

Internal and External Retrospections: Method of Analysis for the Literary-Historical Discourse of *Noticia de un secuestro* (1996).

Retrospecciones interna y externa: método de análisis para el discurso histórico-literario de *Noticia de un secuestro* (1996).

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Jesús Miguel Delgado Del Aguila

Universidad Nacional Mayor de San Marcos
(PERÚ)

CE: tarmangani2088@outlook.com

 <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2633-8101>



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Abstract:

In this article, Mieke Bal's theoretical concepts of internal and external retrospections will be used to extrapolate them in the historical-literary discourse of *News of a Kidnapping*. The purpose of this use is to unravel the details that are outside the text and that can be recognized through consultation of other sources. This distinction will be important, since it allows us to complement the information and assume a more global idea of the events of certain stages of the countries. In the case of this investigation, the primary focus will be on the last two decades of the 20th century in Colombia, characterized by terror, extortion and narcoterrorism that are part of a macrocriminal period.

Key words: Cultural Studies. Method of analysis. Colombian Literature. History. Textual interpretation. Interdisciplinarity.

Resumen:

En este artículo, se utilizarán los conceptos teóricos de Mieke Bal de retrospecciones interna y externa para extrapolarlos en el discurso histórico-literario de *Noticia de un secuestro*. El propósito de este uso es para desentrañar los pormenores que se hallan fuera del texto y que se pueden reconocer a través de la consulta de otras fuentes. Será importante esta distinción, ya que se permite complementar la información y asumir una idea más global de los acontecimientos de determinadas etapas de los países. Para el caso de esta pesquisa, el enfoque primordial será en los últimos dos decenios del siglo XX en Colombia, caracterizados por el terror, la extorsión y el narcoterrorismo que son parte de un periodo macrocriminal.

Palabras clave: Estudios Culturales. Método de análisis. Literatura colombiana. Historia. Interpretación textual. Interdisciplinaria.

Introduction

On this occasion, I shall revisit concepts concerning history that are developed by theorists such as Erich Auerbach, Paul Ricoeur, Gérard Genette, Alain Badiou, Helena Beristáin, among others. Their contributions are aimed at demonstrating that it is essential for history to possess an organisation grounded in a body of data and records, since in this manner its objectivity and veracity as discourse may be revealed.

Once this purpose has been established, it will be possible to formulate a judgement concerning the topics of interest for this study. A brief description will then be provided of the prominence achieved by Pablo Escobar and his criminal organisation, so that his intervention in the subsequent discussions may be identified during the period considered for this segmentation, which focuses on the final two decades of the twentieth century in Colombia, under the governments of Julio César Turbay Ayala (1978–1982), Belisario Betancur (1982–1986), Virgilio Barco Vargas (1986–1990), and César Gaviria (1990–1994).

The presentation of the events that occurred and their corresponding dates will be conditioned by the historical epistemologies of internal and external retrospection proposed by Mieke Bal, under the aegis of confrontation with the facts related to the novel and the events that serve as a complement in establishing and comprehending this corroborated panorama in an exhaustive manner.

The intention behind this structured documentation is to unravel and substantiate the inconsistencies experienced by Colombia within its social, political, economic, and legal spheres. This disruptive situation would confirm the absence of the nation-state in that context. Such a paradigm will be addressed by Romero Herrera, Rodríguez Manzanera, Fredric Jameson, and Stuart Hall in reference to administrative incapacity and the inefficiency of the role exercised by government representatives, as well as the harmful repercussions that arise within the local territory due to the absence of a global solution.

Development

With regard to history, Erich Auerbach (1996) considers that it recounts a set of events through which a perception of morality or humanism is conveyed. Nevertheless, it becomes contradictory when evaluated over the course of time, since it fluctuates and materialises in particular ways within everyday reality. According to Paul Ricoeur (1996), one way of discerning its configuration more precisely is through the functioning of the State, together with the ideology prevailing during a given period.

This becomes accessible because it concerns circumstances governed by events of a public nature. Moreover, it is necessary to refer to the concept of time embedded within that history. The nature of this progression is always active and dynamic: it gives rise to transformation (Ricoeur, 1995), since it does not tend to unite elements, but rather to disperse them. Should a narrator at any point seek to attribute an objective approach to it, such an approach will remain particular rather than universalising (Auerbach, 1996), because each narrator possesses the authority to manipulate discourse or the order of events in order to achieve convenient aesthetic effects (Beristáin, 1997).

Its condition is the opposite of nature (Alain Badiou, 2003). Indeed, it is neither wholly real nor wholly fictitious; all of this is profoundly relative. In this sense, its singularity is noteworthy because it provides an individual criterion and logic, while also aspiring to convey knowledge of what has occurred. In other words, meaning concerning a specific context is acquired through the narration or reproduction of a history (Gérard Genette, 1998).

The work undertaken by Gabriel García Márquez in his literary production exemplifies this particular mode of narrating history. Through his discourse, one is able to identify his determination to depict events through dates, testimonies, and credible settings. Consequently, his intention to express a discourse grounded in factual fidelity becomes evident; that is, such documentation reveals that the organisation of time has been controlled through the presentation of heterogeneous patterns (Badiou, 2003).

Thus, history is accepted as truthful and becomes persuasive to the reader. This outcome succeeds in establishing the reliable conjunction between “being” and “appearing” (Ricoeur,

1995). The work carried out by the Colombian writer in *Noticia de un secuestro* (1996) is therefore merely one further version of what Colombia experienced at the end of the twentieth century.

For Helena Beristáin (1997), it is important to determine the content or indispensable components of historical narrative, since it evokes events that are immediately recognisable. In this regard, Mieke Bal (1990) proposes that two categories comprise it. The first is termed external retrospection, referring to remote events or actors that are not plainly visible within the journalistic novel; nevertheless, their inclusion is unavoidable in order to achieve a fuller understanding of the context.

The second is internal retrospection. This coincides with the principal narrative while possessing a significance contrary to the former. Strictly speaking, the events narrated therein are immersed both in the textual narrative and in the historical narrative. These paradigms will be distinguished in order to construct a panorama of fin-de-siècle twentieth-century Colombia. In doing so, the detachment of the nation-state will be justified.

Since reference has been made to that which underlies a given context, it is indispensable to return to the thought of Walter Benjamin (2001), who clarifies that there prevails a necessity to exercise criticism whenever an act of violence has infringed upon the fulfilment of law and justice.

In general, this occurs when such a situation becomes articulated within the concomitant history of the citizen and destabilises the cyclical configuration of the culture of the period. In this regard, evasion is not an alternative for confronting abuses of power, since individuals risk failing to defend their rights and ultimately submitting themselves to what the elite unjustly imposes upon them. Concerning this matter, Jaime Balmes (1946) asserts that one must possess clearly defined personal projects; otherwise, one merely fulfils the interests of others. Such resignation can be observed among members of the Government when they yield to the demands of the leader of the Medellín Cartel and his narcoterrorist entourage.

This is likewise evident when Colombians comply with the solutions imposed by State representatives and military forces, without possessing the freedom to act or protest regarding

the consensus that may previously have been established, even when their lives are exposed to danger. For this reason, no urgent means of contradicting those internally forged alliances emerges (Balmes, 1946). Those who possess hegemony are the privileged individuals with the authority to enforce the rights that legitimise them, even if this requires the application of violence, manipulation, or censorship.

Faced with this panorama questioned through history, it is substantial to examine how an individual becomes manifest and develops. In the case of Literature, it is useful to understand the configuration and function of the character. For Mieke Bal (1990), the establishment of character depends upon the technique of the iteration of traits within discourse. Over time, such sequential implementation facilitates the examination, comparison, or contrast of characters through their actions with existing human beings, even if implicitly so (Paul Ricoeur, 1996). Moreover, it becomes essential to construct a complete meaning linked to the elements intervening within the text; specifically, understanding representation in fiction consolidates a broader perception of history (Ricoeur, 1996).

Likewise, the ontological nature or identity of a character may undergo transformation over time, whether towards improvement or degradation on the ethical plane. That is to say, its consolidation is not definitive (Ricoeur, 1998), despite the existence of prior events. Indeed, it becomes impossible to generalise or establish permanently any virtue already demonstrated (Balmes, 1946).

On the other hand, in order for the construction of characters to be feasible and credible, the narrator must refrain from incorporating attributes that pertain solely to the narrator and which do not correspond to the characterisation already forged and represented within the book (Beristáin, 1997), particularly when historical figures are being portrayed. The narrator distances himself in order to provoke the sensation that each character possesses independence and that the narrative unfolds autonomously, especially when employing the omniscient (heterodiegetic) narrator.

Once this line of reasoning has been established, it is appropriate to refer to dialogism (Beristáin, 1997), which consists in the individuality of each subject according to the voice they

emit, since it is fundamental that their capacity for decision-making and their heteroclitic behaviour become evident; indeed, it may occur that a character disagrees with the author's position. This disposition is corroborated in the configuration of the smugglers portrayed in *Noticia de un secuestro*, who possess a distinctive particularity characterised by offensive language and repressive, antisocial behaviour.

In this sense, it is important to examine how Gabriel García Márquez constructs the leader of the Medellín Cartel from a literary perspective, considering that he is already well known through Colombian history. Although his representation within the text is not highly descriptive, I shall detail certain crucial references regarding his physical constitution, contextualised within the period of violence in his country, his relationship with the drug trade, and his conflicts with the Government.

His full name was Pablo Escobar Gaviria¹, born in Antioquia, Colombia. He was born on 1 December 1949 (Mabile, 2008). His parents were Hermilda and Abel, who worked on a farm. He maintained a close relationship with his family, especially with his sister Marina (Polletta, 2007). He concerned himself with their safety and protection, as well as that of his relatives (Entel, 2009). He was deeply religious and regularly attended Mass (De Beaufort, 2004).

At the age of twenty-five, he fell in love with Victoria Eugenia Henao Vallejo, who at that time was only thirteen years old. In 1977, his first son, Juan Pablo, was born, and he was also imprisoned for the first time for illicit drug trafficking (De Beaufort, 2004). Likewise, he was arrested at the age of twenty-six for possession of narcotics (Dupler, 1998). In 1984, his second child, named Manuela, was born.

The environment in which he lived was one of violence, owing to the frequent and unrestricted exposure to murder. He smoked marijuana from a very young age, beginning at sixteen (Wye, 2002). He admired the American mafia and Mexican culture. For this reason, he looked up to figures such as the gangsters Al Capone and Pancho Villa (Dupler, 1998).

¹ At one point in history, Pablo Escobar used the name José Obdulio Carmona Vásquez. The adoption of this alias enabled him to evade his criminal past temporarily (Morris, 2012a).

Indeed, on one occasion he was photographed dressed as the Mexican revolutionary (Mabile, 2008). Furthermore, he developed an interest in racing cars (Atehortúa & Rojas, 2008). Regarding this enthusiasm for motor racing, his cousin Jaime Gaviria confessed that Pablo genuinely enjoyed speed sports (De Beaufort, 2004). This statement was later confirmed by Pablo Escobar himself in 1979 (Sixirei, 2011).

However, above all else, his ambition was to become an immensely wealthy millionaire, and he succeeded. He ultimately became one of the ten richest men in the world (Granier & Sierralta, 2007). DEA agent Steve Murphy claims that the leader of the Medellín Cartel possessed an estimated fortune of between USD 28 and 30 billion (Murray, 2016). He trafficked marijuana without being a consumer himself (Granier & Sierralta, 2007) and treated addicts with contempt (Mabile, 2008). Simon Strong, author of *Whitewash: Pablo Escobar and the Cocaine Wars* (1995), asserts that Escobar did in fact consume drugs, though specifically cocaine.

For him, this business proved simple and profitable during the 1970s, the period in which narcoterrorism also emerged (Wye, 2002). In 1975, Pablo Escobar sold fourteen kilograms of cocaine to Fabio Restrepo, the principal drug trafficker in Medellín, who would die three weeks later. This assassination served as a pretext for Escobar to establish himself as the new leader. Having assumed that role, he began to expand his operations. To achieve this, he relied upon additional strategies, since engaging in such commercial activities was illegal.

He resorted to bribing police officers and judges, who assisted him in avoiding investigations and legal penalties (Wye, 2002). According to César Gaviria, he succeeded in corrupting numerous individuals (Granier & Sierralta, 2007). Through this system, he rapidly became the most sought-after supplier. He emerged as the principal administrator of the illegal drug trade and as the figure responsible for its expansion (Mabile, 2008). Jeff Leen, co-author of *Kings of Cocaine* (1989), maintains that Escobar greatly intensified this business within Colombia (Wetzell, 2001). By 1979, cocaine users were already demanding thirty metric tonnes annually (Granier & Sierralta, 2007).

Enormous quantities of money were generated through the sale of cocaine, since producing one kilogram in Colombia cost approximately USD 1,000. By the mid-1980s, it was



already known that 80 per cent of the global cocaine supply originated there, particularly from the leader of the Medellín Cartel and his criminal organisation, as clarified by DEA agent Javier Peña (Murray, 2016).

In order to transport narcotics, small boats were employed (Atehortúa & Rojas, 2008), which travelled towards North America. The intervention of Jorge Avendaño proved essential to these operations. He first travelled from Colombia to Cuba in order to meet Raúl Castro at a military airport and, once there, delivered the contraband (Granier & Sierralta, 2007). The drugs were subsequently shipped by sea to Key West, Florida.

The work itself was dangerous, yet worthwhile for those involved. At that time, one kilogram of cocaine sold for USD 60,000 in Miami and USD 80,000 in New York. More generally, the product was valued between USD 2,300 and 4,000, with an investment of USD 5,000 per kilogram. In the United States, cocaine became the preferred narcotic (Mabile, 2008). Demand there was extraordinarily high. Indeed, awareness spread regarding the particular uses of certain drugs within specific social sectors.

For example, Colombian marijuana was consumed in order to adopt a more rebellious attitude, while crack was used in urban areas whenever violent behaviour was required (Wye, 2002). Drugs became a necessity for the world, and this represented a major problem for those attempting to eradicate the trade. In this regard, DEA agent Joe Toft stated that, regardless of how many kilograms of cocaine were confiscated in a single week—including in New York²—narcotics consumption continued unabashedly. Seizures were not a definitive solution (Murray, 2016).

Regarding Pablo Escobar's cognitive abilities, lawyer José Joaquín Caicedo concluded that he was highly calculating (Granier & Sierralta, 2007). For instance, he anticipated political developments that would occur in 1991 and 1992 some four or five years in advance. His intellect proved more formidable than the mere use of weapons. Even the Nobel Prize-winning writer Gabriel García Márquez was astonished by his ingenuity, as a journalist once remarked to the

² Authorities seized 360 kilograms of cocaine in North America, valued at USD 8 million in weekly sales (Murray, 2016). This figure proved insignificant in comparison with the overall business, which expanded to an estimated USD 100 billion annually.

leader of the Medellín Cartel: “Writer García Márquez once said that he felt proud of the Colombian mafia’s ability to take control of the United States, because it was a demonstration of cunning” (De Beaufort, 2004)³.

This impression became crucial for Escobar, since the person emphasising his potential was someone of considerable intellectual stature. DEA agent Javier Peña held a similar perception, concluding that Escobar was so capable that he managed to alter established laws despite his status as a criminal (Dupler, 1998).

Through all of this, his narcoterrorist organisation gradually consolidated itself until it became more powerful than the FARC, according to reporter Francisco Santos (Morris, 2012c). It must also be remembered that Escobar allied himself with left-wing insurgent groups (De Beaufort, 2004). This military and ideological affiliation would become significant, since over time he sought to ensure that social classes maintained the same interests, regardless of the methods employed.

By the mid-1970s, he already possessed a criminal record involving drug trafficking, homicide, and other offences. For example, in 1972 he had already been linked to the murder of the wealthy landowner Diego Echevarría, in addition to being accused of car theft and the sale of smuggled goods (Mabile, 2008).

His ominous conduct generated chaos within Colombia for fifteen years. He violated established political norms, carried out insurgent attacks, and engaged in money laundering, as confirmed by Rubén Darío Villanueva of the Supreme Court (Zimbalist & Zimbalist, 2010).

Likewise, former member of the Patriotic Union (UP), Pablo Julio Cruz, confessed that the leader of the Medellín Cartel succeeded in dominating the State through the power of narco-trafficking, despite never holding a constitutional office that would have permitted involvement in such affairs (Morris, 2012b). This dominant character was achieved through his method of operation. He was extremely cautious and prioritised the protection of his own allies.

³ Popeye (Velásquez & Valentín, 2015) implicates the Colombian writer Gabriel García Márquez in one of his statements. He accuses him of having served as the link between Fidel Castro and narco-trafficking associated with Pablo Escobar. On one occasion, he claims that the narcoterrorist leader entrusted García Márquez with a letter intended for the former president. The designated route was from Mexico to Cuba.

According to Jhon Jairo Velásquez Vásquez, alias “Popeye” (Velásquez & Valentín, 2015), if one of Escobar’s associates was killed, his organisation took responsibility for protecting and supporting the deceased’s family. Regarding his dealings with adversaries, he employed what was considered an infallible strategy. He always carried six bullets in his revolver. Two were intended to shoot his victim in the temple, while the remaining four were reserved in case he had to confront security personnel during his escape (Velásquez & Valentín, 2015).

During the final decades of the twentieth century, he became the most wanted man by intelligence services because of his criminal activities (Granier & Sierralta, 2007). Through televised broadcasts, the public learned that authorities offered a reward of USD 100,000 for his capture, as well as for that of Gonzalo Rodríguez Gacha, alias “El Mexicano” (De Beaufort, 2004). As results failed to materialise, the reward increased, eventually reaching USD 2,700,000 (Dupler, 1998).

Over the course of time, the treatment of the situation would change in certain respects. The American and Colombian governments offered USD 8 million to anyone who could provide information leading to the capture of Pablo Escobar (Wetzel, 2001). On the other hand, this manhunt adversely affected the criminal’s relatives. The police interrogated them and prohibited them from leaving the country. Their stay in Medellín was also dangerous, and therefore they received protection from the Armed Forces in Bogotá through accommodation at the Tequendama Hotel⁴.

The authorities also took advantage of this arrangement to monitor Pablo Escobar’s telephone calls (Entel, 2009). Once he had been located and killed, his family members were advised that the most prudent course of action would be to leave the country, as though their condition resembled that of exile. Consequently, they arrived in Buenos Aires. Nevertheless, they were later accused of drug possession in a highly controversial case and subsequently imprisoned. Juan Pablo Sebastián Marroquín, one of the relatives who managed to return to

⁴ Sebastián Marroquín made a confession in a recent interview for the programme *El lado B del crimen* (2019). He stated that the Colombian media and government propagated the image that they were protecting the relatives of Pablo Escobar. Meanwhile, this attitude functioned as a strategy intended to ensure that the leader of the Medellín Cartel would be captured as swiftly as possible and that justice could be served for all the crimes he had committed.

Colombia in 2008, declared that the entire situation they endured constituted merely a pretext for punishing them, since none of them had shown any interest whatsoever in transporting narcotics (Entel, 2009).

In order to ensure compliance with the projects of the leader of the Medellín Cartel, Escobar relied upon subordinates who carried out the majority of his attacks. He recruited young men from impoverished neighbourhoods and shantytowns (Atehortúa & Rojas, 2008). Popeye specifies that they amounted to nearly 3,000 members (Velásquez & Valentín, 2015). The support they provided was immediate, since Escobar had previously benefited them through the construction of housing, hospitals, educational centres, and sports facilities.

These charitable acts were, in reality, a form of bribery, as future president Andrés Pastrana emphasised (Granier & Sierralta, 2007). Thus, the exchange was reciprocal. Moreover, Escobar enjoyed testing the degree of loyalty among his allies through various trials⁵. Once he became certain that his associates were trustworthy, he felt more secure. Other qualities he likewise demanded were discipline and perseverance. According to Popeye (Granier & Sierralta, 2007), such individuals constituted his entourage.

In return, he protected them and their relatives alike, as stated by Timothy Ross, the first foreign journalist to interview Pablo Escobar. Escobar even investigated those who interfered with his associates in order to prevent any attacks against them (Zimbalist & Zimbalist, 2010). They received such guarantees, together with specialised instruction designed to ensure their effective performance. Above all, the narcoterrorist leader focused on training them in their role as assassins so that they might later carry out crimes with efficiency. Simultaneously, they were indoctrinated in Christianity (Murray, 2016). Overall, with this preparation they eventually killed more than 400 police officers (Polletta, 2007).

This elitist and oligarchic insurgent organisation became known as the Medellín Cartel. It emerged in 1976 and expanded between 1978 and 1988 (Medina, 2012). By 1979, it controlled more than 80 per cent of the North American cocaine industry, which generated exorbitant

⁵ It is necessary to remember that Pablo Escobar maintained contacts throughout the world, and there was no reliable means of verifying their loyalty or performance (De Beaufort, 2004).



quantities of dollars (Mabile, 2008). Its appearance functioned as a modernising project for impoverished sectors of society (Bello, 2008). Likewise, it acquired global significance through cocaine trafficking. Economically, it benefited banking, industry, transportation, and tourism (Medina, 2012).

Initially, it was formed by Pablo Escobar as leader, Gonzalo Rodríguez Gacha⁶, the Ochoa brothers⁷, and Carlos Lehder. They had access to laboratories and negotiated flights travelling from Colombia to the United States for the corresponding trade (Wye, 2002). This criminal organisation operated according to both common and organised criminality. From this derives the designation “cartel”, a term assigned by the DEA in 1982 following the emergence of alliances among smugglers (Atehortúa & Rojas, 2008).

The Colombian cartels were among the most pernicious in the world. They distributed drugs throughout the country (Wye, 2002). Among them there existed no codes of honour: whenever money proved insufficient, they resorted to terror, including kidnapping (Wetzels, 2001). Likewise, while these cartels expanded towards the end of the 1970s and moved from the jungle into the cities, Marxist guerrilla groups such as the FARC simultaneously became stronger (Wye, 2002).

Their role was based upon the incorporation of clandestine networks operating alongside businessmen involved in the production and commercialisation of narcotics (Medina, 2012). To achieve this, the Medellín Cartel possessed an infrastructure that facilitated aircraft movement, distribution networks, and expanded trade (Mabile, 2008). Its members were regarded as

⁶ Gonzalo Rodríguez Gacha, alias “El Mexicano”, played a crucial role between 1987 and 1989. In addition to supporting the leader of the Medellín Cartel during that period, he confronted the FARC guerrillas, the Patriotic Union, and Rodríguez Orejuela. He carried this out through attacks directed against their members and sympathisers. The majority of those who assisted him were retired and corrupt members of State security forces (Atehortúa & Rojas, 2008). His activities, however, did not endure for many years. On 5 January 1988, an arrest warrant was issued against him, as well as against the narcoterrorist leader and the Ochoa Vázquez brothers — Jorge Luis, Juan David, and Fabio (Morris, 2012d). He was eventually intercepted and killed on 15 December of the following year (Medina, 2012).

⁷ The Ochoa brothers consisted of Fabio, Jorge Luis, and Juan David. They came from an aristocratic landowning family in Antioquia. They played a significant role within the criminal organisation. They were responsible for negotiating with other cartels and even with the Colombian and American governments (Atehortúa & Rojas, 2008). In 1984, the United States initiated legal proceedings against them. The same occurred with Pablo Escobar. Their extradition to that country would not have been favourable for them in any respect (Sixirei, 2011).

ambitious and dangerous criminals dedicated to negotiating with capital. They confronted the Colombian State through parapolitical practices. They murdered witnesses to their coercive acts and assassinated several judges of the Supreme Court (Morris, 2012d). Within seven years, this organisation succeeded in destabilising the country (Granier & Sierralta, 2007).

Having thus briefly established the criminal representation of Pablo Escobar and synthesised the theories of history developed by Erich Auerbach, Paul Ricoeur, Gérard Genette, Alain Badiou, Helena Beristáin, among others, it may be concluded that the organised, reliable, and objective reconstruction of history in its heterogeneous condition is of crucial importance, since it facilitates an understanding of the morality prevailing during a given period, together with the role exercised by government and the possibility of transferring an aesthetic effect through discourse, thereby enabling a judgement to be formulated concerning the inconsistencies of its context.

Conclusion

Through internal and external retrospections, it becomes possible to recognise historical fragments that are either included within or excluded from a literary text. The treatment of all these resources has therefore served to provide a broader understanding and a more comprehensive vision of specific historical events; more precisely, those of Colombia, since they are addressed in Gabriel García Márquez's *Noticia de un secuestro*.

Nevertheless, one of the risks that the researcher must confront lies in establishing a criterion grounded in documentation, since such documentation may become unlimited and ultimately irrelevant to literary analysis. It must be remembered that the novel or journalistic chronicle constitutes the principal object of study; consequently, the collected events must possess thematic affinity and genuine usefulness for understanding a particular phenomenon.

To conclude, this study offers future research the opportunity to employ a complementary methodological tool capable of restricting the information intended for incorporation into analysis or mere documentation. Likewise, another object of study could be adopted as a model, such as a film, a political situation, or a work of art, with the intention of

validating the criterion assumed for the extrapolation of the categories of internal and external retrospections.

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Literary Discussion