaking in a comparatively more neutral way across settings. This meant that we could not hold constant a signal of ability.

Table 1 shows the scripts we used to describe the personality traits. In creating these scripts, we followed the Big Five instruments validated in Latin America by [Benet-Martínez and John \(1998\)](#).

---

<sup>4</sup>Under this system, Colombian households are categorized according to a socioeconomic stratification scheme designed to target public service taxes and subsidies. Households are divided into six strata, with the first three representing those with fewer resources and the last two the wealthiest.

<sup>5</sup>Socioeconomic stratification was designed to subsidize public services for less affluent households through higher contributions from wealthier individuals. This classification method relies on the physical characteristics of dwellings and their surroundings, which are correlated with household socioeconomic conditions, rather than on economic characteristics such as income, which can be volatile and less reliable.

The audios thus convey five critical aspects of the profiles: main personality trait, high- versus low-class accent, Bogotá versus Chilean accent, and sex.

**Table 1: Big Five Personality Descriptions**

Big Five Personality Trait	Description (audio script)
	Audio opening: <i>Hello, let me tell you a bit more about myself...</i>
Openness	<i>... I am a person with a lot of imagination and varied interests. I have many ideas and am both creative and analytical.</i>
Agreeableness	<i>... I am a kind and generous person, and I always try to collaborate and help others.</i>
Conscientiousness	<i>... I am persistent with the plans I set for myself and follow them carefully. I am known for being meticulous and efficient.</i>
Extraversion	<i>... I am an outgoing and sociable person. I consider myself to be full of energy and very enthusiastic.</i>
Emotional stability*	<i>... I am a calm person who knows how to manage stress. I know how to keep calm, even in high-pressure situations.</i>
	Audio closing: <i>...Below, you will find a table that will provide more information about me.</i>

**Notes:** \* Opposite of neuroticism. The original opening in Spanish is “Hola, te cuento un poco más sobre mí” and the closing “A continuación, encontrarás una tabla que dará más información sobre mí.” The personality descriptions, in the same order as in the table, are the following: Soy una persona con mucha imaginación y con intereses muy variados. Se me ocurren varias ideas y soy a la vez ingenioso y analítico; Soy perseverante con los planes que me propongo y los sigo cuidadosamente. Me caracterizo por ser minucioso y eficiente; Soy una persona extrovertida y sociable. Considero que estoy lleno/a de energía y muy entusiasta; Soy una persona amable y generosa, y siempre intento colaborar y ayudar a los demás; Soy una persona calmada que sabe controlar el estrés. Sé mantener la calma, aún en situaciones de presión.

Because subjects might find listening to similar audio variations repetitive—and given that the same actor performing both high- and low-class accents for a given location might prime respondents to notice precisely the class-based accent difference between the two voices, leading to experimenter-demand effects—we took several precautions. First, we used pitch modifying software<sup>6</sup> to slightly change the audio pitch (no more than a 10% pitch alteration from the original recording), such that even the same actor sounded different across multiple versions. After pretesting the most naturally-sounding voices, we used three audio variations for each sex-location combination, as follows: male Bogotá (low-class plus and minus 5% pitch and high-class plus 10% pitch); female Bogotá (low-class minus 10% pitch and high-class original and minus 10% pitch); male Santiago de Chile (low-class plus and minus 5% pitch and high-class minus 10% pitch); female Santiago de Chile (low-class minus 10% and plus 5% pitch and high-class original). Second, we restricted the conjoint task to avoid featuring the same actor and class for both profiles (and, therefore, the same actor-pitch). Whenever Person A exhibited a given big five trait  $y$ , Person B had a different big five trait  $y'$ .

Several additional features of our experiment help ensure that the audible variations capture

---

<sup>6</sup>Audacity’s pitch modifier tool.

class-based distinctions without strongly conveying other signals of correlated traits, most notably income and the level of education, but also how confident, articulate, or kind each person is, or any other personality or cultural trait conveyed with their voices. First, the survey experiment setup is ideal in this context since there are no other visible signals of these correlated traits, including body language, personal presentation, ethnic identity, etc. Second, we hold language constant and explicitly instructed actors not to use accent traits that may directly imply mispronouncing a given word or using more or less pauses in one social status than the other. Indeed, vocabulary, fluency, and grammar variations could convey income and education. Third, we also made sure to avoid big differences in reading speed, as this is yet another aspect of spoken language that may communicate the personality or cultural features of the speaker. Fourth, although they may vary by class, actors avoided any filler sounds or “crutches” (e.g., like, well, so, ah, um), as these may also convey education, personality traits, or cultural differences other than class-based variations. Fifth, although we slightly modified the pitches for the above reasons, the changes were minor. Moreover, the same actor interpreted high- and low-class accents. Thus, each class-based accent is performed by extremely similar voices, other than for the intended change in class-based accents. Sixth, we used software to normalize and improve the quality of all final audio, including volume normalization, also an important feature of speech. Finally, since accents also change from generation to generation, each actor was within the 25- to 39-year-old age range.<sup>7</sup>

In short, our class-based accents provide variation in perceived socioeconomic status while remaining as clean as possible from “contamination” emerging from other signals. Appendix C1 presents results from our pilot study validating these measures. We asked respondents to classify the profiles’ social class into high, middle, or low. We also asked respondents to guess which kind of sport, leisurely activity, and music each profile might prefer. In each case, we offered three alternatives, varying from those more typical in higher classes to those more common in lower classes. When *Bogotanos* classify *Bogotanos* and Chileans classify Chileans, the high-class accent increases the ordinal classification for social class, music, leisure activities, and sports activities. Thus, our voice actors successfully portrayed social class with their choice of accents, and culturally proximate subjects could infer social class from the audio snippets, whether directly positioning profiles in a social class scale or via the preferences most commonly associated with a class. These effects appear even after controlling for the remaining profile attributes (which have coefficients consistent with expectations; for example, more affluent and educated typically rank higher).

Nevertheless, when *Bogotano* subjects classify Chilean profiles, the high-class accent fails to increase the ordinal classification for social class, sports, leisure, and music. Instead, the objective measures that do not depend on the cultural context as much, namely income and education, predict a higher ranking. These results thus confirm that the class content of accents is at least partially culturally specific, supporting one of our key hypotheses.

---

<sup>7</sup>Sociolinguists often refer to language variations based on geographical location (dialect), social factors (sociolect), specific to an individual (ideolect), or specific to an ethnic group (ethnolect). Regarding these categories, we focus on a key social factor, class, but abstract from language variations precisely because they may be correlated with other features, most importantly income and education.

## 2.3 Survey design and analysis

Our survey was designed to be administered in approximately 20 minutes. It includes embedded conjoint experiments (e.g. Hainmueller et al., 2014) and has three core parts (the complete survey is available in Appendix E). First, a characterization module asks whether respondents lived in Bogotá while growing up. We exclude those who did not since they may be less familiar with class-based Bogotá accents. This section also asks respondents for their sex, age, household size, income level (from a set of specified ranges), and *estrato*. We ask these questions at the beginning of the survey so that any priming generated would dissipate before the experimental modules. Because these questions are commonly asked in Colombia, we do not expect them to trigger pre-treatment effects or suspicions about the survey’s purpose. Next, we ask questions to assess participants’ measures of generalized trust (agreement with the statement that people tend to have good intentions), reciprocity (positive and negative), willingness to donate for “good” causes (specifically stated willingness to donate a hypothetical windfall revenue of COP\$10,000, or about USD\$2.5), and views related to fairness (specifically willingness to punish others for unfair behavior at a personal cost).

The third part of the survey includes the experimental component, including our core conjoint experiment. Conjoint experiments have several desirable properties, including reducing social desirability bias and approximating behavioral benchmarks (Hainmueller et al., 2015). As detailed later in this section, we randomize five versions of the conjoint experiment, shown in Figure 1. In all versions, we ask respondents to consider two hypothetical individuals (A and B) they might encounter. Both profiles are presented in tabular form, as shown in panels (a)-(c) and (e) of Figure 2, and as is standard in conjoint designs (Hainmueller et al., 2014).

In all but one version of the conjoint experiment, the table also includes an audio snippet for each person that provides a first-person spoken description of their key personality traits (recall that these are recorded for each class, sex, and region of origin by the same actor, as part of the cross-randomization of attributes in the conjoint). This description always appears first as that hypothetical person’s “introduction”—much like some CVs, which often include qualitative and subjective descriptions first—and is then followed by objective qualifications and accomplishments, listing the remaining manipulated attributes.<sup>8</sup>

In each choice task, we ask respondents which person:

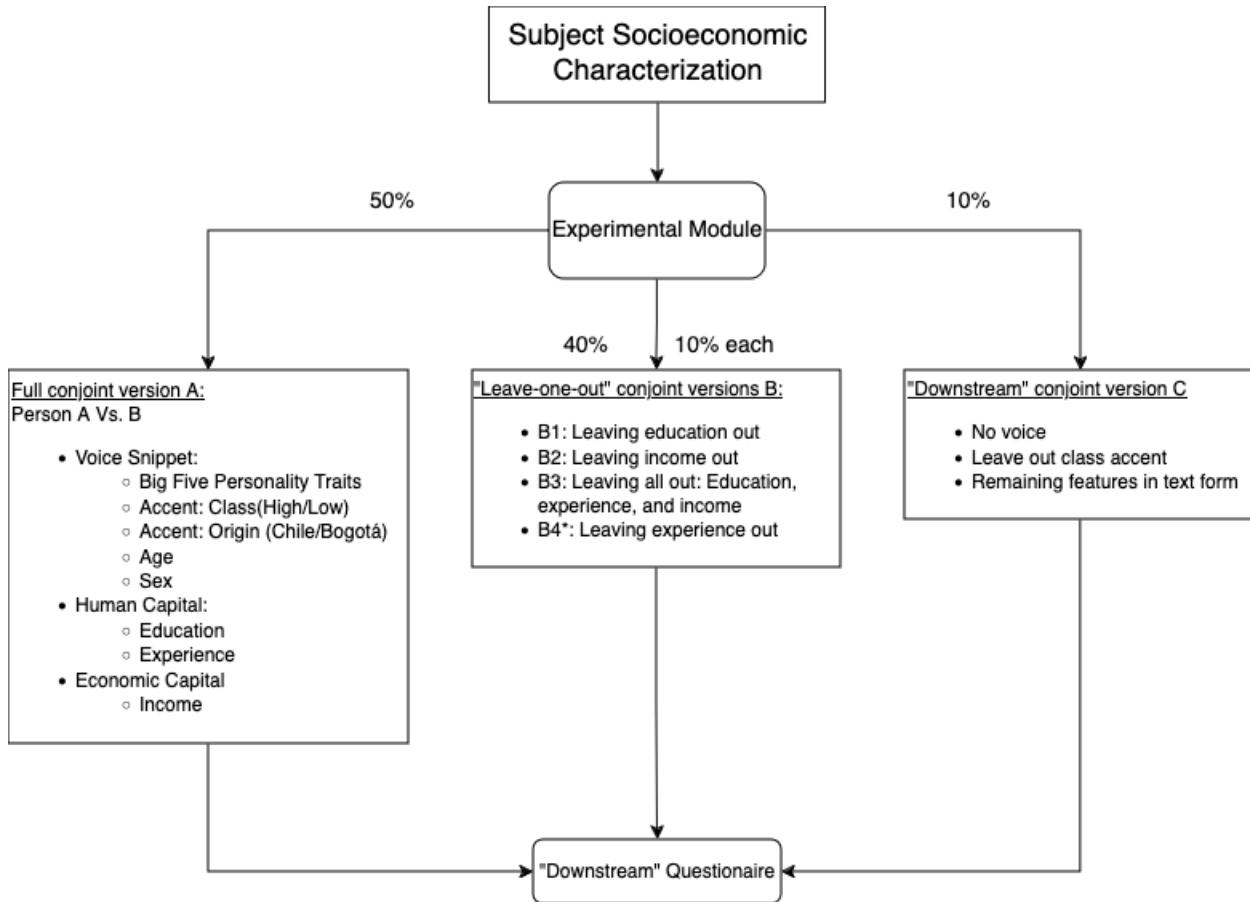
1. Is more empathetic (“able to put himself in other people’s shoes”);
2. Is more trustworthy;
3. They would prefer to start a business with;
4. They would prefer to establish a friendship with;
5. They would prefer to share their workplace with; and
6. Is more likely to be their boss.

In addition to these questions, we show subjects a letter offering a job opportunity to a can-

---

<sup>8</sup>Attribute order for the other attributes is fixed *within* subjects to reduce cognitive load, but randomized *across* subjects to avoid anchoring or ordering effects.

**Figure 1: Experimental Design**



**Notes:** Schematic description of the survey sequence and treatment conditions. All subjects answer the socioeconomic characterization module. 50% of the sample is randomly exposed to version A of the conjoint experiment, displaying all profile features. 40% instead solves one of four sets of leave-out versions B1 to BIV where one or more profile traits are omitted. Finally, 10% of the sample is exposed to conjoint tasks with full information (in text form) but no audios of varying class-accents. Answers from this latter group are compared to those of others in the final, “downstream” questionnaire that all subjects respond. \*Analysis for the leave-one-out variation BIV, excluding experience, is relegated to the Appendix.

dicate and ask which of the two hypothetical profiles would be most likely to receive it. We also randomize two versions of the letter: one using more informal, colloquial language (including *tú*, the informal third person singular typically reserved for friends, family, or younger interlocutors), and one using more deferential language (including *usted*, the formal third person singular, in addition to a much more formal greeting and more careful word choice). This exercise measures two outcomes. First, it tests for second-order beliefs about the labor market premium that might benefit higher-class individuals. Second, it tests whether deferential language is more likely to increase beliefs about such a premium, especially for low SES subjects.

Following the conjoint experiment module, we ask respondents additional questions to assess the “downstream effects” of listening to different class-based accents. This module consists of the

**Figure 2: Conjoint Experimental Conditions**

<b>(a) Full Conjoint (A)</b>		<b>(b) Leaving Out Education (B1)</b>			
		Person 1	Person 2	Person 1	Person 2
<b>Audios</b>	▶ 0:00 / 0:13	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:13
<b>Personal Income</b>	0 – 1'100.000	More than 6'800.000		High	Low
<b>Education Level</b>	High School	University			
<b>Work Experience</b>	Low	High			
<b>(c) Leaving Out Income (BII)</b>					
		Person 1	Person 2	Person 1	Person 2
<b>Audios</b>	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:10
<b>Education Level</b>	University	High School			
<b>Work Experience</b>	High	Medium			
<b>(d) Leaving Out Income, Experience and Education: Only Audio (BIII)</b>					
		Person 1	Person 2	Person 1	Person 2
<b>Audios</b>	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:14	▶ 0:00 / 0:10	▶ 0:00 / 0:10
<b>(e) Leaving Out Accent: text-only version (C)</b>					
		Person 1	Person 2	Person 1	Person 2
<b>Sex</b>	Woman	Woman			
<b>Quality</b>	Kind and Generous	Thorough and Efficient			
<b>Education Level</b>	Postgraduate	Technical			
<b>Work Experience</b>	Medium	High			
<b>Personal Income</b>	4'200.001 – 6'800.000	0 – 1'100.000			
<b>Region</b>	Medellin	Santiago de Chile			

**Notes:** Screenshots of the different randomized versions of the conjoint experiment. Version labels as described in Figure 1 are in parentheses.  
Analysis for the leave-one-out variation BIV, excluding experience, is relegated to the Appendix.

following questions:

1. Trust levels towards different groups and institutions, namely strangers, family, friends, foreigners, the Colombian State, and democratic institutions in Colombia;
2. Trust toward strangers, now captured with the perceived probability that a lost wallet is returned to its owner;
3. Personal economic expectations (improvement or deterioration over the next year);
4. Beliefs about economic mobility (probability that a person from the lowest income quintile may move up to the top quintile);
5. Beliefs about meritocracy (does wealth reflect hard work or other advantages);

## 6. A ranking of Colombia’s most pressing problems, including inequality.

Finally, an open-ended question recovers any additional feedback from respondents. We included this question partly motivated by a similar question from the pilot, in which we observed respondents thinking about the conjoint task. We can then analyze whether subjects solving conjoint tasks with audio snippets are more likely to reflect on class, culture, and inequality than those who did not listen to class-based accents in their comments.

Before launching the full survey, we conducted a pilot in Bogotá and Santiago de Chile to validate our audio snippets, asking respondents to classify the social class of the profiles based on their accents and to test our conjoint on the Bogotá sample to assess respondents’ understanding of the profiles and questions. The insights gained from our pilot study helped shape the final survey, as we implemented several changes based on the pilot discussed in detail in Appendix C.

Subjects in the full study completed at least four rounds of the assigned conjoint tasks. To increase the effective number of tasks, we also offered respondents one additional lottery ticket to win a tablet if they completed three more tasks. We continued offering this option at most three times; the maximum number of conjoint tasks per subject is then 13.<sup>9</sup> (We do not find significant differences between subjects who completed additional rounds and those who did not. We conduct further robustness checks by analyzing tasks only in the first round (excluding the additional rounds) and show that the results hold. See Appendix A4.) We adopted this strategy after successfully pre-testing it in our pilot, as described in Appendix C.

In what follows, we explain the different survey components and our estimation strategy for each. All models are estimated with standard errors clustered by respondent. To control for the false discovery rate, we implement multiple hypothesis corrections: after separating analyses into primary and secondary tests, we create indices by “families” of outcomes and report p-values that adjust for false discovery rates within these families.

**The “Full” Conjoint Experiment.** This is the first and main version (version A in Figure 1, as presented in panel (a) of Figure 2), which contains the audio snippet with the personality descriptions and the table with *all* other attributes. Half of the sample receives this version.

In addition to these audio snippets, we added three attributes to the table that respondents were shown, aiming to reflect the socioeconomic status of each profile. The first is personal income, the most direct indicator of an individual’s financial resources.<sup>10</sup> The next is the educational attainment of our hypothetical profiles, using the main levels of the Colombian educational system.<sup>11</sup>

---

<sup>9</sup>Most people completed 2 rounds, i.e., 7 tasks. See Appendix Figure A.1.

<sup>10</sup>To construct each level, we relied on data from the Large Integrated Household Survey (GEIH, for its acronym in Spanish), dividing respondents’ reported incomes into quintiles. However, given Colombia’s high levels of inequality, even among those in the top quintile, we further divided this category into two to distinguish between rich and very rich profiles. Furthermore, we merged the second and third quintiles, as citizens from these groups tend to exhibit very similar socioeconomic traits.

<sup>11</sup>This trait comprises five groups: elementary school, high school, technical education, undergraduate education, and postgraduate education. We validated these categories by reviewing questions about educational attainment used in large-scale Colombian surveys, including the GEIH and the National Quality of Life Survey (ENCV, for its acronym

The last measures work experience.<sup>12</sup> Our hypothetical profiles' educational attainment and work experience enable us to control for the potential impacts of work experience on outcomes.

Since Average Marginal Component Effects (AMCEs) in the analysis of conjoint experiments are influenced by the distribution of attributes used in averaging, they should ideally be calculated using profile distributions that resemble those found in the real world. To increase the external validity of our experiment, we follow [De la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#) and use real-world data to account for the relative frequency with which each profile occurs in the target population and then use these distributions as the basis for randomization. Subjects, therefore, observe more realistic profiles, minimizing cognitive load or unexpected reactions that might occur if the profiles seem implausible. Moreover, since evaluating the attribute of interest may depend on other attributes, this design-based estimation of a *population* Average Marginal Component Effect (pAMCE) is more externally valid than when profile attributes are uniformly distributed. We also use information collected during our pilot study as to which profiles are less credible; we check the robustness of our results when dropping these profiles altogether.

Therefore, we estimate the pAMCE component effect of the speaker's class-based accent (see [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#); [Hainmueller et al. \(2014\)](#) for further explanation and estimation of these parameters). The pAMCE, as its name suggests, measures the marginal increase in the probability of being selected in the choice task given that level of the attribute, and can generally be estimated with the following equation:<sup>13</sup>

$$Y_{ipt} = \tau^{pAMCE} \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} + \mathbf{X}_{ipt}\beta + \varepsilon_{ipt}, \quad (1)$$

where  $Y_{ipt}$  is one of our binary outcome variables for respondent  $i$ , in profile  $p$ , and choice task  $t$ . The indicator of a High-class accent is our attribute of interest. The vector  $\mathbf{X}_{ipt}$  includes all others as indicator variables.  $\varepsilon_{ipt}$  is the idiosyncratic error term.<sup>14</sup> Our coefficient of interest,  $\tau$ , captures the effect of the factor accent and level High-Class accent compared to the baseline level of Low-Class accent, conditional on control factors.

We implement the Design-Based approach using a Mixed Randomization Design, as in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). More specifically, we randomize the attribute of interest  $\text{High-class accent}_{ipt}$  uniformly while randomizing income and human capital attributes with a realistic joint distribution.<sup>15</sup> Appendix G presents details of this joint distribution. As a result, estimating equation (1) recovers a *weighted Difference-in-Means* estimator, granting more weight to observations with a

---

in Spanish).

<sup>12</sup>Since standard surveys in Colombia typically do not inquire about this aspect, we defined three main categories: low work experience for a hypothetical individual's age, average work experience for their age, and high work experience given their age.

<sup>13</sup>Given the binary nature of our main attribute of interest, we do not present results for the marginal means proposed in [Leeper et al. \(2020\)](#), as these two quantities are equivalent for the full sample.

<sup>14</sup>We estimate cluster standard errors at the respondent  $i$  level, accounting for differential variance across treatment conditions and evaluated profile.

<sup>15</sup>We estimate our models using the R package `factorEx` developed by [Egami \(2022\)](#).

higher frequency within the target profile distribution.<sup>16</sup>

In the main conjoint version (type A in Figure 1),  $X_{ipt}$  includes indicator variables for all relevant features: the Big Five trait, sex, region, education, experience, and income.

Our primary focus for version A is, therefore, to estimate the pAMCE of receiving either a high-class or low-class accent on six outcomes: perceived empathy, trustworthiness, preferences for starting a business, preferences for friendship, and perceptions about who is more likely to be a boss and to receive a job offer. Table ?? summarizes our theoretical expectations.

We are also interested in the effect of class-based accents conditional on the SES of respondent  $i$ . For this test, we estimate the following specifications:

$$Y_{ipt} = \alpha_1 \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} + \alpha_2 \text{SES=high}_{ipt} + \alpha_3 \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} \times \text{SES=high}_{ipt} + X_{ipt}\beta + \varsigma_{ipt}, \quad (2)$$

We included an additional experiment to measure two particular outcomes: whether subjects associate higher-class accents with improved labor market prospects and whether they expect a more deferential language toward profiles with higher-class accents. Within each round, respondents were randomly assigned to read two versions of a letter offering someone a job: one written in colloquial language and one written in deferential language. They were then asked to predict which of the two profiles they were shown was most likely to have received the letter. We use the letter test whether profiles with a high-class accent are expected to be more successful in the labor market than those with a low-class accent. We further use the randomization of the deferential letter to explore whether hearing a high-class accent profile when respondent  $i$  was randomly assigned to receive a deferential letter changes their belief about which profile received the letter, especially if they are low SES. We estimate the following model:

$$Y_{ipt} = \alpha \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} + \theta \text{Deferential}_{ipt} + \tau^{\text{Deferential}} \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} \times \text{Deferential}_{ipt} + X_{ipt}\beta + \varsigma_{ipt}. \quad (3)$$

In this specification,  $\alpha$  captures the accent premium in the labor market, whereas  $\tau^{\text{Deferential}}$  tests if the deferential letter changes such a premium, particularly for low-SES subjects who might be accustomed to using or observing a more high-regarding language towards high-class individuals.

**Causal mechanisms: “Leave-One-Out” Conjoint Experiments.** Another set of results are the “leave-one-out” variations (versions BI through BIV in Figure 1), allowing us to understand

---

<sup>16</sup>Specifically, the weights are the product of two quantities. The first represents weights the randomization distribution provides,  $\Pr^R$ , conditional on the control factors. The second term is the ratio of the target profile distribution,  $\Pr^*$ , and the randomization distribution.

whether accents act as signals of economic or human capital or instead reflect an independent effect. Each leave-one-out variation is assigned to 10% of the sample. We leave out the education or income level in variations BI and BII, respectively. In BIII, we leave out all markers of human capital and income: education, experience, and income levels. Experience is meant primarily as a control factor since there is no obvious *a priori* simple relation between social status and work experience. Moreover, consistent with this observation, we found few effects of experience on outcomes in our pilot, so we do not pay particular attention to the leave-experience-out condition BIV.<sup>17</sup>

The basic underlying logic of these variations is that omitting an attribute may lead respondents to infer it from available information; in day-to-day interactions, interlocutors may use accents to infer background features such as formal education or income levels. This is especially the case given the multidimensional nature of social class and the correlation among features, such that accents reflect not only the cultural and social capital that people of certain social classes enjoy but also other forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1986).

Our first exploratory approach evokes canonical approaches to statistical versus taste-based discrimination.<sup>18</sup> The “unbundling” problem that we seek to resolve with our leave-one-out approach could be rephrased to say that people use accents as a signal of other correlated forms of capital and “statistically discriminate” against those with different accents. Unbundling the impact of other correlated traits would leave us with pure taste-based discrimination based on accents.<sup>19</sup> As in much of the economic discrimination literature (Bertrand and Duflo, 2017), we thus compare estimations with full and partial information to learn about subjects’ inference processes. If forms of capital bundle together, we expect the effect of class-based accent to increase in magnitude when the subject observes partial information, as respondents now use this marker to infer the positively correlated missing dimension of capital (income, education, or both).

We present this result as an exploratory analysis and for completeness, as specified in our PAP. Nevertheless, precisely distinguishing between statistical and taste-based discrimination is more complex and may crucially depend on the underlying cognitive process applicable in each con-

---

<sup>17</sup>Results for this variation are relegated to the Appendix.

<sup>18</sup>In theories of statistical discrimination, a group (for example, black people) faces a disadvantage relative to another because the two groups are different in other relevant ways. When observers have imperfect information about all other correlated relevant traits, they use race as a signal about those traits (or the variance in those traits) and “statistically discriminate” against black workers. On the other hand, taste-based discrimination theories emphasize direct distaste for the group.

<sup>19</sup>This analogy deserves some qualifications. First, when considering taste versus statistical-based discrimination one could in principle separate the trait of interest (e.g., race) from the correlated characteristics (e.g., productivity). Yet “separating” social and cultural capital from other forms of capital amounts to robbing them of any substantial meaning. Second, in economic studies of discrimination, sufficient competition between agents may erode pure taste-based discrimination: agents discriminating against black workers merely based on race may miss out on economic opportunities, risking being competed out of business. This may fail to occur with differences in access to social circles and cultural capital in highly unequal and segregated societies, precisely because “taste” and the social value conferred to belonging to a particular group emerge to reflect and reinforce existing disparities (Bourdieu, 1979) and produce systemic discrimination that may not erode with competition. As Bertrand and Duflo (2017) note, research on the psychological roots of discrimination makes “clear that the limited information and decision-making model that drives statistical discrimination might itself be endogenous to conscious or unconscious prejudice against the out-group members.”

text. For instance, Bartoš et al. (2016) develop the idea of “attention discrimination,” where people not only statistically discriminate but also endogenously pay less attention to some of the profile features activating their prejudice. Bohren et al. (2023) shows how inaccurate beliefs may lead to *inaccurate statistical discrimination*. In the context of housing markets, Ewens et al. (2014) instead explore two features of statistical discriminators: differential treatment of signals by race and differences in experience shaping perception. In all these cases, the simple test for statistical discrimination comparing a full and a partial information environment can lead to erroneous conclusions. More fundamentally, we concur with Bertrand and Duflo (2017), who highlight in their critical review how work from other disciplines blurs the sharp line economists tend to draw between statistical and taste-based explanations. Rather, developing experiments that link the patterns of discrimination to specific theories and hypotheses is a more fruitful way to advance our understanding of discrimination. In our case, our primary goal is to establish whether class-based accents matter mainly because they provide information about income or education or whether they directly influence the critical outcomes we study.

Our second approach provides a more disciplined method for examining the causal mechanisms through which class-based accents affect our outcomes. This approach is specifically designed to test the extent to which these causal mechanisms reflect the indirect effect of income and education, or whether accents have an effect in and of themselves, or through channels other than the suspected mediators. The analysis follows the methods outlined in Acharya et al. (2018), decomposing the overall average treatment effect (ATE) of class-based accents into two main components: an “average controlled direct effect” (ACDE), while fixing potential mediators, and the remaining “eliminated effect.” The latter encompasses the combined influences of an indirect effect—whereby accents may influence outcomes by providing information relevant to income or education—and a causal interaction—capturing how context affects the impact of accents (i.e., how the effect of accents may depend on income or education levels).

We estimate the quantities in Table 2 while fixing the mediator factor variables “income” and “education” at two levels (high and low). ATEs estimated on “inferred” arms (meaning where respondents do not observe either income or education or both and infer them from the high-class accent) are generally larger in magnitude than the ACDE, with the difference or “eliminated effect” reflecting how the missing attributes mediate the impact of a high-class accent both in terms of being in its causal pathway and as contextual factors.

We perform the calculations above for the sample at large and conditioning on the subject’s SES and social preferences. This allows us to examine how different subjects attempt to learn or infer other forms of capital from accents. Specifically, a high SES individual may be more aware of an omitted factor and more able to approximate its impact from the observable accent dimension than a low SES one.<sup>20</sup>

In Table 2, we illustrate the quantities of interest for the causal mechanisms analysis, where we control for the income level set at high. First, the Average Total Effect (ATE) illustrated in the first row of the table is defined as the difference between the average outcome when the population is set to a High-Class accent ( $t_1$ ) versus when it is set to a Low-Class accent ( $t_0$ ),  $TE(t_1, t_0) =$

---

<sup>20</sup>These analyses will be done in the next iteration.

$\mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_1)] - \mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_0)] = \tau$ . In our study setting, we estimate  $\tau$  with its sample analog  $\hat{\tau}$  coefficient in equation (1). Importantly, this total effect emerges in the “inferred” income arm, meaning the sample where respondents did not observe income and potentially inferred it from the high-class accent.

The Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) is defined as the effect of the main factor accent fixed at a value of a mediator factor variable  $m$ ,  $CDE(t_a, t_b, m) = \mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_a, m)] - \mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_b, m)]$ . The table illustrates this in the second row by setting income at a fixed, high level. The sample analog for the ACDE is given by a variation of equation (1). In the proposed model, we regress our binary outcome variable on attributes but estimate a model for each of the levels of the mediator factor variable  $m$  (in this case, fixing the factor “income” at “high”). Of course, this regression emerges from the sample that observes the factor and does have to infer it from the class-based accent.

The average natural mediator effect (ANME) emerges when comparing rows in a given column rather than between columns in a given row. The ANME is the effect of the mediator’s induced or “natural” level under treatment level  $t$  relative to a baseline  $m$ . Focus on the first comparison, for  $t$  set at High-Class accent. The ANME tells us the effect on an outcome of the inferred (or natural) income level of a hypothetical High-Class profile relative to a baseline value of that profile being a high income. Respondents who believe the hypothetical profile’s income level to be a high income will have an NME of zero since their natural value is equal to the baseline value for them.

Finally, Table 2 illustrates the eliminated effect in the lower right corner as the difference between the ATE and ACDE. As noted, this difference reflects how the factor, in this case income, mediates the impact of a high-class accent in terms of being in its causal pathway and as a crucial contextual factor. In our study setting, we use three mediator factor variables: income, education, and experience, and estimate a version of the model in equation (1) for all levels of these mediating variables. As we have emphasized, however, our main focus is on income and education as mediators, fixing them at their randomized levels.

**Table 2: Quantities of interest for causal mechanisms (Acharya et al., 2018).**  
**Illustrating effects at high income**

Mediator Arm ( $D_i$ )	Treatment ( $T_i$ )			Difference
	High-Class accent ( $t_1$ )	Low-Class accent ( $t_0$ )		
Inferred-Income arm ( $d_*$ )	$\mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_1)]$	$\mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_0)]$		$TE(t_1, t_0)$
Manipulated-Income arm ( $d_0$ )	$\mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_1, \text{High Income})]$	$\mathbb{E}[Y_{ipt}(t_0, \text{High Income})]$		$ACDE(t_1, t_0, \text{High Income})$
Difference	$ANME(t_1, \text{High Income})$	$ANME(t_0, \text{High Income})$		$\Delta(t_1, t_0, \text{High Income})$

**Notes:** The Average Total Effect (ATE) or  $TE(t_1, t_0)$  is the difference between the average outcome when the population is set to a High-Class accent ( $t_1$ ) versus when it is set to a Low-Class accent ( $t_0$ ). The Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) is the effect of accent fixed at a value of a mediator factor variable  $m$ , set to “High income” in the table. The average natural mediator effect (ANME) is the effect of the mediator’s induced or “natural” level under treatment level  $t$  relative to the baseline  $m$ . The eliminated effect is the difference between the ATE and ACDE and reflects how the factor, in this case income, mediates the impact of a high-class accent in terms of being in its causal pathway and as a crucial contextual factor.

**Downstream effects: “No Audio” Conjoint Experiment.** For 10% of the sample, we provide no audio snippets and, therefore, no class-based accents. Instead, we present all the information written out in tabular form, omitting the hypothetical subject’s class-based accent.<sup>21</sup> As shown in Figure 1, here we compare survey responses of respondents who were exposed to audio messages (experimental conditions A, BI, BII, BIII, and BIV) to those who were not (experimental condition C). We examine the effect of receiving the audio versus no audio on several outcomes: interpersonal trust, institutional trust, optimism about a respondent’s economic future, perceptions of social mobility, beliefs about meritocracy, and perceptions of inequality as the main problem in Colombia.

More formally, for outcome  $Y_i$  of individual  $i$  we estimate:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \tau^{downstream} \times \mathbb{1}(\text{Class-based accents})_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathbb{1}(\text{Class-based accents})_i$  equals one if respondent  $i$  was exposed to tasks involving class-based accents and zero otherwise. Our coefficient of interest,  $\tau^{downstream}$ , estimates the causal effect on  $Y_i$  of making the differences in cultural and social resources more salient through class-based accents.

Since the leave-one-out experimental variations (BI to BIV) contain less information than versions A and C, we verify the robustness of our results by dropping such versions for the downstream effects analysis. We also run covariate-adjusted models that include a vector  $Z'_i$  of pretreatment individual characteristics, including sociodemographic variables (e.g., age, sex, income level) and other information about preferences and attitudes collected in the survey before the conjoint experiments, estimating fully saturated models (Lin, 2013) and selecting covariates that predict treatment effects with lasso covariate selection methods.

**High-class premium across borders.** We expect subjects to be less able to distinguish the subtle class differences of a foreigner’s accent than to recognize such differences in the local accent. Empirically, this means that the effect of “class” in accents should be smaller when respondents rate speakers with accents from different regions. Analytically, we test for the difference in coefficients with a difference-in-difference estimator by adding an interaction between the speaker’s accent and an indicator of whether it matches the respondent’s city of origin. We also account for the regional accent directly, which is of substantive interest. The following specification allows us to estimate the desired CATE:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ipt} = & \alpha_1 \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} + \alpha_2 \text{Chilean}_{ipt} + \\ & \alpha_3 \text{High-class accent}_{ipt} \times \text{Chilean}_{ipt} + X_{ipt}\beta + \varsigma_{ipt}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

---

<sup>21</sup>The reasons for not using a “neutral” accent as a control condition were explained above. The only potential drawback is that the “no audio” condition does not expose individuals to the cognitive process of listening to audible information. However, this process seems unlikely to influence our critical downstream outcomes, so we preferred this approach.

We chose a Chilean accent for the “migrant” or “foreigner” condition for a few reasons. First, like Colombia, Chile has high levels of inequality and social segregation, where cultural traits between social classes differ significantly, including language. Second, given the recent massive migration of Venezuelans throughout Latin America, particularly Colombia, we explicitly avoided using a Venezuelan accent. Venezuelans are also more culturally proximate to Colombians, and most recent migrants are of overwhelmingly low socioeconomic status. Finally, while Chileans may be relatively more distant culturally, there is enough shared history and cultural background to offer a valuable test of our central hypothesis.

### 3 RESULTS

We report results for four main analyses. First, we test the effect of high-class accents on outcomes relevant to quotidian interactions (perceptions of empathy of the speaker, trustworthiness, interest in forming a friendship with someone) and perceptions about a speaker’s place and likely success within the labor market (attitudes about starting a business with a given individual; who is most likely to be a boss; who is most likely to receive letter offering them a job; and who is more likely to receive a deferential letter offering them a job). For this first group of analyses, we use only the sample that completed version A of the conjoint experiment, which includes the full description of hypothetical individuals, including income and education level, among others. We also analyze heterogeneous treatment effects by respondents’ SES, and having been randomly assigned to receive the deferential letter.

Second, we estimate the effects of class-based accents on a broader set of outcomes. To do so, compare individuals assigned to conjoint exercises that included audio snippets with class-based accents and a control group that performed the same task using only text-based descriptions of profiles, without access to the audio snippets signaling speakers’ class.

Third, we present results from the ‘leave-one-out’ exercises and mediation analyses, which help us determine whether accents serve as signals of economic or human capital, or if they operate through other channels.

Finally, we examine how migration may reduce barriers for those with low-class accents given that natives may have difficulty distinguishing between accents and, therefore, may be unable to discriminate against foreigners with lower-class accents. We take advantage of the fact that respondents in Bogotá were randomly assigned to perform choice tasks involving accents from either Bogotá or Chile that vary class-based accent, as well.

**The “Full” Conjoint Experiment.** We begin by estimating the population AMCE for the conjoint experiment with full information (version A), analyzing the effect of high-class accent on quotidian interactions and labor market outcomes. Figure A.5 shows the point estimates for accents, as well as other intertwined forms of capital such as income and education (Table A.4 provides estimates and associated standard errors). We restrict the sample to respondents from Bogotá evaluating accents of other *Bogotanos*, excluding profiles with Chilean accents, which are used to examine high-class accents across borders (results presented below).

Across all outcomes, hypothetical subjects with a high-class accent are preferred over those with a lower-class accent. The effects are large and highly statistically significant. Recall that these effects net out the association that individuals may make between class, income, and education since these attributes are also randomized and provided as information in the task.

Focusing on outcomes related to quotidian interactions, we find that hypothetical subjects with high-class-sounding accents are nearly 6 to 14 percentage points more likely to be perceived as empathetic (panel a) and trustworthy (panel b), respectively. They are also more likely to be preferred as friends (panel c) by more than 13 percentage points. These effects are statistically significant and are in many cases larger than the estimated effects for education and income.

We also find impressive premiums for those with high-class accents in labor market interactions. Profiles with a high-class accent are 11.5 and 12 percentage points more likely to be chosen when respondents are asked about starting a business (panel d) and sharing a workplace (panel e), respectively. Regarding second-order beliefs about the labor market, respondents in our sample perceive a clear premium for high-class accent speakers: respondents are 10 percentage points more likely to think that the speaker could be their boss (panel f) and 15 percentage points more likely to believe that s/he received the letter offering the candidate a job interview (panel g). Compared to estimated effects for other desirable attributes in work and business relationships, these effects are substantial. To take one example, the impact of high class is 78% as large as the effect of having a bachelor's degree on preferences for starting a business.

Figure 4 provides the corresponding marginal means for the conjoint with full information (version A). It shows the nearly universal premium assigned to high-class accents across outcomes, regardless of different combinations of profiles' educational attainment and income. Low-class accents only have effects similar to those of high-class accents when profiles feature high levels of income (more than \$4,200,000 Colombian pesos per month, roughly four times the minimum wage) and low levels of education, and mostly for work-related interactions. This may suggest the existence of stereotypes in our setting where individuals with lower levels of education but high income (e.g., successful entrepreneurs who abandoned their studies to strike out on their own) are valued on an interpersonal level and in the labor market, despite their lower-class accent.

Next, in Table 3 we ask whether a particular socioeconomic subgroup drives preferences for high-class accents, using principal component analysis (PCA) to measure SES.<sup>22</sup> In our PAP we hypothesized that the preference for high-class accents would be greatest among low SES respondents, but do not find evidence to support this hypothesis.<sup>23</sup> The effects of high-class accents are positive and statistically significant for both low and high SES respondents, and we find no differences between them.

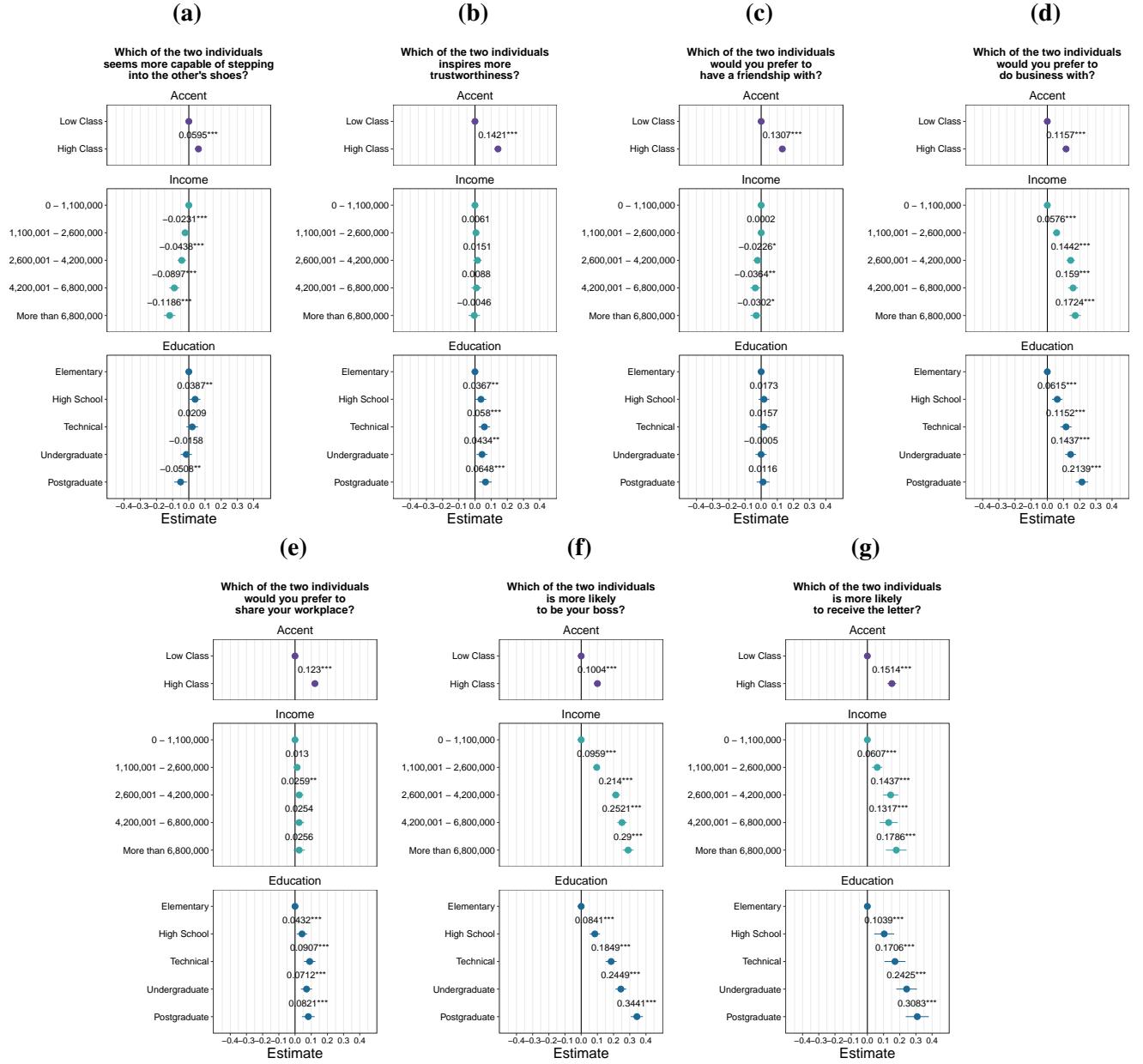
Finally, we examined how the results varied based on the perceived realism of the profiles. Although we incorporated the joint distributions of sex, income, and education into the randomization of profiles (see Appendix Table A.1), some profiles may still be perceived as unrealistic.

---

<sup>22</sup>This measure combines questions regarding income, wealth, and individuals' self-reported *estrato*, taken from their electricity bill. In Appendix Table we use only individuals' self-reported *estrato* to measure SES.

<sup>23</sup>We also estimate marginal means to account for differences in preferences across subgroups (see Appendix Table A.5).

**Figure 3: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A), Population Average Marginal Component Effects**



**Notes:** This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 3a to 3f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 3g is shown once per round. All panels include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. However, we present only estimates for accent, income and education. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*  $p < 0.1$ .

To assess this possibility, we included a social-class classification task in the pilot phase, where we asked respondents whether each profile seemed unrealistic. We used this information to predict a profile’s probability of being deemed unrealistic based on its attributes. Profiles in our exper-

iment were classified as realistic if they fell in the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of the predicted probability of being deemed realistic in the pilot. As shown in Appendix Tables A.19 and A.20, the identified high-class accent premium is observed only among profiles classified as realistic.

**Table 3: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A), heterogeneous treatment effects by respondents' SES**

	Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...						
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	inspires more confidence	would you prefer to do business?	would you prefer to have a friendship?	would you prefer to share your workplace?	is more likely to be your boss?	is more likely to receive the letter?
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
Accent: Class-Based	0.0557*** (0.0094)	0.1436*** (0.0093)	0.1098*** (0.0093)	0.1392*** (0.0094)	0.1239*** (0.0091)	0.1012*** (0.0088)	0.1486*** (0.0165)
<b>Socioeconomic Status (SES) - Baseline: High SES</b>							
SES: Low	-0.0015 (0.0096)	0.0008 (0.0095)	0.0076 (0.0092)	0.0096 (0.0096)	0.0026 (0.0094)	0.0115 (0.0091)	0.0143 (0.0169)
<b>Interaction</b>							
Accent: Class-Based × SES: Low	0.0130 (0.0159)	-0.0029 (0.0155)	0.0172 (0.0154)	-0.0237 (0.0158)	-0.0022 (0.0156)	-0.0035 (0.0151)	-0.0014 (0.0276)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>							
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	-0.0113 (0.0082)	0.0088 (0.0081)	0.0514*** (0.0083)	0.0032 (0.0082)	0.0140* (0.0084)	0.0808*** (0.0083)	0.0502*** (0.0147)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	-0.0136 (0.0137)	0.0208 (0.0132)	0.1178*** (0.0133)	-0.0114 (0.0134)	0.0162 (0.0134)	0.1578*** (0.0129)	0.0814*** (0.0245)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	-0.0560*** (0.0163)	0.0077 (0.0161)	0.1251*** (0.0162)	-0.0280* (0.0162)	0.0236 (0.0161)	0.1790*** (0.0155)	0.0693** (0.0287)
Income: More than 6,800,000	-0.0722*** (0.0183)	0.0015 (0.0182)	0.1324*** (0.0181)	-0.0163 (0.0182)	0.0173 (0.0184)	0.2034*** (0.0172)	0.0874*** (0.0324)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
Education: High School	0.0406** (0.0163)	0.0245 (0.0159)	0.0366** (0.0156)	0.0129 (0.0163)	0.0326** (0.0162)	0.0512*** (0.0152)	0.0637** (0.0294)
Education: Technical	0.0192 (0.0178)	0.0427** (0.0171)	0.0833*** (0.0168)	0.0073 (0.0176)	0.0715*** (0.0175)	0.1426*** (0.0167)	0.1319*** (0.0319)
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0158 (0.0180)	0.0228 (0.0171)	0.1021*** (0.0169)	-0.0068 (0.0176)	0.0548*** (0.0175)	0.1893*** (0.0169)	0.1956*** (0.0319)
Education: Postgraduate	-0.0334 (0.0206)	0.0381* (0.0199)	0.1281*** (0.0194)	0.0035 (0.0203)	0.0555*** (0.0206)	0.2307*** (0.0192)	0.2489*** (0.0366)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex: Female	0.0607*** (0.0077)	0.1045*** (0.0077)	0.0709** (0.0075)	0.0982*** (0.0078)	0.0805*** (0.0077)	0.0723*** (0.0073)	0.0785*** (0.0133)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Experience: Average	0.0107 (0.0082)	0.0352*** (0.0081)	0.0575*** (0.0079)	0.0103 (0.0081)	0.0309*** (0.0083)	0.0683*** (0.0078)	0.0409*** (0.0147)
Experience: High	0.0172** (0.0083)	0.0438*** (0.0080)	0.0881*** (0.0081)	0.0247*** (0.0081)	0.0447*** (0.0083)	0.1073*** (0.0079)	0.0967*** (0.0150)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Big 5: Generous	0.1912*** (0.0115)	0.1868*** (0.0115)	0.0993*** (0.0112)	0.1386*** (0.0112)	0.1311*** (0.0113)	0.0502*** (0.0111)	0.0750*** (0.0201)
Big 5: Persistent	-0.0070 (0.0118)	0.0785*** (0.0115)	0.1373*** (0.0116)	-0.0273** (0.0117)	0.0578*** (0.0117)	0.1050*** (0.0110)	0.1088*** (0.0199)
Big 5: Calm	0.0833*** (0.0117)	0.1075** (0.0114)	0.0947** (0.0113)	0.0373*** (0.0115)	0.0920*** (0.0114)	0.0682*** (0.0111)	0.0773*** (0.0202)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0477*** (0.0117)	0.0826*** (0.0113)	0.1169*** (0.0111)	0.0530*** (0.0114)	0.0846*** (0.0114)	0.0593*** (0.0110)	0.1104*** (0.0200)
Observations	9,440	9,434	9,436	9,432	9,430	9,426	2,754
R <sup>2</sup>	0.03322	0.05924	0.06253	0.04669	0.03858	0.09842	0.09381

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

Table 4 provides results for the deferential treatment experiment.<sup>24</sup> In line with our hypotheses, we find that respondents believe that a job offer is likely to be extended to the profile with a high-class accent (column 1), and that a deferential letter is more likely to be received by a speaker with a high-class accent (column 2). Contrary to our hypothesis, however, we do not find that low SES respondents—whether measured using the *estrato* on a respondent's electricity bill (column 3) or PCA (column 4)—were more likely to believe that a speaker with a high-class accent would have

<sup>24</sup>These analyses are limited to Bogotanos evaluating profiles with Bogotá accents, excluding those with Chilean accents.

received the deferential letter.

Figure 5 provides a graphical representation of these estimates. It shows that a high-class accent alone increases by 15 percentage points the likelihood that respondents attribute a letter to a given profile. The combination of a high-class accent with a deferential letter increases by an additional 2.8 percentage points the likelihood that respondents believe the letter was intended for that profile, suggesting that class-based accent cues interact with linguistic style to enhance perceptions of likely labor market success for those with high-class accents. Even when deferential language is not used, the high-class profile is still associated with a higher likelihood of receiving the letter (an increase of 12.4 percentage points when compared to a low-class accent), although the premium is smaller than in the prior two cases.<sup>25</sup>

**Table 4: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A) for the deferential letter experiment and heterogeneous treatment effects by SES**

	Dependent variable: Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Accent: High Class	0.1482*** (0.0132)	0.1242*** (0.0184)	0.1307*** (0.0229)	0.1211*** (0.0231)
Letter: Deferential.		-0.0280* (0.0160)	-0.0258 (0.0197)	-0.0331* (0.0196)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential.		0.0476* (0.0259)	0.0356 (0.0324)	0.0532* (0.0323)
SES: Low			0.0184 (0.0238)	0.0100 (0.0237)
Accent: High Class x SES: Low			-0.0195 (0.0382)	0.0073 (0.0380)
Letter: Deferential x SES: Low			-0.0071 (0.0338)	0.0147 (0.0341)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential x SES: Low			0.0363 (0.0538)	-0.0150 (0.0541)
Observations	2,754	2,754	2,754	2,748
R <sup>2</sup>	0.09375	0.09431	0.09487	0.09594

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The dependent variable reported in this table is defined as follows. The variable takes the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. However, the dependent variable is shown only one time per round. Column 1 presents estimates for our factor variable of interest, *accent*, including all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in column 2 follow the specification in equation 3. Column 3 and 4 include double and triple interaction terms of the respondent's Socio-Economic Strata (SES). We proxy SES by using information on the electricity statement and through a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) using information on the electricity statement, number of members in the household, and total household income. Column 3 uses the electricity SES metric, and column 4 uses the PCA SES metric. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022). Results presented in this table correspond to the "Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos" subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1. Table A.7 and Table A.8 in Appendix A present the estimates for all control factors using different metrics of respondent SES.

<sup>25</sup>As the largest curly bracket indicates, the difference between these two estimates is statistically significant at conventional levels.

**Downstream effects.** The previous section demonstrates the effects of class-based accents on several types of interpersonal relations, from friendships to professional relationships, and on subjects' expectations concerning professional success. We now examine whether making class-based accents more salient through simple exposure to our audios has any downstream effects on beliefs about how society functions.

As a preliminary validity check for this approach, we compare the comments made by subjects in an open-ended question asked after listening to class-based accents in the conjoint tasks (versions A and B) to those in which subjects completed the conjoint tasks without any audio (version C). We used ChatGPT-4o to explore topic prevalence.<sup>26</sup> In a critical manipulation check to ensure the audios were salient, a word-count frequency analysis revealed that the terms “voice” (275 times) and “audios” (233 times) were very frequent in the tasks with class-based accents, but absent when all information was provided via text. We also asked ChatGPT to use topic modeling (Latent Dirichlet Allocation), and the results indicated that a topic for the audio-based surveys is well described with the keywords: voice, confidence, person, audios, accents, tone, voices, accent, can, listen (translated from the original Spanish responses).

Digging deeper into the differences between the two “treatment groups,” we examined the relative frequency of comments on social mobility by subjects who heard the class-based accents. The model identified 10 comments on this topic (out of 4,543), or 0.22%. Subjects who heard no audio snippets wrote a total of 696 comments, none of which ChatGPT considered related to social mobility.<sup>2728</sup> We also explored the relative frequency of informal terms to denote class-based accents in Bogotá (such as “ñero” for lower classes and “gomelo” for higher classes). Subjects listening to class-based accents mentioned these terms 9 times (0.20%), while those in the no-audio condition did not mention them at all.<sup>29</sup> More broadly, the topic of social class appeared in 50

---

<sup>26</sup>The set of prompts we used and the full interaction with the model are available here: <https://chatgpt.com/share/2a22249c-09f2-4444-b69e-5ea852e72672>.

<sup>27</sup>The difference in the number of comments is likely due to the larger number of subjects assigned to versions A (50% of the sample) and B (40%).

<sup>28</sup>The comments mention aspects such as personal and national progress, the importance of knowledge and the opportunities provided by the state, and the need for collective effort to achieve social mobility. Some example comments include the following:

- “I thought about my work context where, in general, my bosses have been women with high educational levels. I also thought about the social mobility I experienced. Although I had little chance of going to university and no one in my family had gone, I was able to do it thanks to God and the opportunities provided by the State to reduce the inequality gap in Colombia.”
- “Social mobility is not achieved through individual effort; collective work is inevitably needed, and as long as privilege clouds our empathy, that mobility will be difficult.”

<sup>29</sup>The comments tend to address perceptions and stigmas associated with these terms, as well as the influence of accent and voice in the formation of prejudices. Examples include:

- “It made me aware of how just from a person’s accent, I can be a little cautious or form a preconceived image. Especially with the ‘gomelo’ accent, I don’t like it, and it makes me distrustful.”
- “Interesting, the way the audios play with people’s voices and accents. We often guide ourselves by that. I was struck by the ‘ñero’ voice because it makes one intuitively think of something bad.”

comments (1.10%) when respondents listened to class-based accents, and only in four comments (0.57%) in the no-audio condition.<sup>30</sup> Overall, these results suggest that subjects paid close attention to the audio snippets and that listening to class-based accents prompted listeners' awareness of social class divisions and their potential detrimental social effects.<sup>31</sup>

We now turn to the results. Table 5 shows the estimated difference in means between respondents assigned to conjoint versions that included audios with class-based accents and those who completed conjoint tasks based only on written information. Since versions A and B presented respondents with different amounts of information, Panel A compares all respondents who listened to an audio (groups A and B in Figure 1) with those who did not (group C, referred to as the control group), while Panel B limits the comparison to A vs. C only.

We find that individuals in the treatment exhibit a higher average level of familism—that is, they are more trusting of relatives close to their intimate circle and less trusting of strangers (column 1). While these results are consistent with our expectations, we observe no effects on another commonly used measure of interpersonal trust—the perceived likelihood that a lost wallet will be returned (column 6).

Additionally, we find that the treatment reduces not only social trust but also trust in the government, though this result is statistically significant only when comparing the control group with the group receiving the full version of the conjoint (column 8, Panel B). Contrary to our expectations, we do not find any effects on attitudes related to optimism about the economic future, perceptions of social mobility, and meritocracy (see columns 10-12).

Finally, respondents who listened to class-based accents are between 3.1 and 3.5 percentage points more likely (for A+B vs. C and A vs. C comparisons, respectively) to rank inequality as the top problem to address in Colombia. This occurs at the expense of viewing unemployment as the most pressing issue in the country.

We also examine how these effects vary with respondents' socioeconomic status (SES)—note that we are not arguing that SES causes the effect. The results of the estimated heterogeneous effects are in Appendix Table A.15. While the results for interpersonal and institutional trust are less conclusive, increased concern for inequality is primarily found among respondents with low

---

<sup>30</sup>The comments tend to be more detailed and specific compared to those in the surveys without audio. Example comments include:

- “The different nationalities in the audios made me think that we have more trust in the first-world foreigner and the conditioning I have or we have towards the accent of the socioeconomic class, mainly because of the fact of not relating, in some cases, income and education.”
- “There are some questions that you don’t know how to approach without being subjective and not interfering with my family values, e.g., if I personally find something that isn’t mine, regardless of its content, it will always be returned. Just as the reason a person might achieve higher purchasing power, from my personal and family experience, has always been through effort. However, ignoring the perception of public opinion, the facts, and the history of our country is a reality that climbing in socioeconomic strata when coming from vulnerable areas can lead to more difficulties.”

<sup>31</sup>We find few differences in sentiment and in topics such as education, fairness, or classism.

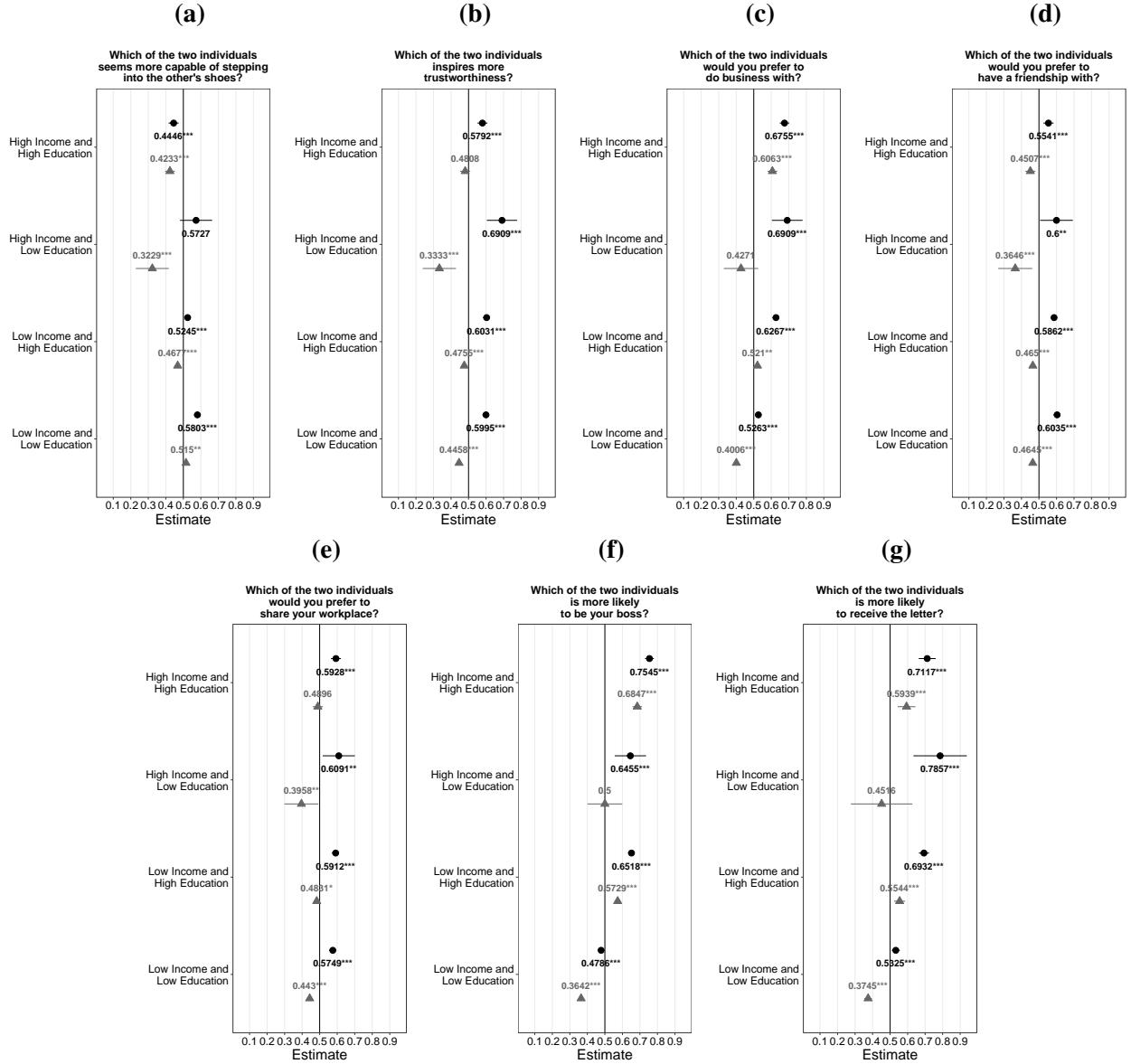
SES.

Overall, the evidence indicates that class-based accents make individuals less trusting of strangers and more concerned about issues of inequality. However, we fail to find statistically significant differences for other outcomes theoretically likely to be affected by accents. We do not believe these are due to a lack of statistical power (see the power analysis preregistered in our pre-analysis plan in Appendix B). We now explore whether including pre-treatment covariates as controls can reduce variance and increase the statistical power of our tests. To do so, we rely on lasso selector models, as explained above. We report these tests in Appendix Table A.13. While the effect of reduced trust in the government becomes significant for both sets of comparisons, the outcomes for which we find effects remain unchanged.<sup>32</sup>

---

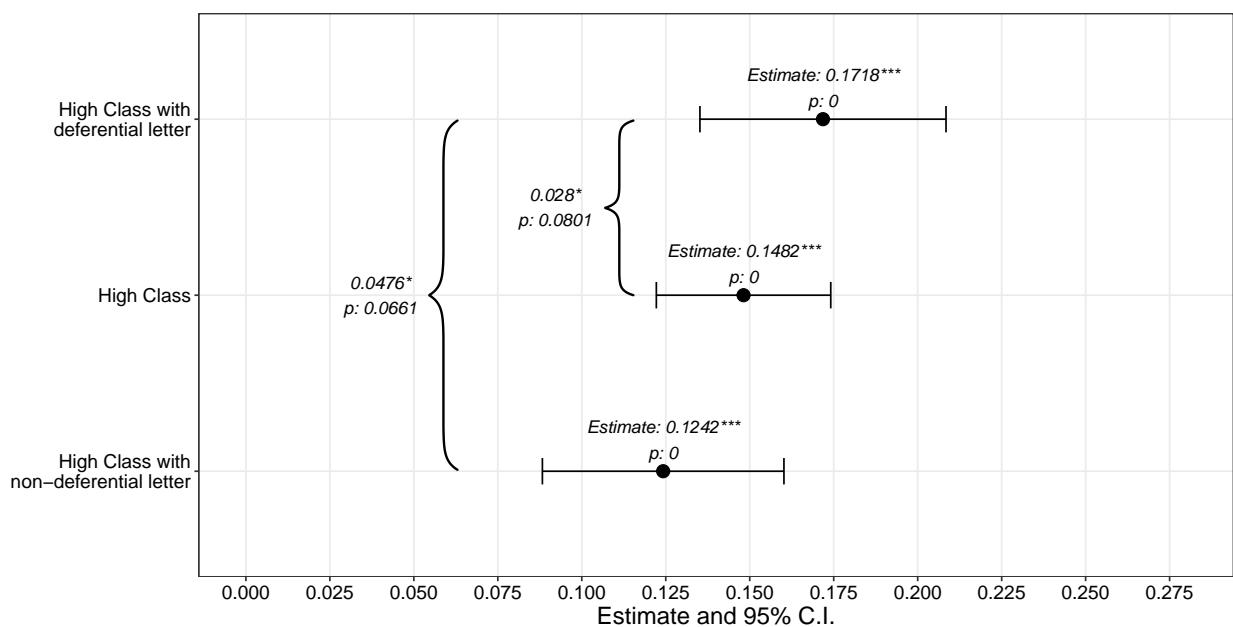
<sup>32</sup>This is not surprising, as we do not detect statistically significant differences in respondent characteristics between experimental conditions based on conjoint versions (see Table A.3).

**Figure 4: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A)**  
**Marginal means**



**Note:** Estimates for low class accent are shown in light colored triangles, while estimates for high class accent are shown darker colored circles. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 4a to 4f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 4g is shown once per round. All panels include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. However, we present only estimates for accent, income and education. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **Marginal Means (MM)** estimator. We define high income as all the profiles with more than \$4,200,000, and low income as all the profiles with income lower than \$2,600,007. Similarly, we define high education as profiles with undergraduate and postgraduate education, and low education as profiles with elementary and high school education. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1. **population AMCE (pAMCE)** estimates of the difference of high and low class accents are presented in Figure A.10.

**Figure 5: Comparison of point estimates for conjoint tasks with full information (version A) for the deferential letter experiment**



**Notes:** This figure reports the estimates for the high class premia across our deferential letter treatment. Coefficients reported in this figure correspond to the estimates itself or a lineal combination of estimates in [Table 4](#). The “high Class” coefficient reported correspond to the first column in [Table 4](#). The “High Class with non-deferential letter” coefficient corresponds to the second column coefficient of high-class accent. The “High Class with deferential letter” corresponds to the linear combination of the high-class accent and the double interaction term of column 2 in [Table 4](#). In curly brackets we present the estimate and p value of the difference in our highlighted estimates. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table 5: Downstream effects**

	Dependent variable:															
	How much do you trust the following groups of people:					How much do you trust the following institutions:					Main problem in Colombia					
	Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
<i>Panel A. A+B vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.102** (0.04)	0.046 (0.04)	0.079* (0.04)	-0.077* (0.04)	0.012 (0.04)	0.031 (0.05)	-0.048 (0.04)	-0.079 (0.05)	-0.008 (0.05)	0.048 (0.04)	-0.002 (0.04)	0.006 (0.02)	0.003 (0.01)	-0.042** (0.02)	0.031* (0.02)	0.012 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	5,886	5,864	5,871	5,762	5,857	5,850	5,898	5,858	5,861	5,489	5,855	5,626	5,925	5,925	5,925	5,925
R <sup>2</sup>	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000
<i>Panel B. A vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.093** (0.04)	0.042 (0.04)	0.059 (0.04)	-0.090* (0.05)	0.017 (0.04)	0.050 (0.05)	-0.060 (0.04)	-0.089* (0.05)	-0.022 (0.05)	0.048 (0.03)	0.007 (0.04)	0.015 (0.02)	0.000 (0.02)	-0.050** (0.02)	0.035* (0.02)	0.019 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	3,579	3,567	3,574	3,505	3,559	3,558	3,585	3,564	3,559	3,341	3,566	3,421	3,602	3,602	3,602	3,602
R <sup>2</sup>	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); And *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Causal mechanisms.** We now present the causal mechanisms effects following the methods described in Section 2.3.<sup>33</sup> Figure 6 decomposes the Average Total Effect (ATE) of accents (in the inferred income arm where this variable is not observed) as the sum of two crucial terms: the Average Controlled Direct Effect at a particular income level and the remaining difference or Eliminated Effect. We show this for all our conjoint task outcomes in panels (a) to (g) and for two income levels in the different rows (grouped into low and middle income versus high income).

The first and most crucial takeaway is that the Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) of a high-class accent while holding income fixed is always positive and statistically significant at conventional levels. Take, for instance, the results in panel (a) for the profiles' perceived empathy (the ability to step into others' shoes). At low- and middle-income levels, the ACDE lies slightly above the ATE and implies a direct effect of over 5%. At high-income levels, the ACDE and ATE are again very close to each other, but the ACDE is now somewhat smaller and close to 4%. In sum, the preponderance of the high-class accent premium for empathy is a "direct" effect.

A second interesting result is that the Eliminated Effect is frequently (though not consistently) negative and significant at conventional levels. Recall that the Eliminated Effect aggregates two causal mechanisms: indirect effects (e.g., class-based accents influence income or beliefs about income, which influence outcomes) or causal interactions (e.g., how manipulating income can change the causal impact of class-based accents). Since it is impossible to separate these effects, the underlying reasons for the overall negative impact are open to interpretation. Take column (f), which looks at expectations concerning labor hierarchy. For low- to middle-income ranges, the Eliminated Effect is negative. This seems unlikely to reflect an indirect effect whereby a high-class accent hints at an income level which, in turn, affects the outcome. We know from previous results that income (and education) increase respondents' chances of expecting the depicted profile to be their boss. Respondents also understand that the higher class accent reflects higher socioeconomic status. Thus, this causal pathway would entail a positive Eliminated Effect (high-class accents lead to beliefs of higher income, which increase expectations that the profile might be one's boss). The negative effect may thus reflect a negative causal interaction. Causal interactions reflect the context in which a causal effect matters, instead of the causal pathway. In our context, it is plausible that providing respondents with information about income makes accents more (or less) salient. Furthermore, such information may further modify individuals' interpretation of the high-class accent. To provide one example, respondents may interpret a low-income individual with a high-class accent as someone who strives to mask their social background (an ability that respondents may value positively or negatively).

Similar conclusions emerge when we look at education as a causal mechanism in Figure 7. We again explore the results at two levels: the low and medium education group includes elementary,

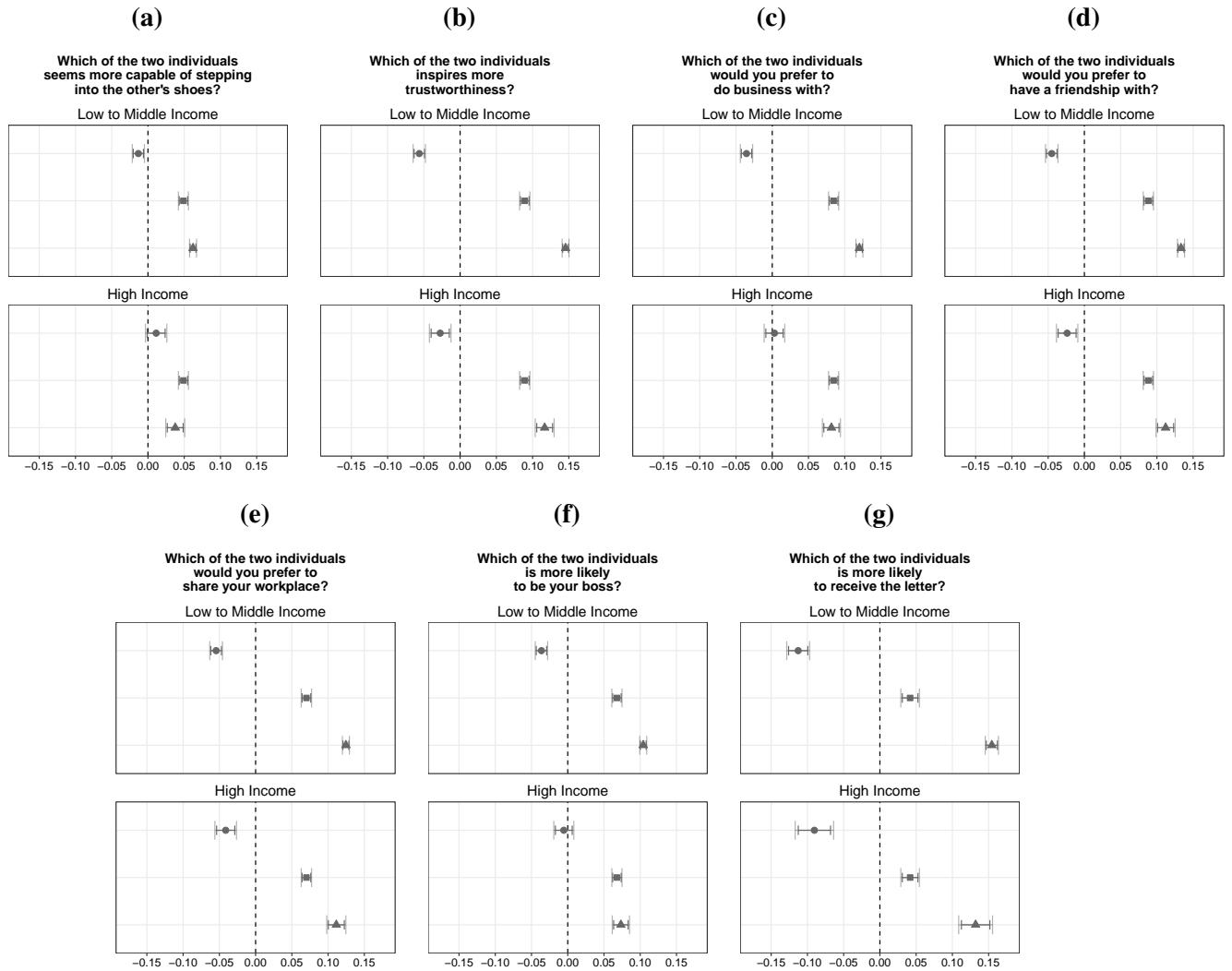
---

<sup>33</sup> Appendix Table A.10 presents the simple exploratory analysis comparing the impact of high-class accents in the "long" version conjoint tasks when the subjects enjoy full information (all profile attributes) relative to the 'short' versions when they do not observe education, income, or all leave-out attributes (education, income, and experience). We fail to confirm the expectation that coefficients in the short versions are larger than in the long version because the former partially captures the direct impact of accents and partly the impact of the inferred missing attributes. Instead, the pattern is typically either the opposite or the coefficients are not statistically different. Nevertheless, recall from our discussion in section 2.3 that this comparison admits many possible interpretations. We thus focus on our analysis following the "causal mechanism" approach of Acharya et al. (2018).

high school, and technical degrees, while the high level education group consists of profiles with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. Crucially, the ACDE of class-based accents, holding education fixed, is positive and significant for every one of our seven outcomes measuring everyday interactions and labor market performance. Class-based accents thus matter directly for these outcomes, not only because subjects use them to infer outcome-relevant income or education levels. The Eliminated Effect also suggests that causal mechanisms affect outcomes negatively.

In short, this section demonstrates that class-based accents matter for reasons beyond those involving education or income. This finding has profound implications. It suggests that unless we address the direct effects of class-based accents, socioeconomic disparities are likely to endure, even if we manage to narrow income and education gaps. Our interpretation is that such direct effects mainly reflect differences in cultural and social resources between social classes in a segregated society. Our analysis thus highlights the importance of not only discussing policy alternatives to reduce income and education disparities, but also disparities in access to social and cultural resources.

**Figure 6: Income as a causal mechanism for class-based accents**  
**Average Total Effect (ATE) =**  
**Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each income level**

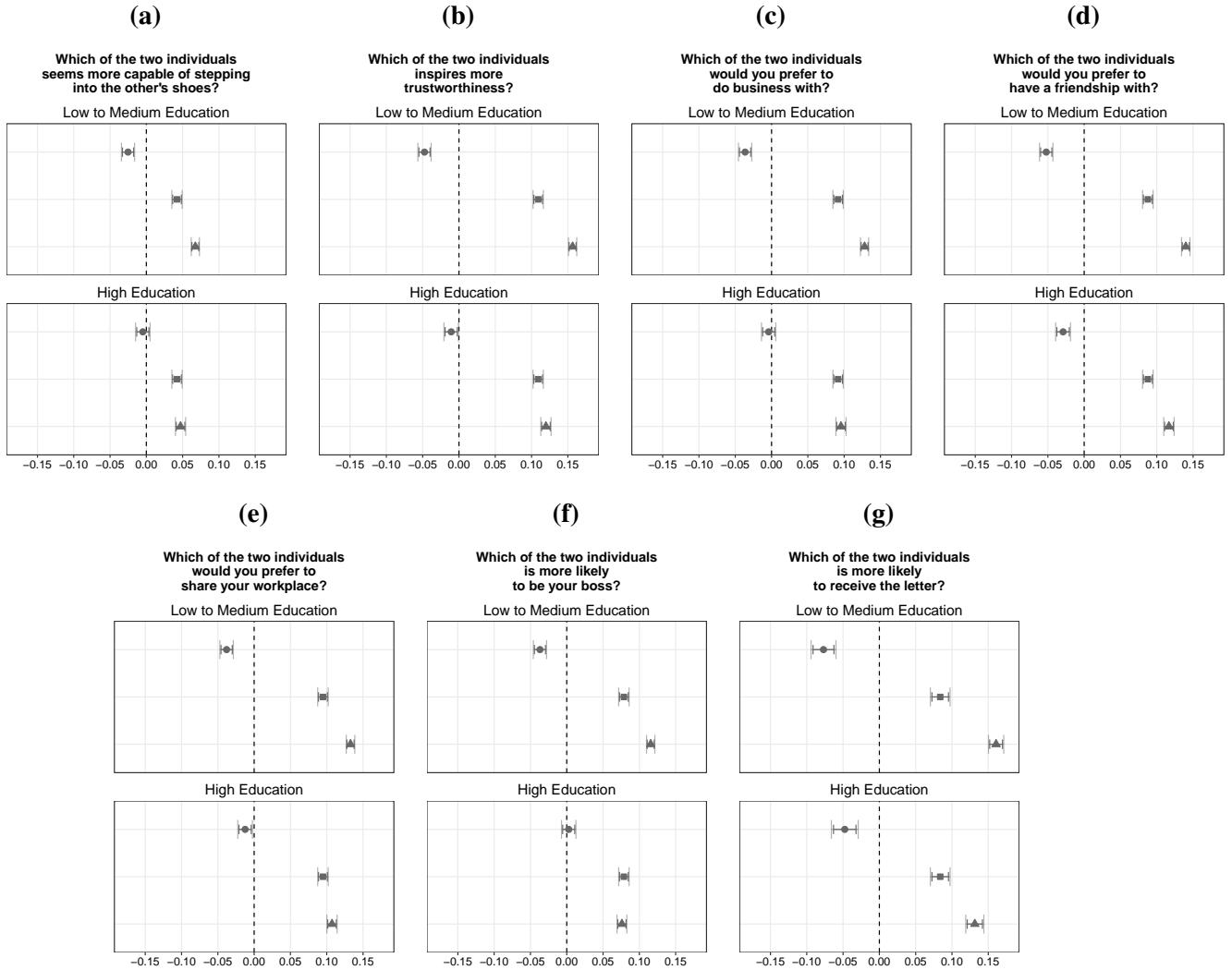


**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect** =  $\text{ATE} - \text{ACDE}$  are shown in **circles**. Estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in **squares**, while estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in **triangles**. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 6a to 6f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 6g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** estimator as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (darker line) and 90% (lighter line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications. Low and middle income correspond to profiles with income levels from 0 to 4.2M COP, and high income corresponds to profiles with 4.2M COP or more.

**Figure 7: Education as a causal mechanism for class-based accents (fixed to average experience)**

*Average Total Effect (ATE) =*

*Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each education level*



**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect** =  $\text{ATE} - \text{ACDE}$  are shown in circles. Estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in squares, while estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in triangles. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 7a to 7f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 7g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (PAMCE)** estimator as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (darker line) and 90% (lighter line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications. Low and medium levels of education correspond to profiles with elementary, high school and technical degrees, while high level includes those with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

**Discussion.** Our results demonstrate that high-class accents confer a distinct advantage in interpersonal relationships and labor market performance. Furthermore, we have found that merely highlighting class-based accents alters societal perceptions, deepening the trust disparity between close acquaintances and distant strangers while intensifying concerns about inequality. Crucially, these impacts, which potentially hinder the social mobility of lower-class individuals and undermine social cohesion, extend beyond mere reflections of income or educational disparities.

In this section, we interpret these findings and offer an interpretation underlying the relevance of class-based accents beyond income and educational differences. To do so, we follow Cárdenas et al. (2021) and group all forms of capital into four broad categories (see Table 6): economic, human, social, and cultural. These sources of inequality are intertwined and often inexorably linked, but it is feasible to distinguish between them analytically. Defining them is also helpful since different disciplines rely on subtly different definitions.

**Table 6: Forms of individual capital: Definitions**

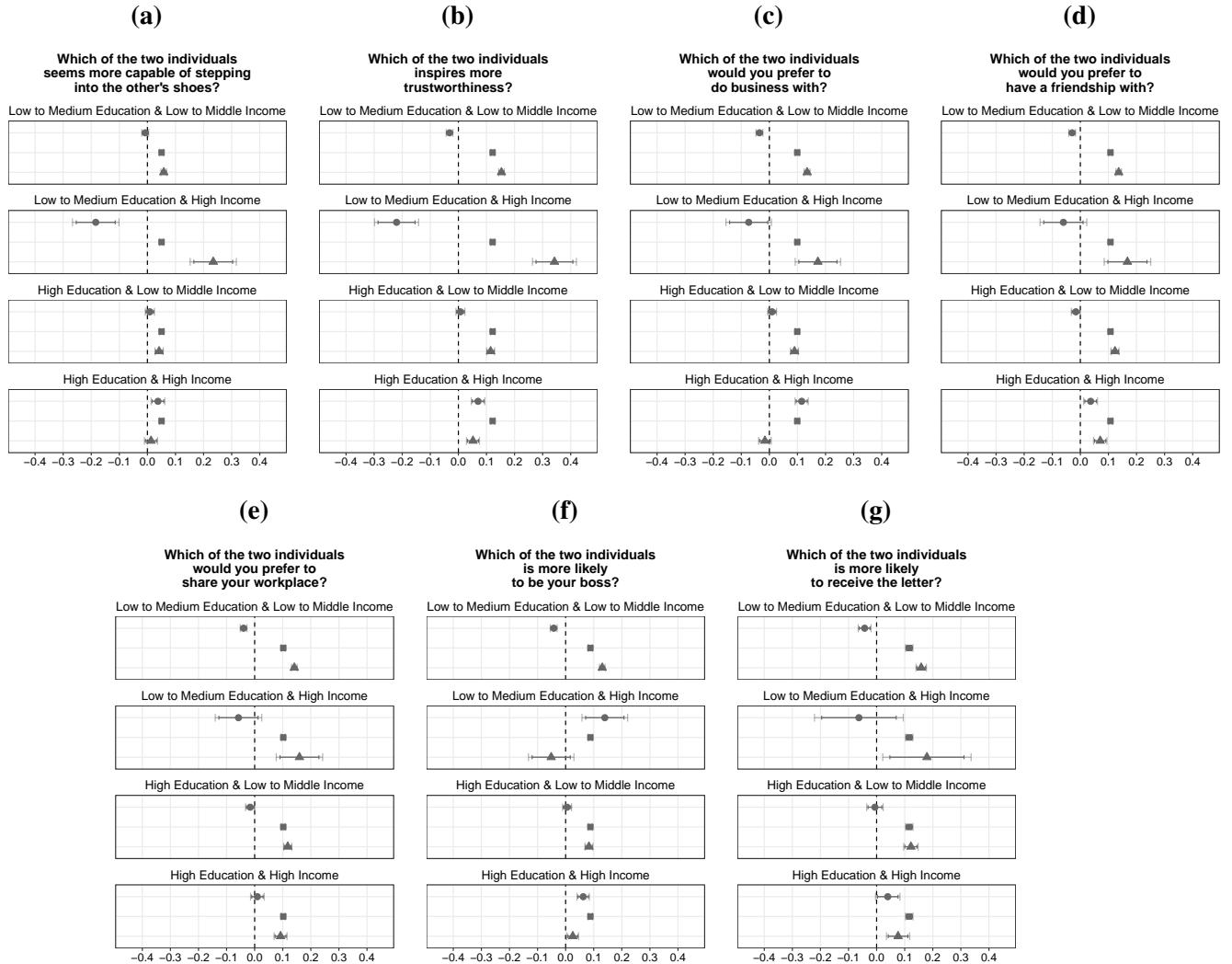
Type of capital	Definition	Nature
Economic	Set of assets that can be immediately and directly converted into money.	Material and non-social
Human	Knowledge, skills, and health that increase people's economic productivity.	Immaterial and non-social
Social	Value derived from having a network of relationships with others.	Immaterial and social
Cultural	Forms of knowledge, skills, and learned behaviors that give a person greater status.	

We conceive of *economic capital* as the set of assets that can be immediately and directly converted into money (Bourdieu, 1986). Although money is a social construct, the nature of this type of capital is non-social because, in an impersonal marketplace, \$100 buys \$100 worth of goods regardless of social relations. Also, notwithstanding digital currencies and other “immaterial” expressions of money, economic capital is capital in its most “material” form. *Human capital* consists of the knowledge, skills, and health that increase economic productivity. This form of capital is essentially immaterial, as are knowledge and skills. It is also non-social insofar as skills are helpful in an impersonal marketplace.

The focus of our study is *immaterial social assets* (Cárdenas et al., 2021), comprised of social and cultural capital. While *social capital* can be conceptualized at the community level, we focus on its individual dimension, capturing the value derived from having a specific network of relationships with others. Defined individually, its nature remains social because it is the economic or financial return from economically valuable interpersonal relationships, and the value of such relations is socially determined. *Cultural capital* comprises knowledge, skills, and learned behaviors that give a person higher status. These behaviors and abilities are “embedded” in norms conceding privilege and include items like the choice of vocabulary or etiquette. Cultural capital is also “objectified” in goods that (beyond mere economic value) demonstrate social prestige and are “institutionalized” via recognition bestowed by an institution (e.g., prestigious academic degrees

**Figure 8: Education and income as a causal mechanisms for class-based accents**

**Average Total Effect (ATE) =**  
**Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each education level**



**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect** =  $\text{ATE} - \text{ACDE}$  are shown in **circles**. Estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in **squares**, while estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in **triangles**. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 7a to 7f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 7g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** estimator as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (darker line) and 90% (lighter line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications. Low and medium levels of education correspond to profiles with elementary, high school and technical degrees, while high level includes those with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

or certifications). Cultural capital is also social since it confers an economic advantage only to the extent that society attributes value, prestige, or “distinction” to those behaviors and skills. Note also that while cultural capital may be objectified, it is not the object itself that confers value but how society interprets it. In our study, class-based accents capture the effects of these two critical dimensions of capital, while controlling for human and economic capital.

These multiple forms of capital share some basic features. In particular, one can invest in them, accumulating a resource that is typically not exhausted or consumed immediately, offering economic returns over several periods. Yet there are critical differences among them. Like cultural and social capital, human capital is also “immaterial.” We define it strictly to include the knowledge, skills, and training (formal or on-the-job experience) that *directly* contribute to a person’s economic productivity in a given activity, regardless of the social prestige conferred by that knowledge or those skills or a given occupation. For instance, connected to cultural and social capital, the prestige of a Harvard law degree reflects the value of sharing a common culture and the social circle of “Harvard law alumni”. Instead, the ability to prosecute effectively through training as a Harvard lawyer is human capital.

Sociologists have long argued that immaterial social assets are crucial to explaining the persistence and reproduction of socioeconomic inequality (e.g., [Bourdieu 1994](#); [Bennett et al. 2009](#)). In unequal and segregated societies, cultural tastes diverge between high and low social classes, resulting in differential and systematically structured access to opportunities ([Chan, 2010](#); [Breen and Goldthorpe, 1999](#); [Lareau and Weininger, 2003](#); [Rivera, 2012](#); [Rivera and Tilcsik, 2016](#)). Cultural capital allows some individuals to acquire a certain level of prestige within society, providing them with more potential pathways to success ([Reeves and De Vries, 2019](#)), including converting their cultural capital into social network ties or social capital ([Lewis and Kaufman, 2018](#)). Cultural capital and belonging to certain social circles thus constitute closely related “barriers to entry” for individuals who do not meet the standards of what is considered valuable by dominant social groups. These barriers confer differential access to opportunities, interacting with financial or economic capital to help consolidate and reproduce inequality.

We focus on accents as a crucial dimension that signals access to certain social groups, shaping individuals’ social capital, and sharing a particular culture that can result in differences in cultural capital (e.g., [Bourdieu 1991](#)). Accents serve as relevant cues to form impressions of individuals ([Fuertes et al., 2012](#)), thus affecting their access to social, political, and economic resources ([Gluszek and Dovidio, 2010](#)). Moreover, as [Popescu-Sarry \(2023\)](#) points out, socially constructing accent as a relevant “trait,” often associated with a social hierarchy, can legitimize attitudes toward specific target populations, limiting their opportunities for upward mobility.

Accents as a signal of social and cultural capital are also relevant to explaining in-group relationships and how boundaries between groups are defined. On the one hand, it increases cohesion among members of the same group ([Gonzales et al., 2010](#)) and acts as a form of commitment to them, which may be rewarded with social acceptance ([Van Swol and Kane, 2019](#)). On the other hand, differences in linguistic attributes between groups may reinforce negative stereotypes and prejudices, leading to discrimination ([Ng, 2007](#)).

In short, accent is a powerful signal of immaterial social assets; these are not merely a result of economic inequality but may also be a fundamental cause, shaping access to opportunity and people's beliefs and attitudes toward others. Empirically, we examine how accent, all else equal, shapes both attitudes about everyday encounters (perceptions of empathy of the speaker, trustworthiness, interest in forming a friendship with someone) and perceptions about a speaker's place and likely success within the labor market (attitudes about starting a business with a given individual; who is most likely to be a boss; who is most likely to receive letter offering them a job; and who is more likely to receive a deferential letter offering them a job).

**High-class premium across borders.** Does the premium of high-class accents transfer across contexts? To answer this question, we analyze how individuals' ability to distinguish class markers from foreign accents is undermined, thereby mitigating the large identified high-class accent premiums on individuals' preferences when interacting with others. As discussed in the introduction, much of the literature on migration emphasizes that it is often an economically attractive but culturally challenging avenue for upward mobility. However, class-based cultural differences add subtlety to this statement. Natives are less able to distinguish the relevant class-based cues (especially accent-based class cues) of migrants compared to those of natives. In many interactions, this could lead to more equitable perceptions and judgments of migrants of different social classes relative to natives of different social classes, given that accent no longer serves as a reliable indicator of social status.

Our core prediction is that the effect of a high-class accent will be attenuated when the profile includes a foreign accent. This prediction concerns the interaction between the foreign accent and the high-class accent. The direct effect of a foreign accent may be positive or negative, but this is not our focus. Indeed, in some cases, foreign accents may serve as indicators of competence, especially when associated with countries known for high standards of education, professional expertise, or other positive attributes. In other cases, the reverse may be true.<sup>34</sup> Of course, this may or may not eliminate or compensate for the potential dislike of migrants by natives. Nevertheless, this test may shed light on a potentially important and underappreciated benefit of low-class migration to highly unequal countries.

Empirically, we test whether the premium for having a high-class accent is smaller when natives evaluate profiles of foreigners for whom it may be impossible, or at least more difficult, to identify the class to which they belong based on their accent. The results are presented in Table 7. Here, we focus on the coefficient of the interaction between high-class and Chilean accents.<sup>35</sup>

<sup>34</sup>If such traits are highly salient, class-based discrimination based on lower-class accents may be less pronounced because a respondent's focus will shift to differences in national origin. While we will not be able to adjudicate between this "salience" explanation and one based on cultural distance, our choice of a Chilean accent (as opposed to a Venezuelan accent, which is likely to elicit more immediate reactions given the recent intense waves of migration) is intended to capture mainly the latter effect.

<sup>35</sup>Having a Chilean accent in and of itself can have positive or negative effects, depending on the outcome. Indeed, we observe positive effects for Chilean profiles on work-related outcomes and negative effects on personal interactions such as perceived empathy. However, this is not the focus of our investigation. Moreover, these effects are likely to depend crucially on the specific national identity of the foreigners. For example, with the recent massive wave of Venezuelan migration, this group may be negatively stigmatized in Colombia, whereas foreigners from economically more advanced countries may be viewed favorably. Instead, our results on the reduced class-based premium for

As expected, the effect of high-class accents remains highly positive and statistically significant for Bogotanos. In contrast, the estimated interaction effect shows that the high-class premium is smaller for Chilean high-class speakers. Crucially, some of their estimated pAMCEs for high-class accents are now close to zero or remarkably small. No magnitude exceeds 2 points (compared to magnitudes for Bogotano high-class accents, which are more often above 11 points). This evidence suggests that migration may, at the margin, be an opportunity for lower-class citizens who move to highly segregated societies and are less likely to face discrimination or barriers based on their perceived socioeconomic status.

**Table 7: Heterogeneous effects by speaker's region (all covariates)**

Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...							
	Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Panel A. Full conjoint</b>							
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
High Class	0.0600*** (0.0076)	0.1423*** (0.0075)	0.1155*** (0.0074)	0.1307*** (0.0076)	0.1229*** (0.0074)	0.0997*** (0.0072)	0.1485*** (0.0132)
<b>Region - Baseline: Bogota</b>							
Chile	-0.0168** (0.0075)	0.0017 (0.0075)	0.0172** (0.0071)	0.0017 (0.0076)	0.0139* (0.0073)	0.0191*** (0.0070)	0.0148 (0.0131)
<b>Interaction - Accent × Region</b>							
High Class × Chile	-0.0476*** (0.0104)	-0.1172*** (0.0104)	-0.0949*** (0.0101)	-0.1153*** (0.0105)	-0.1100*** (0.0102)	-0.0766*** (0.0098)	-0.1310*** (0.0186)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0 - 1,100,000</b>							
1,100,001 - 2,600,000	-0.0114* (0.0058)	0.0098* (0.0058)	0.0503*** (0.0059)	0.0047 (0.0059)	0.0152*** (0.0058)	0.0843*** (0.0058)	0.0426*** (0.0106)
2,600,001 - 4,200,000	-0.0235** (0.0096)	0.0127 (0.0096)	0.1099*** (0.0097)	-0.0044 (0.0096)	0.0197** (0.0097)	0.1637*** (0.0095)	0.0778*** (0.0172)
4,200,001 - 6,800,000	-0.0342*** (0.0118)	0.0156 (0.0117)	0.1358*** (0.0116)	-0.0180 (0.0117)	0.0341*** (0.0116)	0.1936*** (0.0114)	0.0961*** (0.0207)
More than 6,800,000	-0.0708*** (0.0129)	-0.0060 (0.0130)	0.1390*** (0.0129)	-0.0188 (0.0129)	0.0202 (0.0132)	0.2172*** (0.0122)	0.0901*** (0.0233)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
High School	0.0180 (0.0114)	0.0309*** (0.0112)	0.0196* (0.0110)	0.0238** (0.0112)	0.0269** (0.0114)	0.0343*** (0.0108)	0.0545*** (0.0206)
Technical	0.0072 (0.0125)	0.0605*** (0.0122)	0.0801*** (0.0121)	0.0284** (0.0123)	0.0690*** (0.0125)	0.1265*** (0.0120)	0.1416*** (0.0225)
Undergraduate	-0.0279** (0.0127)	0.0366*** (0.0123)	0.0964*** (0.0123)	0.0083 (0.0124)	0.0553*** (0.0124)	0.1702*** (0.0122)	0.1886*** (0.0226)
Postgraduate	-0.0439*** (0.0144)	0.0554*** (0.0144)	0.1188*** (0.0140)	0.0224 (0.0144)	0.0678*** (0.0146)	0.2069*** (0.0140)	0.2338*** (0.0260)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex:Female	0.0787*** (0.0055)	0.0974*** (0.0055)	0.0595*** (0.0053)	0.0965*** (0.0057)	0.0732*** (0.0057)	0.0489*** (0.0052)	0.0644*** (0.0095)
Observations	43,652	43,632	43,614	43,604	43,604	43,626	12,616
Clusters	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns present results of estimating the specification in [equation 5](#) including our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1. [Table A.9](#) in Appendix A presents the estimates for all control factors.

## 4 CONCLUSION

In socioeconomically stratified societies, social class is a crucial determinant of access to opportunities, with accents serving as a powerful marker of class. Using online survey experiments with 6,000 participants in Bogotá, Colombia, we isolate the effect of accents from other factors, such as income and education, which correlate with social status. The design of our conjoint ex-

migrants should be more generalizable because they build on the relative cultural distance between nations.

periment also removes potentially confounding attributes, such as a speaker’s style of dress, body movements, and facial expressions, which could otherwise transmit signals that might contaminate the pure effect of class-based accents.

Our results reveal a strong preference for individuals with high-class accents, who are perceived as more empathetic, trustworthy, and likely to succeed in the labor market. Using methods proposed by [Acharya et al. \(2018\)](#), we test the extent to which accents may reflect the indirect impact of income and education rather than the accent’s direct effect. We find that high-class accents do indeed have direct impacts on our outcomes. Our analyses of preferences for foreign accents show that those with low-class accents may benefit from migration: the premium for possessing a high-class accent is much smaller among those with Chilean accents.

In our downstream effects analyses, we find that individuals who were randomly assigned to perform conjoint tasks that included audios cuing class-based accents, when compared to those reading otherwise similar descriptions of the hypothetical individuals (our control group), are less trusting of strangers and more trusting of those with familiar connections. Perhaps more importantly, respondents exposed to class-based accents are more likely to report that inequality is the most critical problem facing Colombia today. These findings suggest that inequality’s cultural and social dimensions affect a wide range of meaningful outcomes.

Our study underscores the critical role that class-based accents play in shaping access to social and economic opportunities. It also highlights the importance of interventions that could reduce the biases and barriers that class-based accents create and reinforce. One promising avenue may be creating spaces that foment contact among individuals possessing different accents. Another may be encouraging diverse representation of accents in media, advertising, and public communication, to normalize different ways of speaking and reduce negative stereotypes associated with culturally disadvantaged accents. For example, the BBC in the UK began introducing anchors with regional accents beyond Received Pronunciation (RP), also known as “Queen’s English,” aiming to diversify representation (e.g., [Eschner, 2020](#)). Programs that help individuals with lower-class accents build social capital and access opportunities otherwise hindered by accent-related biases may offer further pathways to equity.

While class-based segregation in Colombia, particularly in Bogotá, provides a useful context for examining the effects of accents on individuals’ attitudes and behaviors, the dynamics we observe are not confined to highly stratified societies in Latin America. Accents hold significance and influence in ways that transcend region. As noted above, Queen’s English in the United Kingdom has long been associated with class and status ([Crystal, 2022](#); [Hogenboom, 2018](#)). Additional evidence from countries such as Germany shows that accent preferences and biases are widespread and have substantial consequences for individuals’ social interactions and perceptions (e.g., [Rakić et al., 2011](#)). While our study focuses on Colombia, the implications of accents are relevant and observable in a wide variety of cultural and social settings.

## REFERENCES

- Acharya, A., Blackwell, M., and Sen, M. (2018). Analyzing causal mechanisms in survey experiments. *Political Analysis*, 26(4):357–378.
- Albertazzi, A., Lown, P., and Mengel, F. (2021). Personal relative position, attribution and social trust. *Attribution and Social Trust (February 19, 2021)*.
- Alesina, A., Stantcheva, S., and Teso, E. (2018). Intergenerational mobility and preferences for redistribution. *American Economic Review*, 108(2):521–54.
- Ambady, N. and Rosenthal, R. (1993). Half a minute: Predicting teacher evaluations from thin slices of nonverbal behavior and physical attractiveness. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 64(3):431.
- Banco Mundial (2021). Hacia la construcción de una sociedad equitativa en colombia. *Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento & Banco Mundial*.
- Banfield, E. C. (1958). *The Moral Basis of a Backward Society*. Free Press, Glencoe, IL.
- Bank, W. (2018). Taking on inequality: Poverty and shared prosperity 2016.
- Bartoš, V., Bauer, M., Chytilová, J., and Matějka, F. (2016). Attention discrimination: Theory and field experiments with monitoring information acquisition. *The American Economic Review*, 106(6):1437–75.
- Benet-Martínez, V. and John, O. P. (1998). Los cinco grandes across cultures and ethnic groups: Multitrait-multimethod analyses of the big five in spanish and english. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 75(3):729.
- Bennett, T., Savage, M., Silva, E. B., Warde, A., Gayo-Cal, M., and Wright, D. (2009). *Culture, class, distinction*. Routledge.
- Bertrand, M. and Duflo, E. (2017). Field experiments on discrimination. *Handbook of economic field experiments*, 1:309–393.
- Boas, T. C., Christenson, D. P., and Glick, D. M. (2020). Recruiting large online samples in the united states and india: Facebook, mechanical turk, and qualtrics. *Political Science Research and Methods*, 8(2):232–250.
- Bohren, J. A., Haggag, K., Imas, A., and Pope, D. G. (2023). Inaccurate statistical discrimination: An identification problem. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, pages 1–45.
- Bourdieu, P. (1979). *La distinction. Critique sociale du jugement*. Paris, éd. de Minuit.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education*, pages 241–258. Greenwood.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Harvard University Press.

- Bourdieu, P. (1994). Social space and symbolic space. In *Contemporary Sociological Theory*, pages 354–358.
- Breen, R. and Goldthorpe, J. H. (1999). Class inequality and meritocracy: a critique of saunders and an alternative analysis1. *The British journal of sociology*, 50(1):1–27.
- Brunori, P., Ferreira, F. H., and Neidhöfer, G. (2023). Inequality of opportunity and intergenerational persistence in Latin America. *Latin America and Caribbean Inequality Review*, WORKING PAPER 109.
- Cárdenas, J. C., Fergusson, L., and Villegas, M. G. (2021). *La quinta puerta: de cómo la educación en Colombia agudiza las desigualdades en lugar de remediarlas*. Ariel.
- Carranza, R., De Rosa, M., and Flores, I. (2023). Wealth inequality in Latin America. *Latin America and Caribbean Inequality Review*, WORKING PAPER 91.
- Cavaille, C. (2023). *FAIR ENOUGH?: Support for Redistribution in the Age of Inequality*. Cambridge University Press.
- Chan, T. W. (2010). *Social status and cultural consumption*. Cambridge University Press.
- Chetty, R., Dobbie, W. S., Goldman, B., Porter, S., and Yang, C. (2024). Changing opportunity: Sociological mechanisms underlying growing class gaps and shrinking race gaps in economic mobility. Technical report, National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Chetty, R., Hendren, N., and Katz, L. F. (2016). The effects of exposure to better neighborhoods on children: New evidence from the moving to opportunity experiment. *American Economic Review*, 106(4):855–902.
- Chetty, R., Hendren, N., Kline, P., and Saez, E. (2014). Where is the land of opportunity? the geography of intergenerational mobility in the united states. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 129(4):1553–1623.
- Colombia Reports (2019). Education statistics. Accessed: 2024-06-20.
- Crowne, D. P. and Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of consulting psychology*, 24(4):349.
- Crystal, D. (2022). Received pronunciation: Old and new. Accessed: 2024-08-27.
- De la Cuesta, B., Egami, N., and Imai, K. (2022). Improving the external validity of conjoint analysis: The essential role of profile distribution. *Political Analysis*, 30(1):19–45.
- de la Cuesta, B., Egami, N., and Imai, K. (2022). Improving the external validity of conjoint analysis: The essential role of profile distribution. *Political Analysis*, 30(1):19–45.
- de la O, A., Rossel, C., and Manzi, P. (2023). Opting out from public services and the social contract in Latin America. *Latin America and Caribbean Inequality Review*, WORKING PAPER 127.

- Egami, N. (2022). R package factorex: Design and analysis for factorial experiments. <https://github.com/naoki-egami/factorEx>.
- Eschner, K. (2020). How a north england voice overturned the bbc tradition. Accessed: 2024-08-27.
- Eslava, F. and Valencia Caicedo, F. (2023). Origins of latin american inequality. *Latin America and Caribbean Inequality Review*, WORKING PAPER 95.
- Ewens, M., Tomlin, B., and Wang, L. C. (2014). Statistical discrimination or prejudice? a large sample field experiment. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 96(1):119–134.
- Fergusson, L. (2019). Who wants violence? the political economy of conflict and state building in colombia. *Cuadernos de Economía*, 38(78):671–699.
- Fuertes, J. N., Gottdiener, W. H., Martin, H., Gilbert, T. C., and Giles, H. (2012). A meta-analysis of the effects of speakers' accents on interpersonal evaluations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 42(1):120–133.
- Gluszek, A. and Dovidio, J. F. (2010). The way they speak: A social psychological perspective on the stigma of nonnative accents in communication. *Personality and social psychology review*, 14(2):214–237.
- Gonzales, A. L., Hancock, J. T., and Pennebaker, J. W. (2010). Language style matching as a predictor of social dynamics in small groups. *Communication Research*, 37(1):3–19.
- Grow, A., Perrotta, D., Del Fava, E., Cimentada, J., Rampazzo, F., Gil-Clavel, S., Zagheni, E., Flores, R. D., Ventura, I., Weber, I., et al. (2021). How reliable is facebook's advertising data for use in social science research? insights from a cross-national online survey. *Planck Institute for Demographic Research*. <https://www.demogr.mpg.de/papers/working/wp-2021-006.pdf>. Zugegriffen, 13.
- Hainmueller, J., Hangartner, D., and Yamamoto, T. (2015). Validating vignette and conjoint survey experiments against real-world behavior. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(8):2395–2400.
- Hainmueller, J., Hopkins, D. J., and Yamamoto, T. (2014). Causal inference in conjoint analysis: Understanding multidimensional choices via stated preference experiments. *Political analysis*, 22(1):1–30.
- Hall, S. (1980). Encoding/decoding. In *Culture, Media, Language*, pages 128–138. Routledge.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states*, volume 25. Harvard university press.
- Hogenboom, M. (2018). What does your accent say about you? Accessed: 2024-08-27.
- Kinzler, K. D., Shutts, K., DeJesus, J., and Spelke, E. S. (2009). Accent trumps race in guiding children's social preferences. *Social cognition*, 27(4):623–634.

- Kraus, M. W., Torrez, B., Park, J. W., and Ghayebi, F. (2019). Evidence for the reproduction of social class in brief speech. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(46):22998–23003.
- Kühne, S. and Zindel, Z. (2020). Using facebook and instagram to recruit web survey participants: A step-by-step guide and application. *Survey Methods: Insights from the Field (SMIF)*.
- Kuziemko, I., Norton, M. I., Saez, E., and Stantcheva, S. (2015). How elastic are preferences for redistribution? evidence from randomized survey experiments. *American Economic Review*, 105(4):1478–1508.
- Labov, W. (1963). The social motivation of a sound change. *Word*, 19(3):273–309.
- Labov, W. (1972). The social stratification of (r) in new york city department stores. In *Sociolinguistic Patterns*, pages 43–64. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia.
- Labov, W. (2006). *The social stratification of English in New York city*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lamont, M. (1992). Implications, contributions and unanswered questions. In *Money, Morals and Manners*, pages 174–192. University of Chicago Press.
- Lareau, A. and Weininger, E. B. (2003). Cultural capital in educational research: A critical assessment. *Theory and society*, 32:567–606.
- Leeper, T. J., Hobolt, S. B., and Tilley, J. (2020). Measuring subgroup preferences in conjoint experiments. *Political Analysis*, 28(2):207–221.
- Lewis, K. and Kaufman, J. (2018). The conversion of cultural tastes into social network ties. *American journal of sociology*, 123(6):1684–1742.
- Lin, W. (2013). Agnostic notes on regression adjustments to experimental data: Reexamining Freedman’s critique. *The Annals of Applied Statistics*, 7(1):295 – 318.
- Londoño-Vélez, J. (2022). The impact of diversity on perceptions of income distribution and preferences for redistribution. *Journal of Public Economics*, 214:104732.
- Lupu, N. and Pontusson, J. (2011). The structure of inequality and the politics of redistribution. *American Political Science Review*, 105(2):316–336.
- Neundorf, A. and Özürk, A. (2021). Recruiting research participants through facebook advertisements: A handbook. *OSF Preprints*.
- Ng, S. H. (2007). Language-based discrimination: Blatant and subtle forms. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 26(2):106–122.
- Petyt, K. M. (1985). *‘Dialect’ and ‘Accent’ in Industrial West Yorkshire*. John Benjamins Publishing.

- Popescu-Sarry, D. (2023). Discrimination without traits: From social construction to the politics of discrimination. *American Political Science Review*, pages 1–13.
- Rakić, T., Steffens, M. C., and Mummeney, A. (2011). When it matters how you pronounce it: The influence of regional accents on job interview outcome. *British Journal of Psychology*, 102(4):868–883.
- Reeves, A. and De Vries, R. (2019). Can cultural consumption increase future earnings? exploring the economic returns to cultural capital. *The British journal of sociology*, 70(1):214–240.
- Reynolds, W. M. (1978). Factor analysis of the marlowe-crowne social desirability scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 34(3):636–638.
- Reynolds, W. M. (1982). Development of reliable and valid short forms of the marlowe-crowne social desirability scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 38(1):119–125.
- Rivera, L. A. (2012). Hiring as cultural matching: The case of elite professional service firms. *American sociological review*, 77(6):999–1022.
- Rivera, L. A. and Tilcsik, A. (2016). Class advantage, commitment penalty: The gendered effect of social class signals in an elite labor market. *American Sociological Review*, 81(6):1097–1131.
- Rosenzweig, L., Bergquist, P., Pham, K. H., Rampazzo, F., and Mildenberger, M. (2020). Survey sampling in the global south using facebook advertisements. *SocArXiv*.
- Samuels, D. J. and Zucco, C. (2013). Using facebook as a subject recruitment tool for survey-experimental research. *Available at SSRN 2101458*.
- Sands, M. L. (2017). Exposure to inequality affects support for redistribution. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 114(4):663–668.
- Spence, J. L., Hornsey, M. J., Stephenson, E. M., and Imuta, K. (2024). Is your accent right for the job? a meta-analysis on accent bias in hiring decisions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 50(3):371–386.
- Stantcheva, S. (2022). How to run surveys: A guide to creating your own identifying variation and revealing the invisible. *Annual Review of Economics*.
- Todorov, A., Mandisodza, A. N., Goren, A., and Hall, C. C. (2005). Inferences of competence from faces predict election outcomes. *Science*, 308(5728):1623–1626.
- Trudgill, P. (1974). *Social Differentiation in English in Norwich*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Uribe-Mallarino, C. (2008). Estratificación social en bogotá: de la política pública a la dinámica de la segregación social. *Universitas humanistica*, (65):139–172.
- Van Swol, L. M. and Kane, A. A. (2019). Language and group processes: An integrative, interdisciplinary review. *Small Group Research*, 50(1):3–38.

Zhang, B., Mildenberger, M., Howe, P. D., Marlon, J., Rosenthal, S. A., and Leiserowitz, A. (2020). Quota sampling using facebook advertisements. *Political Science Research and Methods*, 8(3):558–564.

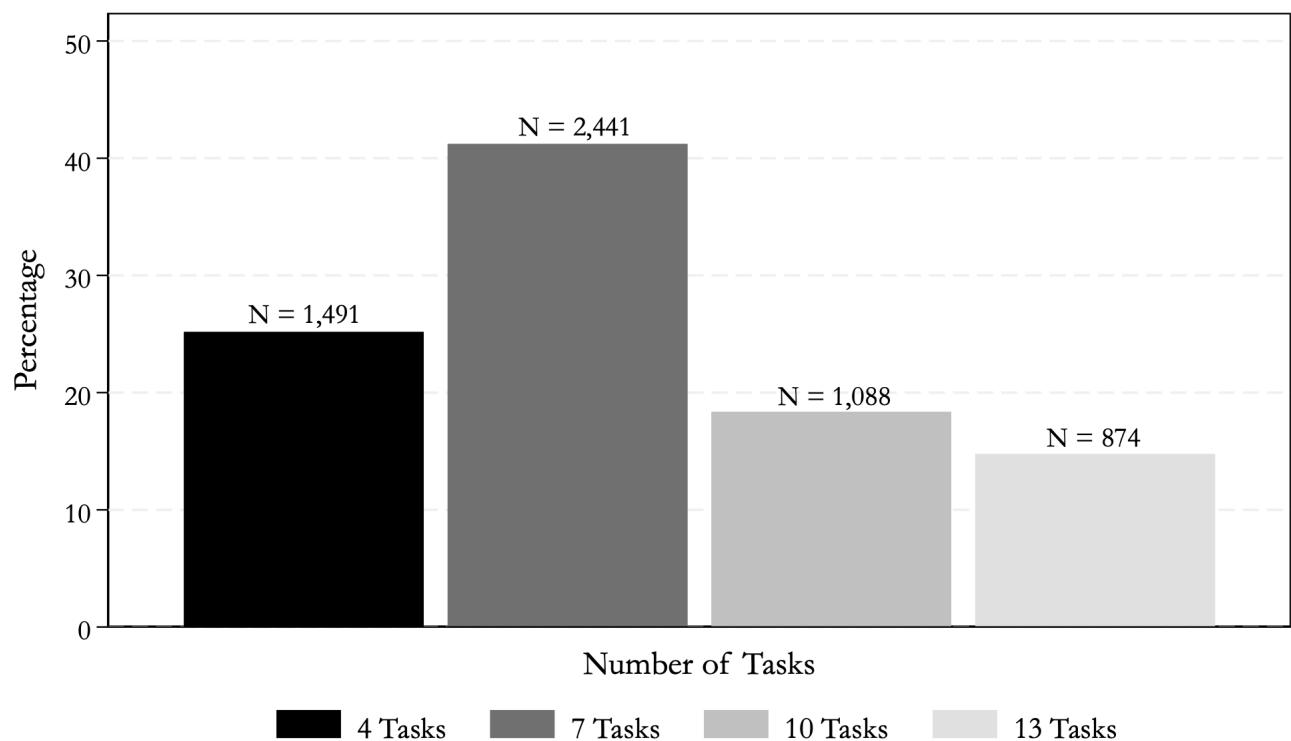
Álvarez-Rivadulla, M. J., Camelo, P., Vargas-Serani, M., and Viáfara, D. (2023). The relational costs of crossing class lines. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 74(2):113–130.

# Online Appendix

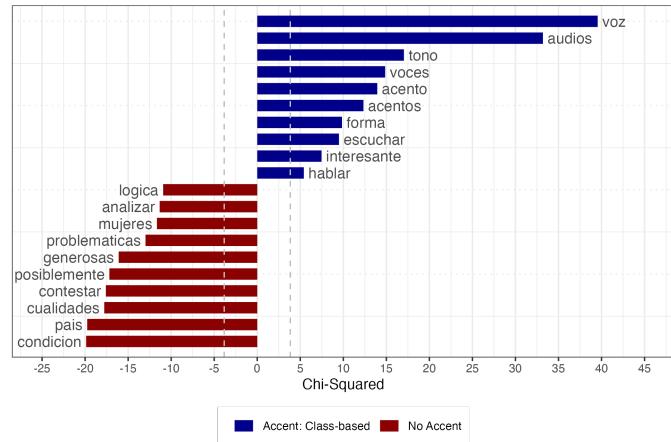
## A ADDITIONAL FIGURES AND TABLES

### A1 Figures

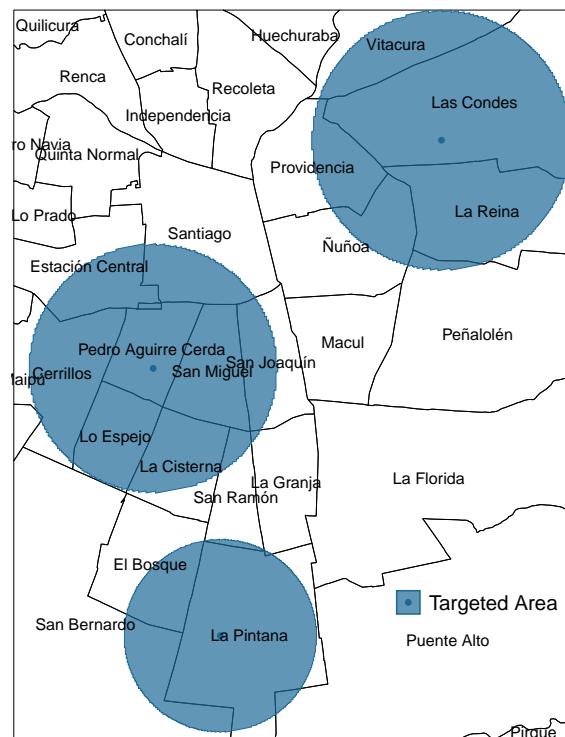
**Figure A.1: Number of Completed Tasks**



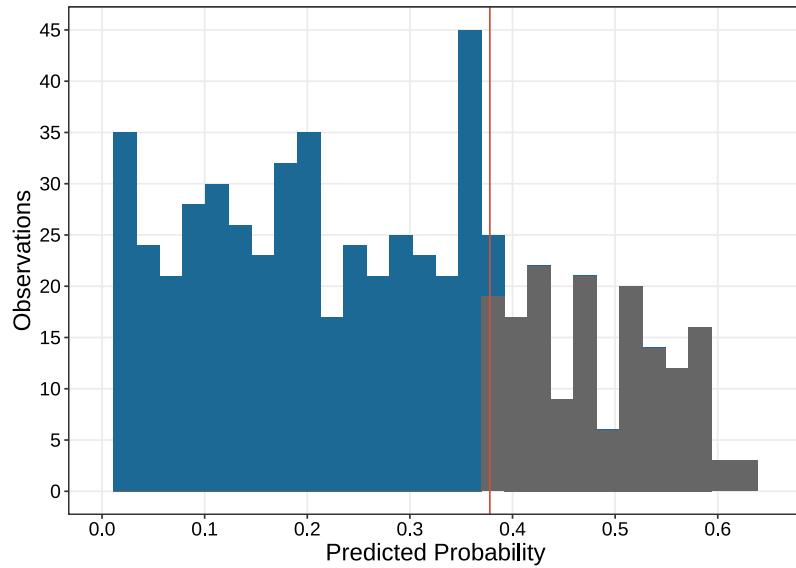
**Figure A.2: Keyness analysis**



**Figure A.3: Geographic Location of Census Tract Clusters - Santiago**

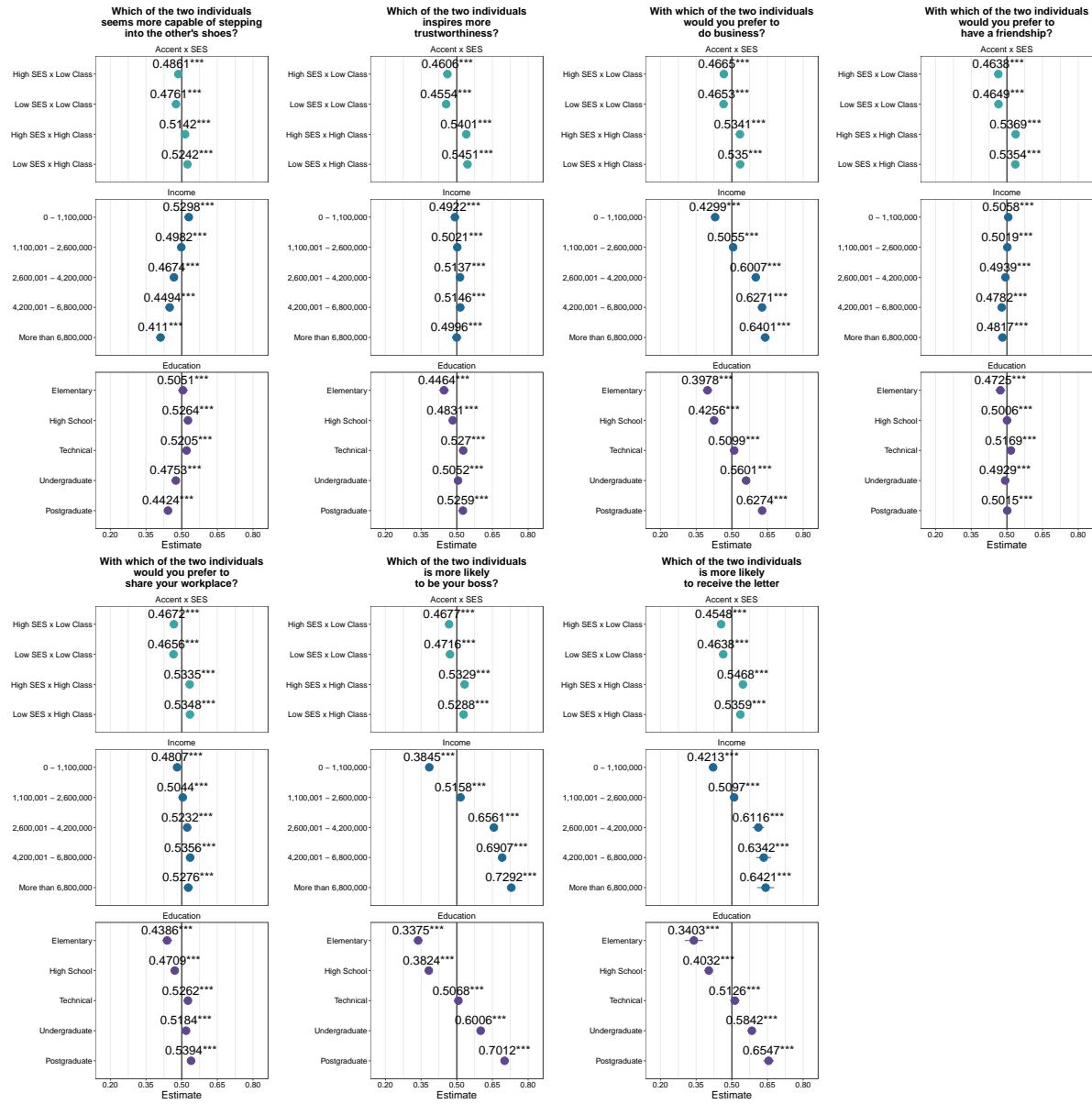


**Figure A.4: Distribution of the predicted probability of an “unrealistic” profile**



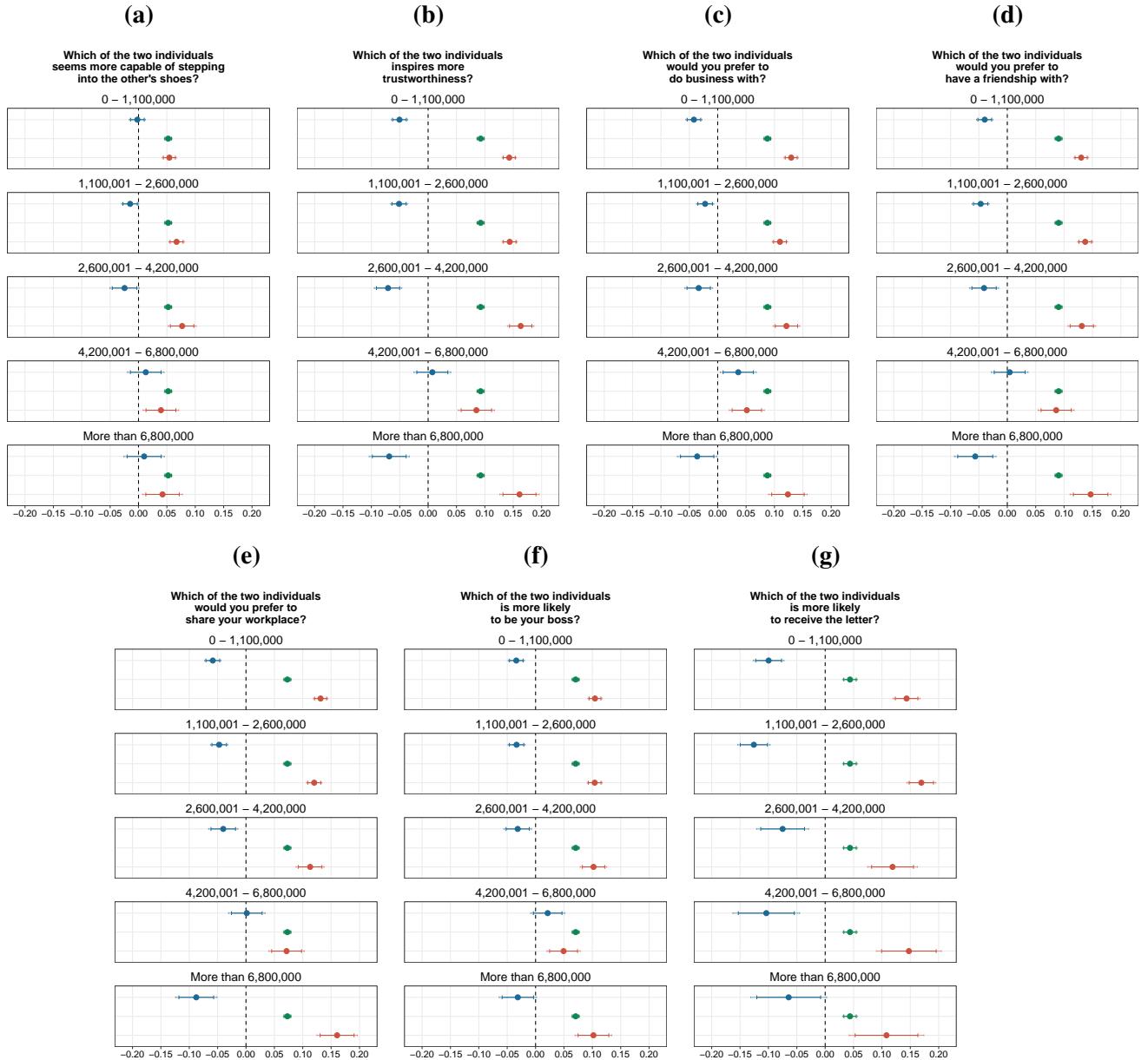
**Notes:** The figure shows a histogram of a predicted probability. The dependent variable in the model corresponds to a dummy variable equal to one if the respondent classifies the presented profiles as unrealistic, zero otherwise. We use as control variables all attributes of the profile: income, education, experience, sex, big five personality traits, and accent. We estimate the model using the “audio profile” classification task sample but predict it in the complete sample. We use robust standard errors.

**Figure A.5: Heterogeneous effects by respondents' SES (short version) - Marginal means**



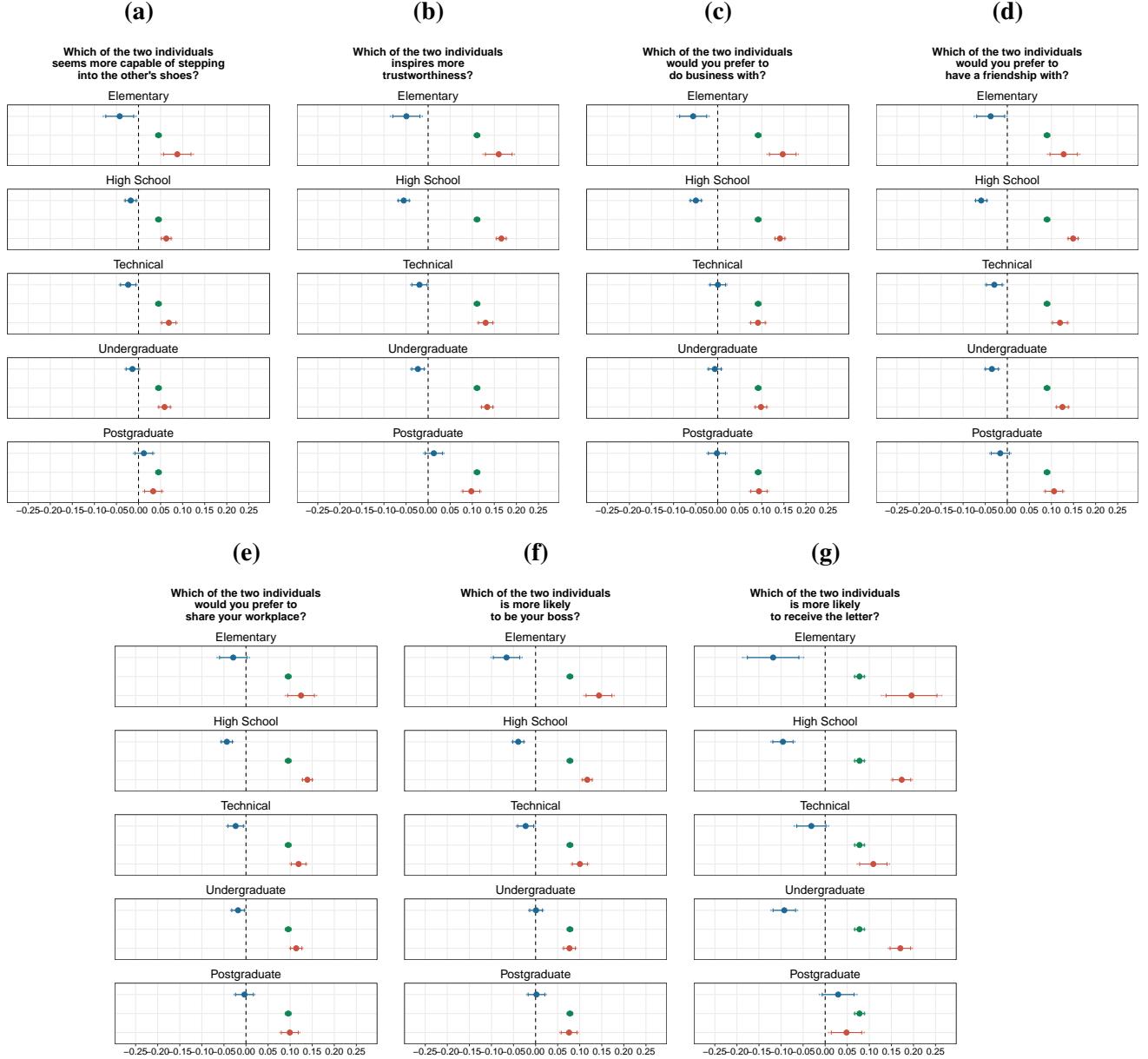
**Note:** Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level.

**Figure A.6: Income as a causal mechanism for class-based accents**  
**Average Total Effect (ATE) =**  
**Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each income level**



**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect = ATE – ACDE** profiles are shown in blue. Estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in red, while estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in green. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels A.6a to A.6f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel A.6g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (*pAMCE*) estimator** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (thick line) and 90% (thin line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications.

**Figure A.7: Education as a causal mechanism for class-based accents**  
**Average Total Effect (ATE) =**  
**Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each education level**

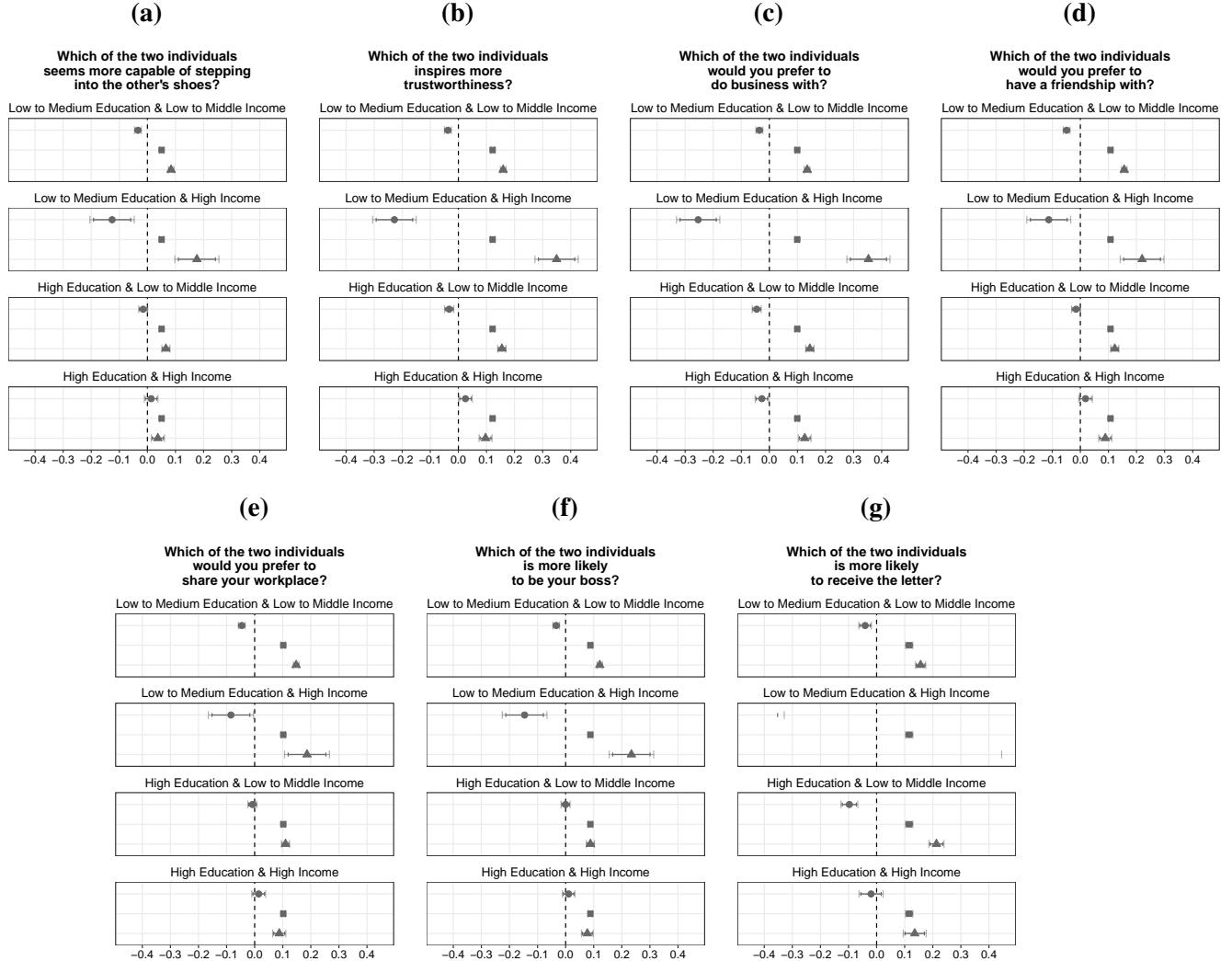


**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect = ATE – ACDE** profiles are shown in blue. Estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing education (ACDE)** are shown in red, while estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing education (ATE)** are shown in green. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels **A.7a** to **A.7f** are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel **A.7g** is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (*pAMCE*)** estimator as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (thick line) and 90% (thin line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications.

**Figure A.8: Education and income as a causal mechanisms for class-based accents (fixed to low experience)**

**Average Total Effect (ATE) =**

**Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each education level**

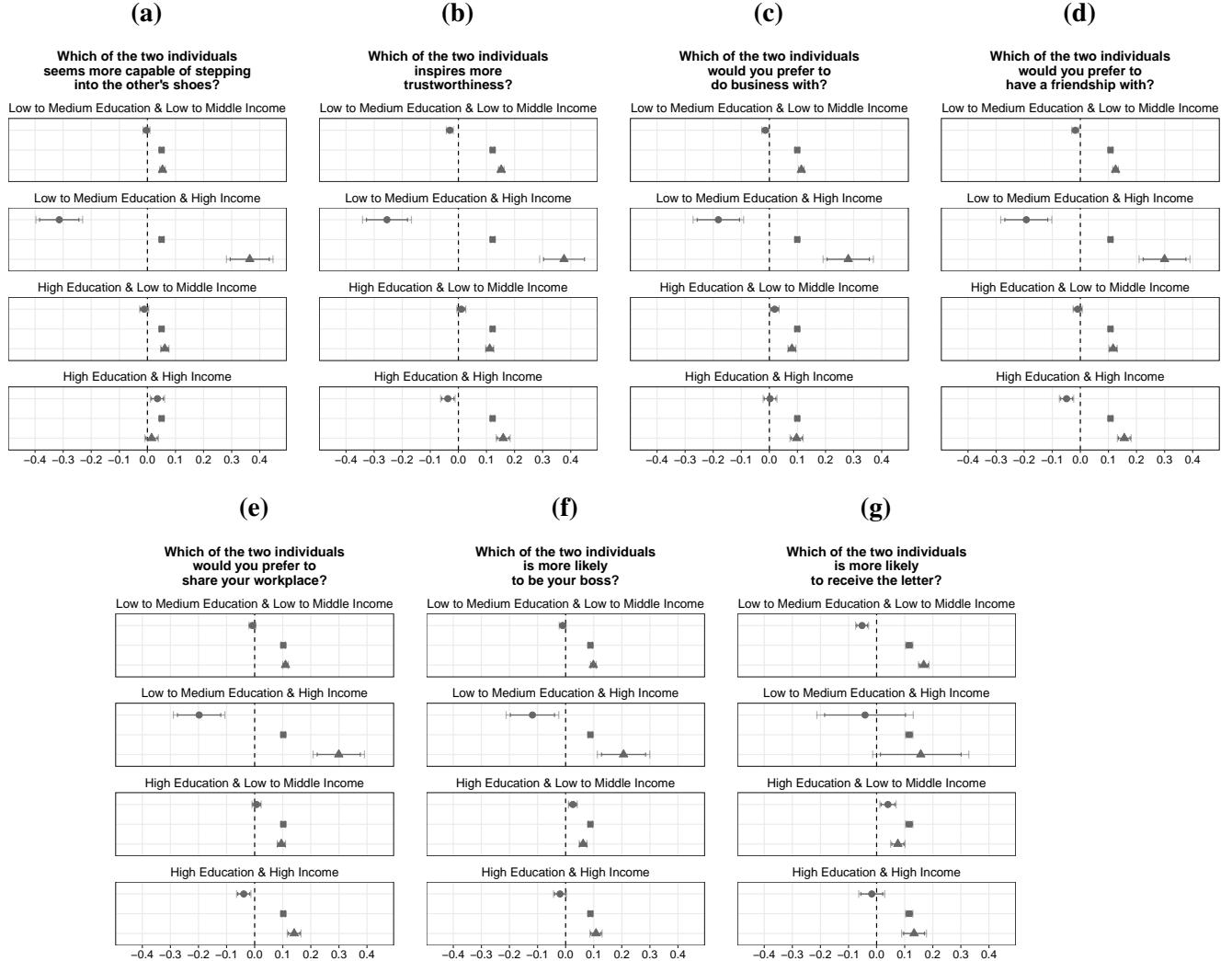


**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect** =  $\text{ATE} - \text{ACDE}$  are shown in circles. Estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in **squares**, while estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in **triangles**. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 7a to 7f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 7g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (PAMCE)** estimator as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (darker line) and 90% (lighter line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications. Low and medium levels of education correspond to profiles with elementary, high school and technical degrees, while high level includes those with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

**Figure A.9: Education and income as a causal mechanisms for class-based accents (fixed to high experience)**

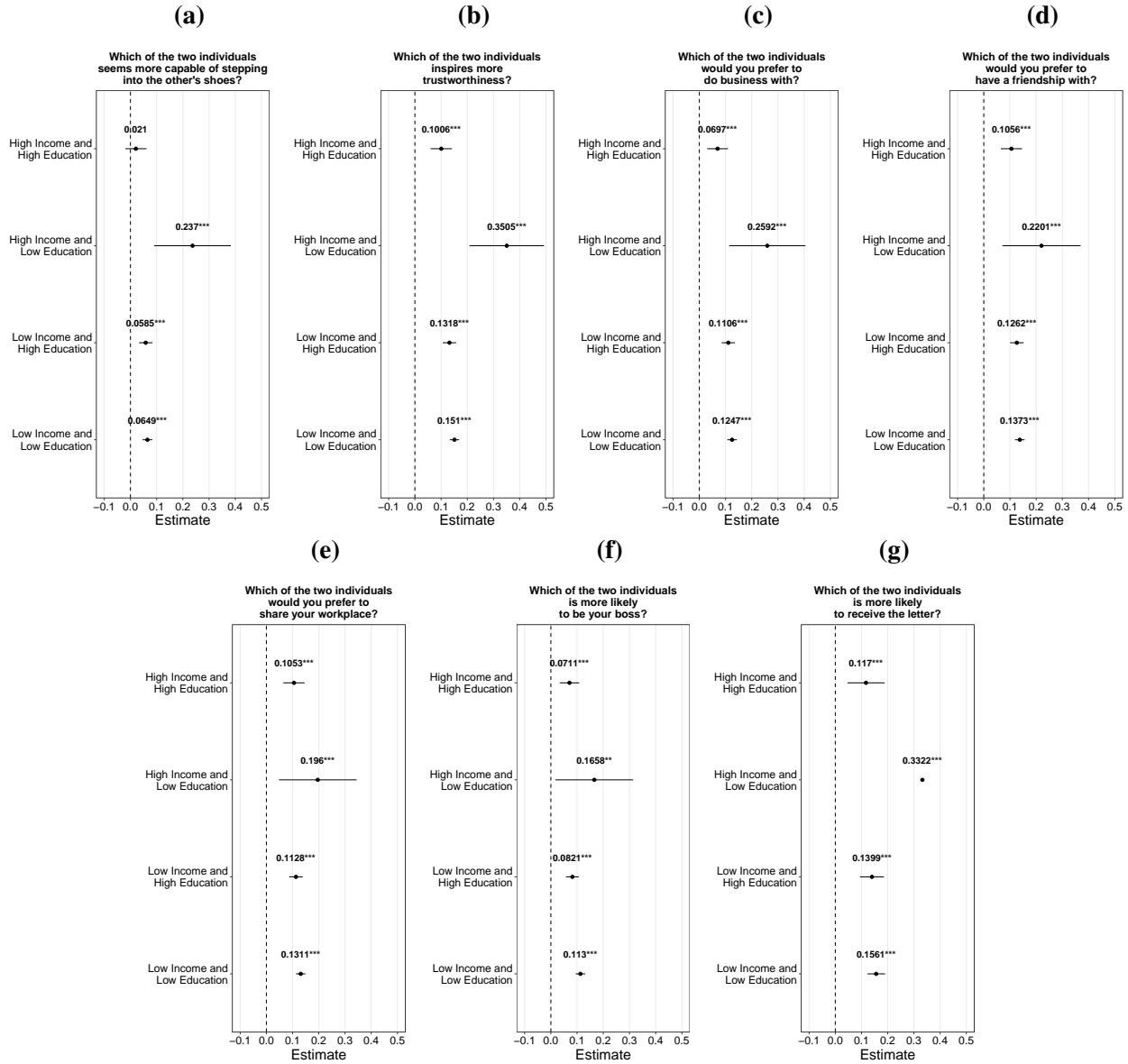
**Average Total Effect (ATE) =**

**Average Controlled Direct Effect (ACDE) + Eliminated Effect at each education level**



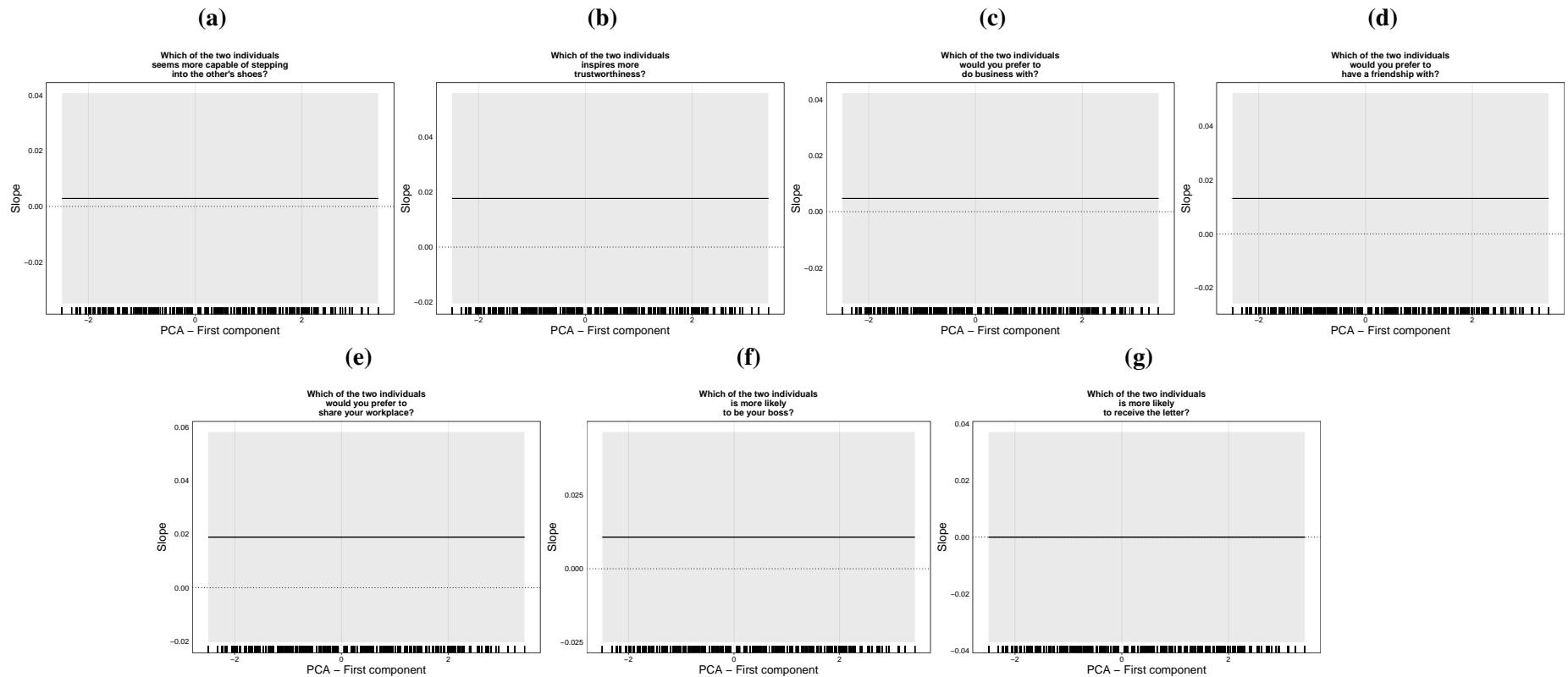
**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect** =  $\text{ATE} - \text{ACDE}$  are shown in circles. Estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in squares, while estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in triangles. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 7a to 7f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 7g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (PAMCE)** estimator as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (darker line) and 90% (lighter line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications. Low and medium levels of education correspond to profiles with elementary, high school and technical degrees, while high level includes those with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

**Figure A.10: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A)**  
**PAMCE estimates**



**Note:** This figure presents estimates for the population AMCE (*pAMCE*) estimator as described in (de la Cuesta et al., 2022) for the same group comparisons as presented in Figure 4. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels A.10a to A.10f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel A.10g is shown once per round. All panels include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. However, we present only estimates for accent, income and education. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **Marginal Means (MM)** estimator. We define high income as all the profiles with more than \$4,200,001, and low income as all the profiles with income lower than \$4,200,000. Similarly, we define high education as profiles with undergraduate and postgraduate education, and low education as profiles with elementary, high school, and technical education. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*  $p < 0.1$ . for low cla

**Figure A.11: Margin plots**



**Notes:** Estimates for the **Eliminated effect** = ATE – ACDE are shown in **circles**. Estimates for the **Effect of accent without fixing income (ATE)** are shown in **squares**, while estimates for the **Effect of accent fixing income (ACDE)** are shown in **triangles**. This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels 7a to 7f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel 7g is shown once per round. Estimates for the ATE and the ACDE in each panel correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** estimator as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#), while the eliminated effect is defined as the difference between the ATE and the ACDE. Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Bootstrap 95% (darker line) and 90% (lighter line) confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap replications. Low and medium levels of education correspond to profiles with elementary, high school and technical degrees, while high level includes those with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

## A2 Tables

**Table A.1: Proportions of profiles per factor variable characteristic**

Factor Variable	Level	Joint Distribution (%)	Full Conjoint (%)	Leave-one-out designs				
				Conjoint Version B1 (%)	Conjoint Version B2 (%)	Conjoint Version B3 (%)	Conjoint Version B4 (%)	Conjoint Version C (%)
Accent	Low Class	50.00	50.417	49.257	49.673	49.889	49.72	-
	High Class	50.00	49.583	50.743	50.327	50.111	50.28	-
Education	Elementary	5.10	4.912	-	5.012	5.199	-	5.405
	High School	38.81	38.812	-	36.936	38.883	-	38.836
	Technical	16.58	16.739	-	17.280	16.571	-	16.862
	Postgraduate	27.08	12.613	-	12.726	12.389	-	12.172
	Undergraduate	12.43	26.924	-	28.045	26.958	-	26.724
Experience	Low	33.33	33.286	33.426	-	33.518	-	32.819
	Average	33.33	33.169	32.927	-	33.540	-	33.078
	High	33.33	33.545	33.647	-	32.942	-	34.103
Income	0 - 1,100,000	40.96	41.281	41.475	39.998	-	-	40.819
	1,100,001 - 2,600,000	35.81	35.746	36.074	35.934	-	-	35.845
	2,600,001 - 4,200,000	11.28	11.120	10.604	12.192	-	-	11.241
	4,200,001 - 6,800,000	6.56	6.536	6.632	6.635	-	-	6.698
	More than 6,800,000	5.40	5.317	5.215	5.241	-	-	5.397
Sex	Male	50.00	49.879	49.826	50.588	50.155	50.07	51.009
	Female	50.00	50.121	50.174	49.412	49.845	49.93	48.991
Big 5	Extroverted	20.00	20.040	20.174	20.309	20.265	20.23	19.319
	Generous	20.00	19.923	20.128	19.808	20.509	20.05	20.431
	Persistent	20.00	19.956	20.093	19.460	20.642	19.99	19.836
	Calm	20.00	20.219	19.814	19.808	19.834	19.90	20.224
	Imaginative	20.00	19.862	19.791	20.615	18.750	19.83	20.190
Region	Chile	50.00	49.934	49.059	50.272	49.513	50.07	32.629
	Bogota	50.00	50.066	50.941	49.728	50.487	49.93	33.595

**Notes:** Change footnote

**Table A.2: Demographic characteristics of population and sample**

	Demographic characteristics		
	Bogotá (1)	Experiment (2)	Difference (3)
Age	40.7056 (13.9599)	37.3387 (21.3614)	-3.3669 [0.0000]
Proportion Male	0.5234 (0.4995)	0.4657 (0.4988)	-0.0577 [0.0000]
Household members	2.5605 (1.4431)	2.6905 (1.3515)	0.13 [0.0000]
Household monthly income	3,863,531.9 (2,799,366.0)	3,175,974.0 (4,092,774.9)	-687,557.9 [0.0000]
Households reported electricity SES	2.8945 (0.969)	2.8724 (1.1185)	-0.0221 [0.1396]

*Notes:* Change footnote

**Table A.3: Balance across conjoint versions**

	Dependent Variable:	
	Random assignment of accent	
	(1)	(2)
Age	-0.00119** (0.00051)	-0.00066** (0.00032)
Sex: Male	0.00632 (0.01338)	0.00502 (0.00851)
Region: Bogota	0.00231 (0.01494)	0.00476 (0.00959)
Household size: 1	0.00555 (0.03269)	0.00213 (0.02038)
Household size: 2	0.01531 (0.03124)	0.00337 (0.01950)
Household size: 3	0.01768 (0.03131)	0.00935 (0.01949)
Household size: 4	-0.01349 (0.03442)	-0.01552 (0.02172)
Household size: 5	0.03922 (0.03868)	0.01080 (0.02508)
Household size: $\geq 6$	-0.02608 (0.04387)	-0.02185 (0.02788)
Respondent SES (Electricity Bill): 2	0.01321 (0.03235)	-0.00129 (0.01946)
Respondent SES (Electricity Bill): 3	0.00486 (0.03161)	-0.00569 (0.01897)
Respondent SES (Electricity Bill): 4	-0.01338 (0.03481)	-0.01570 (0.02118)
Respondent SES (Electricity Bill): 5	-0.02469 (0.04641)	-0.01440 (0.02784)
Respondent SES (Electricity Bill): 6	-0.00311 (0.06543)	-0.01253 (0.04231)
Conjoint	A Vs. C	A+B's V.s C
Observations	3,577	5,882
R <sup>2</sup>	0.00398	0.00204

**Notes:** This table reports empirical evidence on the randomization of treatment across conjoint versions. In both columns, the dependent variable is an indicator equal to one if the choice tasks was provided with an accent, zero otherwise. Moreover, for column 1 we compare choice tasks in the full conjoint (dependant variable equal to one), with choice tasks assigned to conjoint version C (dependant variable equal to zero. See [Figure 1](#).) In column 2 we compare choice tasks in the full conjoint and all conjoint versions B (dependant variable equal to one), with choice tasks assigned to conjoint version C (dependant variable equal to zero. See [Figure 1](#).) We regress this dependent variable with respondent's predetermined characteristics. Here we use respondent's age, sex, region where they live, household size, and respondent's SES as reported in the electricity bill. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.4: Conjoint version A estimated pAMCE**

Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...							
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	inspires more confidence	would you prefer to do business?	would you prefer to have a friendship?	would you prefer to share your workplace?	is more likely to be your boss?	is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
High Class	0.0595*** (0.00773)	0.1421*** (0.00757)	0.1157*** (0.00757)	0.1307*** (0.00769)	0.123*** (0.00741)	0.1004*** (0.00753)	0.1514*** (0.01363)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0 - 1,100,000</b>							
1,100,001 - 2,600,000	-0.0231* (0.00884)	0.0061* (0.00888)	0.0576*** (0.00912)	0.0002 (0.00897)	0.013* (0.00907)	0.0959*** (0.00903)	0.0607** (0.01631)
2,600,001 - 4,200,000	-0.0438 (0.01308)	0.0151** (0.01292)	0.1442*** (0.01295)	-0.0226 (0.01303)	0.0259*** (0.01284)	0.214*** (0.01267)	0.1437*** (0.02397)
4,200,001 - 6,800,000	-0.0897*** (0.01581)	0.0088*** (0.01572)	0.159*** (0.01536)	-0.0364*** (0.01576)	0.0254*** (0.01547)	0.2521*** (0.01501)	0.1317*** (0.02836)
More than 6,800,000	-0.1186*** (0.01822)	-0.0046*** (0.01812)	0.1724*** (0.0178)	-0.0302** (0.01821)	0.0256*** (0.0181)	0.29*** (0.01708)	0.1786*** (0.03225)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
High School	0.0387*** (0.01681)	0.0367 (0.01668)	0.0615*** (0.01654)	0.0173* (0.01692)	0.0432 (0.01673)	0.0841*** (0.01603)	0.1039*** (0.03121)
Postgraduate	-0.0508 (0.02028)	0.0648*** (0.0198)	0.2139*** (0.01947)	0.0116 (0.02023)	0.0821*** (0.02026)	0.3441*** (0.01907)	0.3083** (0.03629)
Technical	0.0209* (0.01816)	0.058* (0.01767)	0.1152*** (0.01747)	0.0157 (0.018)	0.0907* (0.01797)	0.1849*** (0.01719)	0.1706** (0.03302)
Undergraduate	-0.0158 (0.01782)	0.0434** (0.01728)	0.1437*** (0.01717)	-0.0005 (0.01763)	0.0712*** (0.01755)	0.2449*** (0.01696)	0.2425*** (0.0325)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Female	0.0593*** (0.00779)	0.1037*** (0.00787)	0.0707*** (0.00767)	0.0962** (0.00791)	0.0807*** (0.00783)	0.0724*** (0.00763)	0.0831*** (0.01391)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Generous	0.1897** (0.01161)	0.1845 (0.0117)	0.0961*** (0.01162)	0.1363 (0.01145)	0.1289 (0.01145)	0.046*** (0.01173)	0.067*** (0.02119)
Persistent	-0.0088 (0.01183)	0.0764*** (0.01178)	0.1362*** (0.01195)	-0.0288 (0.012)	0.0567*** (0.01196)	0.1041*** (0.01157)	0.1055** (0.02064)
Calm	0.0808*** (0.01177)	0.1043*** (0.01166)	0.0931*** (0.01158)	0.034*** (0.0117)	0.0901*** (0.01157)	0.0677*** (0.01167)	0.0743*** (0.02087)
Imaginative	0.0462*** (0.01182)	0.0792 (0.01156)	0.112*** (0.01142)	0.0501* (0.01167)	0.0818 (0.01165)	0.054*** (0.01163)	0.1121*** (0.02077)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Average	0.0108*** (0.00883)	0.0344*** (0.00834)	0.0548*** (0.00823)	0.0099*** (0.00825)	0.0296*** (0.00843)	0.0666*** (0.0082)	0.0428*** (0.01547)
High	0.0177** (0.00839)	0.0422 (0.00818)	0.0839*** (0.00829)	0.0246 (0.00827)	0.0427 (0.00836)	0.1025*** (0.00823)	0.0938*** (0.0156)

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.5: Heterogeneous effect by respondent's SES (long version) - targeting ads metric**

<i>Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...</i>														
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?		inspires more confidence		would you prefer to do business?		would you prefer to have a friendship?		would you prefer to share your workplace?		is more likely to be your boss?		is more likely to receive the letter?	
	500 m	1 Km	500 m	1 Km	500 m	1 Km	500 m	1 Km	500 m	1 Km	500 m	1 Km	500 m	1 Km
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>														
Accent: Class-Based	0.0576*** (0.0089)	0.0593*** (0.0085)	0.1362*** (0.0088)	0.1412*** (0.0084)	0.1118*** (0.0087)	0.1137*** (0.0084)	0.1298*** (0.0090)	0.1328*** (0.0086)	0.1183*** (0.0087)	0.1192*** (0.0084)	0.0961*** (0.0084)	0.0972*** (0.0080)	0.1444*** (0.0156)	0.1399*** (0.0150)
<b>Socioeconomic Status (SES) - Baseline: High SES</b>														
SES: Low	0.0223 (0.0180)	0.0231 (0.0171)	0.0245 (0.0182)	0.0323* (0.0170)	0.0058 (0.0179)	0.0088 (0.0166)	0.0041 (0.0176)	0.0078 (0.0167)	-0.0012 (0.0166)	0.0005 (0.0159)	0.0291* (0.0169)	0.0330** (0.0158)	0.0118 (0.0330)	0.0146 (0.0317)
<b>Interaction</b>														
Accent: Class-Based x SES: Low SES	-0.0148 (0.0295)	-0.0090 (0.0284)	-0.0199 (0.0288)	-0.0257 (0.0276)	0.0071 (0.0285)	-0.0016 (0.0270)	-0.0075 (0.0277)	-0.0050 (0.0265)	0.0235 (0.0274)	0.0260 (0.0259)	-0.0187 (0.0280)	-0.0302 (0.0266)	0.0395 (0.0491)	0.0349 (0.0473)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>														
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	-0.0074 (0.0093)	-0.0076 (0.0089)	0.0146 (0.0092)	0.0136 (0.0088)	0.0530*** (0.0093)	0.0525*** (0.0093)	0.0076 (0.0091)	0.0048 (0.0088)	0.0159* (0.0094)	0.0169* (0.0090)	0.0819*** (0.0092)	0.0828*** (0.0089)	0.0583*** (0.0166)	0.0591*** (0.0160)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	-0.0034 (0.0151)	-0.0078 (0.0144)	0.0347** (0.0147)	0.0282** (0.0141)	0.1314*** (0.0149)	0.1264*** (0.0142)	0.0048 (0.0147)	-0.0013 (0.0143)	0.0306** (0.0149)	0.0238* (0.0144)	0.1641*** (0.0143)	0.1643*** (0.0137)	0.0964*** (0.0271)	0.0893*** (0.0261)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	-0.0355* (0.0183)	-0.0426** (0.0175)	0.0283 (0.0180)	0.0237 (0.0171)	0.1279*** (0.0182)	0.1260*** (0.0173)	-0.0126 (0.0182)	-0.0195 (0.0174)	0.0338* (0.0181)	0.0291* (0.0173)	0.1797*** (0.0174)	0.1753*** (0.0166)	0.0708** (0.0333)	0.0693** (0.0310)
Income: More than 6,800,000	-0.0661*** (0.0205)	-0.0633*** (0.0197)	0.0059 (0.0204)	0.0108 (0.0196)	0.1340*** (0.0204)	0.1384*** (0.0195)	-0.0112 (0.0204)	-0.0065 (0.0204)	0.0121 (0.0197)	0.0184 (0.0207)	0.2012*** (0.0198)	0.2021*** (0.0195)	0.0975*** (0.0186)	0.0952*** (0.0349)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>														
Education: High School	0.0452** (0.0180)	0.0454*** (0.0173)	0.0192 (0.0178)	0.0247 (0.0170)	0.0309* (0.0175)	0.0312* (0.0167)	0.0174 (0.0179)	0.0158 (0.0173)	0.0268 (0.0179)	0.0316* (0.0172)	0.0561*** (0.0169)	0.0485*** (0.0163)	0.0672** (0.0322)	0.0574* (0.0315)
Education: Technical	0.0280 (0.0198)	0.0242 (0.0190)	0.3031 (0.0192)	0.0363** (0.0184)	0.0710*** (0.0188)	0.0744*** (0.0180)	0.0096 (0.0194)	0.0042 (0.0187)	0.0634*** (0.0197)	0.0692*** (0.0189)	0.1444*** (0.0186)	0.1365*** (0.0180)	0.1123*** (0.0352)	0.1144*** (0.0341)
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0140 (0.0198)	-0.0155 (0.0191)	0.0174 (0.0189)	0.0218 (0.0182)	0.0972*** (0.0189)	0.0992*** (0.0181)	-0.0017 (0.0194)	-0.0049 (0.0194)	0.0511*** (0.0194)	0.0562*** (0.0194)	0.1940*** (0.0187)	0.1869*** (0.0181)	0.1932*** (0.0350)	0.1912*** (0.0340)
Education: Postgraduate	-0.0428* (0.0228)	-0.0410* (0.0218)	0.0231 (0.0220)	0.0257 (0.0211)	0.1115*** (0.0217)	0.1097*** (0.0209)	-0.0060 (0.0221)	-0.0081 (0.0214)	0.0399* (0.0228)	0.0433** (0.0219)	0.2294*** (0.0214)	0.2212*** (0.0206)	0.2423*** (0.0407)	0.2403*** (0.0393)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>														
Sex: Female	0.0561*** (0.0086)	0.0620*** (0.0082)	0.1063*** (0.0086)	0.1077*** (0.0082)	0.0705*** (0.0083)	0.0726*** (0.0080)	0.0950*** (0.0087)	0.0989*** (0.0083)	0.0784*** (0.0087)	0.0808*** (0.0083)	0.0706*** (0.0080)	0.0740*** (0.0077)	0.0715*** (0.0149)	0.0784*** (0.0142)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>														
Experience: Average	0.0175* (0.0092)	0.0134 (0.0088)	0.0431*** (0.0091)	0.0384*** (0.0086)	0.0664*** (0.0089)	0.0634*** (0.0085)	0.0138 (0.0092)	0.0092 (0.0088)	0.0341*** (0.0093)	0.0316*** (0.0088)	0.0738*** (0.0084)	0.0738*** (0.0163)	0.0500*** (0.0157)	0.0507*** (0.0157)
Experience: High	0.0172* (0.0092)	0.0167* (0.0089)	0.0439*** (0.0090)	0.0451*** (0.0086)	0.0891*** (0.0091)	0.0891*** (0.0087)	0.0214** (0.0091)	0.0200** (0.0088)	0.0460*** (0.0093)	0.0423*** (0.0089)	0.1089*** (0.0088)	0.1087*** (0.0085)	0.0997*** (0.0168)	0.1005*** (0.0160)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>														
Big 5: Generous	0.1908*** (0.0128)	0.1965*** (0.0123)	0.1891*** (0.0127)	0.1895*** (0.0123)	0.1005*** (0.0126)	0.1013*** (0.0121)	0.1349*** (0.0124)	0.1375*** (0.0126)	0.1235*** (0.0126)	0.1269*** (0.0124)	0.0446*** (0.0124)	0.0493*** (0.0124)	0.0639*** (0.0229)	0.0693*** (0.0220)
Big 5: Persistent	-0.0109 (0.0131)	-0.0060 (0.0126)	0.0792*** (0.0127)	0.0821*** (0.0123)	0.1342*** (0.0131)	0.1362*** (0.0125)	-0.0362*** (0.0131)	-0.0288** (0.0126)	0.0610*** (0.0126)	0.0593*** (0.0126)	0.1053*** (0.0127)	0.1024*** (0.0123)	0.1011*** (0.0119)	0.1045*** (0.0215)
Big 5: Calm	0.0807*** (0.0130)	0.0786*** (0.0125)	0.1082*** (0.0126)	0.1038*** (0.0122)	0.0993*** (0.0125)	0.0960*** (0.0121)	0.0269** (0.0127)	0.0277** (0.0122)	0.0904*** (0.0128)	0.0870*** (0.0123)	0.0665*** (0.0123)	0.0652*** (0.0124)	0.0765*** (0.0217)	0.0739*** (0.0217)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0465*** (0.0131)	0.0437*** (0.0125)	0.0752*** (0.0127)	0.0768*** (0.0121)	0.1135*** (0.0124)	0.1164*** (0.0118)	0.0418*** (0.0128)	0.0431*** (0.0122)	0.0848*** (0.0128)	0.0821*** (0.0123)	0.0576*** (0.0123)	0.0587*** (0.0119)	0.0957*** (0.0224)	0.0972*** (0.0214)
Observations	17,464	18,957	17,454	18,947	17,450	18,942	17,444	18,935	17,442	18,932	17,445	18,938	5,014	5,439
R <sup>2</sup>	0.03421	0.03566	0.04669	0.04785	0.05598	0.05618	0.03929	0.04049	0.03143	0.03196	0.09328	0.09272	0.08029	0.08094

**Notes:**



**Table A.6: Heterogeneous effect by respondent's SES (long version) - electricity bill metric**

	Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...						
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	inspires more confidence	would you prefer to do business?	would you prefer to have a friendship?	would you prefer to share your workplace?	is more likely to be your boss?	is more likely to receive the letter?
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
Accent: Class-Based	0.0543*** (0.0147)	0.1546*** (0.0144)	0.1286*** (0.0143)	0.1424*** (0.0145)	0.1274*** (0.0143)	0.1171*** (0.0140)	0.1891*** (0.0260)
<b>Socioeconomic Status (SES) - Baseline: High SES</b>							
SES: Low	-0.0194 (0.0124)	-0.0077 (0.0122)	-0.0001 (0.0121)	-0.0020 (0.0125)	-0.0135 (0.0123)	0.0036 (0.0120)	0.0245 (0.0227)
<b>Interaction</b>							
Accent: Class-Based × SES: Low	0.0347 (0.0251)	0.0188 (0.0248)	0.0117 (0.0242)	0.0021 (0.0253)	0.0309 (0.0249)	0.0092 (0.0238)	-0.0408 (0.0451)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>							
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	-0.0016 (0.0122)	0.0143 (0.0119)	0.0565*** (0.0123)	0.0149 (0.0120)	0.0261** (0.0125)	0.0836*** (0.0121)	0.0619*** (0.0214)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0066 (0.0207)	0.0259 (0.0196)	0.1389*** (0.0201)	0.0029 (0.0205)	0.0283 (0.0204)	0.1796*** (0.0194)	0.1202*** (0.0366)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	-0.0208 (0.0244)	0.0433* (0.0249)	0.1289*** (0.0249)	0.0117 (0.0250)	0.0391 (0.0249)	0.2092*** (0.0240)	0.1322*** (0.0437)
Income: More than 6,800,000	-0.0286 (0.0280)	0.0065 (0.0269)	0.1271** (0.0274)	-0.0122 (0.0274)	-0.0006 (0.0280)	0.1966*** (0.0268)	0.0670 (0.0490)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
Education: High School	0.0349 (0.0245)	0.0221 (0.0237)	0.0037 (0.0231)	0.0029 (0.0244)	0.0241 (0.0240)	0.0338 (0.0228)	0.0796* (0.0433)
Education: Technical	0.0170 (0.0269)	0.0488* (0.0261)	0.0573** (0.0253)	-0.0012 (0.0267)	0.0656** (0.0266)	0.1361*** (0.0251)	0.1146** (0.0465)
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0323 (0.0270)	0.0124 (0.0260)	0.0678*** (0.0255)	-0.0315 (0.0265)	0.0357 (0.0265)	0.1539*** (0.0252)	0.1715*** (0.0471)
Education: Postgraduate	-0.0417 (0.0308)	0.0422 (0.0300)	0.1038*** (0.0296)	-0.0043 (0.0311)	0.0548* (0.0310)	0.1982*** (0.0290)	0.2777*** (0.0535)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex: Female	0.0662*** (0.0123)	0.1228*** (0.0121)	0.0827*** (0.0118)	0.1191*** (0.0123)	0.0928*** (0.0120)	0.0925*** (0.0116)	0.1027*** (0.0212)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Experience: Average	0.0095 (0.0125)	0.0293** (0.0122)	0.0706*** (0.0121)	-0.0039 (0.0123)	0.0243* (0.0126)	0.0692*** (0.0117)	0.0605*** (0.0222)
Experience: High	0.0082 (0.0124)	0.0370*** (0.0124)	0.0797*** (0.0122)	0.0077 (0.0121)	0.0295** (0.0122)	0.1017*** (0.0120)	0.0887*** (0.0230)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Big 5: Generous	0.1948*** (0.0181)	0.1939*** (0.0176)	0.0919*** (0.0173)	0.1350*** (0.0181)	0.1290*** (0.0179)	0.0336* (0.0173)	0.0441 (0.0322)
Big 5: Persistent	0.0063 (0.0182)	0.0887*** (0.0178)	0.1209*** (0.0177)	-0.0161 (0.0182)	0.0530*** (0.0181)	0.0846*** (0.0172)	0.0747** (0.0315)
Big 5: Calm	0.0704*** (0.0184)	0.0950*** (0.0178)	0.0707*** (0.0178)	0.0262 (0.0181)	0.0724*** (0.0181)	0.0602*** (0.0173)	0.0725** (0.0324)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0437** (0.0185)	0.0727*** (0.0179)	0.1067*** (0.0173)	0.0448** (0.0187)	0.0750*** (0.0183)	0.0380** (0.0174)	0.0964*** (0.0319)
Observations	9,416	9,412	9,412	9,410	9,408	9,404	2,748
R <sup>2</sup>	0.03337	0.05952	0.06265	0.04657	0.03862	0.09873	0.09519
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.03152	0.05771	0.06085	0.04474	0.03677	0.09700	0.08923

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.7: Conjoint version A - Differential treatment and SES heterogeneity - Dummy**

	Dependent variable: Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Accent: High Class	0.1211*** (0.0231)	0.1204*** (0.0414)	0.0775 (0.0825)	0.1247*** (0.0241)	0.1272*** (0.0190)
Letter: Differential	-0.0331* (0.0196)	-0.0534 (0.0343)	-0.0934 (0.0768)	-0.0284 (0.0203)	-0.0279* (0.0166)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Differential	0.0532* (0.0323)	0.1009* (0.0563)	0.1781 (0.1177)	0.0435 (0.0336)	0.0451* (0.0268)
SES: Low vs. High	0.0100 (0.0237)	-0.0051 (0.0283)	-0.0270 (0.0546)		
SES: Low vs. Medium				0.0160 (0.0242)	-0.0050 (0.0595)
SES: High vs. Medium				-0.0159 (0.0509)	-0.1422* (0.0830)
Accent: High Class x SES: Low vs. High	0.0073 (0.0380)	0.0040 (0.0462)	0.0487 (0.0846)		
Accent: High Class x SES: Low vs. Medium				-0.0036 (0.0386)	0.0219 (0.0819)
Accent: High Class x SES: High vs. Medium				0.0473 (0.0860)	0.1818 (0.1510)
Letter: Differential x SES: Low vs. High	0.0147 (0.0341)	0.0319 (0.0388)	0.0681 (0.0786)		
Letter: Differential x SES: Low vs. Medium				0.0100 (0.0345)	0.0083 (0.0733)
Letter: Differential x SES: High vs. Medium				-0.0650 (0.0795)	-0.0696 (0.1484)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Differential x SES: Low vs. High	-0.0150 (0.0541)	-0.0669 (0.0635)	-0.1365 (0.1207)		
Accent: High Class x Letter: Differential x SES: Low vs. Medium				-0.0053 (0.0549)	-0.0173 (0.1132)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Differential x SES: High vs. Medium				0.1347 (0.1225)	0.2963 (0.2408)
<i>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</i>					
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	0.0510*** (0.0147)	0.0509*** (0.0147)	0.0507*** (0.0147)	0.0507*** (0.0147)	0.0505*** (0.0147)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0818*** (0.0244)	0.0816** (0.0245)	0.0815** (0.0245)	0.0817*** (0.0244)	0.0817*** (0.0245)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	0.0702** (0.0287)	0.0696** (0.0287)	0.0707** (0.0287)	0.0702** (0.0287)	0.0714** (0.0288)
Income: More than 6,800,000	0.0867*** (0.0325)	0.0867*** (0.0325)	0.0871*** (0.0325)	0.0872*** (0.0325)	0.0863*** (0.0326)
<i>Education - Baseline: Elementary</i>					
Education: High School	0.0635** (0.0294)	0.0636** (0.0294)	0.0636** (0.0294)	0.0635** (0.0295)	0.0640** (0.0294)
Education: Technical	0.1300*** (0.0319)	0.1305*** (0.0319)	0.1299*** (0.0319)	0.1295*** (0.0319)	0.1303*** (0.0319)
Education: Undergraduate	0.1937*** (0.0319)	0.1939*** (0.0319)	0.1936*** (0.0318)	0.1937*** (0.0319)	0.1939*** (0.0319)
Education: Postgraduate	0.2471*** (0.0367)	0.2472*** (0.0366)	0.2468*** (0.0366)	0.2470*** (0.0367)	0.2473*** (0.0367)
<i>Sex - Baseline: Male</i>					
Sex: Female	0.0799*** (0.0133)	0.0801*** (0.0133)	0.0798*** (0.0133)	0.0798*** (0.0133)	0.0803*** (0.0133)
<i>Experience - Baseline: Low</i>					
Experience: Average	0.0410*** (0.0147)	0.0406*** (0.0147)	0.0411*** (0.0148)	0.0413*** (0.0148)	0.0411*** (0.0148)
Experience: High	0.0972*** (0.0150)	0.0973*** (0.0150)	0.0971*** (0.0150)	0.0972*** (0.0150)	0.0965*** (0.0151)
<i>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</i>					
Big 5: Generous	0.0761*** (0.0202)	0.0760*** (0.0201)	0.0757*** (0.0202)	0.0756*** (0.0202)	0.0761*** (0.0202)
Big 5: Persistent	0.1106*** (0.0199)	0.1101*** (0.0199)	0.1099*** (0.0199)	0.1103*** (0.0199)	0.1103*** (0.0199)
Big 5: Calm	0.0791*** (0.0202)	0.0785** (0.0201)	0.0784** (0.0201)	0.0786*** (0.0202)	0.0794*** (0.0201)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.1132*** (0.0200)	0.1124*** (0.0200)	0.1124*** (0.0200)	0.1126*** (0.0200)	0.1123*** (0.0200)
Observations	6,260	6,260	6,260	6,260	6,260
R <sup>2</sup>	0.08213	0.08218	0.08207	0.08236	0.08228

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The dependent variable reported in this table is defined as follows. The variable takes the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. However, the dependent variable is shown only one time per round. All columns present estimates of the equation 3 including the triple interaction of respondent's SES. Our metric for SES is the self-reported strata in the last electricity statement. The only difference across columns is how the SES dummy variable is defined. Columns 1 through 3 present a categorical variable with 2 levels, low and high SES, using High SES as our base category. As for columns 4 and 5, we use a categorical variable with 3 levels, low, medium and high SES, with medium SES as our base category. Difference across variables comes on how low, medium and High SES are defined. Estimates in this table correspond to the population AMCE (pAMCE) as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022). Results presented in this table correspond to the "Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos" subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.8: Conjoint version A - Deferral treatment and SES heterogeneity - PCA**

	Dependent variable: Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Accent: High Class	0.1307*** (0.0229)	0.1317*** (0.0328)	0.1243*** (0.0184)
Letter: Deferral	-0.0258 (0.0197)	0.0016 (0.0279)	-0.0280* (0.0160)
Accent: High Class × Letter: Deferral	0.0356 (0.0324)	-0.0020 (0.0471)	0.0476* (0.0259)
SES: Low vs. High	-0.0011 (0.0238)		
SES: Low vs. Medium		0.0080 (0.0284)	
SES: High vs. Medium		0.0172 (0.0287)	
PCA: Continuous metric			-0.0018 (0.0084)
Accent: High Class × SES: Low vs. High	0.0195 (0.0382)		
Accent: High Class × SES: Low vs. Medium		0.0204 (0.0449)	
Accent: High Class × SES: High vs. Medium		0.0038 (0.0459)	
Accent: High Class × PCA: Continuous metric			0.0011 (0.0133)
Letter: Deferral × SES: Low vs. High	-0.0071 (0.0338)		
Letter: Deferral × SES: Low vs. Medium		-0.0345 (0.0391)	
Letter: Deferral × SES: High vs. Medium		-0.0537 (0.0393)	
Letter: Deferral × PCA: Continuous metric			-0.0014 (0.0118)
Accent: High Class × Letter: Deferral × SES: Low vs. High	0.0363 (0.0538)		
Accent: High Class × Letter: Deferral × SES: Low vs. Medium		0.0739 (0.0638)	
Accent: High Class × Letter: Deferral × SES: High vs. Medium		0.0730 (0.0649)	
Accent: High Class × Letter: Deferral × PCA: Continuous metric			-8.33 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> (0.0189)
<i>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</i>			
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	0.0502*** (0.0147)	0.0500*** (0.0147)	0.0503*** (0.0147)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0811*** (0.0244)	0.0815*** (0.0245)	0.0811*** (0.0245)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	0.0700** (0.0287)	0.0688** (0.0288)	0.0700** (0.0287)
Income: More than 6,800,000	0.0868** (0.0325)	0.0875*** (0.0325)	0.0871*** (0.0325)
<i>Education - Baseline: Elementary</i>			
Education: High School	0.0648** (0.0294)	0.0656** (0.0294)	0.0644** (0.0293)
Education: Technical	0.1335*** (0.0319)	0.1345*** (0.0319)	0.1332*** (0.0318)
Education: Undergraduate	0.1959*** (0.0318)	0.1965*** (0.0318)	0.1954*** (0.0318)
Education: Postgraduate	0.2494** (0.0367)	0.2502*** (0.0367)	0.2493** (0.0366)
<i>Sex - Baseline: Male</i>			
Sex: Female	0.0783*** (0.0133)	0.0782*** (0.0133)	0.0785*** (0.0133)
<i>Experience - Baseline: Low</i>			
Experience: Average	0.0408*** (0.0147)	0.0406*** (0.0147)	0.0408*** (0.0147)
Experience: High	0.0965*** (0.0150)	0.0969*** (0.0150)	0.0967*** (0.0150)
<i>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</i>			
Big 5: Generous	0.0752*** (0.0201)	0.0754*** (0.0201)	0.0753*** (0.0201)
Big 5: Persistent	0.1090*** (0.0199)	0.1092*** (0.0199)	0.1089*** (0.0199)
Big 5: Calm	0.0779*** (0.0202)	0.0779*** (0.0202)	0.0775*** (0.0201)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.1107*** (0.0200)	0.1103*** (0.0200)	0.1107*** (0.0200)
Observations	6,274	6,274	6,274
R <sup>2</sup>	0.08191	0.08243	0.08166

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The dependent variable reported in this table is defined as follows. The variable takes the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. However, the dependent variable is shown only one time per round. All columns present estimates of the equation 3 including the triple interaction of respondent's SES. Our metric for SES is the PCA metric using the last electricity statement strata, household size and income. The only difference across columns is how the SES dummy variable is defined. Columns 1 presents a categorical variable with 2 levels, low and high SES, using High SES as our base category. Columns 2 uses a categorical variable with 3 levels, low, medium and high SES, with medium SES as our base category. Column 3 uses the level variable of the first component of the PCA exercise. Estimates in this table correspond to the population AMCE (*pAMCE*) as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.9: Heterogeneous effects by speakers' region (all covariates)**

	Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...						
	Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
High Class	0.0600*** (0.0076)	0.1423*** (0.0075)	0.1155*** (0.0074)	0.1307*** (0.0076)	0.1229*** (0.0074)	0.0997*** (0.0072)	0.1485*** (0.0132)
<b>Region - Baseline: Bogota</b>							
Chile	-0.0168** (0.0075)	0.0017 (0.0075)	0.0172** (0.0071)	0.0017 (0.0076)	0.0139* (0.0073)	0.0191*** (0.0070)	0.0148 (0.0131)
<b>Interaction - Accent × Region</b>							
High Class × Chile	-0.0476*** (0.0104)	-0.1172*** (0.0104)	-0.0949*** (0.0101)	-0.1153*** (0.0105)	-0.1100*** (0.0102)	-0.0766*** (0.0098)	-0.1310*** (0.0186)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0 - 1,100,000</b>							
1,100,001 - 2,600,000	-0.0114* (0.0058)	0.0098* (0.0058)	0.0503*** (0.0059)	0.0047 (0.0059)	0.0152*** (0.0058)	0.0843*** (0.0058)	0.0426*** (0.0106)
2,600,001 - 4,200,000	-0.0235** (0.0096)	0.0127 (0.0096)	0.1099*** (0.0097)	-0.0044 (0.0096)	0.0197** (0.0097)	0.1637*** (0.0095)	0.0778*** (0.0172)
4,200,001 - 6,800,000	-0.0342*** (0.0118)	0.0156 (0.0117)	0.1358*** (0.0116)	-0.0180 (0.0117)	0.0341*** (0.0116)	0.1938*** (0.0114)	0.0961*** (0.0207)
More than 6,800,000	-0.0708*** (0.0129)	-0.0060 (0.0130)	0.1390*** (0.0129)	-0.0188 (0.0129)	0.0202 (0.0132)	0.2172*** (0.0122)	0.0901*** (0.0233)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
High School	0.0180 (0.0114)	0.0309*** (0.0112)	0.0196* (0.0110)	0.0238** (0.0112)	0.0269** (0.0114)	0.0343*** (0.0108)	0.0545*** (0.0206)
Technical	0.0072 (0.0125)	0.0605*** (0.0122)	0.0801*** (0.0121)	0.0284** (0.0123)	0.0690*** (0.0125)	0.1265*** (0.0120)	0.1416*** (0.0225)
Undergraduate	-0.0279** (0.0127)	0.0366*** (0.0123)	0.0964*** (0.0123)	0.0083 (0.0124)	0.0553*** (0.0124)	0.1702*** (0.0122)	0.1886*** (0.0226)
Postgraduate	-0.0439*** (0.0144)	0.0554*** (0.0144)	0.1188*** (0.0140)	0.0224 (0.0144)	0.0678*** (0.0146)	0.2069*** (0.0140)	0.2338*** (0.0260)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex:Female	0.0787*** (0.0055)	0.0974*** (0.0055)	0.0595*** (0.0053)	0.0965*** (0.0057)	0.0732*** (0.0057)	0.0489*** (0.0052)	0.0644*** (0.0095)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Experience: Average	0.0129** (0.0060)	0.0367*** (0.0060)	0.0548*** (0.0059)	0.0170*** (0.0060)	0.0375*** (0.0060)	0.0618*** (0.0058)	0.0496*** (0.0106)
Experience: High	0.0212*** (0.0060)	0.0506*** (0.0059)	0.0945*** (0.0059)	0.0283*** (0.0059)	0.0573*** (0.0060)	0.1074*** (0.0060)	0.0973*** (0.0105)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Big 5: Generous	0.1903*** (0.0091)	0.1752*** (0.0090)	0.0946*** (0.0088)	0.1266*** (0.0090)	0.1307*** (0.0088)	0.0440*** (0.0086)	0.0750*** (0.0151)
Big 5: Persistent	-0.0058 (0.0091)	0.0785*** (0.0090)	0.1530*** (0.0090)	-0.0224** (0.0092)	0.0732*** (0.0091)	0.1205*** (0.0085)	0.1119*** (0.0153)
Big 5: Calm	0.0750*** (0.0091)	0.0883*** (0.0090)	0.0831*** (0.0087)	0.0196** (0.0090)	0.0809*** (0.0088)	0.0602*** (0.0086)	0.0769*** (0.0150)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0395*** (0.0089)	0.0657*** (0.0088)	0.1084*** (0.0086)	0.0371*** (0.0090)	0.0716*** (0.0088)	0.0654*** (0.0086)	0.1003*** (0.0150)
Observations	43,652	43,632	43,614	43,604	43,604	43,626	12,616
Clusters	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,894

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns present results of estimating the specification in [equation 5](#) including our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.10: Statistical discrimination - full conjoint Vs. leave one out designs**

Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...							
Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
<b>Panel A. Full conjoint</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0595*** (0.0077)	0.1421*** (0.0076)	0.1157*** (0.0076)	0.1307*** (0.0077)	0.123*** (0.0074)	0.1004*** (0.0075)	0.1514*** (0.0136)
<b>Panel B. Conjoint B1 - No education</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0423*** (0.0123)	0.109*** (0.0124)	0.0916*** (0.0126)	0.0877*** (0.0125)	0.0947*** (0.0124)	0.0787*** (0.0125)	0.0858*** (0.0219)
Difference	0.0172 (0.0145)	0.0331** (0.0145)	0.0242 (0.0147)	0.043*** (0.0147)	0.0282* (0.0144)	0.0217 (0.0146)	0.0656** (0.0258)
<b>Panel C. Conjoint B2 - No income</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0489*** (0.0114)	0.0892*** (0.0115)	0.0846*** (0.0115)	0.0883*** (0.0113)	0.07*** (0.0117)	0.0678*** (0.0113)	0.0415* (0.0218)
Difference	0.0106 (0.0137)	0.0529*** (0.0137)	0.0312** (0.0138)	0.0425*** (0.0137)	0.0529*** (0.0138)	0.0326** (0.0136)	0.1098*** (0.0257)
<b>Panel D. Conjoint B3 - Leaving all out</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0505*** (0.0132)	0.1219*** (0.0125)	0.0992*** (0.0124)	0.1074*** (0.0124)	0.1018*** (0.0122)	0.0881*** (0.0129)	0.1172*** (0.0216)
Difference	0.009 (0.0153)	0.0203 (0.0146)	0.0165 (0.0145)	0.0233 (0.0146)	0.0211 (0.0143)	0.0123 (0.0149)	0.0342 (0.0255)

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table for the “High Class Accent” coefficient correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). In panel A we present the estimates for “High class accent” as presented in [Table A.26](#). Panels B through D present estimates of the “High Class Accent” coefficient using all versions of our conjoint experiment as outlined in the experimental design in [Figure 1](#). The difference in the estimate row in panels B,C, and D correspond to the difference of both estimates of the “High Class Accent” estimate in the full conjoint and each of the Leave-one-out designs. Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.11: Heterogeneous treatment effect by respondent SES - Triple interaction**

	Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...						
	Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Accent: High Class	0.0540*** (0.0244)	0.1556*** (0.0243)	0.1075*** (0.0246)	0.1643*** (0.0239)	0.1269*** (0.0247)	0.0921*** (0.0236)	0.1247*** (0.0241)
Letter: Deferential	-0.0294 (0.0200)	-0.0146 (0.0203)	-0.0204 (0.0205)	0.0126 (0.0201)	0.0039 (0.0208)	-0.0047 (0.0198)	-0.0284 (0.0203)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential	0.0648* (0.0331)	0.0130 (0.0333)	0.0289 (0.0338)	-0.0189 (0.0335)	-0.0026 (0.0344)	0.0083 (0.0325)	0.0435 (0.0336)
SES: High vs. Medium SES	-0.0250 (0.0251)	0.0548 (0.0250)	0.0350 (0.0250)	0.0151 (0.0252)	0.0161 (0.0250)	0.0631 (0.0257)	0.0314 (0.0254)
SES: Low vs. Medium SES	-0.0163 (0.0247)	-0.0050 (0.0250)	-0.0242 (0.0249)	-0.0260 (0.0248)	-0.0154 (0.0250)	-0.0201 (0.0238)	0.0123 (0.0249)
Accent: High Class x SES: High vs. Medium SES	0.1168 (0.0791)	-0.0018 (0.0781)	0.0097 (0.0876)	0.0207 (0.0799)	0.0026 (0.0793)	-0.1305 (0.0835)	-0.0473 (0.0860)
Accent: High Class x SES: Low vs. Medium SES	0.0401 (0.0294)	-0.0104 (0.0406)	0.0354 (0.0389)	-0.0142 (0.0408)	0.0049 (0.0409)	0.0288 (0.0367)	0.0036 (0.0366)
Letter: Deferential x SES: High vs. Medium SES	-0.0456 (0.0730)	-0.1021 (0.0714)	-0.1500** (0.0704)	-0.1202 (0.0764)	-0.1128* (0.0746)	-0.1330* (0.0717)	-0.0650 (0.0795)
Letter: Deferential x SES: Low vs. Medium SES	0.0022 (0.0345)	0.0094 (0.0352)	0.0219 (0.0350)	0.0166 (0.0345)	0.0064 (0.0360)	0.0032 (0.0335)	0.0100 (0.0345)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential x SES: High vs. Medium SES	-0.0804 (0.1219)	0.1399 (0.1080)	0.1931* (0.1107)	0.0471 (0.1252)	0.1449 (0.1156)	0.3156*** (0.1121)	0.1347 (0.1225)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential x SES: Low vs. Medium SES	-0.0526 (0.0571)	-0.0185 (0.0576)	-0.0229 (0.0560)	-0.0143 (0.0575)	-0.0101 (0.0590)	-0.0265 (0.0540)	-0.0053 (0.0549)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>							
Income: < 1,100,001-2,600,000	-0.0024 (0.0150)	0.0086 (0.0151)	0.0536*** (0.0151)	0.0081 (0.0149)	0.0068 (0.0154)	0.0872*** (0.0148)	0.0507*** (0.0147)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0193 (0.0246)	0.0253 (0.0245)	0.1272*** (0.0245)	-0.0067 (0.0246)	0.0091 (0.0248)	0.1392*** (0.0238)	0.0817*** (0.0244)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	-0.0207 (0.0302)	-0.0041 (0.0299)	0.1386*** (0.0294)	-0.0316 (0.0301)	-0.0322 (0.0302)	0.1799*** (0.0281)	0.0702** (0.0287)
Income: More than 6,800,000	-0.0329 (0.0337)	-0.0017 (0.0329)	0.1130*** (0.0332)	-0.0619* (0.0328)	-0.0133 (0.0342)	0.2027*** (0.0315)	0.0872*** (0.0325)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
Education: High School	0.0108 (0.0314)	0.0086 (0.0306)	0.0598** (0.0295)	-0.0076 (0.0307)	0.0331 (0.0311)	0.0977*** (0.0283)	0.0635** (0.0295)
Education: Technical	0.0041 (0.0337)	0.0097 (0.0326)	0.0983*** (0.0315)	-0.0157 (0.0327)	0.0498 (0.0332)	0.1859*** (0.0309)	0.1295*** (0.0319)
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0232 (0.0333)	0.0310 (0.0322)	0.1340*** (0.0315)	-0.0171 (0.0325)	0.0878*** (0.0329)	0.2506*** (0.0306)	0.1937*** (0.0319)
Education: Postgraduate	-0.0623 (0.0386)	0.0243 (0.0381)	0.1584*** (0.0368)	-0.0041 (0.0382)	0.1066*** (0.0380)	0.2956*** (0.0352)	0.2470*** (0.0367)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex: Female	0.0625*** (0.0134)	0.0900*** (0.0137)	0.0802*** (0.0133)	0.0922*** (0.0137)	0.0757*** (0.0137)	0.0845*** (0.0131)	0.0798*** (0.0133)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Experience: Average	0.0274* (0.0149)	0.0309** (0.0152)	0.0524*** (0.0148)	0.0049 (0.0151)	0.0215 (0.0152)	0.0505*** (0.0145)	0.0413*** (0.0148)
Experience: High	0.0385** (0.0153)	0.0470*** (0.0154)	0.0799*** (0.0150)	0.0177 (0.0152)	0.0418*** (0.0153)	0.1028*** (0.0148)	0.0972*** (0.0150)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Big 5: Generous	0.2151*** (0.0210)	0.1814*** (0.0208)	0.0883*** (0.0207)	0.1563*** (0.0204)	0.1398*** (0.0210)	0.0347* (0.0198)	0.0756*** (0.0202)
Big 5: Persistent	0.0210 (0.0209)	0.0764*** (0.0204)	0.1255*** (0.0202)	-0.0275 (0.0211)	0.0507*** (0.0208)	0.0962*** (0.0197)	0.1103*** (0.0199)
Big 5: Calm	0.1254*** (0.0212)	0.1048*** (0.0210)	0.0815*** (0.0204)	0.0548*** (0.0210)	0.1051*** (0.0207)	0.0569*** (0.0200)	0.0786*** (0.0202)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0629*** (0.0213)	0.0856*** (0.0207)	0.0979*** (0.0199)	0.0581*** (0.0208)	0.0930*** (0.0204)	0.0607*** (0.0197)	0.1126*** (0.0200)
Observations	6,260	6,257	6,254	6,254	6,251	6,257	6,260
R <sup>2</sup>	0.04311	0.05173	0.06670	0.05020	0.04054	0.10631	0.08236

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.12: Downstream effects - Standardized outcomes**

<i>Dependent variable:</i>																
How much do you trust the following groups of people:						How much do you trust the following institutions:						Main problem in Colombia				
Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
<i>Panel A. A+B vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.102** (0.04)	0.049 (0.04)	0.077* (0.04)	-0.071* (0.04)	0.013 (0.04)	0.026 (0.04)	-0.048 (0.04)	-0.066 (0.04)	-0.007 (0.04)	0.064 (0.04)	-0.002 (0.04)	0.006 (0.02)	0.003 (0.01)	-0.042** (0.02)	0.031* (0.02)	0.012 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	-0.04	-0.07	0.06	-0.01	-0.02	2.48	0.06	0.01	-0.06	0.00	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	1.05	1.05	0.99	0.99	1.01	1.07	1.03	1.00	1.00	1.01	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	5,886	5,864	5,871	5,762	5,857	5,850	5,898	5,858	5,861	5,489	5,855	5,626	5,925	5,925	5,925	5,925
R <sup>2</sup>	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000
<i>Panel B. A vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.093** (0.04)	0.045 (0.04)	0.058 (0.04)	-0.082* (0.04)	0.018 (0.04)	0.042 (0.04)	-0.060 (0.04)	-0.075* (0.04)	-0.019 (0.04)	0.065 (0.04)	0.007 (0.04)	0.015 (0.02)	0.000 (0.02)	-0.050** (0.02)	0.035* (0.02)	0.019 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	-0.04	-0.07	0.06	-0.01	-0.02	2.48	0.06	0.01	-0.06	0.00	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	1.05	1.05	0.99	0.99	1.01	1.07	1.03	1.00	1.00	1.01	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	3,579	3,567	3,574	3,505	3,559	3,558	3,585	3,564	3,559	3,341	3,566	3,421	3,602	3,602	3,602	3,602
R <sup>2</sup>	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.13: Downstream effects - Lasso covariates**

<i>Dependent variable:</i>																
How much do you trust the following groups of people:						How much do you trust the following institutions:						Main problem in Colombia				
Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
<i>Panel A. A+B vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.098** (0.04)	0.044 (0.04)	0.077* (0.04)	-0.076* (0.04)	0.016 (0.04)	0.033 (0.05)	-0.047 (0.04)	-0.082* (0.05)	-0.007 (0.05)	0.045 (0.03)	0.005 (0.04)	0.005 (0.02)	0.003 (0.01)	-0.042** (0.02)	0.031* (0.02)	0.012 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	5,884	5,862	5,866	5,757	5,853	5,848	5,898	5,854	5,861	5,485	5,853	5,626	5,923	5,925	5,925	5,925
R <sup>2</sup>	0.011	0.019	0.055	0.032	0.008	0.008	0.004	0.006	0.004	0.007	0.030	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.001	0.000
<i>Panel B. A vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.093** (0.04)	0.044 (0.04)	0.064 (0.04)	-0.084* (0.05)	0.017 (0.04)	0.050 (0.05)	-0.059 (0.04)	-0.095* (0.05)	-0.022 (0.05)	0.044 (0.03)	0.008 (0.04)	0.014 (0.02)	0.000 (0.02)	-0.050** (0.02)	0.035* (0.02)	0.019 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	3,578	3,566	3,572	3,503	3,559	3,557	3,585	3,563	3,559	3,340	3,565	3,421	3,602	3,602	3,602	3,602
R <sup>2</sup>	0.008	0.021	0.059	0.029	0.000	0.010	0.004	0.005	0.000	0.009	0.030	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.14: Downstream effects - Revised Lasso**

Dependent variable:																
How much do you trust the following groups of people:					How much do you trust the following institutions:										Main problem in Colombia	
Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
<i>Panel A. A+B vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.1036*** (0.03945)	0.055 (0.04173)	0.0763* (0.0408)	-0.0647* (0.03915)	0.0108 (0.04003)	0.0278 (0.0405)	-0.043 (0.04281)	-0.0622 (0.04122)	-0.0036 (0.04043)	0.06 (0.04135)	-0.0034 (0.0402)	0.0064 (0.0162)	0.0034 (0.01437)	-0.0426** (0.01904)	0.0295* (0.01736)	0.0128 (0.01748)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
<i>Panel B. A vs. C</i>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.0966** (0.04165)	0.0518 (0.04359)	0.065 (0.04266)	-0.0713* (0.0411)	0.0155 (0.0419)	0.0437 (0.04225)	-0.0547 (0.04472)	-0.0704 (0.04305)	-0.0158 (0.04229)	0.0592 (0.04328)	0.0069 (0.04196)	0.0141 (0.01693)	0.0015 (0.01504)	-0.0497** (0.01986)	0.0326* (0.01824)	0.0195 (0.01835)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.15: Downstream effects - Het. effects by SES**

	Dependent variable:															
	How much do you trust the following groups of people:					How much do you trust the following institutions:					Main problem in Colombia					
	Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
<b>Panel A. A+B vs. C</b>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.100** (0.05)	0.011 (0.05)	0.040 (0.05)	-0.114** (0.05)	-0.004 (0.05)	-0.011 (0.06)	-0.079 (0.05)	-0.105* (0.06)	-0.043 (0.06)	0.028 (0.04)	-0.031 (0.05)	0.007 (0.02)	0.001 (0.02)	-0.014 (0.02)	0.006 (0.02)	0.010 (0.02)
Low SES	-0.053 (0.08)	-0.218** (0.08)	-0.424*** (0.09)	-0.359*** (0.09)	-0.124 (0.08)	-0.041 (0.10)	-0.042 (0.09)	0.059 (0.10)	-0.141 (0.09)	0.043 (0.06)	0.106 (0.08)	0.004 (0.08)	0.024 (0.03)	0.083** (0.04)	-0.077** (0.03)	-0.031 (0.03)
Class-based accents = 1 × Low SES	0.009 (0.08)	0.122 (0.09)	0.134 (0.10)	0.135 (0.09)	0.050 (0.08)	0.125 (0.10)	0.099 (0.09)	0.087 (0.11)	0.114 (0.10)	0.055 (0.07)	0.073 (0.09)	-0.000 (0.03)	0.006 (0.03)	-0.088** (0.04)	0.073** (0.04)	0.009 (0.04)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.25	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.21	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	5,867	5,845	5,852	5,744	5,838	5,831	5,879	5,839	5,842	5,473	5,835	5,607	5,905	5,905	5,905	5,905
R <sup>2</sup>	0.002	0.004	0.021	0.012	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.001	0.004	0.006	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.001
<b>Panel B. A vs. C</b>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.094* (0.05)	0.009 (0.05)	0.022 (0.05)	-0.129** (0.06)	0.002 (0.05)	0.013 (0.06)	-0.099* (0.05)	-0.129** (0.06)	-0.061 (0.06)	0.016 (0.04)	-0.029 (0.05)	0.014 (0.02)	0.001 (0.02)	-0.025 (0.02)	0.011 (0.02)	0.017 (0.02)
Low SES	-0.053 (0.08)	-0.218** (0.08)	-0.424*** (0.09)	-0.359*** (0.09)	-0.124 (0.08)	-0.041 (0.10)	-0.042 (0.09)	0.059 (0.10)	-0.141 (0.09)	0.043 (0.06)	0.106 (0.08)	0.004 (0.03)	0.024 (0.03)	0.083** (0.04)	-0.077** (0.03)	-0.031 (0.03)
Class-based accents = 1 × Low SES	0.002 (0.09)	0.118 (0.10)	0.133 (0.10)	0.142 (0.09)	0.048 (0.11)	0.115 (0.10)	0.126 (0.10)	0.125 (0.11)	0.129 (0.10)	0.091 (0.07)	0.093 (0.09)	0.001 (0.04)	0.001 (0.03)	-0.078* (0.04)	0.071* (0.04)	0.007 (0.04)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.25	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.21	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	3,569	3,557	3,564	3,495	3,549	3,549	3,575	3,554	3,549	3,334	3,556	3,412	3,592	3,592	3,592	3,592
R <sup>2</sup>	0.002	0.005	0.022	0.013	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.005	0.001	0.007	0.007	0.000	0.001	0.003	0.002	0.001

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.16: Downstream effects - Het. effects by SES (PCA)**

	Dependent variable:															
	How much do you trust the following groups of people:					How much do you trust the following institutions:					Main problem in Colombia					
	Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
<b>Panel A. A+B vs. C</b>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.134*** (0.05)	0.066 (0.05)	0.101* (0.06)	-0.067 (0.06)	-0.037 (0.05)	0.016 (0.06)	-0.030 (0.05)	-0.060 (0.06)	0.013 (0.06)	0.064* (0.04)	0.016 (0.05)	0.017 (0.02)	0.006 (0.02)	-0.056** (0.02)	0.044** (0.02)	0.010 (0.02)
Low SES	0.156** (0.08)	0.235*** (0.08)	0.476*** (0.08)	0.391*** (0.08)	-0.034 (0.07)	-0.169* (0.10)	0.057 (0.08)	-0.051 (0.09)	0.176* (0.09)	-0.019 (0.06)	-0.225*** (0.08)	0.040 (0.03)	-0.033 (0.03)	-0.043 (0.03)	0.054 (0.03)	0.028 (0.03)
Class-based accents = 1 × Low SES	-0.098 (0.08)	-0.068 (0.08)	-0.077 (0.09)	-0.042 (0.08)	0.142* (0.10)	0.048 (0.09)	-0.054 (0.09)	-0.051 (0.10)	-0.066 (0.10)	-0.045 (0.06)	-0.042 (0.09)	-0.034 (0.03)	-0.010 (0.03)	0.040 (0.04)	-0.041 (0.04)	0.004 (0.04)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	5,886	5,864	5,871	5,762	5,857	5,850	5,898	5,858	5,861	5,489	5,855	5,626	5,925	5,925	5,925	5,925
R <sup>2</sup>	0.002	0.008	0.037	0.024	0.003	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.015	0.000	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.001
<b>Panel B. A vs. C</b>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.124** (0.05)	0.060 (0.05)	0.081 (0.06)	-0.080 (0.06)	-0.033 (0.05)	0.033 (0.06)	-0.047 (0.06)	-0.076 (0.06)	-0.004 (0.06)	0.070* (0.04)	0.025 (0.05)	0.027 (0.02)	0.004 (0.02)	-0.052** (0.02)	0.043** (0.02)	0.011 (0.02)
Low SES	0.156** (0.08)	0.235*** (0.08)	0.476*** (0.08)	0.391*** (0.08)	-0.034 (0.07)	-0.169* (0.10)	0.057 (0.08)	-0.051 (0.09)	0.176* (0.09)	-0.019 (0.06)	-0.225*** (0.08)	0.040 (0.03)	-0.033 (0.03)	-0.043 (0.04)	0.054 (0.03)	0.028 (0.03)
Class-based accents = 1 × Low SES	-0.091 (0.08)	-0.054 (0.08)	-0.062 (0.09)	-0.027 (0.09)	0.149* (0.08)	0.052 (0.09)	-0.038 (0.09)	-0.037 (0.10)	-0.049 (0.10)	-0.063 (0.07)	-0.054 (0.09)	-0.037 (0.03)	-0.012 (0.03)	0.008 (0.04)	-0.023 (0.04)	0.021 (0.04)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	2.98	2.48	2.51	2.43	2.38	2.39	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	1.20	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.75	1.04	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	3,579	3,567	3,574	3,505	3,559	3,558	3,585	3,564	3,559	3,341	3,566	3,421	3,602	3,602	3,602	3,602
R <sup>2</sup>	0.003	0.010	0.038	0.027	0.003	0.003	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.003	0.016	0.001	0.003	0.002	0.003	0.003

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.17: Downstream effects - Dummy variables (columns 9-11)**

	Dependent variable:															
	How much do you trust the following groups of people:					How much do you trust the following institutions:					Main problem in Colombia					
	Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
<b>Panel A. A+B vs. C</b>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.102** (0.04)	0.046 (0.04)	0.079* (0.04)	-0.077* (0.04)	0.012 (0.04)	0.004 (0.02)	-0.048 (0.04)	-0.079 (0.05)	-0.008 (0.05)	0.046** (0.02)	0.002 (0.01)	0.006 (0.02)	0.003 (0.01)	-0.042** (0.02)	0.031* (0.02)	0.012 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	0.30	2.48	2.51	2.43	0.54	0.14	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	0.46	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.50	0.34	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	5,886	5,864	5,871	5,762	5,857	5,850	5,898	5,858	5,861	5,489	5,855	5,626	5,925	5,925	5,925	5,925
R <sup>2</sup>	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000
<b>Panel B. A vs. C</b>																
Class-based accents = 1	0.093** (0.04)	0.042 (0.04)	0.059 (0.04)	-0.090* (0.05)	0.017 (0.04)	0.006 (0.02)	-0.060 (0.04)	-0.089* (0.05)	-0.022 (0.05)	0.045** (0.02)	-0.000 (0.01)	0.015 (0.02)	0.000 (0.02)	-0.050** (0.02)	0.035* (0.02)	0.019 (0.02)
Control Mean	1.63	4.26	3.79	2.85	1.95	0.30	2.48	2.51	2.43	0.54	0.14	0.81	0.15	0.35	0.24	0.25
Control SD	0.98	0.99	1.07	1.09	0.96	0.46	1.07	1.22	1.15	0.50	0.34	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.43	0.44
Observations	3,579	3,567	3,574	3,505	3,559	3,558	3,585	3,564	3,559	3,341	3,566	3,421	3,602	3,602	3,602	3,602
R <sup>2</sup>	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000	

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.18: Downstream effects - Realistic profilesn**

	Dependent variable:															Main problem in Colombia			
	How much do you trust the following groups of people:					How much do you trust the following institutions:													
	Index of Amoral familism	Family	Friends	Foreigners	Strangers	Probability of returning a lost wallet	Index of institutional trust	Government	Democratic institutions	Optimism future	Social mobility perceptions in Colombia	Low meritocracy	Insecurity	Unemployment	Inequality	Corruption			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)			
<b>Panel A. A+B vs. C</b>																			
Class-based accents = 1	0.1016** (0.0396)	0.0492 (0.0423)	0.0771* (0.042)	-0.0705* (0.0403)	0.0128 (0.0399)	0.0257 (0.0404)	-0.0481 (0.0428)	-0.0664 (0.0412)	-0.007 (0.0404)	0.0637 (0.0414)	-0.0017 (0.0405)	0.0058 (0.0162)	0.0027 (0.0144)	-0.0422** (0.019)	0.0307* (0.0173)	0.0117 (0.0175)			
Control Mean	1.629	-0.043	-0.068	0.062	-0.011	-0.023	2.477	0.058	0.006	-0.056	0.002	0.81	0.151	0.347	0.245	0.253			
Control Sd	0.982	1.053	1.05	0.991	0.987	1.005	1.07	1.027	1.002	0.997	1.007	0.393	0.359	0.476	0.43	0.435			
Observations	5886	5864	5871	5762	5857	5850	5898	5858	5861	5489	5855	5626	5925	5925	5925	5925			
R2	0.0011	0.0003	0.0006	0.0005	0	0.0001	0.0002	0.0005	0	0.0004	0	0	0	0.0009	0.0005	0.0001			
<b>Panel A. A vs. C</b>																			
Class-based accents = 1	0.0926** (0.0416)	0.0451 (0.0441)	0.0578 (0.0439)	-0.082* (0.0422)	0.0175 (0.0418)	0.0422 (0.0422)	-0.0595 (0.0446)	-0.0752* (0.043)	-0.0189 (0.0422)	0.0646 (0.0434)	0.0066 (0.0422)	0.0145 (0.0169)	0.0003 (0.015)	-0.0498** (0.0198)	0.0348* (0.0182)	0.0187 (0.0183)			
Control Mean	1.629	-0.043	-0.068	0.062	-0.011	-0.023	2.477	0.058	0.006	-0.056	0.002	0.81	0.151	0.347	0.245	0.253			
Control Sd	0.982	1.053	1.05	0.991	0.987	1.005	1.07	1.027	1.002	0.997	1.007	0.393	0.359	0.476	0.43	0.435			
Observations	3579	3567	3574	3505	3559	3558	3585	3564	3559	3341	3566	3421	3602	3602	3602	3602			
R2	0.0013	0.0003	0.0005	0.0011	0	0.0003	0.0005	0.0009	0.0001	0.0007	0	0.0002	0	0.0018	0.001	0.0003			
<b>Panel A. A vs. C - Realistic profiles</b>																			
Class-based accents = 1	0.0676 (0.0472)	0.024 (0.0503)	0.0668 (0.0504)	-0.0888* (0.0483)	0.0565 (0.0484)	0.0409 (0.0485)	-0.0235 (0.0509)	-0.0532 (0.049)	0.0223 (0.048)	0.1013** (0.0504)	0.0122 (0.048)	0.0147 (0.0194)	-0.0063 (0.0176)	-0.0588*** (0.0227)	0.0446** (0.0208)	0.0256 (0.021)			
Control Mean	1.643	-0.031	-0.085	0.065	-0.041	-0.016	2.463	0.054	-0.017	-0.07	-0.012	0.809	0.16	0.346	0.238	0.25			
Control SD	0.968	1.042	1.048	0.985	0.996	1.007	1.061	1.016	0.99	1.009	0.995	0.394	0.367	0.476	0.426	0.433			
Observations	2696	2683	2691	2647	2686	2683	2702	2687	2682	2513	2684	2574	2714	2714	2714	2714			
R2	0.0007	0.0001	0.0007	0.0013	0.0005	0.0003	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001	0.0016	0	0.0002	0	0.0026	0.0016	0.0005			

**Notes:** All outcomes are in levels. The index of amoral familism is computed as the difference between the mean of trust in family and friends, and the mean of trust in foreigners and strangers. Questions corresponding to each question in order from left to right: *How much do you trust the following groups of people or institutions* (1= not at all, 5=very much); *What is the probability that a lost wallet, containing valuable documents and money, will be returned to its owner* (1= close to 0, 5 = quite high); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months* (1= better); *When you think about the future, how do you think your economic situation will be in the next 12 months?* (1= better); *Suppose Colombia is divided into 5 groups, where group 1 is made up of the 100 poorest families and group 5 is made up of the 100 richest families. What do you think is the probability that a person from the 100 poorest families will make it into one of the 100 richest families in the future?* (1 = close to 0, 5= quite high); *What do you think has more to do with a person being rich in Colombia?* (1 = because they had more advantages than others); and *In your opinion, what are the main problems affecting Colombia?* Robust standard errors are presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.19: Conjoint version A estimated pAMCE (short version) - Unreal**

Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...							
	Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
High Class	0.046 (0.04309)	0.0492 (0.04318)	0.0532 (0.04343)	0.0044 (0.04322)	0.0381 (0.04352)	0.0362 (0.04391)	-0.0514 (0.07688)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0 - 1,100,000</b>							
4,200,001 - 6,800,000	-0.1237 (0.06378)	-0.1441 (0.0626)	-0.057 (0.0641)	-0.1294 (0.06357)	-0.0333 (0.06406)	-0.0904 (0.06408)	-0.0818*** (0.11365)
More than 6,800,000	-0.1452 (0.07018)	-0.0734 (0.07055)	0.0055 (0.07122)	-0.0451 (0.07063)	-0.0187 (0.07099)	0.059 (0.07146)	-0.0359 (0.12969)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
High School	0.1633 (0.59329)	0.477 (0.50053)	-0.1725 (0.60862)	0.1265* (0.60862)	-0.6642 (0.33565)	-0.3137 (0.31853)	0.4968 (0.04224)
Postgraduate	0.1981* (0.32002)	0.5091 (0.02325)	-0.1577 (0.34807)	0.1445 (0.34806)	-0.1869 (0.33734)	0.1803 (0.32005)	0.5972 (0.50936)
Technical	-0.162* (0.35473)	0.1517. (0.1561)	-0.4978 (0.37981)	-0.0418. (0.41017)	-0.5125 (0.37017)	0.2513** (0.42101)	0.4624*** (0.04792)
Undergraduate	0.1982 (0.32153)	0.4793*** (0.02772)	-0.1393 (0.3482)	0.1623 (0.34815)	-0.1434 (0.33766)	0.1789 (0.32144)	0.0538*** (0.069)

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns present results of estimating the specification in [equation 1](#) including our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Additionally, estimates in this table comprehend all profiles deemed as unrealistic profiles as explained in the pilot and PAP. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.20: Conjoint version A estimated pAMCE (short version) - Real**

Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...							
	Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
High Class	0.0368*** (0.00633)	0.0879*** (0.00615)	0.0736*** (0.00629)	0.077*** (0.00637)	0.0703*** (0.00614)	0.0676*** (0.00629)	0.0888*** (0.01134)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0 - 1,100,000</b>							
1,100,001 - 2,600,000	-0.0176 (0.00682)	0.0082** (0.00685)	0.0586*** (0.00705)	0.0053* (0.007)	0.0167** (0.00691)	0.105*** (0.00683)	0.0502*** (0.0126)
2,600,001 - 4,200,000	-0.0493 (0.01174)	-0.0002*** (0.01168)	0.1389*** (0.01171)	-0.0197** (0.01173)	0.0352*** (0.01161)	0.2221*** (0.01132)	0.1387*** (0.02102)
4,200,001 - 6,800,000	-0.0159*** (0.03428)	0.0391*** (0.03405)	0.1739*** (0.03288)	-0.0232*** (0.03393)	0.0124*** (0.03389)	0.2047** (0.03345)	0.2093*** (0.05655)
More than 6,800,000	-0.0474*** (0.06358)	-0.0072*** (0.06593)	0.1048*** (0.06488)	-0.0076*** (0.06594)	-0.0333*** (0.06588)	0.1097*** (0.06331)	-0.032*** (0.17593)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
High School	0.0137*** (0.01302)	0.0449 (0.01297)	0.053*** (0.01288)	0.0278. (0.01299)	0.0373** (0.01308)	0.0877*** (0.01252)	0.0885*** (0.02397)
Postgraduate	-0.0528 (0.01967)	0.0774 (0.01937)	0.1822 (0.01904)	0.0465 (0.0196)	0.0929 (0.01972)	0.3158. (0.01859)	0.2481 (0.03516)
Technical	0.0099*** (0.01409)	0.0801*** (0.01383)	0.1266*** (0.01376)	0.0366*** (0.01396)	0.0885*** (0.01408)	0.1931*** (0.01344)	0.192*** (0.02523)
Undergraduate	-0.0347** (0.01411)	0.056*** (0.01388)	0.1347*** (0.01392)	0.0114* (0.01406)	0.0616*** (0.01408)	0.234*** (0.01364)	0.244*** (0.02549)

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns present results of estimating the specification in [equation 1](#) including our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Additionally, estimates in this table comprehend all profiles deemed as realistic profiles as explained in the pilot and PAP. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.21: Conjoint version A - Deferential treatment orthogonality**

	Deferential letter
	(1)
Accent: High Class	0.0042 (0.0089)
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	0.0046 (0.0110)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0080 (0.0178)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	0.0008 (0.0213)
Income: More than 6,800,000	0.0086 (0.0245)
Education: High School	0.0076 (0.0221)
Education: Technical	0.0091 (0.0238)
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0014 (0.0237)
Education: Postgraduate	0.0133 (0.0274)
Region: Bogota	0.0022 (0.0089)
Sex: Female	0.0092 (0.0090)
Experience: Average	0.0057 (0.0109)
Experience: High	0.0082 (0.0109)
Big 5: Generous	-0.0125 (0.0141)
Big 5: Persistent	-0.0017 (0.0140)
Big 5: Calm	-0.0120 (0.0141)
Big 5: Imaginative	-0.0054 (0.0141)
Observations	12,616
R <sup>2</sup>	0.00039

**Notes:** The dependent variable reported in this table is defined as follows. The variable takes the value of one if the pair of profiles in the choice task are shown a deferential letter, zero otherwise. However, the dependent variable is shown only one time per round. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

### A3 Causal mechanisms

**Table A.22: Income as a mediator - Socially adeptness variables**

	Which of the two individuals seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?			Which of the two individuals inspires more trustworthiness?			Which of the two individuals would you prefer to have a friendship with?		
	Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )		
	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference
<b>ATE</b>									
Inferred-Income arm ( $d^*$ )	0.5246*** (0.00251)	0.4757*** (0.00249)	0.0489*** (0.00353)	0.5446*** (0.00252)	0.4554*** (0.00254)	0.0892*** (0.00361)	0.5445*** (0.00251)	0.4562*** (0.00252)	0.0882*** (0.00361)
<b>Low to Medium Education</b>									
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.5627*** (0.00169)	0.5006*** (0.00174)	0.0622*** (0.00245)	0.6009*** (0.00172)	0.4554*** (0.0017)	0.1455*** (0.00241)	0.5982*** (0.00175)	0.4649*** (0.00173)	0.1333*** (0.0025)
Difference	-0.0381*** (0.00302)	-0.0248*** (0.00302)	-0.0133*** (0.00428)	-0.0564*** (0.00305)	-0.0001 (0.00305)	-0.0563*** (0.00432)	-0.0537*** (0.00307)	-0.0087*** (0.00308)	-0.045*** (0.00441)
<b>High Education</b>									
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.4561*** (0.00485)	0.4185*** (0.00456)	0.0376*** (0.00665)	0.5898*** (0.00467)	0.4731*** (0.00478)	0.1166*** (0.00664)	0.5575*** (0.00474)	0.4455*** (0.00475)	0.1121*** (0.00672)
Difference	0.0686*** (0.00548)	0.0573*** (0.0052)	0.0113 (0.00753)	-0.0452*** (0.00527)	-0.0178*** (0.00546)	-0.0275*** (0.0076)	-0.013** (0.00532)	0.0108** (0.00533)	-0.0238*** (0.00753)

**Notes:** Change the footnote

**Table A.23: Income as a mediator - Work related settings**

	Which of the two individuals would you prefer to do business with?			Which of the two individuals would you prefer to share your workplace?			Which of the two individuals is more likely to be your boss?			Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?		
	Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )		
	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference
<b>ATE</b>												
Inferred-Income arm ( $d^*$ )	0.543*** (0.00252)	0.4583*** (0.00253)	0.0847*** (0.00358)	0.5356*** (0.00255)	0.4655*** (0.00256)	0.0701*** (0.00364)	0.5347*** (0.00248)	0.4668*** (0.00248)	0.0678*** (0.00357)	0.5221*** (0.00463)	0.4805*** (0.00462)	0.0417*** (0.00655)
<b>Low to Medium Education</b>												
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.5588*** (0.00171)	0.4386*** (0.0017)	0.1202*** (0.00246)	0.5802*** (0.00172)	0.4556*** (0.00172)	0.1245*** (0.00247)	0.5342*** (0.00171)	0.4301*** (0.00169)	0.1041*** (0.00245)	0.5857*** (0.00322)	0.4313*** (0.00315)	0.1544*** (0.00464)
Difference	-0.0158*** (0.00303)	0.0197*** (0.00305)	-0.0355*** (0.00434)	-0.0446*** (0.00312)	0.0099*** (0.00311)	-0.0545*** (0.00446)	0.0004 (0.00302)	0.0367*** (0.00299)	-0.0363*** (0.00437)	-0.0636*** (0.00571)	0.0491*** (0.00559)	-0.1127*** (0.00806)
<b>High Education</b>												
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.6769*** (0.00452)	0.5953*** (0.00457)	0.0816*** (0.00636)	0.5951*** (0.00475)	0.4838*** (0.0047)	0.1113*** (0.00672)	0.7458*** (0.00413)	0.6725*** (0.00436)	0.0733*** (0.00607)	0.716*** (0.00816)	0.5839*** (0.00846)	0.1321*** (0.01191)
Difference	-0.1339*** (0.00517)	-0.137*** (0.00522)	0.0031 (0.00724)	-0.0595*** (0.00536)	-0.0182*** (0.0054)	-0.0413*** (0.00762)	-0.2112*** (0.00487)	-0.2057*** (0.00495)	-0.0055 (0.00704)	-0.1938*** (0.00933)	-0.1035*** (0.00974)	-0.0904*** (0.01351)

**Notes:** Change the footnote

**Table A.24: Education as a mediator - Socially adeptness variables**

	Which of the two individuals seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?			Which of the two individuals inspires more trustworthiness?			Which of the two individuals would you prefer to have a friendship with?		
	Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )		
	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference
<b>ATE</b>									
Inferred-Income arm ( $d^*$ )	0.5200*** (0.00254)	0.4777*** (0.00257)	0.0423*** (0.00362)	0.5536*** (0.00254)	0.4445*** (0.00258)	0.1091*** (0.00362)	0.5429*** (0.00258)	0.4552*** (0.00256)	0.0877*** (0.00372)
<b>Low to Medium Education</b>									
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.5809*** (0.00203)	0.5134*** (0.00205)	0.0675*** (0.00288)	0.6015*** (0.00205)	0.4449*** (0.00207)	0.1566*** (0.00292)	0.6039*** (0.00202)	0.4639*** (0.00211)	0.14*** (0.00296)
Difference	-0.0609*** (0.00323)	-0.0357*** (0.00327)	-0.0252*** (0.00465)	-0.0479*** (0.00328)	-0.0004 (0.00332)	-0.0475*** (0.00466)	-0.0609*** (0.00327)	-0.0087*** (0.00334)	-0.0523*** (0.00472)
<b>High Education</b>									
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.5029*** (0.00255)	0.4558*** (0.00258)	0.0471*** (0.00361)	0.5973*** (0.00254)	0.4775*** (0.00257)	0.1198*** (0.00361)	0.5777*** (0.00256)	0.461*** (0.00255)	0.1168*** (0.00363)
Difference	0.0171*** (0.00363)	0.0219*** (0.00362)	-0.0048 (0.0051)	-0.0437*** (0.00358)	-0.033*** (0.00365)	-0.0107** (0.0051)	-0.0348*** (0.00363)	-0.0058 (0.00366)	-0.0291*** (0.00522)

Notes: Change the footnote

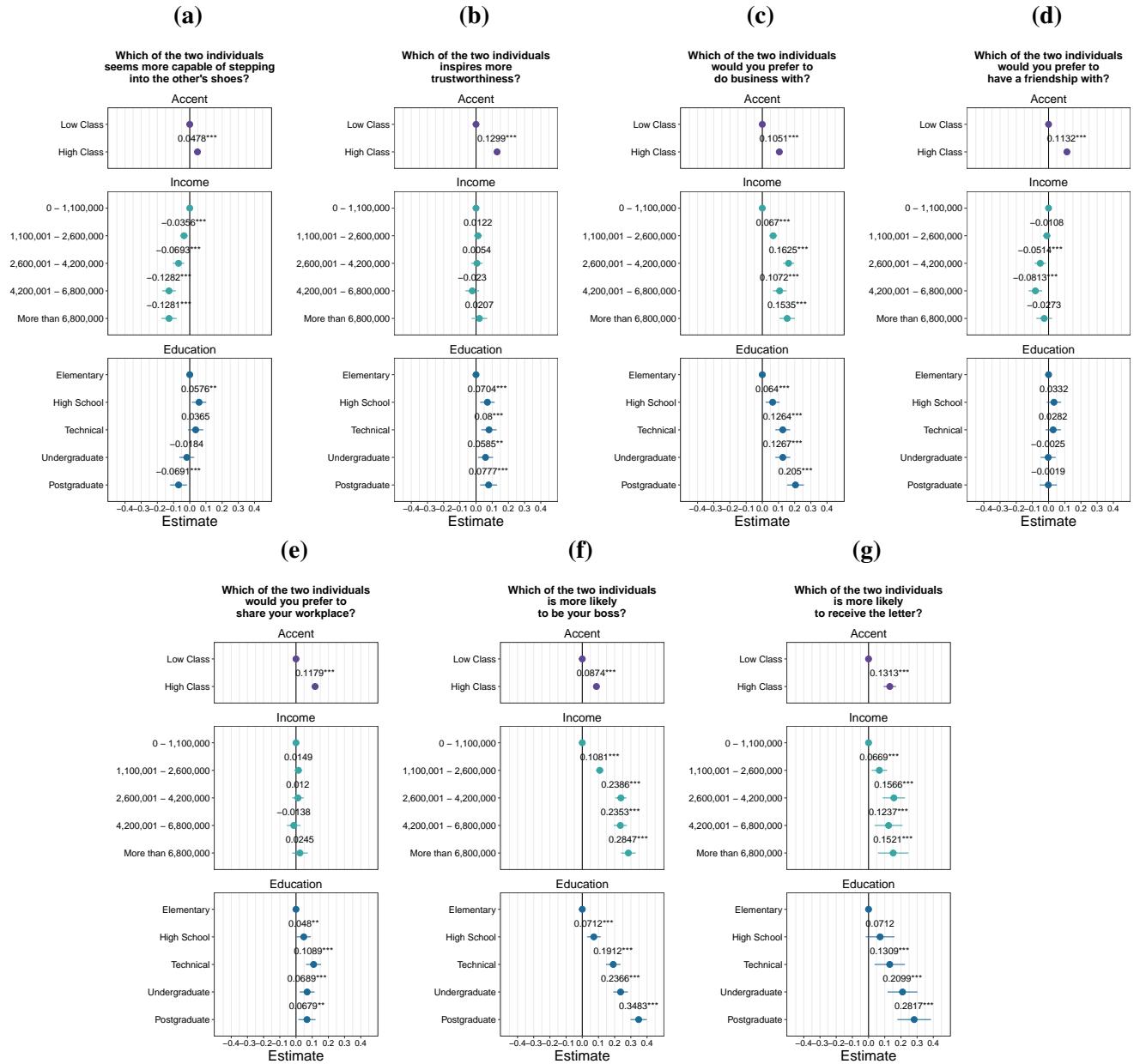
**Table A.25: Education as a mediator - Work related settings**

	Which of the two individuals would you prefer to do business with?			Which of the two individuals would you prefer to share your workplace?			Which of the two individuals is more likely to be your boss?			Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?		
	Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )			Class based accent ( $T_i$ )		
	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference	High-Class ( $T_1$ )	Low-Class ( $T_0$ )	Difference
<b>ATE</b>												
Inferred-Income arm ( $d^*$ )	0.5458*** (0.00249)	0.4541*** (0.00259)	0.0917*** (0.00364)	0.5466*** (0.00262)	0.4518*** (0.00261)	0.0948*** (0.00369)	0.5398*** (0.00253)	0.4611*** (0.00257)	0.0787*** (0.00366)	0.541*** (0.00483)	0.4572*** (0.00486)	0.0838*** (0.00692)
<b>Low to Medium Education</b>												
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.5292*** (0.00206)	0.401*** (0.00206)	0.1281*** (0.00289)	0.5755*** (0.00209)	0.4428*** (0.00212)	0.1327*** (0.00301)	0.4813*** (0.00212)	0.3657*** (0.00195)	0.1156*** (0.00293)	0.5361*** (0.00386)	0.3753*** (0.00376)	0.1608*** (0.00537)
Difference	0.0166*** (0.00324)	0.0531*** (0.00333)	-0.0365*** (0.00468)	-0.029*** (0.00335)	0.009*** (0.00333)	-0.0379*** (0.00473)	0.0585*** (0.0033)	0.0954*** (0.00318)	-0.0369*** (0.00465)	0.005 (0.00621)	0.0819*** (0.00612)	-0.077*** (0.00876)
<b>High Education</b>												
Manipulated-income arm ( $d_0$ )	0.6413*** (0.0025)	0.5456*** (0.00252)	0.0957*** (0.00359)	0.5921*** (0.00253)	0.4849*** (0.0026)	0.1072*** (0.00361)	0.6813*** (0.00239)	0.6053*** (0.0025)	0.076*** (0.00346)	0.698*** (0.00435)	0.5666*** (0.00469)	0.1315*** (0.00637)
Difference	-0.0955*** (0.00351)	-0.0915*** (0.00358)	-0.004 (0.00504)	-0.0455*** (0.00362)	-0.0331*** (0.00367)	-0.0124** (0.00514)	-0.1415*** (0.00347)	-0.1442*** (0.00357)	0.0027 (0.00508)	-0.157*** (0.00651)	-0.1093*** (0.00674)	-0.0477*** (0.00943)

**Notes:** Change the footnote

## A4 First round estimates

**Figure A.12: Conjoint A point estimates for the pAMCE**



**Notes:** This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels A.12a to A.12f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel A.12g is shown once per round. All panels include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. However, we present only estimates for accent, income and education. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in de la Cuesta et al. (2022). Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” and only first round choice tasks subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.26: Conjoint version A estimated pAMCE**

Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...							
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	inspires more confidence	would you prefer to do business?	would you prefer to have a friendship?	would you prefer to share your workplace?	is more likely to be your boss?	is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
High Class	0.0478*** (0.01031)	0.1299*** (0.01015)	0.1051*** (0.01018)	0.1132*** (0.01019)	0.1179*** (0.01004)	0.0874*** (0.01026)	0.1313*** (0.01975)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0 - 1,100,000</b>							
1,100,001 - 2,600,000	-0.0356* (0.01214)	0.0122** (0.01215)	0.067** (0.01238)	-0.0108 (0.01224)	0.0149* (0.01233)	0.1081** (0.01209)	0.0669 (0.02439)
2,600,001 - 4,200,000	-0.0693 (0.01806)	0.0054** (0.01808)	0.1625*** (0.01774)	-0.0514 (0.01796)	0.012*** (0.01798)	0.2386*** (0.0175)	0.1566*** (0.03491)
4,200,001 - 6,800,000	-0.1282*** (0.02133)	-0.023*** (0.0216)	0.1072*** (0.02144)	-0.0813*** (0.02146)	-0.0138*** (0.0216)	0.2353*** (0.02081)	0.1237*** (0.04379)
More than 6,800,000	-0.1281*** (0.02424)	0.0207*** (0.02459)	0.1535*** (0.02416)	-0.0273 (0.02462)	0.0245*** (0.02443)	0.2847*** (0.02298)	0.1521** (0.04741)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
High School	0.0576*** (0.02257)	0.0704 (0.02282)	0.064*** (0.02205)	0.0332*** (0.02265)	0.048 (0.02245)	0.0712*** (0.02143)	0.0712** (0.0449)
Postgraduate	-0.0691 (0.02671)	0.0777** (0.02682)	0.205*** (0.02646)	-0.0019 (0.02706)	0.0679* (0.02699)	0.3483*** (0.02558)	0.2817** (0.0526)
Technical	0.0365* (0.02402)	0.08** (0.02404)	0.1264** (0.02327)	0.0282 (0.02426)	0.1089* (0.02403)	0.1912** (0.02291)	0.1309 (0.04782)
Undergraduate	-0.0184 (0.02356)	0.0585** (0.0238)	0.1267*** (0.02356)	-0.0025 (0.02366)	0.0689*** (0.02368)	0.2366*** (0.02295)	0.2099** (0.04673)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Female	0.0521*** (0.01024)	0.1013*** (0.01009)	0.0591*** (0.00997)	0.0892 (0.01026)	0.0692*** (0.01019)	0.0603*** (0.01022)	0.0779** (0.02065)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Generous	0.1895** (0.0156)	0.1837 (0.01585)	0.1026*** (0.01568)	0.1324 (0.01556)	0.1316 (0.01568)	0.0589*** (0.01581)	0.0814** (0.03129)
Persistent	-0.0184 (0.0158)	0.0792** (0.01602)	0.1399*** (0.01578)	-0.0429 (0.01589)	0.0492* (0.01584)	0.1154*** (0.01574)	0.0968** (0.03103)
Calm	0.0758** (0.01565)	0.1027*** (0.01569)	0.1022*** (0.01561)	0.025*** (0.01598)	0.0835*** (0.01562)	0.0699*** (0.01517)	0.0923*** (0.03109)
Imaginative	0.0459*** (0.016)	0.0878 (0.0157)	0.124*** (0.01595)	0.0544*** (0.01557)	0.091 (0.01598)	0.0682*** (0.01597)	0.1183** (0.03132)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Average	0.0004** (0.01153)	0.0385*** (0.01122)	0.0514*** (0.01108)	-0.0014*** (0.01143)	0.0228*** (0.01135)	0.0813*** (0.01112)	0.0642*** (0.02272)
High	0.0028** (0.0114)	0.0338 (0.01128)	0.0854*** (0.01127)	0.0119 (0.01129)	0.0356 (0.01129)	0.1109*** (0.01122)	0.0898** (0.02305)

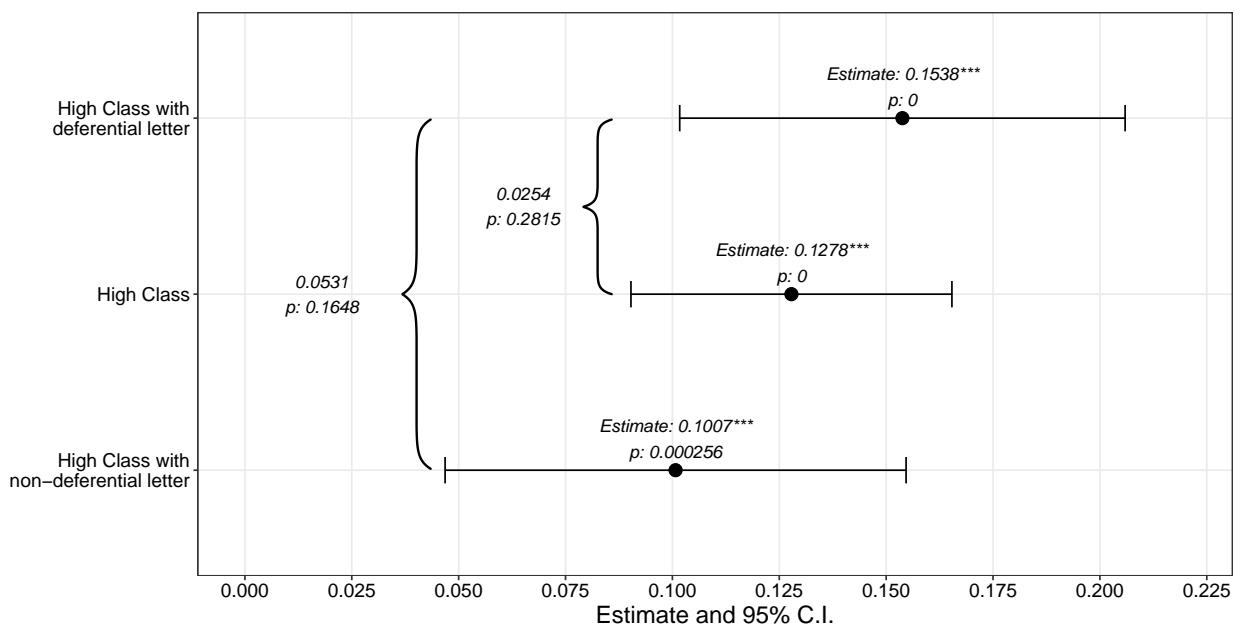
**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the population AMCE (*pAMCE*) as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” and only first round choice tasks subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.27: Heterogeneous effect by respondent's SES (long version)**

	Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...						
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	inspires more confidence	would you prefer to do business?	would you prefer to have a friendship?	would you prefer to share your workplace?	is more likely to be your boss?	is more likely to receive the letter?
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
Accent: Class-Based	0.0474*** (0.0126)	0.1277*** (0.0124)	0.0934*** (0.0125)	0.1227*** (0.0126)	0.1158*** (0.0123)	0.0845*** (0.0120)	0.1308*** (0.0240)
<b>Socioeconomic Status (SES) - Baseline: High SES</b>							
SES: Low	0.0036 (0.0127)	-0.0092 (0.0126)	-0.0031 (0.0125)	0.0068 (0.0126)	-0.0051 (0.0129)	0.0015 (0.0124)	0.0177 (0.0245)
<b>Interaction</b>							
Accent: Class-Based × SES: Low	0.0051 (0.0209)	0.0055 (0.0207)	0.0322 (0.0205)	-0.0256 (0.0208)	0.0038 (0.0208)	0.0031 (0.0204)	-0.0082 (0.0396)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>							
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	-0.0204* (0.0113)	0.0182 (0.0112)	0.0588*** (0.0114)	-0.0064 (0.0113)	0.0169 (0.0115)	0.0891*** (0.0111)	0.0463** (0.0222)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	-0.0328* (0.0186)	0.0160 (0.0188)	0.1323*** (0.0185)	-0.0328* (0.0187)	0.0096 (0.0186)	0.1723*** (0.0180)	0.0960*** (0.0357)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	-0.0806*** (0.0222)	-0.0111 (0.0224)	0.0863*** (0.0222)	-0.0616*** (0.0223)	-0.0038 (0.0227)	0.1651*** (0.0217)	0.0581 (0.0441)
Income: More than 6,800,000	-0.0586** (0.0249)	0.0364 (0.0249)	0.1272** (0.0246)	-0.0017 (0.0256)	0.0277 (0.0250)	0.2033*** (0.0231)	0.0721 (0.0478)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
Education: High School	0.0600*** (0.0216)	0.0557** (0.0217)	0.0412** (0.0208)	0.0299 (0.0217)	0.0397* (0.0214)	0.0391* (0.0204)	0.0444 (0.0423)
Education: Technical	0.0352 (0.0235)	0.0617*** (0.0233)	0.0925*** (0.0227)	0.0217 (0.0236)	0.0906*** (0.0234)	0.1459*** (0.0224)	0.0969** (0.0462)
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0186 (0.0235)	0.0299 (0.0237)	0.0844*** (0.0233)	-0.0066 (0.0236)	0.0506** (0.0235)	0.1757*** (0.0228)	0.1674*** (0.0461)
Education: Postgraduate	-0.0374 (0.0271)	0.0445 (0.0272)	0.1224*** (0.0268)	0.0039 (0.0274)	0.0528* (0.0272)	0.2267*** (0.0264)	0.2193*** (0.0533)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex: Female	0.0544*** (0.0101)	0.1033*** (0.0099)	0.0600*** (0.0097)	0.0915*** (0.0100)	0.0699*** (0.0100)	0.0604*** (0.0096)	0.0689*** (0.0197)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Experience: Average	0.0001 (0.0113)	0.0398*** (0.0110)	0.0554*** (0.0108)	-0.0009 (0.0112)	0.0243** (0.0112)	0.0854*** (0.0106)	0.0640*** (0.0215)
Experience: High	0.0025 (0.0112)	0.0337*** (0.0111)	0.0870** (0.0111)	0.0121 (0.0111)	0.0357*** (0.0112)	0.1119** (0.0107)	0.0945*** (0.0223)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Big 5: Generous	0.1886*** (0.0154)	0.1834*** (0.0156)	0.1014*** (0.0153)	0.1322*** (0.0153)	0.1305*** (0.0155)	0.0599*** (0.0149)	0.0845*** (0.0301)
Big 5: Persistent	-0.0178 (0.0156)	0.0781*** (0.0156)	0.1359*** (0.0154)	-0.0433*** (0.0156)	0.0473*** (0.0156)	0.1121*** (0.0149)	0.1026*** (0.0298)
Big 5: Calm	0.0775*** (0.0154)	0.1051*** (0.0154)	0.1016*** (0.0154)	0.0271* (0.0157)	0.0842*** (0.0154)	0.0691*** (0.0151)	0.0898*** (0.0299)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0443*** (0.0158)	0.0896*** (0.0153)	0.1261*** (0.0155)	0.0556*** (0.0152)	0.0925*** (0.0157)	0.0750** (0.0150)	0.1215*** (0.0301)
Observations	11,643	11,637	11,628	11,626	11,627	11,633	2,894
R <sup>2</sup>	0.03793	0.04354	0.04984	0.03765	0.03005	0.09452	0.07021

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the population AMCE (*pAMCE*) as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” and only first round choice tasks subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Figure A.13: Conjoint A point estimates for the pAMCE**



**Notes:** This figure reports the estimates for the high class premia across our deferential letter treatment. Coefficients reported in this figure correspond to the estimates itself or a lineal combination of estimates in [Table A.28](#). The “high Class” coefficient reported correspond to the first column in [Table A.28](#). The “High Class with non-deferential letter” coefficient corresponds to the second column coefficient of high-class accent. The “High Class with deferential letter” corresponds to the linear combination of the high-class accent and the double interaction term of column 2 in [Table A.28](#). In curly brackets we present the estimate and p value of the difference in our highlighted estimates. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” and only first round choice tasks subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.28: Conjoint version A - Differential treatment and SES heterogeneity**

	Dependent variable: Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Accent: High Class	0.1278*** (0.0192)	0.1007*** (0.0275)	0.0811** (0.0352)	0.0678* (0.0350)
Letter: Differential.		-0.0254 (0.0235)	-0.0458 (0.0296)	-0.0538* (0.0293)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Differential.		0.0531 (0.0382)	0.0958** (0.0480)	0.1137** (0.0475)
SES: Low			-0.0101 (0.0352)	-0.0305 (0.0350)
Accent: High Class x SES: Low			0.0517 (0.0562)	0.0917 (0.0565)
Letter: Differential x SES: Low			0.0555 (0.0491)	0.0838* (0.0496)
Accent: High Class x Letter: Differential x SES: Low			-0.1166 (0.0795)	-0.1779** (0.0804)
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>				
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	0.0463** (0.0222)	0.0471** (0.0222)	0.0476** (0.0222)	0.0475** (0.0222)
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0964*** (0.0357)	0.0970*** (0.0358)	0.0969*** (0.0358)	0.0948*** (0.0357)
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	0.0584 (0.0441)	0.0603 (0.0441)	0.0598 (0.0440)	0.0576 (0.0439)
Income: More than 6,800,000	0.0719 (0.0478)	0.0739 (0.0479)	0.0750 (0.0479)	0.0722 (0.0480)
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>				
Education: High School	0.0445 (0.0422)	0.0447 (0.0422)	0.0433 (0.0423)	0.0431 (0.0423)
Education: Technical	0.0967** (0.0461)	0.0973** (0.0461)	0.0965** (0.0462)	0.0961** (0.0461)
Education: Undergraduate	0.1671*** (0.0460)	0.1659*** (0.0459)	0.1642*** (0.0460)	0.1646*** (0.0459)
Education: Postgraduate	0.2196*** (0.0533)	0.2180*** (0.0533)	0.2182*** (0.0533)	0.2195*** (0.0533)
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>				
Sex: Female	0.0685*** (0.0197)	0.0685*** (0.0197)	0.0690*** (0.0197)	0.0703*** (0.0197)
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>				
Experience: Average	0.0638*** (0.0215)	0.0633*** (0.0215)	0.0633*** (0.0215)	0.0653*** (0.0216)
Experience: High	0.0949*** (0.0223)	0.0940*** (0.0223)	0.0937*** (0.0223)	0.0960*** (0.0223)
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>				
Big 5: Generous	0.0851*** (0.0301)	0.0863*** (0.0301)	0.0858*** (0.0301)	0.0865*** (0.0301)
Big 5: Persistent	0.1023*** (0.0298)	0.1033*** (0.0298)	0.1036*** (0.0299)	0.1038*** (0.0299)
Big 5: Calm	0.0896*** (0.0299)	0.0908*** (0.0299)	0.0908*** (0.0299)	0.0935*** (0.0299)
Big 5: Imaginative	0.1219*** (0.0301)	0.1226*** (0.0301)	0.1228*** (0.0301)	0.1267*** (0.0302)
Observations	2,894	2,894	2,894	2,888
R <sup>2</sup>	0.07002	0.07073	0.07172	0.07300

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The dependent variable reported in this table is defined as follows. The variable takes the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. However, the dependent variable is shown only one time per round. Column 1 presents estimates for our factor variable of interest, *accent*, including all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in column 2 follow the specification in [equation 3](#). Column 3 and 4 include double and triple interaction terms of the respondent's Socio-Economic Strata (SES). We proxy SES by using information on the electricity statement and through a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) using information on the electricity statement, number of members in the household, and total household income. Column 3 uses the electricity SES metric, and column 4 uses the PCA SES metric. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the "Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos" and only first round choice tasks subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Table A.29: Statistical discrimination - full conjoint Vs. leave one out designs (First round)**

Dependent variable: (With) which of the two individual ...							
	Seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	Inspires more trustworthiness?	Would you prefer to do business?	Would you prefer to have a friendship?	Would you prefer to share your workplace?	Is more likely to be your boss?	Is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Panel A. Full conjoint</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0478*** (0.0103)	0.1299*** (0.0101)	0.1051*** (0.0102)	0.1132*** (0.0102)	0.1179*** (0.01)	0.0874*** (0.0103)	0.1313*** (0.0197)
<b>Panel B. Conjoint B1 - No education</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0328** (0.0164)	0.0976*** (0.0166)	0.0653*** (0.0169)	0.0781*** (0.0162)	0.0902*** (0.0166)	0.0633*** (0.017)	0.1018*** (0.0317)
Difference	0.015 (0.0194)	0.0323* (0.0194)	0.0398** (0.0198)	0.0351* (0.0192)	0.0277 (0.0194)	0.0241 (0.0198)	0.0295 (0.0373)
<b>Panel C. Conjoint B2 - No income</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0506*** (0.0158)	0.0992*** (0.0153)	0.0883*** (0.0161)	0.0974*** (0.016)	0.0729*** (0.0158)	0.0646*** (0.0154)	0.019 (0.0314)
Difference	-0.0028 (0.0189)	0.0307* (0.0184)	0.0168 (0.019)	0.0158 (0.019)	0.045** (0.0187)	0.0228 (0.0185)	0.1123*** (0.0371)
<b>Panel D. Conjoint B3 - Leaving all out</b>							
Accent: High Class	0.0417** (0.0172)	0.1118*** (0.0161)	0.083*** (0.0165)	0.1119*** (0.0163)	0.0976*** (0.0163)	0.0731*** (0.0165)	0.0963*** (0.0316)
Difference	0.0061 (0.0201)	0.0181 (0.019)	0.0221 (0.0194)	0.0013 (0.0192)	0.0203 (0.0192)	0.0143 (0.0195)	0.0349 (0.0373)

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table for the “High Class Accent” coefficient correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). In panel A we present the estimates for “High class accent” as presented in [Table A.26](#). Panels B through D present estimates of the “High Class Accent” coefficient using all versions of our conjoint experiment as outlined in the experimental design in [Figure 1](#). The difference in the estimate row in panels B,C, and D correspond to the difference of both estimates of the “High Class Accent” estimate in the full conjoint and each of the Leave-one-out designs. Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” and only first round choice tasks subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

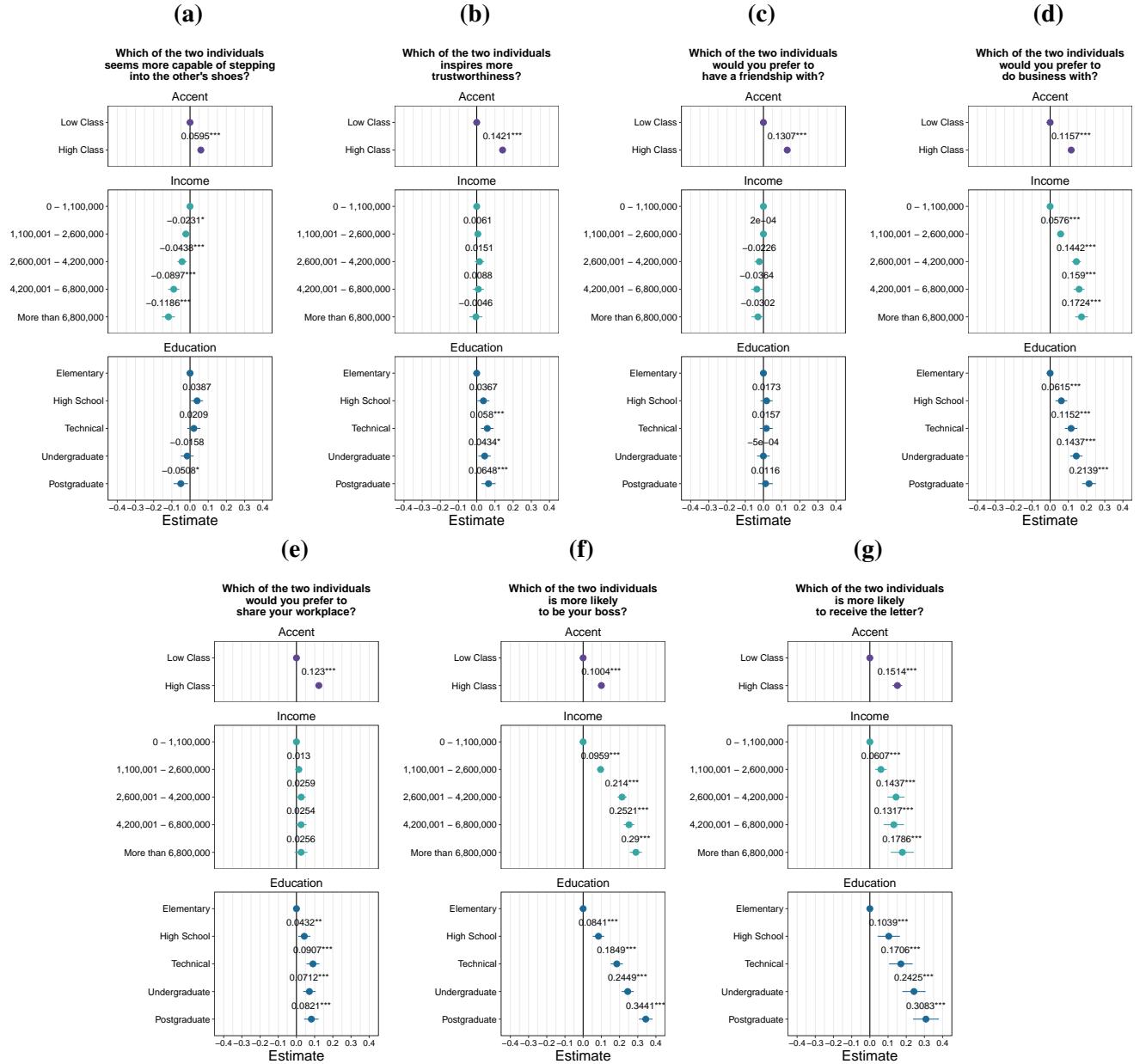
## A5 Adjusted P Values

**Table A.30: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A), heterogeneous treatment effects by respondents' SES**

	Dependent Variable: (With) which of the two individuals...						
	seems more capable of stepping into the other's shoes?	inspires more confidence	would you prefer to do business?	would you prefer to have a friendship?	would you prefer to share your workplace?	is more likely to be your boss?	is more likely to receive the letter?
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>Accent - Baseline: Low Class</b>							
Accent: Class-Based	0.0557*** (0.00942) [0]	0.1436*** (0.00935) [0]	0.1098*** (0.00931) [0]	0.1392*** (0.0094) [0]	0.1239*** (0.00907) [0]	0.1012*** (0.00884) [0]	0.1486*** (0.01649) [0]
<b>Socioeconomic Status (SES) - Baseline: High SES</b>							
SES: Low	-0.0015 (0.00956) [1]	8e-04 (0.00946) [1]	0.0076 (0.00921) [1]	0.0096 (0.00958) [1]	0.0026 (0.00939) [1]	0.0115 (0.00914) [1]	0.0143 (0.01685) [1]
<b>Interaction</b>							
Accent: Class-Based × SES: Low	0.013 (0.01592) [1]	-0.0029 (0.01553) [1]	0.0172 (0.01542) [1]	-0.0237 (0.01585) [1]	-0.0022 (0.01557) [1]	-0.0035 (0.01514) [1]	-0.0014 (0.02758) [1]
<b>Income - Baseline: 0-1,100,100</b>							
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	-0.0113 (0.00824) [1]	0.0088 (0.00813) [1]	0.0514*** (0.00833) [0]	0.0032 (0.00818) [1]	0.014 (0.00838) [1]	0.0808*** (0.00825) [0]	0.0502** (0.01472) [0]
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	-0.0136 (0.01366) [1]	0.0208 (0.01324) [1]	0.1178*** (0.01332) [0]	-0.0114 (0.01337) [1]	0.0162 (0.01343) [1]	0.1578*** (0.01291) [0]	0.0814** (0.02448) [0]
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	-0.056** (0.01634) [0.01183]	0.0077 (0.01613) [1]	0.1251*** (0.01617) [0]	-0.028 (0.01623) [1]	0.0236 (0.01613) [1]	0.179*** (0.01552) [0]	0.0693 (0.02872) [0]
Income: More than 6,800,000	-0.0722*** (0.01834) [0.00161]	0.0015 (0.01816) [1]	0.1324*** (0.01813) [0]	-0.0163 (0.01821) [1]	0.0173 (0.01844) [1]	0.2034*** (0.01719) [0]	0.0875 (0.03244) [0]
<b>Education - Baseline: Elementary</b>							
Education: High School	0.0406 (0.01629) [0.24368]	0.0245 (0.0159) [1]	0.0366 (0.01558) [35922]	0.0129 (0.01635) [1]	0.0326 (0.01616) [0.82873]	0.0512** (0.01518) [0.01427]	0.0637 (0.02939) [0.57542]
Education: Technical	0.0192 (0.01777) [1]	0.0427 (0.01713) [0.24099]	0.0833*** (0.01682) [1e-05]	0.0073 (0.01757) [1]	0.0715*** (0.01754) [0.00089]	0.1426*** (0.01673) [0]	0.1319*** (0.03187) [0.00069]
Education: Undergraduate	-0.0158 (0.01796) [1]	0.0228 (0.01707) [1]	0.1021*** (0.0169) [0]	-0.0068 (0.01759) [1]	0.0548** (0.01752) [0]	0.1892*** (0.01685) [0]	0.1956*** (0.03186) [0]
Education: Postgraduate	-0.0334 (0.02056) [1]	0.0381 (0.0199) [1]	0.1281*** (0.01944) [0]	0.0035 (0.02027) [1]	0.0555 (0.02058) [1]	0.2307*** (0.01922) [0]	0.2489*** (0.03663) [0]
<b>Sex - Baseline: Male</b>							
Sex: Female	0.0606*** (0.0077) [0]	0.1045*** (0.00774) [0]	0.0709*** (0.00749) [0]	0.0982*** (0.0078) [0]	0.0805*** (0.00775) [0]	0.0723*** (0.00727) [0]	0.0785*** (0.01331) [0]
<b>Experience - Baseline: Low</b>							
Experience: Average	0.0107 (0.00816) [1]	0.0352*** (0.00814) [0]	0.0575*** (0.00793) [0]	0.0103 (0.00812) [1]	0.0309*** (0.0083) [0.00383]	0.0683*** (0.00782) [0]	0.0409 (0.01472) [0.10505]
Experience: High	0.0172 (0.00827) [0.70979]	0.0438*** (0.00801) [0]	0.0881*** (0.0081) [0]	0.0247** (0.00813) [0]	0.0447*** (0.00827) [0]	0.1073*** (0.00793) [0]	0.0967*** (0.01503) [0]
<b>Big 5 - Baseline: Extroverted</b>							
Big 5: Generous	0.1912*** (0.01151) [0]	0.1868*** (0.01147) [0]	0.0994*** (0.01123) [0]	0.1386*** (0.01122) [0]	0.1311*** (0.01126) [0]	0.0502*** (0.01105) [0]	0.075*** (0.02013) [0]
Big 5: Persistent	-0.007 (0.01175) [1]	0.0785*** (0.01148) [0]	0.1373*** (0.01158) [0]	-0.0273 (0.01174) [0]	0.0578*** (0.01174) [2e-05]	0.105*** (0.01097) [0]	0.1088*** (0.01992) [0]
Big 5: Calm	0.0833*** (0.01167) [0]	0.1075*** (0.01144) [0]	0.0947*** (0.01113) [0]	0.0373** (0.01149) [0]	0.092*** (0.01114) [0]	0.0682*** (0.01114) [0]	0.0773*** (0.02015) [0]
Big 5: Imaginative	0.0477*** (0.01173) [0.00094]	0.0826*** (0.01134) [0]	0.1169*** (0.01106) [0]	0.053*** (0.01143) [7e-05]	0.0846*** (0.01143) [0]	0.0593*** (0.0111) [0]	0.1104*** (0.02003) [0]
Observations	9,440	9,434	9,436	9,432	9,430	9,426	2,754
R <sup>2</sup>	0.03322	0.05924	0.06253	0.04669	0.03858	0.09842	0.09381

**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this table are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. Variables from column one through six are shown in every task presented to the respondent. However, variable in column 7 is shown only one time per round. All columns include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

**Figure A.14: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A), Population Average Marginal Component Effects**



**Notes:** This figure reports several measures of our outcome variables. The variables reported in this figure are defined as follows. All variables take the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. All dependent variables from panels A.14a to A.14f are presented in all tasks to the respondent. However, variable in panel A.14g is shown once per round. All panels include our factor of interest *accent*, and all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. However, we present only estimates for accent, income and education. Estimates in this figure correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this figure correspond to the “Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos” subsample. Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

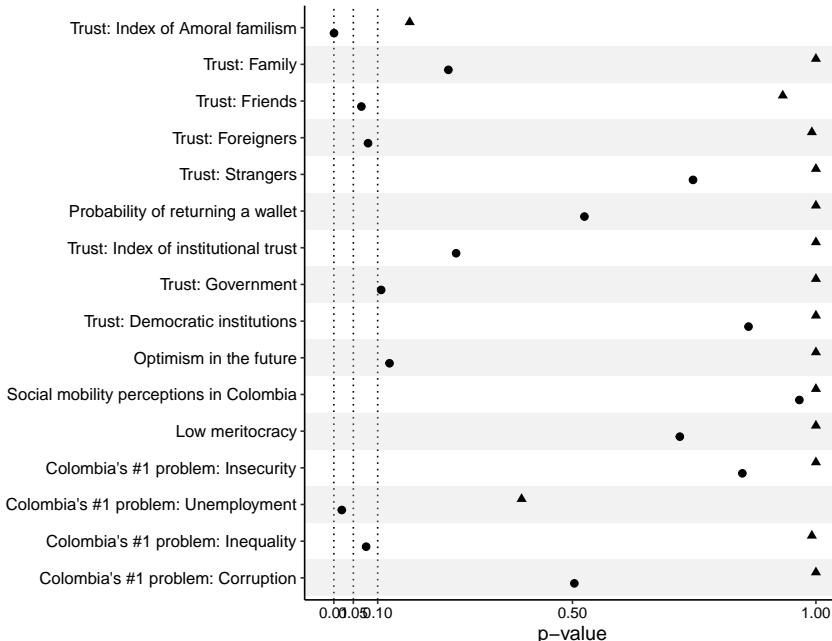
**Table A.31: Conjoint tasks with full information (version A) for the deferential letter experiment and heterogeneous treatment effects by SES**

	Dependent variable: Which of the two individuals is more likely to receive the letter?			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Accent: High Class	0.148*** (0.01325) [0]	0.1247*** (0.01835) [0]	0.1307*** (0.02293) [0]	0.1211*** (0.02311) [0]
Letter: Deferential		-0.028 (0.0159) [0.1324]	-0.0258 (0.01969) [1]	-0.0331 (0.0196) [0.5514]
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential		0.0476 (0.02589) [0.1324]	0.0356 (0.03237) [1]	0.0532 (0.03225) [0.5514]
SES: Low			0.0184 (0.02384) [1]	0.01 (0.02367) [1]
Accent: High Class x SES: Low			-0.0195 (0.03821) [1]	0.0073 (0.03797) [1]
Letter: Deferential x SES: Low			-0.0071 (0.03377) [1]	0.0147 (0.03408) [1]
Accent: High Class x Letter: Deferential x SES: Low			0.0363 (0.05382) [1]	-0.015 (0.05409) [1]
Income: 1,100,001-2,600,000	0.0501*** (0.01473) [0.004]	0.0501*** (0.01471) [0.0053]	0.0502*** (0.01472) [0.008]	0.051*** (0.01469) [0.0063]
Income: 2,600,001-4,200,000	0.0814*** (0.0245) [0.0045]	0.0811*** (0.02447) [0.0065]	0.0812** (0.02444) [0.01]	0.0818*** (0.02442) [0.009]
Income: 4,200,001-6,800,000	0.0694** (0.02872) [0.0314]	0.0698* (0.02869) [0.0601]	0.07 (0.02871) [0.1191]	0.0702 (0.02869) [0.1154]
Income: More than 6,800,000	0.0875** (0.03247) [0.0227]	0.0878** (0.0325) [0.0374]	0.0868* (0.03247) [0.0681]	0.0867* (0.0325) [0.0691]
Education: High School	0.0637** (0.02936) [0.0314]	0.0643* (0.02939) [0.085]	0.0647 (0.02938) [0.1934]	0.0635 (0.02942) [0.2178]
Education: Technical	0.1328*** (0.03185) [4e-04]	0.1333*** (0.03179) [4e-04]	0.1335*** (0.03185) [5e-04]	0.13*** (0.03187) [8e-04]
Education: Undergraduate	0.1955*** (0.03183) [0]	0.1954*** (0.03175) [0]	0.1959*** (0.03182) [0]	0.1937*** (0.03186) [0]
Education: Postgraduate	0.2488*** (0.03661) [0]	0.2492*** (0.03655) [0]	0.2494*** (0.03665) [0]	0.2471*** (0.03665) [0]
Sex: Female	0.0783*** (0.01331) [0]	0.0784*** (0.01331) [0]	0.0783*** (0.01332) [0]	0.0799*** (0.01328) [0]
Experience: Average	0.0407** (0.01472) [0.0227]	0.0407** (0.01471) [0.0342]	0.0408* (0.01471) [0.0555]	0.041* (0.01473) [0.0546]
Experience: High	0.0969*** (0.01503) [0]	0.0967*** (0.01503) [0]	0.0965*** (0.01504) [0]	0.0972*** (0.01505) [0]
Big 5: Generous	0.0751*** (0.02012) [0.0013]	0.0753*** (0.02013) [0.0017]	0.0752*** (0.02014) [0.0025]	0.0761*** (0.02015) [0.0021]
Big 5: Persistent	0.1086*** (0.01991) [0]	0.1088*** (0.01991) [0]	0.109*** (0.01992) [0]	0.1106*** (0.01991) [0]
Big 5: Calm	0.0769*** (0.02011) [0.0011]	0.0774*** (0.02011) [0.0012]	0.0779*** (0.02016) [0.0017]	0.0792*** (0.02015) [0.0013]
Big 5: Imaginative	0.1106*** (0.02002) [0]	0.1107*** (0.02001) [0]	0.1107*** (0.02002) [0]	0.1132*** (0.02001) [0]
Observations	2,754	2,754	2,754	2,748
R <sup>2</sup>	0.09375	0.09431	0.09487	0.09594

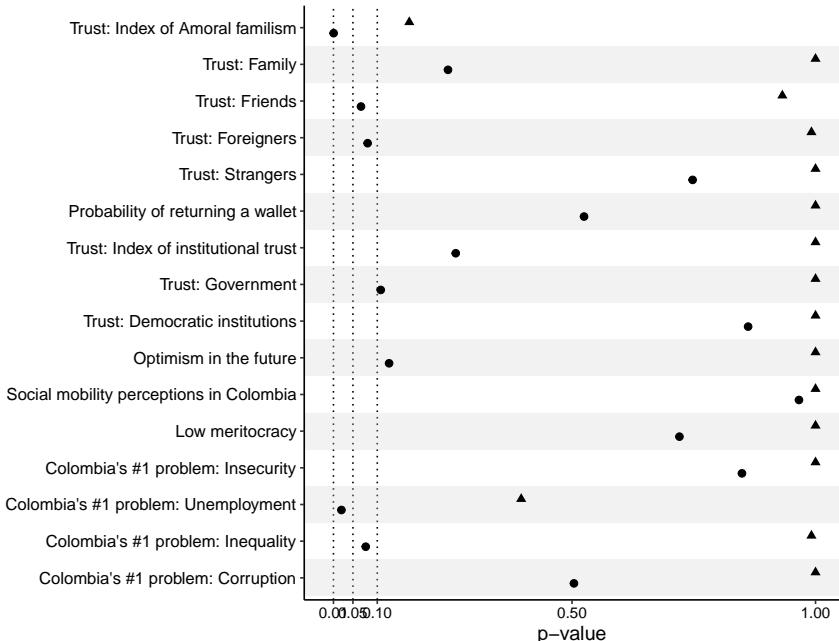
**Notes:** This table reports several measures of our outcome variables. The dependent variable reported in this table is defined as follows. The variable takes the value of one if the profile is selected, zero otherwise. However, the dependent variable is shown only one time per round. Column 1 presents estimates for our factor variable of interest, *accent*, including all control factors such as income, education, sex, experience, and the big 5 personality traits. Estimates in column 2 follow the specification in [equation 3](#). Column 3 and 4 include double and triple interaction terms of the respondent's Socio-Economic Strata (SES). We proxy SES by using information on the electricity statement and through a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) using information on the electricity statement, number of members in the household, and total household income. Column 3 uses the electricity SES metric, and column 4 uses the PCA SES metric. Estimates in this table correspond to the **population AMCE (pAMCE)** as described in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#). Results presented in this table correspond to the "Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos" subsample. Standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1. [Table A.7](#) and [Table A.8](#) in Appendix A present the estimates for all control factors using different metrics of respondent SES.

**Figure A.15: Downstream adjusted p-values**

**(a) Conjoint A + B vs. C**



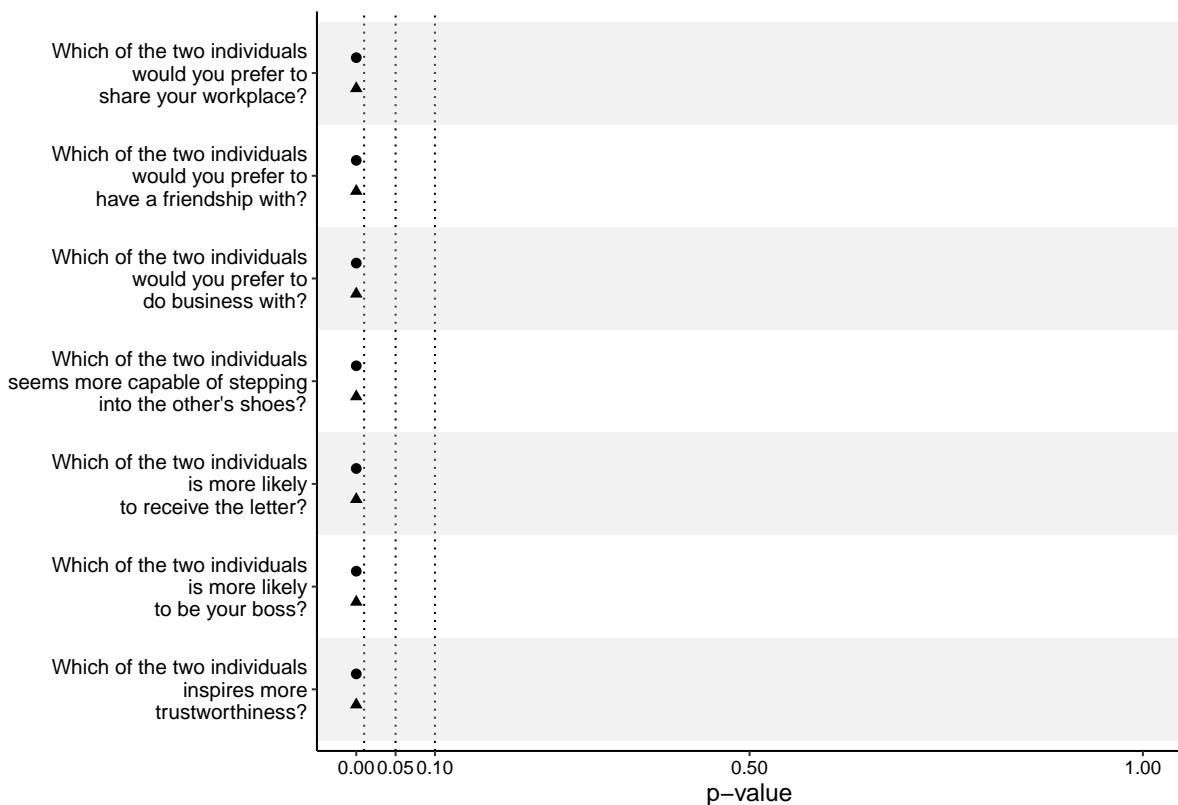
**(b) Conjoint A vs. C**



*Notes:* Change the footnote



**Figure A.16: ATE adjusted p-values - Conjoint A estimates**



*Notes:* Change the footnote

## B POWER CALCULATIONS

We simulate random samples of all possible profiles, weighted by an empirical joint distribution, to calculate the power of our desired estimates of the effects of a high-class accent on outcomes. We present results for two main estimators: the population AMCE or pAMCE and a high-class accent profile's Marginal Means (MM).

We ask subjects to solve four conjoint tasks and then incentivize them to continue with three additional tasks for a maximum of three more times. Thus, tasks per respondent are in the 4 to 13 range. We err on the conservative side for our power calculations and assume that each respondent completes six tasks. Recall that the number of respondents in each conjoint version varies, with type "A" assigned to half of the total sample and each of the remaining type B and C versions assigned to 10% of our respondents.

To estimate power, we create a grid of hypothesized effect sizes, defined as a marginal probability, with one hundred elements ranging from 0 to 0.2. For each hypothesized effect, we run 1,500 simulations (for each estimator of interest, as discussed in Section ??, and conjoint version). In each group, we create an indicator variable equal to one if the estimated effect is statistically significant at the 95% level and zero otherwise. Finally, power is defined as the proportion of statistically significant simulations. Given our experimental design, the effective sample size for each simulation is defined as  $N = \#Profiles \times \#Tasks \times \#Respondents$  ([Hainmueller et al., 2014](#)). The number of profiles equals 2, the number of tasks is set to 6, and the number of respondents varies within the simulation. We expect to get nearly 5,000 respondents, so we define a grid of possible respondents ranging from 1,000 to 5,000 with 500 steps.

### B1 Full conjoint

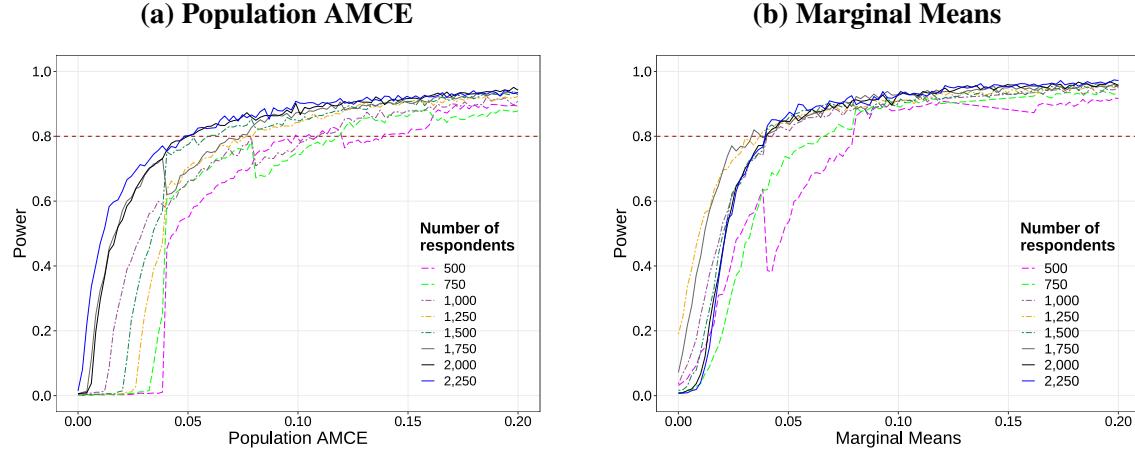
In this section, we present estimates for the full conjoint version, labeled version "A," which comprises 50% of the sampled respondents (see Figure 1). Recall that Appendix G describes the empirically realistic joint distributions that we use to simulate different profiles to improve the external validity of our exercise. For our power calculations, we use the joint distributions as presented there.

Figure B.1 shows the power calculations using hypothetical experiments in the full conjoint version "A." Panel B.1a shows the calculations for the population AMCE (pAMCE), while panel B.1b shows the marginal means (MMs). In each panel, we plot the estimated power (y-axis) in each of our 1,500 simulations along the grid of target effects (x-axis) by the number of respondents (from 500 to 2,500 in increments of 250, obtained by multiplying the hypothesized total number of subjects by 0.5). The horizontal dashed line represents a power of 80%.

Based on these calculations, we are powered to detect fairly small effects. Specifically, given our expected number of respondents (5,000),<sup>36</sup> we can detect effects of a high-class accent of 0.0485 (2,250 respondents) using the pAMCE estimator. On the other hand, as for the MMs, we

<sup>36</sup>Notice that, by the time we uploaded this pre-analysis plan, the number of completed surveys, as reported by Qualtrics, was close to 6,000.

**Figure B.1: Power Calculation Simulations**



**Notes:** This Figure shows power calculations for the population AMCE (panel a) and the marginal means (panel b) estimator. For this exercise, we use a sample of 500 to 2250 with steps of 250 respondents, 1,500 simulations, and a grid of desired effects of a hundred elements ranging from 0 to 0.2. Power is the proportion of simulations in which the estimated effect is significant. Each line represents the estimated power for every sample in our full conjoint version A. To estimate the *pAMCE*, we use the function `design_pAMCE` from package `factorEx`. On the other hand, to estimate the *MM*, we use the function `cj` from package `cregg`. All simulations were done in R using R version 4.3.1 in a Windows operating system.

can detect effects of a high-class accent of 0.0404 (2,250 respondents).

Table B.1 presents the Minimum Detectable Effect (MDE) by the number of respondents. Each row represents the number of respondents in the sample. Column 1 presents estimates for the population AMCE and column 2 for the MM. We estimate to detect effects for the pAMCE ranging from 0.0485 (2,225 respondents) to 0.1192 (750 respondents). As for the MM, we estimate to detect effects ranging from 0.0343 (1,250 respondents) to 0.0808 (500 respondents).

## B2 Leave-one-out conjoints

In this section we present estimates for the “Leave-one-out” (LOO) conjoint versions, labeled as versions “B”: LOO education conjoint (B1), the LOO experience conjoint (B2), and the LOO Income conjoint (B3). Under the experimental design, each conjoint version comprises 10% of the sampled respondents (see Figure 1). As in Section B1, we use the joint distribution described in Appendix G. However, for conjoint versions B1 and B3, we update our joint distribution by dropping the income and education variables from the estimation process. Thus, to address external validity, we aggregate the probabilities in tables to match the variables in the specification (e.g., for B1, we aggregate over income and sex to get a new joint distribution).

Figure B.2 shows results for LOO conjoint versions B1, B2, and B3. Panel B.2a presents the estimates for the population AMCE, while panel B.2b presents estimates for the MM. Each panel plots the estimated power (y-axis) in each of the 1,500 simulations along the grid of target effects (x-axis) for an effective sample size of 500 respondents (remember that each LOO conjoint version comprises 10% of the sample, and we expect to survey a total of around 5,000 respondents). The black solid line presents estimates for the LOO conjoint version B1. The green solid line presents

**Table B.1: Minimum Detectable Effect by estimator**

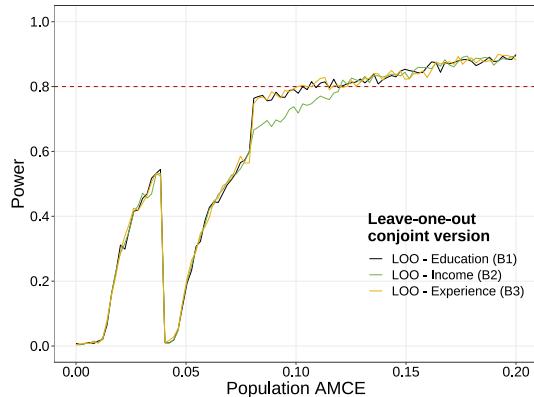
Sample size	MDE estimate	
	pAMCE	Marginal Means
	(1)	(2)
500	0.0990	0.0808
750	0.1192	0.0667
1,000	0.1091	0.0404
1,250	0.0768	0.0384
1,500	0.0606	0.0404
1,750	0.0747	0.0343
2,000	0.0505	0.0404
2,250	0.0485	0.0404

**Notes:** This Table shows power calculations for the population AMCE (column 1) and the marginal means (column 2) estimator. For this exercise, we use a sample of 500 to 2250 with steps of 250 respondents, 1,500 simulations, and a grid of desired effects of a hundred elements ranging from 0 to 0.2. Power is the proportion of simulations in which the estimated effect is significant. Each row represents the minimum detectable effect for each sample size using the ad-hoc rule of thumb of 80% power. To estimate the *pAMCE*, we use the function `design_pAMCE` from package `factorEx`. On the other hand, to estimate the *MM*, we use the function `cj` from package `cregg`. All simulations were done in R using R version 4.3.1 in a Windows operating system.

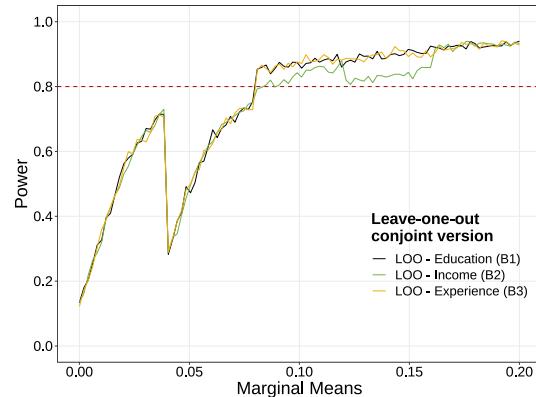
estimates for the LOO conjoint version B2, and estimates for the LOO conjoint version B3 are shown in yellow.

**Figure B.2: Power Calculation Simulations**

**(a) Population AMCE**



**(b) Marginal Means**



**Notes:** This Figure shows power calculations for the population AMCE (panel a) and the marginal means (panel b) estimator. For this exercise, we use a sample of 500 respondents, 1,500 simulations, and a grid of a desired effect of a hundred ranging from 0 to 0.2. Power is defined as the proportion of simulations in which the estimated effect is significant. The black solid line presents the estimates of our Education Leave-one-out conjoint version (B1). The green solid line presents our Income Leave-one-out conjoint version (B2) estimates. The yellow solid line presents estimates of our Experience Leave-one-out conjoint version (B3). To estimate the *pAMCE*, we use the function `design_pAMCE` from package `factorEx`. On the other hand, to estimate the *MM*, we use the function `cj` from package `cregg`. All simulations were done in R using R version 4.3.1 in a Windows operating system.

Our estimates show that we have the power to estimate fairly small effects. Panel B.2a shows a MDE of 0.103 for the LOO conjoint B1 version, 0.1212 for the LOO conjoint B2 version, and

0.101 for the LOO conjoint B3 version. Panel [B.2b](#) shows an MDE of 0.08081 for the LOO conjoint B1 version, 0.08485 for the LOO conjoint B2 version, and 0.08081 for the LOO conjoint B3 version.

## C PILOT STUDY

Our pilot served multiple purposes, beyond simply testing the questionnaire in the field. First, it validated whether our audio descriptions effectively conveyed social class distinctions. We wanted to confirm whether participants were more adept at classifying culturally proximate profiles (i.e., native *Bogotanos* or Chileans classifying other “natives”) than those from culturally distant backgrounds (i.e., native *Bogotanos* classifying Chilean “migrants”). Second, we tested the participants’ ability to interpret the attributes of the profiles. Specifically, we wanted to see if they could relate concrete characteristics to the more abstract concepts of class and different forms of capital: financial, human, and social. Finally, we assessed the potential impact of social desirability bias on our results, recognizing its potential to influence participants’ responses and perceptions.

We conducted the pilots in Bogotá and Santiago de Chile.<sup>37</sup> We programmed our survey using Qualtrics.

In Bogotá, our pilot sample came from subjects recruited by Netquest, a well-established company with a presence in over twenty countries that maintains an ongoing online panel for marketing and other purposes. This allowed us to minimize potential contamination with the sample recruited online in the final survey. Fieldwork was conducted between February 5 and February 20, 2024. Netquest provided a link that directed the target population (i.e., people 18 years or older living in Bogotá) to Qualtrics.<sup>38</sup> To ensure high quality responses, the company monitored participants as they moved through the survey and used Attention Check questions and Real ID checks to ensure that participants didn’t submit duplicate data. All survey participants received an informed consent form (approved by both the Harvard and Universidad de los Andes IRBs). For analysis, we removed all incomplete surveys and participants under 18 or living outside of Bogotá (as they may not accurately classify the social class of the profiles).

In Santiago, we recruited our sample using social media ads to test the recruitment strategy we would use for the complete study in Bogota. Thus, we ran ads inviting people to participate in a drawing for one tablet for every 1,000 who completed our survey (as we did in the case of the full study in Bogota). Given our interest in class, we also targeted the ads, trying to get enough responses from across the income distribution. To ensure this and optimize the ads, we followed a similar targeting strategy, first trying to meet income quotas and then focusing our online recruitment campaign in geographic areas that concentrated subjects with the required income levels (see map in Figure A.3). Fieldwork took place between February 1 and February 16, 2024.

Our pilot survey targeted 1,500 participants in Bogotá and 200 in Santiago de Chile. We included citizens from all backgrounds, regardless of sex, race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status, among other characteristics. However, we enforced quotas to ensure representativeness. In Bogota,

---

<sup>37</sup>We initially considered including high and low-class accents from Medellín, Colombia’s second-largest city, but ultimately decided against doing so. While the accents of Medellín and Bogotá are different, the cultural distance between them is small compared to that between Bogotá and Santiago de Chile. In addition, Medellín’s society has been extensively portrayed in the entertainment industry, sensationalizing aspects like drug trafficking that explicitly expose class differences. In addition, at the time of our experiment, a popular series by self-made cyclist Rigoberto Urán was on air.

<sup>38</sup>Participants received a one-time, personalized invitation to access the survey.

we set quotas by *estrato*, sex and age.<sup>39</sup> In Santiago we only enforced income quotas.

After performing this process, we concluded the pilot with an effective sample of 863 respondents in Bogotá and 125 in Santiago de Chile. Our participant pool was diverse, reflecting the demographics of each city. In terms of the composition of our sample, in Bogotá 52.40% are men and 47.60% are women, while in Santiago de Chile, 36.80% are men, 61.60% are women, and 1.60% do not identify with either sex. Moreover, in Bogotá, 48.78% of participants are younger than 35 years old, and 51.22% are older; in Santiago de Chile, 12.80% are younger than 35, and 87.20% are older. Finally, in Bogotá, 28.14% of our sample belong to the low-income group (*estratos* 1 and 2), 60.05% to the middle-income group (*estratos* 3 and 4), 11.68% to the high-income group (*estratos* 5 and 6), and 0.13% do not belong to any *estrato*.<sup>40</sup>

In addition to testing the questionnaire in the field, the pilot served three other crucial purposes. First, it validated whether our audio descriptions effectively conveyed social class distinctions. We wanted to confirm whether participants were more adept at classifying culturally proximate profiles (i.e., native *Bogotanos* or Chileans classifying other “natives”) than those from culturally distant backgrounds (i.e., native *Bogotanos* classifying Chilean “migrants”). Second, we tested participants’ ability to interpret the attributes of the profiles. Specifically, we wanted to see if they could relate concrete characteristics to the more abstract concepts of class and different forms of capital (financial, human, and social). Finally, we assessed the potential impact of social desirability bias on our results, recognizing its potential to influence participants’ responses and perceptions. We created two versions of the pilot questionnaire to accomplish these three goals. In one version, subjects were presented with the conjoint task as they would see it in the full study, and in the second version, they had to perform a classification task (described in detail in the following subsection). The latter was the only version we tested in Santiago. In Bogotá, respondents were randomly assigned to one of the two versions.

## C1 Class-based accents

### C1.1 Can respondents correctly classify them?

In the pilot, we asked respondents to classify the profiles’ social class into high, middle, or low. We also asked respondents to guess which kind of sport, leisurely activity, and music each profile might prefer. In each case, we offered three alternatives. From those more typical in higher classes to those more common in lower classes, the options for each dimension were horse riding, tennis, and Sundays at the *ciclovía*<sup>41</sup>; theater, movies, and flying a kite in a park; and jazz, salsa, and *vallenato*<sup>42</sup>.

<sup>39</sup>Age groups: 18-25 ≈180; 26-35 ≈320; 36-45: 250; 46-55 ≈130; and 56-65 ≈120; Sex: male ≈500 and female ≈500. SES/Stratums: 1 and 2≈430; 3≈340; 4: 102/140; and 5 and 6≈90.

<sup>40</sup>Chile does not have a socioeconomic stratification scheme.

<sup>41</sup>The “ciclovía” is a public recreation program that transforms the city’s streets into car-free zones for a few hours every Sunday and public holiday.

<sup>42</sup>“Vallenato” is a traditional musical genre from the Caribbean region of Colombia, known for its distinctive rhythms, instrumentation, and storytelling lyrics. Traditional and modern versions of “vallenato”, incorporating elements from other genres, such as pop, rock, and reggaeton, are very popular in Colombia. For Chile, the categories were similar except that we used the following categories (from high to low class): jazz, classic rock, and “cumbia”

Table C.1 describes the results of regressions for the three-level ordinal scale of social class (columns 1 and 5) and activities (columns 2-4 and 6-8) on a dummy variable indicating whether the voice in the audio snippet features a high-class accent. *Bogotano* subjects classify *Bogotano* profiles in columns 1 to 4, and Chilean subjects classify Chilean accents in columns 5 to 8.

In Bogotá, the high-class accent increases the ordinal classification for social class by 0.201, which corresponds to approximately 9% of the dependent variable's mean of 2.138. For music, the coefficient of 0.210 implies an increase of about 10% relative to its mean of 2.005. The leisure category shows a coefficient of 0.148, about a 7% increase over its mean of 2.207. These effects are similar in size and significant at the 1% level. The impact on sport, at 0.137, has a similar magnitude of nearly a 7% increase relative to its mean of 1.966, though it does not reach statistical significance at conventional levels.

Results for Chile are similar, with the coefficient for social class of 0.199, indicating an increase of approximately 8% relative to the mean. Music sees a more pronounced effect with a coefficient of 0.408, about 16% of its mean. Leisure outcomes with a coefficient of 0.292 indicate an 11% increase compared to its mean. Lastly, sport shows a more modest effect at 0.141, roughly 7% relative to its mean. Finally, the coefficients on other control attributes are broadly consistent with expectations (e.g., more affluent and educated typically rank higher).

Columns 1 to 4 of Table C.2 describe similar regressions where *Bogotano* subjects classify *Chilean* profiles. Now, the high-class accent fails to increase the ordinal classification for social class, with the non-significant coefficient of 0.047, corresponding to 2% of the dependent variable's mean. Similar results for sport, leisure, and music indicate non-significant influences of the Chilean high-class accent on *Bogotano* class classification. Instead, income and education predict a higher ranking.

### C1.2 Are our profiles realistic?

By incorporating the joint distributions into the randomization of profiles, we took a design-based step to account for the possibility that some of the combinations of attributes could yield unrealistic profiles, rendering the exercise uninformative. However, it may be the case that some of the profiles are still not credible. To assess this possibility, in the social-class classification task included in the pilot, we also asked whether this person could be real.

We begin by constructing an indicator that equals one if respondents rate the presented profile as unrealistic and zero otherwise. With this variable, we model the probability of a profile being judged as unrealistic using all profile attributes (i.e., income, experience, education, sex, Big Five personality traits, and class-based accent). We estimate this model using the sample from the “audio profile” classification task and generate our predictions on the entire sample (see more details about these subsamples in Appendix C).

We then flag profiles that fall above the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of the predicted probability, correspond-

---

villera”. The latter is a subgenre of cumbia that originated in Argentina in the late 1990s and early 2000s, but became popular in neighboring countries like Chile among working-class neighborhoods.

**Table C.1: Validating class-based accents: social class classification in Bogotá and Santiago de Chile**

<i>Dependent variable:</i>								
	Region: Bogotá				Region: Chile			
	Social Class	Sport	Leisure	Music	Social Class	Sport	Leisure	Music
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<b>Accent</b>								
High Class	0.201*** (0.060)	0.137 (0.064)	0.148** (0.084)	0.210*** (0.071)	0.199*** (0.075)	0.141* (0.080)	0.292*** (0.092)	0.408*** (0.081)
<b>Sex</b>								
Female	-0.031 (0.066)	-0.050 (0.062)	-0.031 (0.078)	-0.154** (0.079)	0.041 (0.068)	-0.100 (0.091)	0.144* (0.085)	-0.075 (0.091)
<b>Big Five</b>								
Extroverted	-0.020 (0.123)	-0.127 (0.087)	0.036 (0.103)	-0.093 (0.103)	0.100 (0.102)	0.150 (0.119)	0.300* (0.155)	-0.064 (0.136)
Generous	0.005 (0.085)	0.010 (0.086)	-0.035 (0.128)	0.025 (0.113)	-0.039 (0.111)	0.014 (0.107)	0.405*** (0.111)	0.031 (0.117)
Calmed	-0.087 (0.119)	-0.091 (0.095)	0.055 (0.123)	0.109 (0.116)	0.411*** (0.126)	0.241*** (0.089)	0.118 (0.129)	0.098 (0.117)
Imaginative	-0.052 (0.102)	-0.002 (0.110)	0.102 (0.136)	-0.010 (0.145)	0.224** (0.121)	-0.089 (0.095)	0.414*** (0.137)	0.114 (0.140)
<b>Income Groups</b>								
0 - 1'100.000	-0.577*** (0.127)	-0.031 (0.155)	-0.144 (0.150)	-0.320** (0.132)	-0.193* (0.101)	-0.058 (0.126)	-0.398*** (0.147)	-0.001 (0.142)
1'100.001 - 1'700.000	-0.222** (0.108)	-0.178 (0.133)	-0.078 (0.139)	-0.186 (0.126)	-0.157 (0.111)	-0.153 (0.138)	-0.265* (0.151)	-0.148 (0.129)
1'700.001 - 2'600.000	-0.253** (0.106)	-0.150 (0.143)	-0.077 (0.135)	-0.336** (0.140)	0.026 (0.100)	-0.004 (0.161)	0.084 (0.136)	0.111 (0.153)
4'200.001 - 6'800.000	0.172* (0.102)	0.111 (0.153)	0.236 (0.144)	-0.110 (0.136)	0.540*** (0.118)	0.205 (0.171)	0.050 (0.154)	0.303* (0.168)
More than 6'800.000	0.215** (0.107)	0.089 (0.093)	0.157 (0.131)	-0.096 (0.144)	0.546*** (0.119)	0.418*** (0.130)	0.192 (0.155)	0.435** (0.166)
<b>Experience</b>								
Low	-0.154** (0.081)	-0.075 (0.071)	0.085 (0.093)	-0.019 (0.094)	-0.093 (0.080)	-0.060 (0.081)	0.051 (0.081)	-0.154 (0.102)
High	-0.036 (0.078)	-0.037 (0.071)	0.066 (0.088)	0.052 (0.084)	0.364*** (0.079)	0.135 (0.097)	0.332** (0.130)	0.143 (0.110)
<b>Education</b>								
Elementary	-0.011 (0.100)	0.125 (0.097)	-0.033 (0.118)	-0.019 (0.118)	-0.410*** (0.126)	-0.143 (0.105)	-0.573*** (0.151)	-0.404*** (0.139)
High School	-0.038 (0.127)	-0.011 (0.102)	-0.108 (0.114)	-0.045 (0.113)	-0.098 (0.129)	-0.096 (0.118)	-0.040 (0.199)	0.108 (0.166)
Undergraduate	0.091 (0.103)	0.322*** (0.079)	0.129 (0.115)	0.158 (0.121)	-0.085 (0.120)	0.005 (0.103)	-0.155 (0.121)	-0.123 (0.112)
Postgraduate	0.172* (0.123)	0.413*** (0.098)	0.341*** (0.127)	0.227** (0.121)	0.003 (0.112)	0.182 (0.118)	-0.066 (0.113)	-0.180 (0.130)
Constant	2.205*** (0.135)	1.529*** (0.125)	1.979*** (0.178)	2.248*** (0.180)	1.526*** (0.191)	1.209*** (0.143)	1.693*** (0.203)	1.707*** (0.150)
Task Type	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile
Observations	338	338	337	338	258	258	258	258
Mean DV	2.148	1.636	2.205	2.186	1.907	1.403	2.101	1.973
SD DV	0.613	0.711	0.666	0.683	0.659	0.630	0.726	0.730
R-squared	0.25	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.44	0.21	0.29	0.25

**Notes:** The outcome variable for columns (1) to (5) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “low”, “middle”, and “high”. The outcome variable for columns (2) to (6) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “going to the *Ciclovía* on Sundays”, “play tennis”, and “practice horse riding”. The outcome variable for columns (3) to (7) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “fly a kite in the park”, “go to the movie theater”, and “go to the theater or art galleries”. The outcome variable for columns (4) to (8) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “*cumbia villera - vallenato*”, “classic rock - *salsa*”, and “Jazz”. Columns (1) through (4) present within regions estimates for *Bogotá* only. Columns (5) through (8) present within region estimates for *Chile* only. The table presents results for the “Audio Profile” task type sample. Robust standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

ing to an estimated probability of judging a profile as unrealistic of 0.38. Figure A.4 shows the distribution of the predicted probability and those above the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. Note that these prob-

abilities are still low, which further validates our design.

Using the above-75<sup>th</sup> percentile indicator, we perform robustness checks on the principal analysis in the conjoint experiment, excluding these flagged cases. Dropping unrealistic profiles and estimating our models in our “real profiles” sample follows the same logic as the correction made with *pAMCE* in equation 1.

## C2 Interpretation of the profile attributes

Table C.3 asks another critical question: whether subjects can map the attributes to the intended concepts (human, economic, and social capital) we wish to capture. To do so, the dependent variable is a five-point increasing scale of the subject’s answer to the question: “How would you classify this person in terms of .... their cognitive skills (column 1), their income and wealth (columns 2), the influence and social prestige of their acquaintances (column 3)”. In all cases, the high-class accent has a positive and statistically significant effect on the ranking, with large effects: 8.6%, 13.4%, and 14.1% of the sample mean for each dimension, respectively. Since forms of capital bundle together, this first finding corroborates the appropriateness of our high-class accents.

More importantly, subjects are sophisticated in discerning which attributes are most important for each dimension. In particular, a postgraduate education is the strongest predictor of a higher cognitive skill, and the income groupings are the strongest predictors of the income and wealth scale. In the case of acquaintances’ social prestige and influences, the income and education variables join the high-class accent in the list of strong predictors.

Columns 4 to 6 of Table C.3 present similar regressions when *Bogotano* subjects classify Chilean profiles by cognitive skills, income, and social influence levels. Once again reflecting the importance of cultural proximity, the high-class accent (yet not the corresponding objective measures) fails to increase the ranking in this case (and even decreases it for income in column 6% decrease, significant at the 10% level).

Experience plays a relatively minor role in explaining outcomes compared to other features. The pilot’s results further motivate our approach to consider this variable a control feature rather than one of direct interest.

## C3 Assessing social desirability bias

One potential issue with our analysis is that respondents may exhibit social desirability bias (SDB), answering questions in a manner that they expect will be viewed favorably.

To address this possibility, we implemented a short 13-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS) (Crowne and Marlowe, 1960; Reynolds, 1978,<sup>9</sup>). Each item on the MCSDS Short Form is a statement to which the respondent can either agree or disagree, presenting culturally sanctioned but improbable behaviors or common but undesirable behaviors (the complete list of items is in the questionnaire in the Appendix).

**Table C.2: Validating cultural distance: Bogotanos class classification of Chileans**

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>			
	Social Class	Sport	Leisure	Music
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>Accent</b>				
High Class	0.047 (0.057)	0.085 (0.074)	0.117 (0.071)	0.011 (0.091)
<b>Sex</b>				
Female	-0.050 (0.063)	-0.102 (0.083)	0.032 (0.076)	-0.070 (0.088)
<b>Big Five</b>				
Extroverted	-0.005 (0.102)	-0.137 (0.114)	0.023 (0.115)	-0.290** (0.131)
Generous	0.001 (0.101)	-0.051 (0.113)	0.131 (0.104)	-0.030 (0.114)
Calmed	-0.157 (0.105)	-0.109 (0.116)	-0.159 (0.107)	-0.249* (0.132)
Imaginative	0.124 (0.106)	0.019 (0.126)	0.188 (0.120)	0.124 (0.132)
<b>Income Groups</b>				
0 - 1'100.000	-0.506*** (0.100)	-0.455*** (0.120)	-0.560*** (0.114)	-0.287* (0.161)
1'100.001 - 1'700.000	-0.494*** (0.103)	-0.389*** (0.113)	-0.307** (0.119)	-0.085 (0.151)
1'700.001 - 2'600.000	-0.307*** (0.093)	-0.243* (0.140)	-0.196 (0.125)	-0.041 (0.165)
4'200.001 - 6'800.000	0.067 (0.092)	0.180 (0.144)	0.097 (0.100)	0.198 (0.166)
More than 6'800.000	0.107 (0.102)	0.068 (0.128)	0.076 (0.114)	0.232 (0.148)
<b>Experience</b>				
Low	-0.103 (0.070)	-0.179** (0.088)	-0.112 (0.093)	-0.014 (0.096)
High	-0.063 (0.070)	-0.036 (0.094)	0.078 (0.083)	-0.056 (0.106)
<b>Education</b>				
Elementary	0.037 (0.102)	0.031 (0.122)	0.000 (0.120)	0.102 (0.130)
High School	-0.030 (0.081)	-0.241** (0.108)	-0.062 (0.112)	-0.100 (0.131)
Undergraduate	0.185* (0.105)	0.122 (0.123)	0.150 (0.113)	0.127 (0.131)
Postgraduate	0.329*** (0.093)	0.220* (0.114)	0.390*** (0.106)	0.423*** (0.124)
Constant	2.182*** (0.128)	1.807*** (0.162)	2.072*** (0.152)	2.107*** (0.176)
Task Type	Audio profile	Audio profile	Audio profile	Audio profile
Observations	342	341	342	342
Mean DV	2.023	1.545	2.105	2.070
SD DV	0.612	0.708	0.707	0.782
R-squared	0.26	0.19	0.22	0.14

**Notes:** The outcome variable for columns (1), (5), (6), and (7) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “low”, “middle”, and “high”. The outcome variable for column (2) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “going to the *Ciclovía* on Sundays”, “play tennis”, and “practice horse riding”. The outcome variable for column (3) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “fly a kite in the park”, “go to the movie theater”, and “go to the theater or art galleries”. The outcome variable for columns (4) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “*cumbia villera - vallenato*”, “classic rock - *salsa*”, and “Jazz”. The table presents results for the “Audio Profile” task type sample. Robust standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

Figure C.1 shows the distribution of scores ranging from zero (least likely to conform, answering negatively to every item) to thirteen (most likely to conform). Our samples, both in Bogotá

**Table C.3: Validating profile attributes: forms of capital**

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>					
	<i>Bogotanos classifying Bogotanos</i>			<i>Bogotanos classifying Chileans</i>		
	Cognitive Skills	Income Level	Social Influence	Cognitive Skills	Income Level	Social Influence
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<b>Accent</b>						
High Class	0.301*** (0.097)	0.420*** (0.107)	0.453*** (0.106)	0.121 (0.091)	-0.194* (0.100)	-0.015 (0.082)
<b>Sex</b>						
Female	0.164* (0.092)	-0.004 (0.103)	0.072 (0.114)	-0.046 (0.099)	-0.027 (0.106)	-0.118 (0.092)
<b>Big Five</b>						
Extroverted	-0.011 (0.135)	0.134 (0.143)	0.072 (0.142)	0.006 (0.150)	-0.173 (0.147)	0.148 (0.144)
Generous	0.092 (0.139)	0.115 (0.159)	0.124 (0.152)	-0.106 (0.159)	-0.256 (0.167)	-0.121 (0.147)
Calmed	0.039 (0.140)	0.103 (0.169)	0.254* (0.153)	-0.149 (0.172)	-0.373** (0.166)	-0.117 (0.168)
Imaginative	0.160 (0.163)	0.181 (0.168)	0.249 (0.188)	0.178 (0.161)	0.018 (0.167)	0.123 (0.156)
<b>Income Groups</b>						
0 - 1'100.000	0.148 (0.187)	-1.079*** (0.212)	-0.457** (0.197)	-0.405** (0.178)	-0.990*** (0.171)	-0.636*** (0.181)
1'100.001 - 1'700.000	-0.070 (0.185)	-0.465*** (0.176)	-0.237 (0.187)	-0.436** (0.200)	-0.956*** (0.182)	-0.709*** (0.172)
1'700.001 - 2'600.000	-0.006 (0.175)	-0.401** (0.158)	-0.162 (0.181)	-0.312** (0.151)	-0.341** (0.148)	-0.278* (0.148)
4'200.001 - 6'800.000	0.099 (0.175)	0.456** (0.165)	0.119 (0.169)	-0.084 (0.175)	0.417*** (0.145)	0.174 (0.147)
More than 6'800.000	0.127 (0.185)	0.552*** (0.161)	0.106 (0.190)	-0.037 (0.177)	0.512*** (0.178)	-0.084 (0.185)
<b>Experience</b>						
Low	-0.181 (0.114)	-0.091 (0.121)	-0.082 (0.132)	-0.200 (0.124)	-0.163 (0.135)	-0.170 (0.122)
High	0.030 (0.101)	-0.076 (0.116)	-0.093 (0.120)	0.095 (0.134)	-0.050 (0.118)	-0.063 (0.129)
<b>Education</b>						
Elementary	0.056 (0.155)	0.054 (0.169)	0.100 (0.178)	0.041 (0.157)	0.037 (0.169)	-0.001 (0.157)
High School	-0.184 (0.164)	-0.108 (0.155)	-0.012 (0.146)	-0.001 (0.152)	-0.086 (0.157)	-0.159 (0.158)
Undergraduate	0.138 (0.132)	0.217* (0.129)	0.389** (0.158)	0.550*** (0.154)	0.131 (0.161)	0.357** (0.158)
Postgraduate	0.391*** (0.139)	0.138 (0.146)	0.370** (0.153)	0.557*** (0.155)	0.401*** (0.150)	0.308** (0.145)
Constant	3.147*** (0.212)	2.936*** (0.207)	2.815*** (0.230)	3.437*** (0.216)	3.491*** (0.229)	3.518*** (0.199)
Task Type	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile
Observations	337	338	335	342	341	340
Mean DV	3.501	3.130	3.224	3.418	3.012	3.212
SD DV	0.917	1.109	0.988	0.958	1.127	0.951
R-squared	0.10	0.31	0.14	0.14	0.35	0.18

**Notes:** All outcomes are categorical variables that take the values of “low”, “middle-low”, “middle”, “middle-high”, and “high”. The table presents results for the “Audio Profile” task type sample. Robust standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. The economic magnitude of each coefficient is shown in square brackets. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

(N=765) and Santiago de Chile (N=124), exhibit substantial variation in the scale. In both cases, the average equals 8.

**Figure C.1: Social Desirability Score by City**

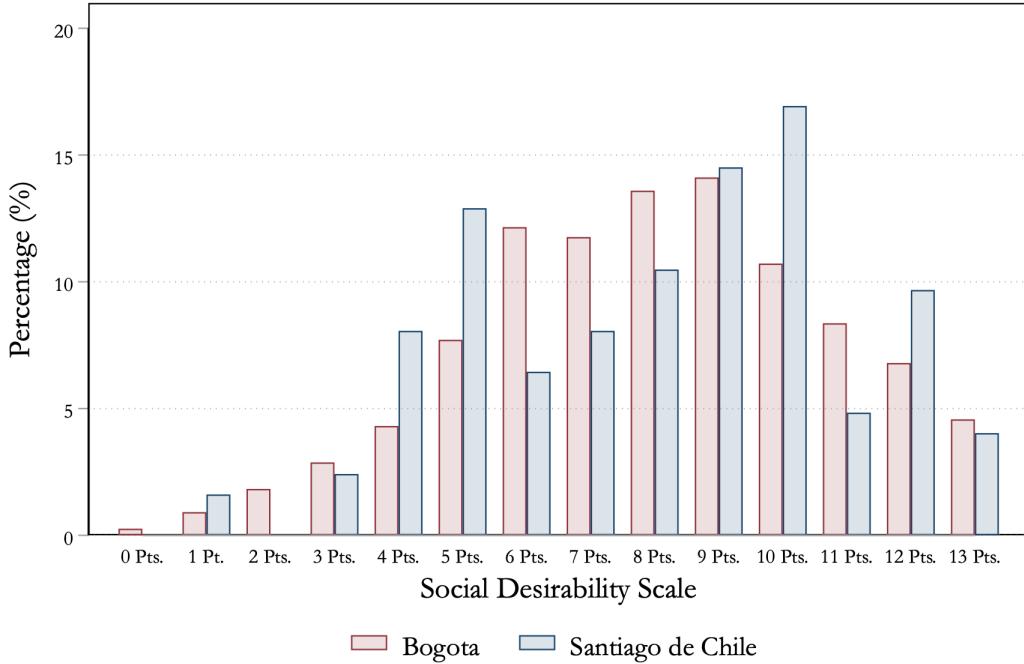


Table C.4 presents regressions for social class categorization (columns 1 to 4), forms of capital scales (columns 5 to 7), and the same variables for the cross-region categorization (*Bogotanos* classifying Chileans, in columns 8 to 14). In Panel A, we include the (demeaned) MCSDS scale and its interaction with the High Class as regressors. Panel B runs similar regressions using instead an indicator variable for whether respondents have a high sensitivity (MCSDS scale above the median value). By construction, individual SDB levels are orthogonal to our treatments, and this is confirmed when observing the coefficients on the MCSDS scale, which are always precise zeros. However, one may worry that presenting subjects with a high-class accent triggers a reaction merely in subjects desiring to conform to the experimenter's expectation. Rejecting this possibility, the interaction terms reflect that more socially sensitive subjects exhibit no systematic differences in their classification choices. This table thus reassures us that our experiment is not contaminated by experimenter demand effects that might arise when subjects attempt to guess the "correct" question. Appendix Table H.1 shows that results are similarly not affected by levels of SDB in Chile. Such a generalized effect bolsters our confidence that our experiment is not contaminated with this source of bias and reflects one of the advantages often attributed to Conjoint Experiments.

**Table C.4: Assessing Social Desirability Bias**

Dependent variable:															
	Within Region Analysis								Cross Region Analysis						
	Region: Bogotá				Region: Bogotá - Mapping Scales			Classification Outcomes			Mapping Scales				
	Social Class	Sport	Leisure	Music	Cognitive Skills	Income Level	Social Influence	Social Class	Sport	Leisure	Music	Cognitive Skills	Income Level	Social Influence	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
<i>Panel A. Demean MCSDS scale variable</i>															
<b>Accent</b>															
High Class	0.201*** (0.064)	0.140* (0.084)	0.147** (0.072)	0.208*** (0.075)	0.294*** (0.098)	0.413*** (0.107)	0.448*** (0.106)	0.051 (0.057)	0.079 (0.073)	0.118* (0.070)	0.012 (0.091)	0.114 (0.090)	-0.179* (0.095)	-0.007 (0.082)	
<b>SDB Measures</b>															
MCSDS Scale	0.015 (0.019)	-0.011 (0.021)	0.006 (0.021)	0.002 (0.021)	0.022 (0.033)	0.037 (0.027)	0.042 (0.028)	0.020 (0.019)	-0.001 (0.029)	-0.013 (0.025)	-0.019 (0.026)	-0.045 (0.033)	0.032 (0.033)	0.032 (0.033)	
<b>Accent × SDB Measures</b>															
High Class × MCSDS Scale	-0.030 (0.024)	-0.003 (0.031)	-0.005 (0.026)	0.014 (0.029)	0.013 (0.041)	-0.011 (0.043)	-0.048 (0.043)	-0.001 (0.021)	-0.052 (0.034)	0.033 (0.033)	0.045 (0.037)	0.032 (0.038)	0.068** (0.032)	0.006 (0.034)	
Constant	2.195*** (0.125)	1.525*** (0.181)	1.978*** (0.180)	2.255*** (0.189)	3.156*** (0.214)	2.940*** (0.206)	2.805*** (0.232)	2.191*** (0.127)	1.808*** (0.154)	2.065*** (0.153)	2.097*** (0.174)	3.415*** (0.207)	3.505*** (0.231)	3.534*** (0.201)	
Task Type	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	
Other Attributes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Observations	338	338	337	338	337	338	335	342	341	342	342	341	341	340	
Mean DV	2.148	1.636	2.205	2.186	3.501	3.130	3.224	2.023	1.545	2.105	2.070	3.418	3.012	3.212	
SD DV	0.613	0.711	0.666	0.683	0.917	1.109	0.988	0.612	0.708	0.707	0.782	0.958	1.127	0.951	
R-squared	0.25	0.11	0.11	0.10	0.11	0.32	0.14	0.27	0.20	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.38	0.19	
<i>Panel B. Dummy MCSDS scale variable</i>															
<b>Accent</b>															
High Class	0.257*** (0.073)	0.136 (0.107)	0.183* (0.094)	0.205** (0.093)	0.291** (0.119)	0.380*** (0.130)	0.463*** (0.135)	0.036 (0.071)	0.157* (0.084)	0.085 (0.083)	-0.057 (0.114)	0.120 (0.117)	-0.291** (0.118)	-0.036 (0.104)	
<b>SDB Measures</b>															
MCSDS Scale	0.013 (0.120)	-0.152 (0.114)	-0.012 (0.116)	-0.054 (0.117)	0.150 (0.201)	0.118 (0.180)	0.048 (0.178)	0.100 (0.099)	-0.020 (0.126)	-0.008 (0.113)	-0.026 (0.123)	0.042 (0.172)	0.207 (0.170)	0.114 (0.172)	
<b>Accent × SDB Measures</b>															
High Class × MCSDS Scale	-0.145 (0.144)	0.020 (0.168)	-0.089 (0.148)	0.020 (0.149)	0.011 (0.212)	0.090 (0.232)	-0.032 (0.223)	0.047 (0.114)	-0.234 (0.160)	0.104 (0.155)	0.218 (0.184)	0.010 (0.188)	0.332 (0.210)	0.078 (0.185)	
Constant	2.185*** (0.124)	1.586*** (0.186)	1.973*** (0.187)	2.270*** (0.195)	3.093*** (0.232)	2.902*** (0.219)	2.795*** (0.251)	2.154*** (0.135)	1.806*** (0.165)	2.077*** (0.155)	2.120** (0.179)	3.425*** (0.234)	3.442*** (0.240)	3.489*** (0.216)	
Task Type	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	
Other Attributes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Observations	338	338	337	338	337	338	335	342	341	342	342	341	341	340	
Mean DV	2.148	1.636	2.205	2.186	3.501	3.130	3.224	2.023	1.545	2.105	2.070	3.418	3.012	3.212	
SD DV	0.613	0.711	0.666	0.683	0.917	1.109	0.988	0.612	0.708	0.707	0.782	0.958	1.127	0.951	
R-squared	0.25	0.11	0.12	0.10	0.11	0.32	0.14	0.27	0.20	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.38	0.19	

**Notes:** The outcome variable for columns (1) and (8) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “low”, “middle”, and “high”. The outcome variable for columns (2) and (9) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “going to the *Ciclovía* on Sundays”, “play tennis”, and “practice horse riding”. The outcome variable for columns (3), and (10) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “fly a kite in the park”, “go to the movie theater”, and “go to the theater or art galleries”. The outcome variable for columns (4) and (11) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “*cumbia villera - vallenato*”, “classic rock - *salsa*”, and “Jazz”. The outcomes variables for columns (5), (6), (7), (12), (13), and (14) are categorical variables that take the values of “low”, “middle-low”, “middle”, “middle-high”, and “high”. Columns (1) through (7) present within regions estimates for *Bogotá* only. Estimates in columns (8) through (14) present cross region estimations. MCSDS is the 13-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. The table presents results for the “Audio Profile” task type sample. Robust standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parenthesis. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.

## C4 Qualitative feedback

Our pilot also included a final open-ended question about the subjects' opinions and reactions to the survey. Specifically, we asked: "What did you think of the previous exercise? Did you find it difficult or exhausting to answer the questions based on the profiles presented to you? Could the audio be heard well?" About 46% of the participants (750 of 1,629) responded to this question. More importantly, this question was intended primarily for those listening to audio snippets. Among these, 595 (93.35%) answered the question.

Focusing on our main sample for Bogotá, our text analysis reveals that the cognition process sparked in respondents lines up with our expectations. To evaluate the responses, we asked Chat GPT4 to summarize common themes and their frequency.<sup>43</sup> The analysis indicated:

- Clarity and quality of the audios: About 45 responses positively mentioned the clarity and quality of the audios, highlighting the ease of understanding and good sound quality.
- Ease or difficulty of the survey: About 40 responses commented on the general ease of the survey, indicating that the questions were clear and direct.
- Interest and novelty of the exercise: Some 30 responses expressed interest and found it novel, valuing the participation experience.
- Repetitiveness and fatigue: Around 20 responses mentioned feeling repetitiveness or fatigue during the survey, pointing to a need for greater variety in the questions or how they were presented.

---

<sup>43</sup>We first provided the model with the reactions and requested a summary with common themes and examples for each theme. Then, the following prompt (originally in Spanish) led to the responses above: "In your summary, you mentioned these themes: "The most frequent themes include the clarity and quality of the audios, the ease or difficulty of the survey, the interest and novelty of the exercise, the repetitiveness and exhaustion, the confusion in some answers due to limited information, and the impact of accents and voice on the perceptions of the profiles." For each of these common themes, tell me approximately how many responses referred to it, keeping in mind that each bullet is a response. Explain your reasoning process to follow this instruction."

- Confusion in some responses due to limited information: About 15 responses reflected confusion or difficulty in answering certain questions, citing a lack of information or clarity.
- Impact of accents and voice on perceptions of profiles: Approximately 25 responses addressed how accents and voice influenced their perceptions, highlighting this aspect as a point of interest and reflection.

Some specific examples of participants' remarks help us appreciate how they went through the cognitive process our experiment intended to produce. Notably, several remarks noted the voices' relevance in their decisions. Some examples along these lines are the following:

- Very interesting how one can form opinions about a person just by listening to them.
- It is easy; it is interesting to see how, according to certain accents, one associates certain activities, attitudes, or manners.
- I found it interesting; I think the way the characters speak greatly influences the responses, more than the profile. The audios are perfectly audible. It is an interesting study; I would like to know the results if they are published.
- It seems very good to me. I think I leaned toward the accent and the tone of the voice. It wasn't difficult to respond, and the audios are clear.
- The audios sound very good, and additionally, it seems interesting to me that one can read a person they don't know through certain characteristics. I found it innovative.
- Very interesting, it really awakens feelings and thoughts with just one audio. It is very entertaining to realize that we imagine a lot about people's lives from their accents or voices or just a few seconds explaining something about them.
- I found it super interesting because one can identify different profiles of Colombians, such as dialects and ways of expressing themselves.
- It seems entertaining and makes me think about the impact of the voice and way of speaking on other aspects like educational level, experience, or income.
- The audios sound good, and it is interesting that with just the intonation, one can change their opinion about a person.
- Yes, the audios are clear. It is a different and very interesting activity as it gives a different perspective on perceptions and stereotypes towards others without knowing them in-depth.
- I found it reasonable as they are realistic profiles of today. It's not about being a professional but about contacts for better job opportunities.
- It seems like an interesting exercise as through audios one can basically create the image of a type of person based on what one knows.

- Interesting, the audios are clear, making me reflect on how the tone of voice influences how someone is perceived.
- Yes, the audios are clear. The different exercises are interesting as the informative table, people's communication, and tone of voice make one perceive who could purely be a work contact or a friend.
- From the voice, I imagined many things, but seeing the profiles changed my opinion. It's entertaining to see how, from the voice, we are guided by completely different things.
- Quite interesting. The tone of voice allows me to connect my mind with the possible person saying it.
- It's cool because the perception changes a lot based on the voice and associated characteristics.
- With the voices, we can inquire a little about people's temperaments.
- Very interesting; from the audio, one can assume what the person is like.
- Something interesting is how the tone of voice can significantly influence gaining others' trust.
- Choosing the way each person expresses themselves when speaking was delightful.
- I found it interesting to answer questions just by listening to some people and thus make a social inquiry through their voices. The audios are perfectly audible.

Some fewer respondents had more nuanced reactions. For instance, they either expressed difficulty in deciding based on the limited features provided, dismissed the relevance of voices and other attributes, or recognized the importance of the voices on their decisions but seemed critical about such influence. Examples along these lines include the following:

- Somewhat confusing because it is not always easy to identify just by listening to the tone of voice.
- Classist.
- It is a bit difficult for me to descriptively associate a person just by their voice and what they say.
- I think this exercise made me feel a bit weird as the accents greatly influenced what I thought about the profiles, which, for me, is not correct.
- Good, it may be that sometimes we judge people just by their voice, but we don't really know who they are.

- Honestly, I didn't see any sense in it. I believe that all people, regardless of sex, color, social status, or any other situation, can be kind and calm; they can practice tennis or horse riding and go to the theater or a gallery. Humanity is in the heart, not in the “clothes” people put on.
- The audios sound good. Defining a profile just with the audio is a risky but valid bet.
- It's fine; it surprises me how one could change their opinion just by seeing the data of the people, although in my case, I was attentive and had some doubts at times with the voices I didn't select initially.

Like our pilot version, our final survey includes an open-ended question (in this case, more generally framed as: “To conclude, we would like to know your reactions. What did you think when answering the survey?”). We also analyze whether respondents’ comments indicate that they became aware of inequality’s social and cultural dimensions when confronted with class-based accents.

## D ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

We decided to investigate these questions in the context of an online survey experiment, which provides a useful setting for testing our theory. It offers participants the privacy to answer questions truthfully without the stress of feeling observed, while allowing us to reach a larger sample. The choice of a survey experiment also provides a contained environment in which to evaluate the theory and learn lessons for designing a field intervention of broader scope.

Respondents are invited to participate in the study on a voluntary basis, with no direct compensation for the time spent completing the survey. However, we incentivize participation by drawing tablets for those who complete the survey. Participants may leave the survey at any time with no personal consequences.

All data collected from survey responses will initially be stored in Qualtrics. Once data collection is complete, the data will be downloaded and stored on a password-protected computer. Only the research group will have access to the study data, as will a research assistant who will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement before accessing the data. Six months after the completion of the project, the data will be deleted from Qualtrics. However, pseudonymized data will be retained in perpetuity for replication purposes.

The study will not involve any invasive intervention with participants, who will only be exposed to written and verbal randomized information and asked to answer standard opinion survey questions. In addition, although the audio snippets embedded in the conjoint experiment include accents as markers of cultural capital and region, they are not expected to cause discomfort to respondents as they do not cover sensitive topics and are no different from situations that people might experience in their daily interactions.

However, some participants may feel uncomfortable answering some questions because they may feel stigmatized. To minimize this possibility, we take the following measures.

- We conducted a pilot to ensure that no questions were included that would cause risk, distress, or stigma to respondents.
- In both the pilot and full study surveys, we included an open-ended box at the end of the survey where respondents could express their opinions and share their feelings after all the experiments in the form of comments.
- The informed consent of participants will be recorded to ensure respect for the autonomy and well-being of respondents. It makes it clear to respondents that participation in the survey is voluntary and that they should feel free to refuse to answer certain questions or to withdraw from the session entirely at any time without adverse consequences.
- Since participants will be recruited through Facebook ads, we will take the following steps to ensure that only adults are included in the study: we will only target these ads to individuals who are 18 years of age or older; the consent form will consist of a declaration that the

respondent is not a minor; finally, we will ask respondents about their age in the first section of the survey and exclude those under 18 by redirecting them to the end of the survey.

- All of our advertisements and recruitment tools will clearly state that we will draw a Samsung Galaxy A9 tablet for every 1,000 people who complete the survey.
- It will be made clear to participants that all information collected will be kept strictly confidential, that the data will be encrypted and stored on a password-protected computer, and that only the researchers involved in this project will have access to the (de-identified) information collected. In addition, we will not ask respondents to provide any personal information.
- Participants will be informed that there are no right or wrong answers to the survey questions and that the information will be kept strictly confidential. This motivates participants to answer honestly without fear of being discriminated against, stigmatized, or judged for their ideas and positions.
- At the end of the survey, we will leave an open space for respondents to leave their general comments about the questionnaire. Likewise, we will include the emails of the principal investigators, as well as those of the officers of the two institutions involved in the IRBs of the research (i.e., Universidad de los Andes and Harvard University), for any individual who may wish to write further and share any suggestions or concerns with us.

## E SURVEY INSTRUMENT

1. Sociodemographic characterization
2. Pre-treatment information This part includes the following modules: 1) Knowledge about inequality and redistributive fiscal policies. 2) Trust and attitudes towards the state
3. Conjoint experiments: “control” or “cultural capital”
4. Outcomes

Qualtrics links:

- [Pilot and accent validation - Spanish version](#)
- [Survey - Spanish version](#)

Informed consent:

- [Spanish version](#)

## F RECRUITMENT AND SAMPLING PRACTICES

We conduct an online survey and recruit a convenience sample using Facebook and Instagram ads, which allows us to reach respondents of all income levels cost-effectively.<sup>44</sup>

**Table F.1: Sampling Strata**

Quotas	Required Surveys	Completed Surveys	Cost per Result
Women - Older than 35 Years Old - High-income Group	106	112	USD 8.21
Men - Older than 35 Years Old - High-income Group	81	121	USD 5.64
Women - Younger than 35 Years Old - High-income Group	36	35	USD 10.19
Men - Younger than 35 Years Old - High-income Group	31	56	USD 4.67
Women - Older than 35 Years Old - Middle-income Group	755	1,077	USD 6.09
Men - Older than 35 Years Old - Middle-income Group	597	1,237	USD 3.95
Women - Younger than 35 Years Old - Middle-income Group	361	525	USD 6.04
Men - Younger than 35 Years Old - Middle-income Group	346	527	USD 5.59
Women - Older than 35 Years Old - Low-income Group	692	478	USD 14.49
Men - Older than 35 Years Old - Low-income Group	586	631	USD 8.35
Women - Younger than 35 Years Old - Low-income Group	454	385	USD 11.49
Men - Younger than 35 Years Old - Low-income Group	455	384	USD 11.60

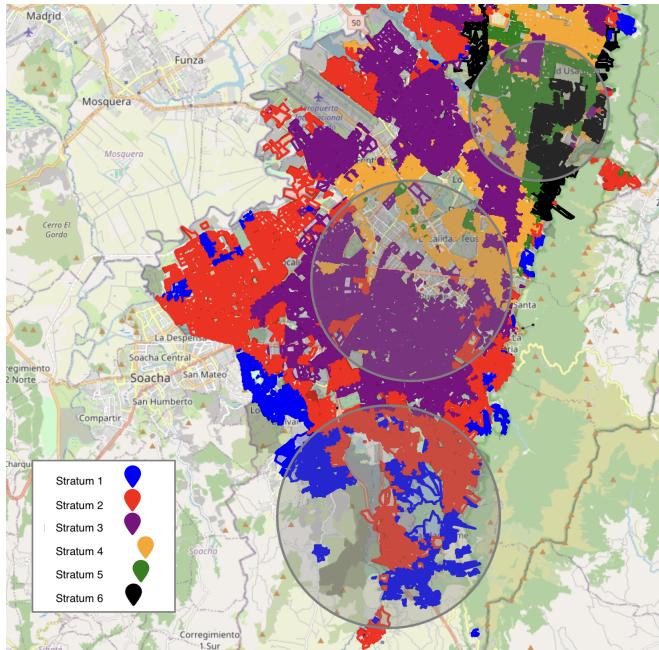
We now focus on the sampling design. After defining the sampling strata, we characterize the census tracts (known as *manzanas* in Colombia) based on their *estrato*. Utilizing Facebook's ad tool, we target ads to specific geographic units within a given radius of a geolocation, identifying three *clusters* of census tracts. Each cluster corresponds to one of the previously discussed income groups, optimizing our ad targeting and recruitment efficiency. Figure F.1 displays the geographic location of each cluster. Using this method, we aim to sample census tracts to obtain a minimum of 5,000 completed surveys. These numbers ensure representativeness and provide a sufficiently large sample to conduct analyses within Bogotá by quota subgroup.

We invite Facebook and Instagram users to participate in the survey.<sup>45</sup> We redirect people clicking on the ads to complete our questionnaire on Qualtrics. The integration of Facebook and Instagram with Qualtrics enables us to enforce the quotas mentioned above (Zhang et al., 2020; Rosenzweig et al., 2020), in addition to tracking the daily response rate to manage costs per completed survey per census tract and prevent overspending in census tracts that do not meet expected quotas.

<sup>44</sup>Boas et al. (2020) find that Facebook offers broad geographic coverage and facilitates targeted sampling compared to Mturk or Qualtrics panels. In addition, we rely on questions about respondent characteristics to account for sample selection.

<sup>45</sup>To design the recruitment process, we follow the latest developments and best practices as described in Neundorf and Öztürk (2021) and Kühne and Zindel (2020). Recent projects have used Facebook to achieve low-cost, representative surveys (Grow et al., 2021; Stantcheva, 2022) in high-income economies (e.g. Zhang et al. (2020) in the United States) as well as in countries in the Global South (e.g. Rosenzweig et al. (2020) in Mexico and Kenya, and Samuels and Zucco (2013) in Brazil).

**Figure F.1: Geographic Location of Census Tract Clusters**



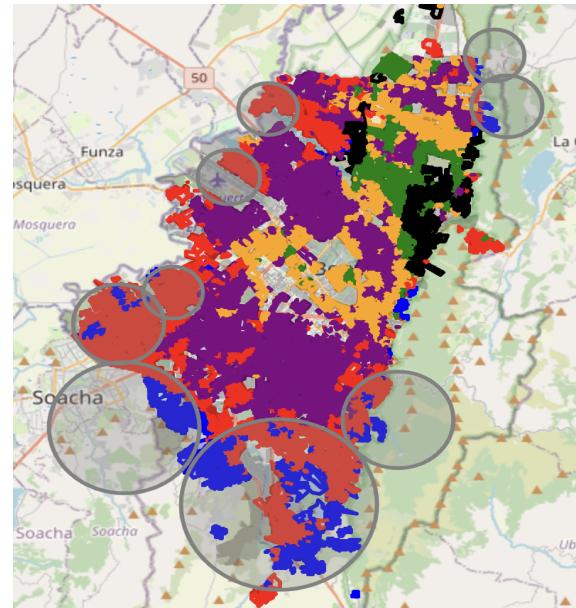
**Note:** The lower cluster depicts the low-income group, the middle cluster shows the middle-income group, and the upper cluster denotes the high-income group.

As mentioned above, Table F.1 summarizes the quota completions and costs per result (e.g., clicks on the ad and completed surveys) of our advertisements at the time of registration of this pre-analysis plan. Notably, at the moment of registering this PAP nearing the completion of the data collection, we have met most of our sampling quotas, including those for the high-income group, which were of particular concern to us. Nevertheless, three of the four quotas for low-income citizens still require additional surveys to be fulfilled, given that this is a hard-to-reach group. To address this issue, we expanded our low-income sampling cluster to include other areas of Bogotá and Soacha, a nearby distinct municipality that is nevertheless part of Bogotá's Metropolitan area and connected economically and socially to the capital. Figure F.2 displays the new low-income areas sampled.

We now turn to the costs per result. These costs remain low across all sampling quotas, with each falling below USD 15. Furthermore, as anticipated, we find that the lowest costs are associated with the middle-income strata. In contrast, the hard-to-reach groups (the low- and high-income citizens) have higher costs. We attribute this to the fact that these groups are generally less interested in participating in such studies or are occupied with other activities throughout the day.

Our recruitment ads are designed to be appealing and motivate all potential participants to complete the survey, allowing them to share their opinions on issues affecting the Colombian population. Specifically, given that our target population includes adult citizens from all income groups, we use images depicting diverse groups of people. Additionally, these advertisements feature call-to-action statements and messages encouraging participation in our study, indicating that scholars from Harvard Business School and Universidad de los Andes are conducting this

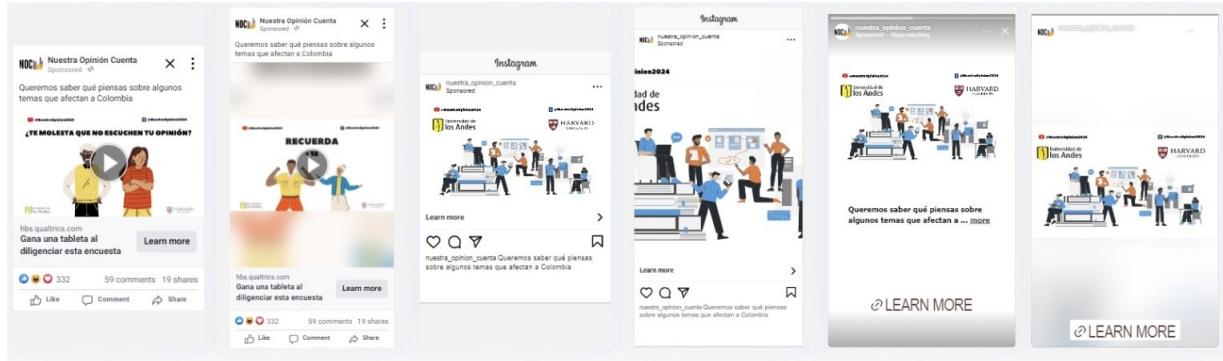
**Figure F.2: New Low-Income Sampling Clusters**



**Note:** All clusters depict the new low-income areas to be sampled.

research. These ads specifically target individuals over 18 and clearly state that all participants who complete the survey will be entered into a raffle to win a Samsung Galaxy A9 tablet. Figure F.3 depicts the main screens of our recruitment ads.

**Figure F.3: Recruitment Ads Main Screens**

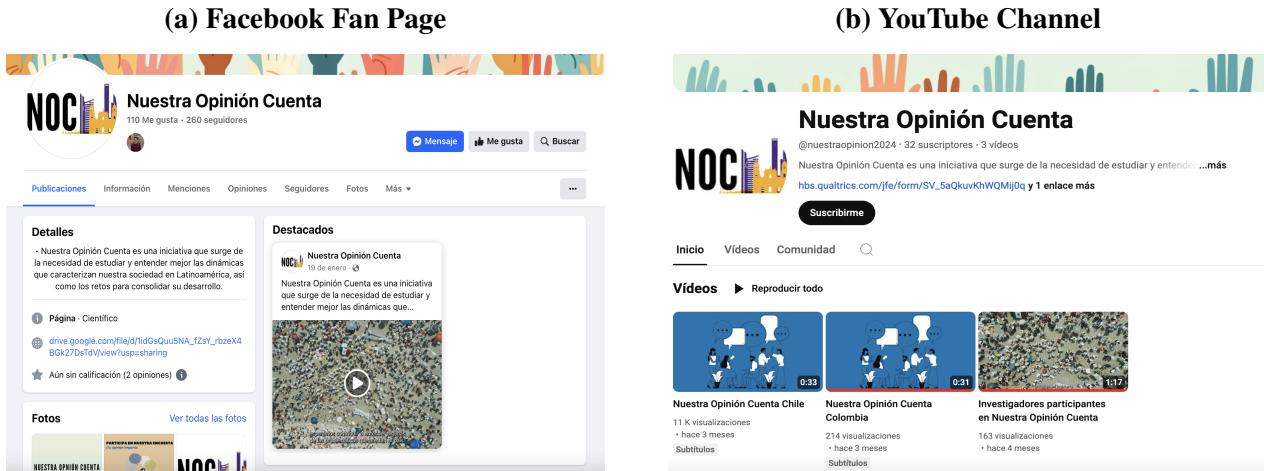


In addition to these ads, we created a Facebook fan page and a YouTube channel<sup>46</sup> where we published a brief description of our project (called *Nuestra Opinión Cuenta* or Our Opinion Counts), our goals, the informed consent, and a contact email address to field any questions, concerns, or inquiries from participants. Moreover, we uploaded a short video clip introducing each of our research group members, detailing our research interests, and summarizing the project goals. This strategy enhances our reach and the credibility of our recruitment campaign, making our project more transparent to potential participants. At the same time, we expect that citizens will

<sup>46</sup>You can find our Facebook fan page [here](#), and our YouTube channel [here](#).

feel more comfortable participating in this study. Figures F.4a and F.4b depict our Facebook fan page and YouTube channel.

**Figure F.4: Recruitment Pages**



## G IMPLEMENTING THE POPULATION AMCE

To follow the “design approach” in [de la Cuesta et al. \(2022\)](#) to calculate a more externally valid population Average Marginal Component Effect, we construct profile attributes using data from the 2022 wave of the textitGran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares (GEIH). This survey, run by Colombia’s statistical institute DANE, offers a representative survey for Bogotá and includes rich socioeconomic characterizations of the population, including sex, income sources and levels, and education.

We base our randomization of profiles on the joint distribution of sex, income groups, and educational attainment (excluding individuals who are still studying). We focus on individuals between 25 and 45 years of age, reflecting the range in our audio files. Because there is no reliable data on work experience in this or other surveys, we use a uniform distribution of experience for our joint distribution, providing three easily interpretable levels for subjects: high, medium, and low.

Tables [G.1](#) and [G.2](#) present the resulting joint distributions. The first two columns of the tables show the frequency with which profiles were given to participants in the pilot survey. In comparison, the following three columns describe the underlying probabilities we randomly drew from based on the GEIH sample. In very few sex x income x education cells (3 out of 60), there are no cases in the GEIH sample. Out of the concern that this reflects a small sample, we implement a minor adjustment and impute a small frequency in each case.<sup>47</sup>

Finally, there is no empirical basis for estimating realistic values of the Big Five personality traits in surveys for Bogotá, which also includes income and education. Partly for this reason, and also given our substantial interest in this dimension, we treat the Big Five personality traits as attributes of interest and randomize them uniformly.

---

<sup>47</sup>In particular, the GEIH sample has no males with primary education and the 4.2 to 6.8 million pesos salary. However, since there are 5 cases in the preceding income range and one in the subsequent one, we linearly interpolate and assume 3 cases (noted in the ‘Frequency (adjusted)’ column). We do a similar interpolation for females with primary education and income in the 1.7 to 2.6 million pesos. Instead, for women with primary education and over 6.8 million pesos, we assign the smallest frequency, of 1, consistent with frequencies for high salaries at that education level.

**Table G.1: Joint distribution of income and human capital – Male**

Profile	Pilot Conjoint Profiles		GEIH Survey Profiles		
	Frequency	Probability (%)	Frequency	Frequency (Adjusted)	Probability (%)
Primary 0 - 1,100	101	4.269	126	126	4.16
Primary 1,100 - 1,700	37	1.564	41	41	1.35
Primary 1,700 - 2,600	6	0.254	10	10	0.33
Primary 2,600 - 4,200	5	0.211	5	5	0.16
Primary 4,200 - 6,800	1	0.0423	0	3	0.1
Primary More than 6,800	0	0	1	1	0.033
Secondary 0 - 1,100	592	25.02	782	782	25.80
Secondary 1,100 - 1,700	289	12.21	390	390	12.87
Secondary 1,700 - 2,600	85	3.593	99	99	3.27
Secondary 2,600 - 4,200	17	0.719	35	35	1.15
Secondary 4,200 - 6,800	11	0.465	9	9	0.30
Secondary More than 6,800	1	0.0423	4	4	0.13
Technical 0 - 1,100	119	5.030	141	141	4.65
Technical 1,100 - 1,700	121	5.114	163	163	5.38
Technical 1,700 - 2,600	75	3.170	91	91	3
Technical 2,600 - 4,200	25	1.057	40	40	1.32
Technical 4,200 - 6,800	9	0.380	12	12	0.4
Technical More than 6,800	3	0.127	4	4	0.13
University 0 - 1,100	75	3.170	104	104	3.43
University 1,100 - 1,700	115	4.861	137	137	4.52
University 1,700 - 2,600	151	6.382	190	190	6.27
University 2,600 - 4,200	151	6.382	179	179	5.91
University 4,200 - 6,800	63	2.663	91	91	3
University More than 6,800	51	2.156	58	58	1.91
Postgraduate 0 - 1,100	2	0.0845	4	4	0.13
Postgraduate 1,100 - 1,700	4	0.169	10	10	0.33
Postgraduate 1,700 - 2,600	37	1.564	37	37	1.22
Postgraduate 2,600 - 4,200	72	3.043	82	82	2.71
Postgraduate 4,200 - 6,800	70	2.959	82	82	2.71
Postgraduate More than 6,800	78	3.297	101	101	3.33
Total	2,366	100	3,028	3,031	100

**Notes:** Income level in thousands of Colombian Pesos

**Table G.2: Joint distribution of income and human capital – Female**

Profile	Pilot Conjoint Profiles		GEIH Survey Profiles		
	Frequency	Probability (%)	Frequency	Frequency (Adjusted)	Probability (%)
Primary 0 - 1,100	71	2.922	107	107	3.46
Primary 1,100 - 1,700	17	0.700	15	15	0.49
Primary 1,700 - 2,600	7	0.288	0	8	0.26
Primary 2,600 - 4,200	0	0	1	1	0.03
Primary 4,200 - 6,800	1	0.0412	0	1	0.03
Primary More than 6,800	1	0.0412	0	1	0.03
Secondary 0 - 1,100	610	25.10	783	783	25.32
Secondary 1,100 - 1,700	172	7.078	217	217	7.02
Secondary 1,700 - 2,600	24	0.988	37	37	1.12
Secondary 2,600 - 4,200	4	0.165	7	7	0.23
Secondary 4,200 - 6,800	9	0.370	7	7	0.23
Secondary More than 6,800	0	0	1	1	0.03
Technical 0 - 1,100	192	7.901	284	284	9.18
Technical 1,100 - 1,700	146	6.008	182	182	5.89
Technical 1,700 - 2,600	62	2.551	73	73	2.36
Technical 2,600 - 4,200	11	0.453	15	15	0.49
Technical 4,200 - 6,800	1	0.0412	4	4	0.13
Technical More than 6,800	6	0.247	6	6	0.19
University 0 - 1,100	116	4.774	165	165	5.34
University 1,100 - 1,700	149	6.132	179	179	5.79
University 1,700 - 2,600	188	7.737	235	235	7.60
University 2,600 - 4,200	169	6.955	188	188	6.08
University 4,200 - 6,800	83	3.416	86	86	2.78
University More than 6,800	43	1.770	45	45	1.46
Postgraduate 0 - 1,100	11	0.453	10	10	0.32
Postgraduate 1,100 - 1,700	12	0.494	15	15	0.49
Postgraduate 1,700 - 2,600	46	1.893	67	67	2.17
Postgraduate 2,600 - 4,200	107	4.403	138	138	4.46
Postgraduate 4,200 - 6,800	80	3.292	106	106	3.43
Postgraduate More than 6,800	92	3.786	109	109	3.53
Total	2,430	100	3,082	4,092	100

**Notes:** Income level in thousands of Colombian Pesos

## H ASSESSING SOCIAL DESIRABILITY BIAS

**Table H.1: Assessing Social Desirability Bias – Chile**

<i>Dependent variable:</i>				
	Social Class (1)	Sport (2)	Leisure (3)	Music (4)
<b><i>Panel A. Demean MCSDS scale variable</i></b>				
<b>Accent</b>				
High Class	0.175 *** (0.057)	0.113 (0.077)	0.268*** (0.082)	0.425*** (0.082)
MCSDS Scale	-0.024 (0.025)	-0.022 (0.023)	-0.033 (0.026)	0.008 (0.024)
High Class × MCSDS Scale	0.003 (0.023)	-0.011 (0.030)	0.024 (0.028)	0.018 (0.024)
Constant	1.527*** (0.122)	1.193*** (0.136)	1.721*** (0.188)	1.731*** (0.165)
Task Type	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile
Other Attributes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	258	258	258	258
Mean DV	1.907	1.403	2.101	1.973
SD DV	0.659	0.630	0.726	0.730
R-squared	0.45	0.23	0.30	0.25
<b><i>Panel B. Dummy Interaction</i></b>				
<b>Accent</b>				
High Class	0.191** (0.089)	0.059 (0.148)	0.121 (0.104)	0.250** (0.112)
<b>SDB Measures</b>				
MCSDS Scale	-0.098 (0.155)	-0.227 (0.145)	-0.297* (0.151)	-0.087 (0.163)
High Class × MCSDS Scale	-0.008 (0.129)	0.103 (0.171)	0.260* (0.149)	0.289* (0.164)
Constant	1.574*** (0.149)	1.351*** (0.183)	1.909*** (0.186)	1.821*** (0.212)
Task Type	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile	Audio Profile
Other Attributes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	258	258	258	258
Mean DV	1.907	1.403	2.101	1.973
SD DV	0.659	0.630	0.726	0.730
R-squared	0.44	0.23	0.30	0.26

**Notes:** The outcome variable for column (1) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “low”, “middle”, and “high”. The outcome variable for column (2) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “going to the *Ciclovía* on Sundays”, “play tennis”, and “practice horse riding”. The outcome variable for column (3) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “fly a kite in the park”, “go to the movie theater”, and “go to the theater or art galleries”. The outcome variable for column (4) is a categorical variable that takes the values of “*cumbia villera - vallenato*”, “classic rock - *salsa*”, and “Jazz”. The table presents within-region estimates for Chile only. MCSDS is the 13-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. The table presents results for the “Audio Profile” task type sample. Robust standard errors are clustered at the respondent level and presented in parentheses. \*\*\* p < 0.01; \*\* p < 0.05; \* p < 0.1.