GOVERNANCE
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PRAIA CITY GROUP

Governance Statistics in the COVID-19 Era:
A PRAIA CITY GROUP GUIDANCE NOTE

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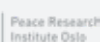## A PRAIA CITY GROUP GUIDANCE NOTE

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FOREWORD

The COVID-19 pandemic is a public health emergency severely imperiling progress towards the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development — but it is far more. It is also a **governance crisis**. Governments face daunting responsibilities as they design, implement and enforce new measures to prevent the spread of the disease. If well-calibrated, these measures can reaffirm a government's commitment to the principles of equality, accountability and participation as laid out in Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 16 – even in times of crisis. This is critical to (re-)build **trust between authorities and populations**, at a time when governments need it most.[1] And, as reminded by the UN Secretary-General, COVID-19 responses that are shaped by these principles also result in **better outcomes** in beating the pandemic: they help mitigate the "secondary impacts" of the crisis on people's lives, and avoid creating new or exacerbating existing problems, such as food insecurity or domestic violence.[2]

Timely and reliable governance statistics can play a vital role in informing an effective response to the pandemic that upholds these principles. This '*Guidance Note on Governance Statistics in the COVID-19 Era*' builds on the main recommendations of the first ever global, member-state led **Handbook on Governance Statistics** published in early 2020 by the Praia Group on Governance Statistics. This Handbook aimed to provide a foundation for the development of international statistical guidance and standards for eight dimensions of governance – namely non-discrimination and equality, participation, openness, access to and quality of justice, responsiveness, absence of corruption, trust, and safety and security. This new Guidance Note examines the same eight thematic areas, this time from the perspective of COVID-19. In many ways, it is an "executive summary" of the Handbook for time-pressed and resource-constrained governance data stakeholders.

First and foremost, this guidance aims to assist **NSOs and other governance data producers** in meeting the governance information needs most likely to arise during this pandemic or similar crises, while keeping in mind the operational and financial constraints placed on traditional field-based operations. It provides practical measurement advice and some recommended indicators – including relevant SDG 16 indicators.

It is also our hope that **users of governance statistics**, notably national policymakers, media, researchers, national oversight institutions and civil society groups can make use of this guidance. These actors need a range of governance data to debate and shape both the **immediate response** to COVID-19 and **medium-term recovery** strategies. For instance, *is testing and medical treatment for COVID-19 accessible to everyone without discrimination? What are the most common justice problems created or exacerbated by the pandemic for which people need help? As hospitals face increasing shortages in staff, beds, ventilators and other equipment, to what extent are patients paying bribes to receive medical care before those unable to pay? Or do people trust the police to keep the area where they live safe during lockdown measures?* Those wanting to participate in policymaking around the COVID-19 response in their country can use this Guidance Note to demand more governance statistics and to hold the government to account on its response plan and recovery strategy, at a time when many normal oversight and accountability processes have been severely disrupted.

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1   UN (April 2020), *A UN Framework for the immediate socio-economic response to COVID-19*
2   UN (April 2020), *COVID-19 and Human Rights – We are all in this together*

It should be noted that the measurement guidance compiled in these briefs is applicable not only to the current COVID-19 pandemic, but also to **other multidimensional crises** that may arise in the future, and that will require a similarly robust governance response. Finally, this *Guidance Note* should be considered a "living document" that will be updated to reflect the latest country experiences in producing and using governance statistics to inform effective and sustainable COVID-19 responses. We therefore encourage NSOs and other national and international producers and users of governance statistics to contact us at group.praia@gmail.com to **share their valuable experiences with us** so we can add them to this compendium.

As Chair of the Praia Group on Governance Statistics, I would also like to reiterate the full commitment and availability of the Group to **support and collaborate with countries** in applying this guidance in any of the eight thematic areas covered in the *Note*. Should you have any question, please contact group.praia@gmail.com.

We hope that this *Guidance Note* will be useful to you and we look very much forward to engaging with you at this critical time for the burgeoning field of governance statistics.

Osvaldo Borges, Ph.D
President of the National Statistical Institute of Cabo Verde
Chair of the Secretariat of the Praia City Group on Governance Statistics

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

1:
INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Why governance statistics to address a health crisis?

The COVID-19 pandemic is having devastating spillover effects worldwide, ranging from civil unrest[3] in reaction to stark inequalities[4] laid bare by the crisis, to a spike in gender-based and domestic violence during lockdowns[5], to declining levels of trust in government[6] in the face of an overreach of emergency powers and heavy-handed security responses.[7] Disastrous as it is, this crisis can also pave the way towards a more resilient future. It has provided an opportunity for each government to reflect on the kind of public institutions and governance mechanisms that need to be in place for our societies to be able to withstand similar shocks in the future – that is, institutions that serve the public equitably and that are responsive to the needs of everyone, and institutions that act with transparency, integrity, and on the basis of evidence.

Now more than ever, official statistics on governance have a crucial role to play to ensure that major, life-changing decisions are based on the best available information. Policymakers who are looking for ways to apply the principles of equality, accountability and participation to their COVID-19 response need timely and sound data to know how well they are succeeding in doing so. While most national statistical offices (NSOs) were initially focused on ensuring continuity in the production of key health and socio-economic indicators to monitor the development of the pandemic itself as well as its impact on prices, growth and employment, many have by now adjusted their operations and are in a better position to address other pressing information needs.

> **Reliable and trustworthy governance statistics can play a vital role in informing a well-calibrated response and in detecting and mitigating potential "secondary impacts"**

Reliable and trustworthy governance statistics can play a vital role in informing a well-calibrated response to the pandemic and in detecting and mitigating potential "secondary impacts":

- They can help policymakers **identify dysfunctions of governance systems** that may be hindering an effective response, such as corruption in the procurement of medical equipment or unequal access to healthcare services by certain population groups. This can be revealed by population surveys measuring experiences of bribery when trying to obtain treatment for COVID-19 in hospitals facing shortages in staff, beds, ventilators and other equipment.

- They can be used to **hold the government to account** on its response plan and recovery strategy, at a time when many normal oversight and accountability processes (such as elections, meetings of parliament and other political activities) have been severely disrupted over safety concerns. For instance, targeted surveys of vulnerable groups, such as those living in informal settlements or slums, informal sector workers and people without legal identity, can help assess whether government services and benefits to mitigate the economic harms of COVID-19 (such as cash transfers, free food or healthcare insurance) are accessible to those who need it most.

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3   UN (March 2020), Shared Responsibility, Global Solidarity: Responding to the Socio-Economic Impact of COVID-19

4   OHCHR, 2 June 2020, Disproportionate impact of COVID-19 on racial and ethnic minorities needs to be urgently addressed – Bachelet

5   UN Women (2020) COVID-19 and Ending Violence against Women and Girls; UN Women (2020) COVID-19 and violence against women and girls: addressing the shadow pandemic

6   Michael Spence and David W. Brady, Project Syndicate (April 2020) COVID-19 and the Trust Deficit

7   OHCHR (July 2020), UN Human Rights Committee publishes interpretation on the right of peaceful assembly

They can serve as an early warnings system to **prevent the health crisis and ensuing economic crisis from degenerating into civil unrest and violence.** For instance, population surveys can be used to monitor the impact of lockdowns and other response measures on inequalities and grievances, political and social exclusions, lack of economic opportunities, distrust of the 'other' and police brutality, which are all risk factors for civil unrest and violence that need to be closely considered.

Policymakers, civil society and oversight institutions all need methodologically sound and relevant governance statistics to formulate inclusive and equitable COVID-19 response and recovery strategies, and to monitor their implementation – and yet little such guidance is available, largely because governance statistics are a fairly new area of official statistics. **This Guidance Note was developed to assist NSOs and other governance data producers in meeting the governance information needs most likely to arise during the pandemic and its aftermath,** while keeping in mind the operational and financial constraints placed on traditional field-based operations.

1.2 How does this *Guidance Note* build on the Praia Handbook on Governance Statistics?

This *Guidance Note* builds on the detailed recommendations made in the first ever global, member-state led Handbook on Governance Statistics published in early 2020 by the Praia Group on Governance Statistics. One major driver of demand for statistics in this area was the inclusion of governance in the indicator framework for the 2030 Agenda on Sustainable Development. The *Handbook* aims to provide a foundation for the development of international statistical guidance and standards for eight dimensions of governance – namely non-discrimination and equality, participation, openness, access to and quality of justice, responsiveness, absence of corruption, trust, and safety and security. This *Guidance Note* examines the same eight thematic areas, this time from the perspective of COVID-19 and related governance challenges, and for an audience of time-pressed and resource-constrained governance data stakeholders.

The premise for the *Handbook* was a recognition that NSOs are strategically positioned to coordinate the production of official statistics on governance: they bear the hallmarks of methodological expertise and rigour that make them trustworthy, and they are best placed to ensure the sustainability of national data collection systems. Furthermore, since governance is a public good, there are important benefits to be gained if public bodies produce statistics on these issues. In the COVID-19 era, these comparative advantages of NSOs are becoming even more valuable: the proliferation of false, inflammatory and misleading information that has accompanied the COVID-19 outbreak has greatly increased public demand for reliable and trusted data on all aspects of the crisis.

1.3 COVID-19 and beyond: How is this *Guidance Note* relevant to future crises?

The measurement guidance compiled in the eight thematic briefs found in Section 4 is applicable not only to the current COVID-19 pandemic, but also to other multidimensional crises that may arise in the future, and that will require a similarly robust governance response with

This guidance is applicable not only to the current pandemic, but also to other multidimensional crises that may arise in the future, and that will require a similarly robust governance response

an accompanying need for governance related data. From a data perspective, four defining characteristics of this crisis, which are likely to resurface in future crises, have helped frame this Guidance Note:

- **NSOs themselves are heavily impacted, having to stop or significantly reduce face-to-face data collection:** A crisis that requires NSOs to suspend face-to-face surveys, to close offices and to enable staff to work from home calls for a complete re-thinking of data collection operations, including exploring alternative data collection approaches and drawing from non-traditional data sources.

- **An "all-hands-on-deck" situation:** No one government agency can respond to this type of multilayered crisis alone and NSOs, while accustomed to working with other government actors in their capacity as coordinators of national statistical systems, have to partner even more closely with public institutions, not only as a provider of data, but also as advisors and knowledge banks.

- **Data has to be timely and disaggregated to be useful:** In a context where policymakers are forced to make rapid decisions under great uncertainty, the timeliness and granularity of data is critical, or else decisions are made without it. This also means that it becomes very important for NSOs and other producers of governance data to locate events – or any other variable of interest – very precisely in time, when collecting and publishing data, to be able to track the impact of the crisis over time.

- **Applying a [Human Rights-Based Approach to Data (HRBAD)](#) collection becomes all the more important in times of crisis:** During a crisis that has severe implications for the enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms, it is important not only to assess the human rights impact of the crisis itself, but also to ensure that this assessment does not cause prejudice to certain groups. Section 2.2 reviews six human rights norms and principles that need to be considered carefully when producing governance statistics.

The guidance put forward in these thematic briefs will be relevant to NSOs and other governance data producers facing different crises with similar characteristics in the future.

1.4   Who is this *Guidance Note* for?

While these briefs are primarily targeted towards **national statistical agencies**, as they hold the official mandate to coordinate national statistical production, **other governance data producers** in the national statistical system can also apply the guidance provided in their respective thematic area – such as a Ministry of Justice wanting to know what are the most common justice problems faced by people during the pandemic and ensuing economic crisis so it can adjust its operations accordingly, an Electoral Management Body examining whether the introduction of alternative registration and voting arrangements to respect social distancing measures (such as online voter and candidate registration and postal or early voting) led to any significant variations in the voter participation rate, or a national COVID-19 Taskforce wanting to track the level of public trust in key institutions involved in the immediate response to the crisis (e.g. executive, parliament, health institutions, police), to name a few.

This *Guidance Note* can also be of use to other governance data producers such as **research institutions, civil society and the private sector**. In contexts where national statistical

While this guidance is primarily targeted towards NSOs, other institutions may also find it useful, such as a Ministry of Justice, an Electoral Management Body or a national COVID-19 Taskforce

systems have limited previous experience in producing governance statistics, and are already struggling to ensure continuity in the production of basic statistics during the crisis, NSOs have much to gain from partnering with these actors to ensure quality data production for the public good.

The wide range of **users of governance statistics**, notably national policymakers, can use this guidance to get the data they need to make informed decisions on COVID-19 response and recovery strategies. It can also provide useful pointers to the media, national oversight institutions and civil society groups on which governance statistics to demand, and how to analyze them when participating in public dialogues. Disaggregated and widely communicated governance statistics can also equip them with vital information to hold their government to account on its commitment to assist the most in need and to "build back better".

1.5 How should this *Guidance Note* be used?

Each thematic brief – one for each of the eight dimensions of governance covered in the Praia Handbook on Governance Statistics, namely non-discrimination and equality, participation, openness, access to and quality of justice, responsiveness, absence of corruption, trust, and safety and security – is intentionally selective and focused on likely "priority governance data needs" of national actors in a crisis setting such as COVID-19. Some of this data will be critical to inform the immediate response to COVID-19, while other data will be needed for medium-term action. Data producers interested in any given dimension should therefore:

- Start by looking at the first set of questions ("**Illustrative immediate data needs**") to help identify which information might be most needed in their particular context. A second set of questions captures "**illustrative medium-term data needs**" likely to arise as a country transitions from the immediate response to the recovery phase. As time goes by, data collection approaches should progressively be revised to address this second set of questions.

- Review the **measurement guidance** provided for each dimension, which is aligned with the abovementioned "illustrative data needs". Data producers wanting to generate the necessary information to respond to any given question are given practical advice on how to do so in this section.

- Consider readily available **international and/or regional data sources** if options to collect new data remain constrained;

- Contemplate **options for NSOs to engage with non-official data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data in any given thematic area;

- Review a few **recommended indicators**, which are also aligned with the "illustrative data needs" considered at the outset of each thematic brief.

Overall, with COVID-19 putting human and financial resources for statistical production under strain, users are encouraged to prioritize dimensions that are most salient in their national context, and to be parsimonious in their selection of indicators: investing limited resources in a few pertinent, high-quality indicators will produce a more useful information base than trying to measure a large number of indicators that compromise on quality.

It can also provide useful pointers to the media, oversight institutions and civil society groups on which governance statistics to demand, and how to analyze them when participating in public dialogues

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2:

BASIC PRINCIPLES
FOR PRODUCING
GOVERNANCE
STATISTICS
DURING COVID-19

2. BASIC PRINCIPLES FOR PRODUCING GOVERNANCE STATISTICS DURING COVID-19

2.1 Ensuring a user focus

NSOs have much to gain from engaging with national COVID-19 Taskforces, specific ministries and agencies, and other stakeholders on the frontline of the response, to understand the main challenges they are trying to address, and to identify specific indicators that would improve decision-making and enrich the public debate. Such involvement is in no way inconsistent with their professional integrity – to the contrary, it makes their work more relevant and trusted, especially in times of mis- and disinformation. The "illustrative immediate / medium-term data needs" outlined in each thematic brief can provide a useful starting point for discussions with prospective data users.

"COVID-19 Governance Dashboards" could be built to track trends in trust, corruption or experiences of discrimination

In a crisis setting more than at any other time, policymakers will want more than just access to datasets: they will be looking for decision-making tools to make the underlying data easier to understand. For instance, decision-makers have been using COVID-19 dashboards with headline indicators on testing, positive cases and fatalities on a daily basis. Similar "COVID-19 Governance Dashboards" could be built to track trends in people's trust in the government's ability to respond to the crisis, in levels of corruption in the health sector, or in experiences of discrimination making certain population groups even more vulnerable to the crisis.

While crisis management tends to be accompanied by a pull towards the centralization of information by national authorities, local actors are in fact best placed to address governance challenges at the local level. NSOs should therefore strive for high granularity when producing governance statistics – in terms of describing with precision which segments in the population are affected in what way, and whether the same is happening in province A and province B. It should be easy for mayors, local hospitals, police units and civil society organizations to navigate datasets, find relevant information, visualize statistics and develop tailored, community-led solutions and responses.

2.2 Applying a human rights-based approach to producing governance statistics in time of crisis

During a pandemic that has severe implications for the enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms, it is particularly important to assess the human rights impact of the pandemic itself, and the extent to which responses respect human rights. To this end, and with support and guidance from the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), the UN has developed a framework of 10 key indicators for monitoring the human rights implications of COVID-19.[8] Measuring these indicators and others recommended in

8 See, Annex 1, A UN framework for the immediate socio-economic response to COVID-19

these briefs should involve a Human Rights-Based Approach to Data (HRBAD) collection, which means that the following six human rights norms and principles need to be considered carefully when producing governance statistics:

Participation and disaggregation: To understand the differentiated effects of the pandemic – that is, who is more vulnerable to, and more affected by, the virus and corresponding mitigation measures – it is essential that data is disaggregated in line with prohibited grounds of discrimination under international human rights law, such as age, sex, migratory status, health status, socio-economic status, place of residence and other factors as nationally relevant. For instance, which population groups report having difficulty in accessing urgent healthcare? Which groups are most economically hit by lockdowns? It is a human rights obligation to provide information on the most deprived population groups, and to monitor the extent of inequality and discrimination, including multiple and intersecting forms. Yet a study by the Lancet and national surveillance reports on COVID-19 has found that only 7% of available national statistics on COVID-19 contained data disaggregated by ethnicity, even if it is now well known that COVID-19 is having a major disproportionate impact on racial and ethnic minorities.[9] Ready-made examples of questions that could be used in a survey to facilitate indicator disaggregation by relevant characteristics can be found in this Guidance Note by OHCHR.[10]

> *It is a human rights obligation to provide information on the most deprived population groups, and to monitor inequality and discrimination*

In line with this principle, the UN's COVID-19 human rights indicators framework includes thematic *indicator 1* which aims to track whether pandemic response plans contain a systematic mapping of vulnerable and marginalized groups and special measures for their protection. Such a mapping will need to be informed by statistics, including statistics on a range of governance issues. It will also need to be done with the free, meaningful and active participation of the most vulnerable, marginalized or discriminated groups, and for this the proactive and facilitative role of National Human Rights Institutions are crucial.

Transparency: Official statistics, including on governance, are part of the public's right to information (as enshrined in principle 1 of the Fundamental Principle of Official Statistics) and as such should be publicly accessible. This means that anyone should be able to access official data and indicators that are crucial in determining whether States are abiding by their international legal obligations to protect human rights and, crucially, whether certain groups are facing barriers to the enjoyment of their rights. Furthermore, any methodological adjustments in the way statistics are produced in times of crisis (such as a shift from face-to-face surveys to phone-based surveys) must be fully disclosed in accompanying metadata, along with any implications for analysis and interpretation. Breaks in comparability with pre-existing time series, for instance, should be clearly communicated to users in press releases and regular website updates. Censorship, lack of metadata, withholding relevant information, or delaying data exchanges with international organizations like the UN are just some examples of actions that may have severe repercussions for public trust in official data. Thematic *indicator 5* of the COVID-19 human rights indicators seeks to track these kinds of negative actions, with its focus on COVID-19 related censorship, digital shutdown, deliberate dissemination of inaccurate information or misinformation.

> *Official statistics, including on governance, are part of the public's right to information and as such should be publicly accessible*

Accountability: Producing official statistics on governance should facilitate the scrutiny of government policies and actions. For this reason, and as required by the principle of transparency, they must be accessible to all users. However, in some countries, the use of official statistics in public commentary and reporting by journalists, human rights defenders and the

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9   OHCHR, 2 June 2020, Disproportionate impact of COVID-19 on racial and ethnic minorities needs to be urgently addressed – Bachelet
10 OHCHR, Guidance Note for Implementation of Survey Module on SDG Indicator 16.b.1 & 10.3.1 (Discrimination)

public in general can invite risks of legal prosecution due to anti-"fake news" legislation or even violent attacks. As such, thematic *indicator 5* of the COVID-19 human rights indicators calls for systematically recording attacks against human rights defenders, journalists, trade unionists, whistleblowers, health experts, and others that are motivated by their COVID-19 related actions.

Privacy: International statistical standards proscribe the dissemination of data on personal characteristics and personally identifiable information, and many countries have robust data privacy legal frameworks. In the current pandemic, however, privacy concerns have been raised in light of governments' decision to use mobile phones and other sources of big data to undertake mass surveillance, contract tracing, and other social control measures. Human rights standards bar any technological application allowing for the collection of sensitive information about people's identities, location, and associations. In a context where breaches in privacy can lead to the stigmatization of individuals or communities affected by the disease, it is critical to ensure that individual data is kept strictly confidential and used exclusively for statistical purposes (see also principle 6 of the [Fundamental Principle of Official Statistics](#) on Confidentiality). Data protection should also be ensured in the use of big data and other data collected by non-official actors.

Self-identification: Data collection activities around COVID-19 should respect the principle of self-identification to prevent the further marginalization of at-risk groups. Examples of healthcare discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression have been extensively documented in many countries, leading many LGBTI people to forego healthcare services for fear of arrest or violence.[11] Data disaggregation will not be possible if certain groups are legally unrecognized or proscribed, leaving them exposed to worse health outcomes than the rest of the population.

2.3   Leveraging the complementarity of objective and subjective data

When producing and analyzing governance statistics, both objective and subjective data should be considered. Objective data from administrative sources refer to tangible concepts such as the number of workers, a budget, the number of processes carried out by an institution. Objective data can also be obtained from surveys measuring the experiences of respondents based on real events ("experience-based data"), such as people who were asked for a bribe or who were victim of violence. Meanwhile, subjective (or "perception-based") data concern the respondents' personal perspective and appreciation regarding an issue, such as people's feelings of trust or fear. Subjective data is important as it reveals whether governance "works" for people, irrespective of the actual performance of institutions as measured by objective metrics. In a pandemic such as COVID-19, for instance, reported cases of domestic violence as compiled in police records may decrease but perception-based data collected via surveys may reveal an increase in the perceived fear of crime at home reported by women. Since not all women affected by domestic violence in a lockdown situation may be able to report such incidents to the police and seek help, perceptions of insecurity among women may provide an important complement to administrative records. In addition, perception-based data is essential to understand the level of confidence that populations have in state institutions, which, especially in crisis situations, is fundamental to the robustness of the social contract.

> *Subjective data is important as it reveals whether governance "works" for people, irrespective of the actual performance of institutions*

11 Statement by human rights experts on the International Day against Homophobia, Transphobia and Biphobia, 17 May 2020: [COVID-19: The suffering and resilience of LGBT persons must be visible and inform the actions of States](#)

3:
PRODUCING GOVERNANCE STATISTICS IN A TIME OF REDUCED MOBILITY AND LIMITED RESOURCES

3. PRODUCING GOVERNANCE STATISTICS IN A TIME OF REDUCED MOBILITY AND LIMITED RESOURCES

At a time when the need for high-quality, timely data is more urgent than ever, national statistical systems face drastic restrictions on face-to-face survey interviewing due to social distancing measures in place to contain the spread of the virus (a global survey of the state of statistical operations under COVID-19 indicated that 96 percent of 122 NSO respondents had partially or fully stopped face-to-face data collection).[12] Meanwhile, remote surveys conducted via the phone or online survey platforms are unlikely to offer satisfactory alternatives as in many countries, a sizable share of the population does not have access to a phone or to new technologies. Mobile-only samples can therefore produce a substantial noncoverage bias. Additionally, many NSOs are faced with budget cuts, as governments try to redirect resources to manage the crisis: nine in ten national statistical offices in low- and lower middle-income countries are facing difficulties operating during the pandemic due to funding constraints, as more than half have seen funding cuts.[13] This constrains their data collection capabilities even more.

Notwithstanding these unprecedented challenges, NSOs can still produce and/or quality assure valuable governance statistics to inform government strategies. They can draw from a host of readily available population survey data, administrative sources and other non-official sources that can provide up-to-date and cost-effective information for decision-making on a wide range of governance issues. While NSOs cannot instantaneously alter their operations, investing in the diversification of data sources is a good strategy to enhance the longer-term resilience of national statistical systems to similar future crises that may also disrupt field operations.

3.1 Revisiting existing official sources

When time is of the essence, NSOs should first explore the potential of existing official data sources before starting to collect new data

When time is of the essence, NSOs should first explore the potential of existing official data sources – both official surveys and administrative records – before starting to collect new data. This is the most cost-effective option, and even if the most recent available data was collected prior to the crisis (or during previous crises), it can still provide a meaningful basis to estimate current trends, to identify pre-existing inequalities, and to bring attention to key issues likely to be exacerbated by the crisis. To make them more accessible, existing governance statistics can be repackaged and disseminated by topic, population group or geographic area, rather than by source, and geospatial tools can be used to bring out the stories contained in these statistics.

12 UNDESA, 5 June 2020 COVID-19 widens gulf of global data inequality, while national statistical offices step up to meet new data demands
13 Ibid.

For instance, a legal needs survey conducted prior to the crisis can be used to map out the justice problems faced by people in normal times, and to identify those likely to be aggravated by COVID-19, and the population groups most vulnerable to these problems. This can be complemented by administrative data on institutional capacities of the justice sector, to help forecast what additional resources will be needed to respond to new demands for justice services arising from the crisis. Similarly, countries devising plans for the reopening of schools can use service provider data on radio, television, phone and internet coverage, triangulated with household survey data on the same, to identify the most feasible distance-learning options, based on households' accessibility to these solutions.

3.2   Drawing from readily available non-official sources

When options to collect new data are constrained, relevant insights can be extracted also from readily available non-official sources produced by civil society organizations or research institutions, several of which have broad cross-country coverage. The proximity of local civil society organizations to vulnerable communities and their independence from state actors may also facilitate the conduct of surveys on issues deemed more sensitive, such as on experiences of corruption. For instance, while legal needs surveys and user surveys can be implemented by NSOs, other actors in the justice system, such as research organizations, women's organizations and other civil society organizations, may be well placed also to design and run such surveys, given their first-hand understanding of the particular obstacles they face and their in accessing justice. Suggestions of relevant sources have been made for each governance dimension, some of which have collected new data during the crisis.

The proximity of local civil society organizations to vulnerable communities and their independence from state actors can facilitate the conduct of surveys on sensitive issues

3.3   Harnessing the full potential of administrative records

This crisis is a helpful reminder of the importance of administrative records as an official source of statistics, with the potential to provide timely and cost-effective information for decision-making when survey operations are no longer possible. In the area of governance, administrative records are particularly relevant in assessing the coverage and quality of public services, in assessing the impact of COVID-19 on registration and voting rates in countries where elections are taking place, in offering insights into the performance of institutions (e.g. share of public requests for information processed, or average length of judicial proceedings by type of case), and in measuring representation in administrative and executive offices (which is particularly important in crisis settings when governments need to secure people's trust, as people perceive more representative political bodies to generate better quality and fairer policy decisions). Going forward, it will be important for NSOs to work closely with relevant institutions to improve the quality of their records. For instance, numerous free hotlines and instant messaging services have been established during the COVID-19 crisis for victims of domestic violence and people in need of legal assistance, and to report xenophobic rhetoric or discriminatory actions. Such helplines can generate invaluable real-time data on the prevalence of certain types of crime or legal needs, if a unified data collection system is established, with necessary quality safeguards. NSOs have an important role to play in this regard.

This crisis is a helpful reminder of the importance of administrative records as an official source of governance statistics when survey operations are no longer possible

3.4　　Conducting household surveys remotely

In these times of social distancing, statistical offices around the world have been relying on alternative data collection modes in lieu of face-to-face surveys, most prominently phone surveys and online surveys[14]. For instance, a growing number of NSOs are conducting phone- or web-based surveys to monitor the economic and social impacts of the pandemic on people over time. These alternative modes of data collection offer several advantages, notably in terms of producing more timely results and reducing costs compared to personal interviews, as fewer interviewers are needed and there are no travel costs involved. However, telephone interviews are very limited in the number and complexity of the questions that can be asked. It is also difficult to produce a reliable sampling frame[15] because of unlisted numbers and changes in addresses (therefore changes in numbers). There are also problems sometimes with convincing respondents of the authority behind the survey and the confidentiality of results. Meanwhile, the system for developing electronic survey forms and handling data security issues is costly to maintain, and reliable sampling frames are also contingent on the availability of a good internet connection. Phone- or web-based surveys can also present some ethical challenges and safety risks when monitoring sensitive issues, such as violence against women, as it may not be possible to ensure the respondent's privacy.

In this context, a practical way forward for the regular production of survey-based statistics on governance, including during a crisis such as COVID-19, is to develop a concise survey module on governance that can be integrated into pre-programmed household surveys. This module would comprise of a few priority questions on governance that could be integrated into broader surveys which allows for participation of all adults in a household in the interview. When compared to the resources needed to develop dedicated surveys on any given topic, this modular approach offers appreciable savings, both financial and time-wise, since a large part of the work is absorbed by the main survey (e.g. sampling design, main data collection costs, etc.) And if the governance module is "light" enough and can be easily attached to other large surveys, it can help ensure that survey-based statistics on governance are produced on a regular basis, like other essential survey-based economic and social indicators.

When collecting governance data through surveys, some good practices should be considered to mitigate risks of biases and measurement errors. For instance, measures to help increase the willingness of people to participate in surveys in general become all the more important when conducting surveys by phone surveys or online. Given the "infodemic" (the proliferation of false information about the virus) that has accompanied the COVID-19 outbreak and response, and growing apprehension about how one's data is used, such measures are particularly important to help increase the response rate and improve the representativeness of samples:

- The overall design of a governance survey (or governance module to be integrated in a larger survey), including its length and how it is introduced, should minimize respondents' burden and fatigue. The questionnaire should be simple, easy to interpret, and relatively short, and should increase their motivation to participate (by explaining, for instance, how answers to this survey are important as they will help

**Integrating a concise module on governance in a larger survey can help produce governance statistics regularly when survey operations are restricted**

14　UNDESA, 5 June 2020 COVID-19 widens gulf of global data inequality, while national statistical offices step up to meet new data demands

15　One option to get around these sampling frame problems (at least in the short term) may be to use existing samples from established panel surveys, as they usually maintain updated lists of phone numbers and email addresses. Another option, used by Ipsos's KnowledgePanel in the US, consists in recruiting people to the panel using an offline method (e.g. by mail or in person by going door-to-door with the necessary precautions) to ensure that the panel is representative of the population, and then having people complete the survey online. This helps reduce the bias of who opts in to online surveys, while still being much cheaper – and safer – than face-to-face surveys.

improve the provision of healthcare, justice and/or security services across the country during this critical time.)

- Governance surveys can be sensitive and lead respondents to answer in socially desirable ways or to be unwilling to answer at all. This can happen especially in contexts where trust in government, and by extension in the official data collector him/herself, is low – a problem that can be exacerbated by the current infodemic. Self-administered surveys, compared to interviewer-led ones, perform better in terms of minimizing social desirability biases. As such, the current shift towards online surveys can present opportunities for enhancing the quality of governance survey data.

- When face-to-face interviews resume, the use of innovative interviewing methods, such as the sealed envelope, can be considered for sensitive questions. This method involves handing out a separate self-administered questionnaire to the respondent for the sensitive questions, with respondents asked to complete the questionnaire, place it in an envelope, seal it and return it to the interviewer.

- Whatever the survey mode, sensitivity-related response biases can be reduced by lowering the respondent's concerns about data protection, such as by providing confidentiality assurances at the beginning of the survey.

- Question formats that are more prone to response biases should be avoided. For example, "agree/disagree" and "yes/no" response formats are more likely to prompt acquiescence.

- Consistency in question design is critical to ensure meaningful comparison over time and between population groups, throughout the crisis and recovery period. In thematic areas where there are existing international standards or guidelines, such as for trust, corruption and victimization, compliance with such standards is critical to enable comparisons between countries.

- While there are concerns that online surveys can be affected by sampling bias (i.e. skewed over the 'connected' population, which tends to be younger and wealthier), triangulation of online survey results with administrative data can help detect such bias. NSOs should be transparent about gaps in coverage and should refrain from extrapolating results to the entire population when the sample is biased in some way.

- Another possible option to obtain less biased results and avoid breaks in series is to apply a hybrid approach, with some surveys conducted face-to-face (when the situation allows), some conducted online and/or others conducted over the phone. Such "mixed-mode surveys"[16] can be used to capture a broader spectrum of respondents when it is anticipated that specific sub-groups would not be reached via one mode of data collection, or to compensate for the weaknesses of each method. For instance, mixed-mode surveys can be used to compensate for low internet penetration in some social groups. In contexts where all respondents can be reached by any survey mode, "split-sample surveys" can be considered. In this case, respondents are randomly assigned to one or the other mode of interviewing. However, caution needs to be exerted if this approach is chosen to ensure coherence between the sampling frames used in face-to-face interviews and in non-face-to-face settings. If estimates are to be generated at the individual level, a selection protocol for sampling at the

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16 European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addition (2014), Computer-assisted and online data collection in general population surveys

individual (within-household) level would also need to be applied when conducting online or telephone interviews, the same way it is applied when conducting face-to-face interviews.

- Finally, surveys of a particular group of public servants (e.g. police officers, healthcare professionals, or members of national and local legislative and executive bodies) or surveys of businesses in a particular sector (e.g. suppliers of healthcare equipment) may be more feasible to conduct while upholding quality standards, given expected better phone and internet coverage among employees of certain institutions or firms in a given sector, compared to the general population.

3.5   Leveraging new data sources

Non-traditional sources of data (such as 'big data', satellite and aerial images, web scraping, etc.) are an important complementary source of data in times of crisis, particularly when it comes to real-time mobility and behavioral response data (i.e. to tell us whether measures are working or not), and to fill in gaps when face-to-face surveys cannot be carried out.

"Crowdsourcing can be a low-cost method to produce timely data on people's experiences, perceptions and opinions"

Crowdsourcing – the practice of engaging a 'crowd' or group to take the pulse on an issue, using the internet — can offer significant benefits as a low-cost method that produces timely data on people's experiences, perceptions and opinions in relation to urgent issues needing to be addressed by policymakers. Under conditions of social distancing, crowdsourcing can also serve as a useful tool to mobilize community engagement in crisis response, and as a bridge between excluded populations and governments. For instance, digital data-platforms like U-Report can be used to assess public support for policy options being considered, and provide feedback loops on the government's actions so far.

A wide spectrum in well-tested rapid assessment tools and methodologies are also available to generate community-data and community-level mapping, capturing otherwise invisible acute vulnerabilities, as well as issues of acceptability and of equity of assistance. Geospatial data collection techniques, for instance, can be used to provide a 'heatmap' of informal urban settlements and slums that are particularly vulnerable to COVID-19 impacts. This information can then be integrated with official datasets on governance to inform more targeted responses.

In the face of a growing demand for real-time data on whether preventive measures are working and where extra test facilities and hospital beds may be most needed, governments around world are working with the private sector to take advantage of Big Data. Facebook's "Data for Good" initiative, for instance, offers maps on population density, population movement and network coverage (i.e. with cellular connectivity) that governments, researchers and nonprofits can use to understand the COVID-19 crisis, its impacts and the effectiveness of measures. At a time when it is increasingly difficult for people and decision-makers to find trustworthy information sources and reliable guidance when they need it, NSOs have an important role to play in such ventures, to assess the accuracy, consistency and usefulness of the results produced from Big Data. The involvement of NSOs in data partnerships between the private and public sectors can enhance the public's trust in the accuracy of the data produced and in the privacy protections applied.

3.6 Going beyond data production: NSOs as stewards of the data ecosystem on governance

The growing demand for timely, ad hoc data to inform containment and mitigation efforts, coupled with a constrained operational space for national statistical systems, is making clear that it is no longer enough for NSOs "just" to produce statistics. To be able to produce the information that decision-makers need, NSOs need to become "knowledge factories", combining official statistics with other data sources and drawing out clear narratives from these multiple datasets. Again, this evolving role of NSO requires increased collaboration with a multitude of stakeholders since a broad range of actors in civil society, universities, research institutes and the private sector are already producing data on various dimensions of governance.

For instance, some National Human Rights Institutions (NHRIs) were already actively collaborating with NSOs prior to COVID-19, including through innovative approaches to data collection with vulnerable and marginalized groups. These partnerships can be leveraged in time of crisis, as NHRIs are bound to continue their periodic monitoring activities to report human rights abuses during public emergencies. As such, NHRIs can provide evidence-based analysis on the specific groups most at-risk of not enjoying their right to access justice or to participate in electoral processes. They can also play an active role in monitoring human rights violations during elections. When supporting and quality assuring such data collection initiatives, NSOs can greatly enhance the visibility and usability of the data produced by relevant national actors.

This crisis calls on NSOs to act as strong coordinators of governance data production and dissemination in their national context. It is an opportunity to forge new partnerships to extend the scope of data production on governance, and to make sure it gets into the hands of those who need this data most. This will require that NSOs reach out to data producers they have not worked with before. It may also require that NSOs engage universities, civil society and the media as valuable partners in communicating data trends and narratives to the public and policymakers. In this sense, this crisis is also a steppingstone for NSOs to fully assume their role in quality control, accreditation and standard setting, as well as in facilitating communication with data users inside and outside of government.

NSOs need to become "knowledge factories", combining official statistics with other data sources and drawing out clear narratives from these multiple datasets

This crisis is a steppingstone for NSOs to fully assume their role in quality control, accreditation, standard setting and communication with different data users

4:

THEMATIC
GOVERNANCE
BRIEFS

4.1 NON-DISCRIMINATION AND EQUALITY

- **Why** produce statistics on non-discrimination and equality in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on non-discrimination and equality in time of COVID-19?	The COVID-19 crisis is making inequality worse. It is hitting the most vulnerable people hardest, and those same groups are often experiencing increased discrimination. The pandemic has also given rise to a wave of hate speech and hate crime against communities who have been vilified for spreading the virus, at times further entrenching existing patterns of discrimination. Statistics are needed to detect inequalities – in availability of healthcare, in type of housing (and related implications for social distancing), in type of employment (and related implications for possibility to work from home), etc. – and experiences of discrimination (e.g. refusal of equal access to work, public services, the justice system, shops, etc.). Statistics on inequalities and discrimination are also needed to assess whether state responses to the crisis are having (or could have) disproportionate and discriminatory effects on particular groups – in the delivery of emergency healthcare, in the implementation of lockdown measures, and in the design of policies to mitigate socio-economic impacts.
Key sub-dimensions of interest in time of COVID-19	1. **Direct discrimination:** Direct discrimination occurs when an individual is treated less favorably than another person in a similar situation for a reason related to a prohibited ground. 2. **Indirect discrimination:** Refers to laws, policies or practices that appear neutral at face value, yet are discriminatory for population groups with certain characteristics. 3. **Harassment:** Any improper or unwelcome conduct perpetrated because of a person's characteristics, ascribed attributes, beliefs or values, that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation to another person.
What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	1. **Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • Are affordable quality **testing and medical treatment** for COVID-19 accessible to everyone in the country without discrimination, including for people living in poverty and other historically marginalized groups like people with disabilities, indigenous communities, people living in refugee/IDP camps, people in detention facilities, LGBT people, etc.? (*Sub-dimension: Direct discrimination*) • Are **services/benefits provided by the government to mitigate the economic harms** of COVID-19 (including cash transfers, free food, healthcare insurance, etc.) accessible to the most vulnerable groups, such as those living in informal settlements or slums, informal sector workers, and people without a legal identity? (*Sub-dimension: Indirect discrimination*) • How effective are governments at addressing the **digital divide** in places under lockdown where education, work, and public information on COVID-19 have moved online? (*Sub-dimension: Indirect discrimination*)

What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?, cont.	• Do **women participate equally as men** in essential national and sub-national COVID-19 outbreak preparedness and response policy and operational spaces? (*Sub-dimension: Indirect discrimination*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • Do people believe that if an individual belongs to a **minority group** (e.g. a minority racial/ethnic group and/or based on national origin), the individual **will be treated the same as other citizens** by a government agency? (*Sub-dimension: Direct discrimination*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	**1. Using household surveys to measure experiences, awareness and attitudes about discrimination** Multiple data sources should be considered when measuring discrimination. For instance, an indicator on the number of convictions for discrimination, using court records, will be insufficient to assess the prevalence of discrimination in a country, as some victims may not report discrimination. Household surveys reaching out directly to the population to ask if they have been a victim of discrimination are therefore an important complement. The internationally agreed module for the compilation of SDG indicators 10.3.1/16.b.1 on the prevalence of discrimination can provide a useful starting point for NSOs interested in measuring discrimination during the COVID-19 crisis. The following are best practices to mitigate risks of biases and measurement errors when collecting data on discrimination: • It may be necessary to target or oversample population groups more at risk of discrimination, which are often not sufficiently covered by traditional surveys. For example, the sample of the second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey (EUMIDIS II) included persons belonging to ethnic or national minorities, Roma and Russians, as well as persons born outside the EU (first-generation respondents) and individuals with at least one parent born outside the EU (second-generation respondents). • The survey module for SDG 10.3.1/16.b.1 recommends the use of a showcard with a definition of discrimination/harassment and listing of prohibited grounds of discrimination to facilitate the respondent's comprehension and recall. • To minimize the effect of forward telescoping (i.e. reporting events as having occurred more recently than they actually did; this is commonly observed in victimization surveys), the module asks two questions: a first question about the respondent's experience over the last 5 years, and a second question about the last 12 months. NSOs wanting to capture experiences of discrimination during the COVID-19 crisis could adjust the timeframe of the second question and ask only about the period affected by COVID-19. • Also in the context of COVID-19, instead of asking about personal experiences of discrimination or harassment in general terms, questions can focus on such experiences in domains and activities that are particularly salient during a pandemic, such as in accessing healthcare or when experiencing police stops. • It is important to note that an indicator calculated on the basis of a general household (or population) survey will not necessarily inform on the prevalence of discrimination within specific population groups. This will depend on the covered populations. For example, if disability is included within the selected grounds, the resulting data on the ground of disability will represent only the proportion of the total population who feel that they have personally experienced discrimination on the ground of disability; it cannot be understood as an indicator of the prevalence of discrimination within the population of people with a disability. The Human Rights-Based Approach to Data (HRBAD) provides further guidance on data collection and disaggregation.

- The appropriateness of the profiles of interviewers should be carefully considered in light of the priority grounds of discrimination identified. For instance, if discrimination against people from a certain ethnic group/nationality is expected to be prevalent in a given national setting, it may be appropriate to provide interviewers from this ethnic group/nationality for respondents of this group. Interviewers also need to be carefully trained before collecting data of this nature.
- Respondents should be alone when answering such questions, and should be assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

2. Using administrative data to measure hate crimes – in conjunction with data from other sources

Hate crime statistics, which record cases of crime (e.g. homicides, assaults, thefts) where victims were specifically targeted because of their characteristics, perceived attributes, or beliefs, can be recorded by law enforcement officials through administrative records. However, evidence has shown that hate crimes are constantly underreported: victims encounter difficulties in reporting, and law enforcement officials may be reluctant to record and acknowledge hate crimes. Underreporting of administrative data is one of the reasons for using additional data sources (i.e. crime victimization surveys conducted by NSOs and/or other surveys with questions on harassment conducted by national human rights institutions and civil society organizations), especially in contexts where the main law enforcement officials (e.g. the police) may not be immune from committing hate crime themselves or from being complicit in such crimes.

3. Measuring inequalities to unveil entrenched indirect discrimination

The disproportionate impact that COVID-19 is having on racial and ethnic minorities and other disadvantaged groups is a form of indirect discrimination, and can be captured by disaggregating any socio-economic or health statistics by grounds of discrimination. Administrative health records, in particular, should include information that is detailed enough to identify population groups that have the highest rates of infection, hospitalization and death. For instance, analysis of health records in some countries, such as Mexico, have revealed that the vast majority of COVID-19 deaths represented individuals with only elementary school education or no formal education at all. Similarly, labour statistics in other countries, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, have revealed that people from racial and ethnic minorities are found in higher numbers in some jobs that carry increased risk during COVID-19, including in the transport, health and cleaning sectors. Such analysis of readily available statistics can help identify urgent steps that need to be taken by governments, such as increasing access to healthcare and prioritising testing for certain groups, and providing targeted information to these communities.

A useful approach to revealing indirect discrimination is the "average, deprivation and inequality approach". For any given readily available administrative dataset produced by frontline service providers (such as health authorities' records on COVID-19 cases or deaths, or social security registers on the allocation of income support and other forms of benefits to those affected by the crisis), three measures should be consider: the national average, the group that is most deprived (e.g. by income quintile, ethnic group, sex, etc.) and the disparity between groups (e.g. between the bottom and top quintile). If datasets are available for more than one period, one should examine how the national average is changing over time, how the situation is evolving for the most deprived group (i.e. worsening or improving), and how disparities between groups are evolving (i.e. widening or narrowing). The Human Development Report 2000 (UNDP) provides practical examples on how to apply this approach. Additionally, OHCHR's Human Rights Indicators: A Guide to Measurement and Implementation explains how the average, deprivation and inequalities perspectives and the related disaggregation requirement are equally relevant to the promotion and assessment of the realization of civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights.

Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	In contexts where NSOs are unable to launch short-term data collection initiatives on discrimination during COVID-19, existing survey data (i.e. collected prior the crisis) on discrimination and its main expressions and characteristics in a given country can be useful to identify the groups likely to be most vulnerable to discrimination during the crisis, and measures that could be taken to protect these groups. Existing survey data on discrimination can be found in official surveys conducted by NSOs (discrimination-related questions have been included in various population surveys such as crime victimization surveys, health surveys, labour force surveys and multiple indicator cluster surveys – MICS), as well as in National Human Rights Institutions and civil society organizations.

Additional expert information on worldwide status of human rights during COVID can provide a comparative perspective across countries. For instance, International IDEA's Global Monitor of COVID-19's Impact on Democracy and Human Rights compiles in one place all democracy and human rights-related information on COVID-19 measures – including on aspects such as 'Social Rights and Equality' – by country, by region and globally. It builds on analysis and data produced both by International IDEA as well as other organizations and media outlets around the world.

Another independent source of information on measures adopted by governments globally in response to the COVID-19 pandemic is the ACAPS COVID-19 Government Measures Dataset (compiled by ACAPS analysts and volunteers from University of Copenhagen and University of Lund), which classifies government measures into 6 categories (Social distancing; Movement restrictions; Public health measures; Governance and social-economic measures; Lockdown; Humanitarian exemption). This database can provide a useful starting point to help identify priority areas for data production in the area of non-discrimination and equality. |
| Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality | The internationally agreed module for the compilation of SDG indicators 10.3.1/16.b.1 on discrimination recommends that data collectors engage in participatory processes to identify and formulate contextually relevant grounds of discrimination. National institutions or civil society organizations with mandates related to human rights or non-discrimination and equality are ideal partners for these activities. Participatory approaches to the selection of grounds of discrimination should consider: a comprehensive review of groups at risk of being discriminated; any sensitivities related to engaging with and collecting data on groups at risk of being discriminated; and the need for effective community engagement and relationship-building to facilitate participation in data collection activities and coverage of the groups concerned.

In contexts where NSOs are unable to launch short-term data collection initiatives on discrimination during the crisis, collaboration with unofficial data producers can be particularly helpful, provided NSOs work closely with such outfits to ensure high data quality. For instance, NSO guidance on the formulation of questions on discrimination used in previous official surveys, or on the wording recommended by SDG 10.3.1/16.b.1, could ensure benchmarking with official time series on discrimination available at country level, and/or with international comparable data on discrimination. |
| Some **recommended indicators** | *Data sources: AR: Administrative records; HS: Household surveys*

Direct discrimination
• Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the previous [number of months since the COVID-19 crisis started] months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law (SDG indicators 10.3.1 / 16.b.1: see internationally agreed module) (HS)
• Discrimination prevalence rates, disaggregated by the different domains where discrimination is typically occurring during the pandemic in a given national setting, e.g. in accessing healthcare or other administrative offices, in connection with housing, at work, when using public transportation, etc. (HS) |

| Some **recommended indicators**, cont. | • Proportion of the population who believe that if an individual belongs to a minority group (as defined nationally), the individual will be treated the same as other citizens by a government agency (HS)

Indirect discrimination
• Proportion of [vulnerable population in a given country, e.g. population in the lowest income quintile, or among workers in the informal economy] who say they have access to 1) affordable and quality testing and medical treatment for COVID-19, 2) necessary tools for home schooling of their children (e.g. access to internet, computer, other technological devices, adequate space), and 3) social protection floors, such as a basic income, aid for affordable housing, access to food, water, health care, education, care-giving support during quarantines/lockdowns (especially for older persons, children, single parents and persons with disabilities), etc. (adapted from indicator 8 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19") (HS)
• Proportion of the population who say 1) they have been evicted from their home, and 2) they cannot pay rent and/or mortgage, disaggregated by nationally relevant population groups (adapted from indicator 8.1 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19") (HS)
• Proportion of vulnerable groups receiving relevant COVID-19 information, including in appropriate, accessible, language and format and adapted to their specific needs, disaggregated by nationally relevant population groups e.g. older persons, persons with disabilities, children, refugees, IDPs and migrants, indigenous peoples and minorities) (adapted from indicator 4 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19") (HS)
• Proportion of women in essential national and sub-national COVID-19 outbreak preparedness and response policy and operational spaces (AR)

Harassment
• Proportion of victims of harassment/hate crimes who reported the crime to relevant authorities (HS)
• Number of recorded acts of discrimination, harassment, racism or xenophobia relating to COVID-19, disaggregated by relevant characteristics of groups at risk of hate crimes in a given country (e.g. citizenship, ethnic background, economic and social situation, gender identity, etc.) (adapted from indicator 6 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19") (AR) |

4.2 PARTICIPATION IN POLITICAL AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS

- **Why** produce statistics on participation in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on participation in time of COVID-19?	All electoral activities planned for the near future will be affected in one way or another by the COVID-19 pandemic. Responses by national authorities have varied between postponing elections until the situation stabilizes and moving forward with elections while implementing some measures to mitigate risks to voters, poll workers, election observers and the media. As noted in the guide on Electoral Operations During the COVID-19 Pandemic, "decisions on postponing or proceeding with elections raise complex legal, political, human rights and public health challenges and depend on the specific context of individual states".[17]

Countries holding elections[18] despite the pandemic will need to assess the impact of COVID-19 on registration and voting rates, especially for population groups that are particularly vulnerable to COVID-19. Statistics (including through surveys) will also be needed to understand voters' experiences and perceptions around the integrity and safety of electoral processes held amidst a public health crisis. Such data will be important to inform electoral planning for similar crises in the future. For instance, Electoral Management Bodies (EMBs) will want to know whether special voting arrangements to reduce crowding at polling stations on election day, such as early, postal and mobile voting, should be retained, or improved.

The representativeness of executive and administrative offices playing a key role in managing the crisis also becomes all the more important. When political and administrative structures are more representative of society, decision-making processes are more inclusive and result in solutions that are better tailored to the needs of different groups of population. The level of public trust in public institutions can also be higher, which is particularly important in a time of crisis to secure citizens' support for and compliance with emergency measures. With crises often accompanied by high levels of ministerial turnover, monitoring changes in politically appointed positions is also important to help detect potential prejudice or discrimination against certain groups (including women) who may in turn be less able to influence decision-making on crisis response and recovery strategies. |
| **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19 | 1. **Participation in electoral processes:** Elections are the primary means through which individuals exercise their right to participate in public affairs.
2. **Representation and participation in political office:** Refers to representation of various population groups among elected and politically appointed positions at all levels of government.
3. **Representation in bodies of public service/administration:** Refers to representation of various population groups in public service positions. |

17 Page 4, United Nations guide "Electoral Operations During the COVID-19 Pandemic" (May 2020).

18 This brief refers to the use of electoral statistics by National Statistical Offices. Issues related to managing elections and electoral operations during COVID-19 are referred to in the United Nations guide "Electoral Operations During the COVID-19 Pandemic" (May 2020).

Key sub-dimensions of interest in time of COVID-19, cont.	**4. Enabling environment of participation:** Particularly relevant are the freedom of expression, freedom of assembly – including the right to form and join organizations and associations concerned with electoral processes and political and public affairs, and the right to participate in peaceful demonstrations and protests, a free press and other media able to comment on public issues without censorship or restraint and to inform public opinion, the right of access to information and the right to equality and non-discrimination.
What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	**1. Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • If alternative registration and voting arrangements were introduced to respect social distancing measures (such as online voter and candidates registration and postal or early voting), did the measures lead to any significant changes in participation in electoral processes? For instance, did online registration have an impact on **nominations** and voter **registration rates** for any particular group of population? Did postal and early voting impact **voter participation rates** for any particular groups of population? (*Sub-dimension: Participation in electoral processes*) • How **representative** of the national population are **administrative and executive offices** that play an important role in the response to the crisis, especially with respect to sex and nationally relevant population groups? (*Sub-dimensions: Representation and participation in political office and Representation in bodies of public service / administration*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • What are some of the main **reasons** that led people to **change their voting behavior** during this crisis? For instance, was the voter information campaign to raise awareness about alternative voting measures effective, especially with groups most at-risk of contracting the virus? Did people trust that elections held during the pandemic would be free and fair, while at the same time protecting the health of voters? Did stereotypical attitudes towards women or minority candidates become more prevalent due to changes in access to information? (*Sub-dimension: Enabling environment of participation*) • Did containment measures have a differentiated impact on the **ability of candidates from different population groups to organize electoral campaigns** and outreach to voters? Did this result in changes in the profile of elected persons, including more severe underrepresentation of women, minority ethnic groups or other disadvantaged groups? (*Sub-dimension: Representation and participation in political office*) • With social distancing measures forcing political campaigning to move almost exclusively online, to what extent is there **online interference in elections**, including disinformation, hate speech, intimidation and other forms of violence against political actors on social media platforms? (*Sub-dimension: Enabling environment of participation*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	One of the main sources of data on participation in political and public affairs –administrative records – remains fully available during COVID-19 and related containment measures. Administrative records are a cost-effective and timely source of statistics for assessing the impact of COVID-19 on electoral participation and for monitoring the representation of various population groups in executive bodies and the public service. **1. More frequent monitoring of representation in administrative and executive offices, based on existing administrative data sources** People feel closer to public servants who resemble them, and they perceive more representative political bodies to generate better quality and fairer policy decisions, and to be less prone to the influence of vested interests over decision-making. This is especially important in crisis settings, where governments' ability to respond rapidly and effectively depends on their ability to secure people's trust and compliance. To this end, monitoring changes in politically appointed positions during the crisis, particularly ministerial and sub-ministerial positions, can help detect potential prejudice or discrimination against certain groups. Ministerial secretariats (or the President or Prime Minister's office) can provide data on senior members of the Council/Cabinet of Ministers, by sex and age at a minimum

(additional relevant dimensions for disaggregation may include nationally relevant ethnic, linguistic or religious groups, among others). Additional information on types of ministerial portfolios held by women ministers and other ministers from minority groups should also be compiled, to assess whether they also hold some of the most critical portfolios in the COVID-19 response, such as Health, Employment/Labour, Social Security, or Finances or Interior. Given the possible frequent changes in ministerial appointments, it is recommended to compile this data on a monthly or quarterly basis.

Similarly, monitoring the representation of nationally relevant population groups, including women, on national COVID-19 taskforces and decision-making bodies on COVID-19 in concerned ministries and agencies is important to assess whether all groups in society have equal opportunities to participate in the response to the crisis.

To measure the extent to which the public service is representative of the national population, readily available administrative data held by a Public Service Commission or a Ministry of Public Administration can be used to assess representation with respect to sex and age, and in some countries, also with respect to nationally relevant population groups or disability status. In the context of a public health crisis, such monitoring may be particularly relevant at decision-making levels (across the entire public service), and in the three frontline sectors of healthcare, education, and public security/police services. The internationally established methodology for monitoring SDG indicator 16.7.1.b on representation in the public service can provide a useful starting point to this end. To be effective and inform short-term human resources policies, the monitoring should be frequent – ideally on a monthly or quarterly basis.

Beyond monitoring representation, such statistics on the composition of the public service can also be used to identify population groups among public servants who may be disproportionately over-represented in sectors involved in the emergency response, and therefore in need additional support measures. For instance, in the context of a pandemic, statistics on the over-representation of women in health sectors can highlight their need for childcare benefits, when childcare facilities and schools are closed.

2. In contexts where elections are taking place during COVID-19, assess the impact of COVID-19 on registration and voting rates

Assessing the impact of COVID-19 on voter registration and voting rates is important to help national authorities prepare for elections under similar circumstances in the future. Lower participation rates for certain groups can be detected by comparing disaggregated registration rates and voter turnout data (i.e. for groups who may be more at-risk of infection and therefore more reluctant to come out to vote, such as the elderly, or for groups with less access to information or ICT-based services) for elections held during COVID-19 with historical series on the same.

Administrative data based on electoral records are the most cost-effective and timely data sources for generating statistics on voter registration and voter turnout disaggregated, at a minimum, by sex, age and place of residence. In countries where registration records are in electronic form, the disaggregation may inform real-time, targeted interventions for more inclusive registration, which can prove extremely valuable in a crisis which may affect certain groups more than others.

To institutionalize the collection of disaggregated electoral data, the following steps are recommended, some of which are best taken in partnership with NSOs, given their role as coordinators of the national statistical system and in providing quality assurance for official statistics production.

1. Ensure that the statistical mandate of the EMB is made clear in the electoral laws, rules or regulations. If changes need to be made to the legal framework, they should be incorporated and communicated before the new election period starts.
2. Assess existing electoral registration forms and electronic information systems to examine whether the following procedures are in place:

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	— Paper and electronic forms for voter registration include selected sociodemographic characteristics of the persons who are eligible to vote, capturing, at a minimum, information on sex and age. — Geographic information, consistent with the geospatial standards recommended to be used by national statistical systems, is integrated in the electoral information system. — The electoral information system used to collect and store data electronically enables linkages between various types of data, particularly the information on registered voters with voter turnout, and the information on nominated candidates with elected candidates. 3. **When survey operations resume, consider designing survey questions on electoral participation and participation in civic life during a crisis such as COVID-19** When NSOs are able to conduct population surveys, the design of a survey module on participation in electoral processes and civic life in a crisis setting such as COVID-19 would generate valuable statistics. With respect to elections, questions can be asked to help understand changes in voting behavior, such as particular challenges faced by certain groups which impede their ability to vote, limited awareness about alternative registration or voting methods, or low levels of trust that elections in such a context will be free and fair, and safe for voters. With respect to participation in civic life, survey questions to capture experiences of victimization as a peaceful protester, as a woman actively involved in politics, and public perceptions around the enabling environment for participation (such as access to information, perceived levels of freedom of expression and association under emergency orders, etc.) can help identify effective and safe mechanisms for participation during a similar crisis in the future. Surveys targeted to specific governmental bodies (such as parliaments) or public service employees can be used to collect information on members' experiences of discrimination, harassment and violence, including ICT-facilitated harassment and violence. Additionally, surveys targeted to electoral candidates can capture information on how the pandemic has changed the ability of candidates to campaign. Compared to population surveys, these targeted surveys are more feasible to conduct remotely, given the better access of these groups to mobile and internet services.
Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	Expert assessments investigating, for example, the extent to which national legal frameworks comply with internationally agreed standards on civil and political rights or the existence of temporary special measures to facilitate the access of disadvantaged groups to political and public office, can continue to be used. Additional expert information on worldwide status of elections, democracy and human rights during COVID can provide a comparative perspective across countries. For instance, International IDEA's Global Monitor of COVID-19's Impact on Democracy and Human Rights compiles in one place all democracy and human rights-related information on COVID-19 measures – including on aspects such as 'Clean Elections', 'Inclusive suffrage', 'Free Political Parties', 'Electoral Participation' and 'Civil Society Participation' – by country, by region and globally. It builds on analysis and data produced both by International IDEA as well as other organizations and media outlets around the world. Another independent source of information on measures adopted by governments worldwide in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, which may impact the conduct of elections and/or civic participation more generally, is the ACAPS COVID-19 Government Measures Dataset (compiled by ACAPS analysts and volunteers from University of Copenhagen and University of Lund). This dataset classifies government measures into 6 categories (Social distancing; Movement restrictions; Public health measures; Governance and social-economic measures; Lockdown; Humanitarian exemption) and includes measures affecting the conduct of elections.

Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on participation	Social media platforms have become a major influence on elections. Social media can enhance political participation, however reports from many countries have also shown that state and non-state actors manipulate information online in order to shape voters' choices or simply confuse and disorient citizens, paralyze democratic debate and undermine confidence in electoral processes. While this concern was already widespread before the pandemic, it has grown more acute in a time of social distancing and shelter-in-place orders forcing political campaigning to move almost exclusively online. There is no agreed international monitoring framework in the field of social media monitoring, and discussions on methodologies to measure the impact or relevance of certain disinformation campaigns are still in the early stages. In this context, NSOs, in close collaboration with other election authorities, specialized civil society groups and private companies managing social media outlets, can: 1. Support an exchange of good practices in social media monitoring; and 2. Commit to monitoring areas that are more regulated and more technically achievable, such as the monitoring of paid ads on social media platforms and costs (relating them to campaign expenditure provisions); the monitoring of official pages of parties or candidates to track violations of electoral or wider rules (such as hate speech); and monitoring social media for violations of campaign silence provisions (where applicable).
Some **recommended indicators**	*Data sources: AR: Administrative records; HS: Household surveys; CS: Surveys targeted to candidates in elections* **Participation in electoral processes:** • Proportion of registered voters in voting-age population, by administrative divisions of the country, sex and age (AR) (*Trend analysis comparing registered voters for election held during COVID-19 with registered voters for elections held pre-COVID-19*) • Proportion of registered voters who voted in the last election, disaggregated by administrative divisions of the country, voters' sex and age (AR) (*Trend analysis comparing voter turnout for election held during COVID-19 with voter turnout for elections held pre-COVID-19*) **Representation and participation in political office:** • Inclusive representation in national legislatures (SDG 16.7.1a) and deliberative bodies of local government (SDG 5.5.1b), by sex and nationally relevant population groups (AR) (*If elections conducted during COVID-19, trend analysis comparing election results with previous elections*) • Inclusive representation among ministers and deputy ministers, by sex and nationally relevant population groups (AR) (*Frequent monitoring throughout the crisis*) **Representation in bodies of public service/administration:** • Proportion of positions (by age, sex, persons with disabilities and nationally relevant population groups) in the public service, compared to national distributions (SDG 16.7.1.b) (AR) • Inclusive representation on national COVID-19 taskforces and decision-making bodies on COVID-19 in concerned ministries and agencies, by sex and nationally relevant population groups (AR) (*Frequent monitoring throughout the crisis*) **Enabling environment of participation:** • Proportion of the population with access to documents required for voting (IDs, etc.) (HS) • Perceived levels of freedom to express any political opinion, to join any political organization, and to criticize government actions or performance/ to participate in protests/demonstrations (HS) • Proportion of people who say there is "some"/ "a lot" of information on the forthcoming (local/national) election (HS)

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	• Proportion of voters who say they fear becoming a victim of political intimidation or violence during election campaigns (HS)
	• Proportion of people holding stereotyping attitudes and values discouraging the exercise of the right of participation for certain groups – e.g. proportion of people who perceive women to be equally legitimate and effective political leaders as men (HS)
	• Proportion of candidates who experienced physical, sexual or psychological violence and/or discrimination as a candidate standing for elections, by sex, age, nationally relevant population groups and disability status (CS)

4.3 OPENNESS

- **Why** produce statistics on openness in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on openness in time of COVID-19?	During a public health crisis, government openness is especially important to ensure that affected communities are able to access information about the full extent of the crisis, what is being done to manage it, and how members of society should respond. Open communications between government and citizens is essential to ensure public trust in institutions, to enable analysis of problems and discussion of new policy approaches, and to ensure that support reaches those who most need it. As several governments around the world have declared a state of emergency in response to COVID-19, sometimes restricting the right to information and limiting open government laws, statistics on openness are an important tool for governments to identify which parts of their response to the crisis could be made more transparent. For other stakeholders, they are a means to hold their government to account on its obligation to fulfill people's right to information, enshrined in Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). Reporters and news organizations play an indispensable role in communicating information and engaging in oversight on behalf of the public. Openness statistics are also needed to make sure that emergency measures do not lead to the criminalization or restriction of the freedom of expression of the media, notably by exerting censorship of websites or media articles with critical coverage, or by criminalizing the spread of "fake news," "misinformation," or "false information", which can also be used to discredit or silence critical journalists and fact-checkers.
Key sub-dimensions of interest in time of COVID-19	1. **Access to information:** The right of citizens to request access to official records held by the government. 2. **Open data:** The proactive disclosure by the government of large datasets of information that have been defined by law or policy. 3. **Freedom of expression of the media, human rights defenders, trade unionists, healthcare workers, whistleblowers and others:** Their ability to access and disseminate factual and objective information to the public, express an opinion on public policy- and decision-making, advocate for the public interest, as well as scrutinize and hold accountable public and private bodies, including their leaders and officials.
What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	1. **Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • To what extent are public institutions **proactively publishing** the types of data that people need to know about the scale of the problem and the resources available to cope, to hold the government to account, and to understand and respond to the social, economic and environmental impacts of the crisis? (*Sub-dimension: Open data*) • Did emergency measures implemented to address COVID-19 constrain people's access to **diversified media sources** reflecting a range of opinions and political views? (*Sub-dimension: Access to information, Freedom of expression*)

What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?, cont.	• Have there been any **killing, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention, kidnapping, torture or other harmful acts**, online and offline, against journalists, human rights defenders, trade unionists, whistleblowers, health experts, or other individuals? (*Sub-dimension: Freedom of expression*) • Are **vulnerable groups** (older persons, persons with disabilities, children, refugees, IDPs and migrants, indigenous peoples, and minorities) **able to obtain relevant COVID-19 information** in appropriate and accessible language and formats adapted to their specific needs? (*Sub-dimensions: Open data, Access to information*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • Do people feel that they can **easily access timely and accurate information** on the spread of the pandemic, the government's response and its recovery strategy? (*Sub-dimensions: Access to information, Open data*) • To what extent are governments investing in and implementing a **shift towards the digitalization of all information**, documents, and data so that access (and proactive publication) can be assured in a rapid and streamlined way in the future? (*Sub-dimensions: Access to information, Open data*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these sub-dimensions?	The development of methodologies to enable NSOs to measure government openness is still in its infancy. While several international organizations produce composite indices on openness[19], these rely mainly on expert assessments. However, it is possible to identify a selection of individual indicators constituting these indices that may be amenable to quantitative measurement by NSOs, through surveys and administrative data. The following guidance is offered with a view to encourage NSOs to take steps in this direction. **1. Using administrative sources to measure access to information on COVID-19 and to assess the availability of high-value open data during a pandemic** • *Assessing whether COVID-19-related information requests are prioritized:* Records of requests for information and responses provided can be used to see whether information requests related to COVID-19, its impacts and government measures are prioritized, vis-à-vis other requests, and how quickly they are responded to. • *Monitoring the extent to which the government proactively publishes relevant information*[20]: — Requests for information records can also be used to assess whether the responses to most common information requests related to COVID-19 are automatically published on appropriate government websites or via relevant electronic media forums. — A review of key government websites can help assess whether public institutions are proactively publishing 'high-value' information on COVID-19[21], especially 1) epidemiological data on the pandemic and data on the health sector's capacity to address it (e.g. availability of personnel, equipment and supplies)[22], 2) government plans and budgets for mitigation and updates on implementation, and 3) social, economic and environmental impacts of the pandemic and related lockdowns.

19 The Handbook on Governance Statistics refers to the Right to Information Rating Index, the Open Data Inventory (ODIN), the Global Open Data Index, the World Press Freedom Index, the Freedom of the Press Index, and the Open Governance Index, among others.

20 As stated by the Special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of the right to freedom of opinion and expression (April 2020): "The default position must be that public authorities do not wait for a request for information; they must have an affirmative policy of releasing all relevant information in ways that are understandable to a non-technical public and that advance public health priorities." Report to the 44th Session of the Human Rights Council, A/HRC/44/49.

21 See detailed recommendations of 'crucial information to be proactively published' by governments, relating to the pandemic's impacts and government efforts to mitigating them, in Article 19 (May 2020), Ensuring the Public's Right to Know in the COVID-19 Pandemic. These recommendations are based on a review of information that has been repeatedly requested across jurisdictions by media and civil society organisations.

22 For instance, PreventEpidemics has published a list of 15 indicators capturing essential data required for an effective COVID-19 response, that should be available to the public.

— Monitoring of publicly available information should focus on a narrow selection of high priority datasets, and should consider the following open data criteria: the frequency of updates; the format in which the data is provided (data should be shared in a downloadable, open, machine-readable format, and under an open license); the extent to which data is disaggregated and available in time series; the extent to which data is interoperable between levels of government, across government agencies, and with international open data repositories; the channels used to disseminate this information beyond the internet in areas with limited internet access (e.g. television, radio, print, local community notice boards, etc.); and whether the information is provided in all spoken languages.

2. **When survey operations resume, consider integrating survey questions on openness into larger surveys**

Survey questions on openness can be used to measure:

- People's experience in accessing government information on COVID-19 and level of satisfaction with the information provided, with respect to ease of access (through which channel(s)), accuracy and trustworthiness, clarity and user-friendliness (e.g. about social welfare benefits and programmes for affected population groups and how to access them), as well as public information needs that are less well covered. For example, rapid assessment surveys undertaken during the pandemic in countries in Europe and Central Asia have collected data on the main channels used by men and women and by various age groups for acquiring information about COVID-19. These surveys also showed that young people were more likely to report that the information related to COVID-19 was confusing or contradictory.[23]
- Public perceptions of the extent to which the media is free to scrutinize the effectiveness of government actions and to hold the government to account on its COVID-19 response;
- Public perceptions of the extent to which there is diverse news coverage in the country on COVID-19 and the government's response to the crisis, representing a diverse range of opinions and political views.

3. **Supplementing third-party data sources with administrative sources to assess freedom of expression of the media, human rights defenders, trade unionists, healthcare workers, whistleblowers and others during the pandemic**

In addition to readily available sources compiled by international CSOs (see suggestions provided below), administrative sources may also be available to help measure media freedom during the pandemic, such as administrative records on cases of arrests, detentions, prosecutions, killings and other attacks against journalists or media organizations, human rights defenders and others for reporting on or expressing opinions about COVID-19 and the government's response in the media. Such records could be found in, and verified by, a National Human Rights Institution; they could also be held by an independent oversight mechanism for the right to information, or by the police and/or courts. NSOs can also draw from the internationally established methodology for reporting on SDG indicator 16.10.1 to measure this sub-dimension.

4. **To what extent does openness foster public accountability?**

Especially in crisis settings, where secrecy or censorship are sometimes imposed to limit criticism of a government's response or hide corruption, measuring the effects of openness on accountability is particularly important. This could be done by:

- Measuring the accountability of public institutions to an independent oversight institution on the right to information: Data can be collected on the number of appeals filed, the share of appeals processed by the oversight body, the number of penalties imposed on public institutions undermining access to information, the share of recommendations made by the oversight body that are implemented by the concerned public institutions, etc.

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these sub-dimensions?, cont.	• Assessing the relative openness of a country's environment, allowing for concerns in the public sector to be raised publicly or through a whistleblower mechanism by activists, journalists, medical professionals and other concerned actors: Data can be collected on the number and types of cases received from internal and external whistleblowers, the outcomes of cases / remedies taken, the number of whistleblowers' complaints of retaliation, etc.) • Such data should be published to enable public scrutiny and to boost public demand for greater compliance with the right to information, and for better protection for the media, human rights defenders and other whistleblowers.
Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	Readily available civil society sources may be considered to assess freedom of expression of the media during the pandemic (in line with indicator 5 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19": Number of recorded acts of COVID-19 related censorship, digital shutdown, deliberate dissemination of inaccurate or misinformation; killings, detention, harassment, and other attacks against human rights defenders, journalists, bloggers, trade unionists, medical and other experts, and whistleblowers motivated by their COVID-19 related actions): • The International Press Institute (IPI) Tracker on Press Freedom Violations Linked to COVID-19 Coverage is closely monitoring press freedom restrictions amid the COVID-19 pandemic, by compiling data on five types of media freedom violations in countries across the world, namely on 1) arrests and criminal investigations of journalists, 2) restrictions on access to information imposed on journalists, 3) verbal or physical attacks against journalists covering Covid-19, 4) censorship on media or journalists covering Covid-19, and 5) excessive fake news regulations. • Reporters Without Borders (RSF) is monitoring the pandemic's impacts on journalism and obstacles to press freedom with a platform called Tracker 19. This tool also documents state censorship, attempts to manipulate information, and deliberate disinformation. The data is collected from RSF's network of bureaux and correspondents. • International IDEA's Global Monitor of COVID-19's Impact on Democracy and Human Rights compiles in one place all democracy and human rights-related information on COVID-19 measures – including on freedom of expression and media integrity – by country, by region and globally. It builds on analysis and data produced both by International IDEA as well as other organizations and media outlets around the world.
Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/ or quality assure data on openness	In contexts where NSOs are unable to launch short-term data collection initiatives on openness, collaboration with unofficial data producers can be particularly helpful, provided NSOs work closely with such outfits to ensure high data quality. For instance, crowdsourcing platforms such as U-Report can generate real-time assessments and feedback loops from communities on the ease of access of COVID-19 information. Civil society organizations are also particularly well placed to survey vulnerable groups (older persons, persons with disabilities, children, refugees, IDPs and migrants, indigenous peoples, and minorities) on their ability to obtain COVID-19 information in formats adapted to their specific needs.
Some **recommended indicators**	*Data sources: AR: Administrative records; HS: Household surveys* **Access to information** • Share of information requests related to the pandemic that are responded to, by public institution, on a weekly basis (AR) • Average response time, by public institution, on a weekly basis (AR) **Open data** • Share of most frequent information requests related to the pandemic that are automatically published on government websites or made publicly available through other appropriate channels (AR)

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	• Share of high-value data on COVID-19, its impacts and the government's response (see key areas listed above) available to the general public in open data format, namely: available through digital, machine-readable formats in relevant national languages, under an open license and without any restrictions on reuse, regularly updated and disaggregated (AR) • Proportion of the population who believe that public data and information on the pandemic, its impacts and the government's response (including with regards to maintaining essential service provision) is: easy to get, available on a timely basis, reliable/trustworthy, clear and useful (HS) • Proportion of vulnerable groups receiving relevant COVID-19 information, including in appropriate, accessible, language and format and adapted to their specific needs (e.g. older persons, persons with disabilities, children, refugees, IDPs and migrants, indigenous peoples and minorities) (HS) (adapted from indicator 4 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19") • Progress in open data release in critical thematic areas (e.g. 14 key areas identified by the Global Open Data Index) and in the publication of official statistics (e.g. 21 key areas identified by the Open Data Inventory (ODIN) (AR) **Freedom of expression of the media, human rights defenders, trade unionists and other whistleblowers** • Number of verified cases of killings, detention, harassment and other attacks against journalists and media organisations, human rights defenders, bloggers, trade unionists, medical and other experts and whistleblowers motivated by their COVID-19 related actions (AR) (adapted from indicator 5 in the UN's "10 key indicators for monitoring human rights implications of COVID-19" and SDG 16.10.1) • Proportion of the population who believe that the media is free to scrutinize government actions and hold the government to account on its COVID-19 response (HS) • Proportion of the population who believe that there is diverse news coverage on COVID-19 and the government's response in the country, representing a diverse range of opinions and political views (HS)

4.4 ACCESS TO AND QUALITY OF JUSTICE

- **Why** produce statistics on access to and justice in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on access to and justice in time of COVID-19?	This health crisis and related lockdown measures present specific justice 'needs', such as addressing the rise in gender-based and domestic violence or cases of discrimination related to access to health benefits or other social protection mechanisms. As the health crisis evolves into a full-fledged economic crisis, the burden on justice systems will get heavier, with projected spikes in disputes over housing and land, conflicts at work, problems with debt and disputes within families, to name a few. Meanwhile, courts are closing, reducing, or adjusting their operations, thus increasing case backlogs and the length of proceedings. In countries where courts are physically closed but operating virtually, the adoption of new rules allowing electronic filing of pleas and electronic reception of evidence may make it more difficult for people who do not have access to the internet to access the justice system. Aside from the courts, the crisis is also affecting other providers of justice services: legal clinics have closed, and community paralegals and social workers are unable to make home visits. Administrative agencies, which have an important role to play in resolving many kinds of civil legal problems (such as welfare departments implementing public benefit programs), are by and large redirecting the public to telephone helplines and online services. Statistics on access to justice and quality of justice services are needed to assess whether people's new demands for justice during the pandemic are being met satisfactorily while courts and other justice service providers are forced to experiment with new modes of online delivery. Justice systems also need to know how effective are measures instituted to help people navigate these new procedures. In situations of full or partial lockdown orders, justice systems will need to determine which measures should be prioritized when looking at overall caseload data, and will need statistics to monitor the implementation of such measures, such as expanding the provision of legal aid for certain types of problems affecting marginalized and disadvantaged groups, and implementing measures to decongest detention facilities.
Key sub-dimensions of interest in time of COVID-19	1. **Demand for justice services:** Range of problems/disputes for which people require justice services. 2. **Accessibility of justice services:** Common reasons for not being able to access justice services include geographical distance, financial costs, language barriers, limited access to legal advice/assistance, to mention a few. 3. **Legal capability of justice users:** Limited legal capability can take the form of a lack of awareness about the availability of justice mechanisms, limited knowledge on how to access them, and limited trust in justice institutions, among others. 4. **Quality of justice services:** Key aspects of judicial service delivery that are relevant for the good functioning of the justice system, such as the fairness of proceedings, the reasonable duration of the proceedings, respect of the right to legal assistance, among others.

What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	**1. Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • What are **the most common justice problems** created or exacerbated by the pandemic and ensuing economic crisis, for which people need help (e.g. problems related to employment, family, neighbors, housing, faulty goods or poor services received, etc.)? (*Sub-dimension: Demand for justice services*) • Do people **know what to do or who to call** if they face a justiciable problem? (*Sub-dimension: Legal capability of justice users*) • With legal clinics closed, paralegals and social workers unable to make home visits, do people know where to turn to access **legal advice and assistance**? (*Sub-dimension: Accessibility of justice services*) • Are people **able to resolve** their problems using the new modes of delivery of the justice system in a satisfactory way? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of justice services*) • In countries where courts are physically closed but **operating virtually**, what is the impact of this shift on defendants' sense that they are getting a **fair trial**? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of justice services*) • Are **decongestion** and prevention strategies being implemented to avoid contagion among populations in **detention centers and prisons**? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of justice services*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • How is the **demand for justice services changing over time**, as the public health emergency translates into an economic, employment and financial crisis? (*Sub-dimension: Demand for justice services*) • Is the use of **remote technology by courts helping to alleviate the delays** that most justice systems are subject to during the crisis? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of justice services*) • How **prepared** are governments to conduct justice proceedings through **electronic means** in the longer term? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of justice services*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	**1. Using administrative data to streamline justice operations and to make the best use of scarce resources** Typically, administrative data are collected by police and prosecutorial authorities, courts, prison administrations, administrative agencies, legal aid centres, alternative dispute resolution (ADR) mechanisms, and civil society providers of justice services to provide three types of justice measurements, namely 1) on the operations of the justice systems (such as indicators on case flows, duration of proceedings, etc.), 2) on users of justice services (which can help identify which population groups are disproportionately affected by experiences of injustice), and 3) on the availability and distribution of resources (such as budgets, staffing, types of courts and detention centres, range of legal aid services, etc.)[24] In the context of a crisis, such indicators should be monitored regularly as they can shed light on at least four priorities of the justice system in the short-term: • *Getting a good overview of the demand placed on the justice system at any point in time*, by monitoring the volume and types of new cases, and to assess the capacity of the system to respond to this demand, by monitoring resolved cases, by type of case. • *Reducing demand on the justice system:* Systems with large numbers of pending cases will have to find ways to reduce demand. For instance, monitoring data on arrests executed by law enforcement agencies can help ensure that arrests for minor, non-violent offenses (e.g. breaches of curfew) are kept to a minimum; and monitoring the share of legal issues taken to legal aid schemes or online mediation services as a proportion of the number of cases filed in court can reveal more opportunities for courts to partner with legal aid providers, including non-state actors such as CSOs and community-based paralegals. As another example, measuring the

24 Detailed guidance for the collection of administrative data on criminal justice systems is provided in the United Nations Crime Trends Survey and Operations of Criminal Justice Operations (UN-CTS), the Manual for the Development of A System of Criminal Justice Statistics, and the International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes.

level of awareness of the general public on how to resolve the more common/less severe legal problems can reduce the burden on legal aid providers if lows levels of awareness are then addressed with well-targeted information campaigns.

- *Managing priority caseloads effectively*, such as cases involving child offenders, crimes against children, violence against women and children, and accountability for serious crimes. For instance, monitoring the share of active cases of domestic violence and the average length of proceedings for these cases will help ensure that they are prioritized over less urgent disputes.

- *Reducing risks of COVID-19 in detention centres*[25], including migrant detention facilities: For instance, monitoring the proportion of pretrial detainees and number of new detentions can help ensure that non-custodial sentences are used wherever possible to help decongest detention facilities. Administrative data is also important to track the implementation of health and safety measures to prevent outbreaks in detention facilities (e.g. data on enhanced cleaning/disinfecting and hygiene practices; data on strategies to limit transmission from visitors; data on clinical care provided to individuals with confirmed or suspected positive COVID-19 status; etc.)

In the medium-term, administrative data can also be used to assess how the use of remote technology by courts is affecting the speed of proceedings over time – that is, whether it is further delaying court proceedings, or to the contrary, if it is helping to alleviate the delays that most justice systems are subject to during such a crisis. This can be done by tracking the average length of proceedings for cases handled through the use of remote technology, and seeing if it is shorter than the average length of proceedings for similar cases handled through traditional face-to-face procedures. Also in the medium-term, administrative data may reveal that certain vulnerable groups (e.g. rural or low-income populations) are using remote justice services at lower rates than in-person services prior to the pandemic. This could point to a problem with the accessibility of justice services by certain groups due to the use of technology.

2. **Using legal needs surveys to anticipate changes in demand for justice as the crisis evolves, and to forge partnerships with justice providers outside the court system**

While administrative data provides important information about those who come into contact with justice institutions, they say nothing about those who do not. Legal needs surveys are an important data collection tool to reach this population, and to investigate the experience of justiciable problems from the perspective of those who face them. Beyond the nature of problems encountered, sources of help, and the processes employed to resolve problems, legal needs surveys can investigate the costs and duration of problem resolution, and perceptions and attitudes towards the fairness and accessibility of the process. Legal needs surveys are distinct from victimization surveys (see chapter on Safety and Security for more information on such surveys) as their focus is on civil legal issues. They are particularly important in the context of the economic downturn caused by the pandemic, as the most common justice problems will have an economic dimension – such disputes over housing and land, conflicts at work, problems with debt or disputes within families.

The OECD-OSJI Report on Legal Needs Surveys and Access to Justice provides comprehensive guidance for the design and conduct of legal needs surveys. Another useful starting point can be found in the brief survey questionnaire developed to monitor SDG indicator 16.3.3 on Access to Dispute Resolution Mechanisms for civil justice matters.

A legal aid survey designed for the COVID-19 context can help justice actors to:

- *Map out the most common problems faced by various population groups as the crisis evolves:* Some broad categories of problems may include unemployment and social security benefits, labour disputes arising from the increase in job losses and unemployment, housing disputes from evictions and inability to pay rent, bankruptcies and insolvency, health and safety risks faced by workers, family disputes, and access to public services.

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25 For further information, see OHCHR and WHO (March 2020), Interim Guidance – COVID-19: Focus on Persons Deprived of their Liberty; The Alliance for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action and UNICEF (April 2020), Technical Note: COVID-19 and Children Deprived of their Liberty

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	• *Anticipate the demand for justice services and prepare accordingly:* Combining results from legal needs surveys with administrative data on actual caseloads compiled during previous financial or natural disasters can help justice policymakers predict spikes in certain types of justice problems, where and for whom – thus allowing the justice system to prepare accordingly. • *Identify reasons why people may not be reporting problems and seeking legal assistance – and take measures to address those:* Some broad categories of reasons may include lack of knowledge about existing services, inaccessibility of services to some segments of the population now that they have moved online, perceptions that such processes are unsafe or overly complicated, low levels of confidence that a report will be acted on, etc. • *Identify appropriate non-court solutions that can reduce the burden on formal court systems,* such as alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, mediation, or expanded access to legal aid schemes. **3. With justice services moving online, conduct user surveys to gain insights into the accessibility of online, mobile, and virtual legal services** User surveys can provide unique insight into the experience of and challenges faced by users of justice institutions and services. This includes surveys of those detained by the police, being tried for criminal offences, inmates, as well as users of civil courts, alternative dispute resolution processes, legal information and assistance services. The CEPEJ [Handbook for Conducting Satisfaction Surveys Aimed at Courts Users](#) involved in both criminal and civil cases provides detailed guidance on how to design and conduct such surveys. With courts across the world having begun to use video- and teleconferencing as a way to keep pending cases moving during the COVID-19 pandemic, user surveys may be particularly useful to measure perceptions of sentenced persons on whether remote hearings interfered with due process and fair trial rights. Some recurring issues which could be asked about include issues related to logistics (e.g. Did all conference participants receive any pieces of evidence or other materials that were presented or discussed at the video- or teleconference hearing?), issues related to "sidebar options" (e.g. How were the defendant and his/her attorney able to discuss issues during the proceedings without being "heard" – or read, if using private chat functions – by others?), and issues related to technological prejudice (e.g. Did slower internet speed or lower bandwidth hinder a party's presentation?) When targeted at users of legal information and assistance services, user surveys can help gain insights into the accessibility, navigability and clarity of online, mobile, and virtual legal services. Survey results may reveal a need to support community-based paralegals and civil society organizations to teach people how to effectively use online services.
Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	Data sources outside of the formal justice system can provide valuable information to help anticipate the demand for justice services. For instance, reports of abuse within health services, failed safety inspections in workplaces, or cases filed with an ombuds institution on experiences of discrimination can help identify the universe of issues that can potentially involve the use of legal services. Similarly, statistics compiled by online and phone-based legal aid providers on changes in requests for advice over time can be used by the formal justice system to anticipate what lies ahead and organize itself accordingly. Previous legal needs surveys conducted by NSOs or other actors can also be used to understand the justice problems faced by people in normal times, and to help identify those that are likely to be exacerbated by COVID-19. For instance, the [World Justice Project's General Population Poll](#), routinely implemented in over 100 countries, provides comparable data on legal needs and access to civil justice on a global scale.

Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/ or quality assure data on access to justice	While legal needs surveys and user surveys can be implemented by NSOs, other actors in the justice system, such as research organizations, women's organizations and other civil society organizations, may be well placed also to design and run such surveys, given their proximity to vulnerable communities and their first-hand understanding of the particular obstacles they face in accessing justice. Civil society legal aid centers/legal service providers may also collect administrative/case data that can be helpful for NSOs.
Some **recommended indicators**	*Data sources: AR: Administrative records; LNS: Legal needs survey; US: User survey* **Demand for justice** • Distribution of new cases, resolved cases and pending cases, by type of case (AR) • Proportion of respondents who experienced a dispute during the past [*x months – respondents can be asked to focus only on the period affected by COVID-19*], by type of dispute (LNS) • Proportion of the population whose legal problem was never resolved (meaning that the legal problem persists but all parties have given up action to resolve it further), by type of dispute (LNS) **Accessibility of justice services** • Proportion of the population who have experienced a dispute in the past [x months] and who accessed a formal or informal dispute resolution mechanism, by type of mechanism and by socio-demographic characteristic of respondent ([SDG indicator 16.3.3](#)) (LNS) • Distribution of reasons why no dispute resolution mechanism was accessed for disputes experienced in the past [x months], such as "I did not know where to go to", "I could not obtain legal assistance", "It was too far away or hard to get to", "It was too expensive or inconvenient", "I did not trust the authorities", "I did not think they could help", "I was afraid of the consequences for me or my family" (LNS) • Proportion of cases filed diverted towards non-court channels (such as alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, mediation, etc.) to accelerate the provision of justice services (AR) • Number of legal aid providers (including lawyers and community-based paralegals) per 100,000 population, by practice area, compared to distribution of disputes experienced in the past [x months] (AR) • Usage rate of remote justice services by certain vulnerable groups (e.g. rural or low-income populations) compared to usage rate by the same groups of in-person services prior to the pandemic (AR) **Legal capability of justice users** • Proportion of the population who know how to access legal information and assistance provided online or through mobile technologies, if needed (LNS) **Quality of justice services** • Proportion of legal problems experienced in the past [*x months*] that were resolved 1) within a reasonable period of time (*as assessed by users*) and 2) to the satisfaction of those facing them (US) • Proportion of users of non-court channels, such as alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, mediation, or the like, who were satisfied with the quality of services received, by type of mechanism used (US) • Proportion of users of legal services provided online or through mobile applications who were satisfied with the quality of the services received (US)

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	• Perceptions of sentenced persons whose trial was conducted via video- or teleconferencing on whether remote hearings interfered with due process and fair trial rights (*see above examples of specific issues that could be asked about*) (US)
	• Average length of judicial proceedings, by type of case (AR)
	• Proportion of cases filed in the justice system attended to through the use of remote technology, by type of case (AR)
	• Average length of proceedings for cases handled through the use of remote technology, compared to the average length of proceedings for similar cases handled through traditional face-to-face procedures (*data on the latter can be used from prior to the crisis if such procedures are no longer in place*) (AR)
	• Proportion of pretrial detainees who are acquitted or who received a non-custodial sentence over the past [x months] (AR)
	• Number of persons deprived of their liberty and staff workers in detention facilities who had symptoms of COVID-19 and were subject to a protocol for their care and for prevention of contagion, by detention centre / prison (AR)

4.5 RESPONSIVENESS

- **Why** produce statistics on responsiveness in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on responsiveness in time of COVID-19?	Services provided or regulated by public institutions are in the spotlight during times of severe crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic. From frontline healthcare workers and public health officials to teachers, sanitation workers, social welfare officers and more, service providers have to quickly adapt and re-adjust the way in which services are delivered to reduce interruptions, enable access to the whole population, and guarantee quality standards in the new delivery modalities. For example, teachers and education professionals have had to provide at-home learning solutions via online platforms and e-materials, where there was infrastructure to support such approaches. Similarly, where medical facilities have been overwhelmed by high numbers of COVID-19 patients, telemedicine and telehealth have been set up to provide non-emergency medical services.
	Statistics on people's satisfaction with the way public services are helping them to cope with the impacts of the pandemic are key to helping service providers quickly adapt to a fast-changing situation. Monitoring levels of satisfaction with public service provision can also shed light on levels of trust in public institutions. Research has shown that users who are satisfied with public services have higher levels of trust in government, which is critical in a time of crisis for governments to implement effective responses.
	At a broader level, "system responsiveness" refers to people's feeling of having a say in what the government does. Even in times when governments are called to act rapidly, listening to people's concerns and incorporating their views into the decision-making process is of paramount importance for enhancing the legitimacy of policy choices. Low or diminishing perceptions of system responsiveness means that people might doubt that their government is working for the safety and well-being of the majority, and not for just a few. When people feel left outside of important decisions, also in relation to post-crisis recovery measures, disenchantment can erode trust in institutions and lead to populist grievances. This, in turn, will impede a government's ability to implement an effective COVID-19 recovery plan.
Key sub-dimensions of interest in time of COVID-19	1. **System responsiveness:** The belief that people can influence what governments do. 2. **Satisfaction with services:** As one specific aspect of system responsiveness, satisfaction with services is shaped by the ability of institutions to respond to people's expectations, as well as by people's experiences with these services.
What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	1. **Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • Are people **satisfied with the provision of emergency health services** to address the pandemic, as well as with the continued provision of non-emergency medical services? (*Sub-dimension: Satisfaction with services*) • Are people **satisfied with the provision of alternative education services** while normal schooling schedules are interrupted? (*Sub-dimension: Satisfaction with services*)

What are some likely data needs of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?, cont.	• Are people **satisfied with the provision of administrative services to address the socio-economic impact** of the pandemic (e.g. social benefit applications for unemployment benefits, disability benefits, childcare allowances; support to finding a new job; filing taxes; registering a business, etc.)? (*Sub-dimension: Satisfaction with services*) • What are the most important **service delivery problems** in a given city, as identified by respondents? (*Sub-dimension: Satisfaction with services*) • Do people **feel they have a say** in what the government is doing to manage the pandemic? (*Sub-dimension: System responsiveness*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • Do people believe that public institutions are well **prepared for responding** to different kinds of crises **in the future**? (*Sub-dimension: Satisfaction with services*) • Do people believe that if a **decision on COVID-19 affecting their community** were to be taken to the local or regional government, they would have an opportunity to voice their concerns? (*Sub-dimension: System responsiveness*)
What measurement guidance is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	When measuring satisfaction with public services, questions on specific attributes of services (such as their accessibility, affordability, fairness, quality of facilities, courtesy of staff, etc.) are more informative and meaningful for policymakers than general questions about satisfaction. The specificity of the information generated by such questions, as well as the focus on citizen experiences rather than simply perceptions, have greater policy use than stand-alone perception data on overall satisfaction, which may not reveal "what needs to be fixed". This is the approach adopted by SDG indicator 16.6.2 (Proportion of the population satisfied with their last experience of public services) whose internationally established methodology can provide a useful starting point for monitoring public satisfaction with services during a crisis such as COVID-19. For example, rapid assessment surveys undertaken during the pandemic in countries in Europe and Central Asia found that women faced greater difficulties in accessing health services than men, especially family planning services.[26] The following are best practices to mitigate risks of biases and measurement errors when measuring satisfaction with public services: • To improve the accuracy of answers, only respondents who used services should report on perceived quality or satisfaction; • In order to generate a common understanding of the aspects considered as elements of "good quality service", respondents should be "primed" with questions on a set of attributes of good quality of service provision prior to asking about their overall satisfaction; • To minimize memory bias, satisfaction questions should refer to the last experience of public services and include a reference time frame; "the past 12 months" is commonly used and suggested, but to measure satisfaction with public services provided during a crisis, respondents can be asked to focus only on the period affected by the crisis); • To minimize order effects, the order of services should be randomized when enquiring about satisfaction with services; • To mitigate the so-called "halo" effect – the influence that general attitudes towards the public sector could have on people when asked to assess public services – avoid placing questions on satisfaction with services right after questions asking for overall assessments of a government's performance or for levels of satisfaction with the system (e.g. questions on trust or on system responsiveness). If that is not possible, text should be used as a buffer between questions. The inclusion of questions on specific service attributes can also help overcome this bias.

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	The following are best practices to mitigate risks of biases and measurement errors when measuring system responsiveness: • As the concepts addressed by questions on system responsiveness are complex (e.g. survey questions for SDG indicator 16.7.2 on system responsiveness speak about "the political system", "having a say in what government does", and "having an influence on politics"), interviewers should be well-trained on how to explain such terminology to respondents if they do not understand certain terms, using the specific wording provided in the metadata for this indicator. • The response options "don't know", "refuse to answer" or "not applicable" should not be read out loud to respondents, as they would provide an easy way for respondents to avoid engaging with the subject of the question. Even when respondents say they "don't know", enumerators should repeat the question and simply ask respondents to provide their best guess. • System responsiveness questions should not be asked immediately after items that are likely to elicit strong emotional responses (e.g. references to COVID-19) or that refer to experiences with other people or institutions. • Typically, data collection should be spread throughout the year or at least over multiple weeks to minimize the impact of holidays, seasons and elections. In times of crisis, when developments can change on a short-term basis, high-frequency surveying is needed to capture levels of system responsiveness precisely and link it to implemented policies.
Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	Specific statistics on public satisfaction with attributes of various services during the pandemic have been produced by Eurofound (see online survey findings on Living, Working and COVID-19). More generally, statistics on satisfaction with public services are regularly produced by several non-official household surveys (e.g. Gallup, World Values Survey, European Social Survey, European Quality of Life Survey, Latinobarometer, Afrobarometer, etc.) These readily available datasets can be used as valuable reference points to benchmark new data produced during the crisis. They can also be used to get a quick overview of pre-crisis levels of satisfaction in key services likely to be under further strain during the crisis (e.g. health and education services), and to help prioritize specific aspects of service delivery that may need to be strengthened for an effective response to the crisis. Statistics on system responsiveness are produced by the European Social Survey, the OECD's Programme of the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), the World Values Survey, the Afrobarometer and Latinobarometer, among others. These readily available statistics can also be used as valuable reference points to benchmark new indicators on system responsiveness produced during the crisis.
Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on responsiveness	In contexts where NSOs are unable to launch short-term data collection initiatives on satisfaction with public services or system responsiveness, collaboration with unofficial data producers can be particularly helpful, provided NSOs work closely with such outfits to ensure high data quality. For instance, most unofficial survey initiatives launched during COVID-19 use different question wordings on responsiveness issues. NSO guidance on the formulation of responsiveness questions used in previous official surveys, or on the wording recommended in the Praia Handbook, could ensure benchmarking with official time series available at country level, and/or with international comparable data on responsiveness.
Some **recommended indicators**	**Satisfaction with services** See the full survey questionnaire to measure SDG indicator 16.6.2 (Proportion of the population satisfied with their last experience of public services) in the metadata for SDG indicator 16.6.2. Provided below is the subset of five attribute-based questions recommended for the three service areas covered by this indicator, namely health, education and government services (i.e. services to obtain government-issued identification documents and services for the civil registration of life events such as births, marriages and deaths).

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	a) Proportion of the population satisfied with **healthcare services**, with respect to: — Their accessibility ("It was easy to get to the place where I received medical treatment") — Their affordability ("Expenses for healthcare services were affordable to you/your household.") — The quality of facilities ("The healthcare facilities were clean and in good condition.") — Equality of treatment for everyone ("All people are treated equally in receiving healthcare services in your area.") — Courtesy and treatment by healthcare staff ("The doctor or other healthcare staff you saw spent enough time with you [or a child in your household] during the consultation.") *Possible additional indicator for COVID-19:* — Proportion of the population who has had problems accessing public health services for non-Covid-19 related medical issues (e.g. control appointments, treatment of existing diseases, etc.) b) Proportion of the population satisfied with **education services**, with respect to: — Their accessibility ("The school can be reached by public or private transportation, or by walk, in less than 30 minutes and without difficulties.") — Their affordability ("School-related expenses (including administrative fees, books, uniforms and transportation) are affordable to you/your household.") — The quality of facilities ("School facilities are in good condition.") — Equality of treatment for everyone ("All children are treated equally in the school attended by the child/children in your household.") — Quality of teaching ("The quality of teaching is good.") *Possible additional indicator for COVID-19:* — Proportion of the population who say their children have access to the necessary tools for home schooling (e.g. access to internet, computer, other technological devices, adequate space) c) Proportion of the population satisfied with **government services** (i.e. services to obtain government-issued identification documents and services for the civil registration of life events such as births, marriages and deaths), with respect to: — Their accessibility ("The office, website or [toll free] telephone number was easily accessible.") — Their affordability ("The fees you needed to pay for the ID or the certificate were affordable to you/your household.") — The effectiveness of the service delivery process ("The process for applying and obtaining the ID or the certificate was simple and easy to understand.") — Equality of treatment for everyone ("All people are treated equally in receiving government services in your area.") — Their timeliness ("The amount of time it took to obtain the ID or the certificate was reasonable.") *Possible additional indicator for COVID-19:* — Proportion of the population satisfied with the quality of services received from government to access unemployment benefits or other types of income support during the crisis In the context of COVID-19, additional indicators on government responsiveness in the provision of services in general may include: — Proportion of the population who say the city/town is effectively addressing the service delivery problems identified in previous questions — Proportion of the population who say that public institutions are well prepared for responding to similar crises in the future — Proportion of the population who believe that public institutions will be able to provide most services digitally if a similar crisis hits again

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	**System responsiveness** Recommended survey questions to measure SDG indicator 16.7.2 (Proportion of the population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive) are available in the metadata for SDG indicator 16.7.2. Specifically, this indicator measures: — The proportion of the population who say "the political system in [country] allows people like you to have a say in what the government does" — The proportion of the population who say that "the political system in [country] allows people like you to have an influence on politics" *Possible variations of these indicators for COVID-19:* — Proportion of the population who say they have a say in what the government is doing to manage the pandemic — Proportion of the population who say they have an influence on the government's plans for post-COVID recovery To measure system responsiveness at the local/regional level, in the context of COVID-19, this possible additional indicator could be considered: — Proportion of the population who believe they would have an opportunity to voice their concerns if a decision on COVID-19 affecting their community were to be taken to the local or regional government

4.6 ABSENCE OF CORRUPTION

- **Why** produce statistics on corruption in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on corruption in time of COVID-19?	Public emergencies such as COVID-19 can increase the risks of corruption, which not only undermine the response to the pandemic but also deprive people of health care. For instance, as hospitals face increasing shortages in staff, beds, ventilators and other equipment, bribery risks are a major concern. Patients willing and able to pay a bribe to receive medical care as soon as possible leave those unable to pay severely disadvantaged. Meanwhile, a lot of the procurement processes for medicines and equipment might not be competitive, due to time constraints to meet urgent demands, or to the reduced availability of suppliers. A procurement system that lacks competition is the ideal breeding ground for corrupt behavior, such as suppliers extorting governments by demanding higher prices. The introduction of regulations to enforce lockdown measures can also create opportunities for law enforcement officials to exercise discretionary power in deciding who is allowed to evade quarantine rules, in return for a bribe.

It is therefore essential that COVID-19 response plans build in measures to prevent corruption and promote integrity, transparency and accountability. In this context, survey statistics are needed to identify the levels and patterns of corrupt practices, in the health sector but also in other sectors likely to be vulnerable to corruption, such as law and order, and to monitor society's "tolerance" to corruption, which may be higher in the context of an emergency. On the basis of this evidence, policymakers can build appropriate mitigation measures, such as promoting open and transparent contracts, and encouraging the public, civil servants and businesses to report cases of corruption. By tracking public procurement statistics, data on reported cases of corruption and sanctions applied, and changes in perceptions and experiences of corruption by individuals and businesses throughout the crisis and recovery phase, the effectiveness of anti-corruption measures can be monitored more systematically, and new strategies can be introduced as needed. |
| **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19 | 1. **Intolerance to corruption:** Ethical values, principles and norms that strengthen resistance to corruption practices.
2. **Levels and patterns of corrupt practices:** The extent and modalities of corrupt behaviors taking place during contacts between civil servants and the public, and between public institutions and private suppliers.
3. **State responses to corruption:** Includes channels for reporting detected cases of corruption to authorities and subsequent actions taken by relevant public administrations and the criminal justice system. |
| What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)? | 1. **Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):**
- As hospitals face increasing shortages in staff, beds, ventilators and other equipment, to what extent are **patients paying bribes** (and willing to pay bribes) to receive medical care before those unable to pay? (*Sub-dimensions: Intolerance to corruption / Levels and patterns of corrupt practices*)
- What are the most common forms of **corruption reported by individuals** through corruption hotlines and complaints mechanisms? (*Sub-dimension: Levels and patterns of corrupt practices*) |

What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?, cont.	• To what extent is there **corruption in the procurement** of medical equipment and lifesaving medicines? (*Sub-dimension: Levels and patterns of corrupt practices*) • To what extent are **sanctions enforced** on cases of corruption, thereby maintaining systems of accountability during the state of emergency? (*Sub-dimension: State response to corruption*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • How does society's level of **tolerance** to corrupt practices evolve over time? (*Sub-dimension: Intolerance to corruption*) • Do people believe that if a private citizen offers a government employee an improper payment in order to speed up administrative procedures, the **government employee would accept the bribe**? (*Sub-dimension: Intolerance to corruption*) • Are effective measures taken to **prevent corruption in the procurement** of medical equipment and supplies? (*Sub-dimension: State response to corruption*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	**1. Monitoring corruption in emergency COVID-19 procurement with administrative data and surveys of businesses participating in public sector bids** Having access to open and comprehensive procurement data is critical for monitoring the risks for corruption in procurement, such as fraud, collusion, bid rigging and price gouging. Guidance on relevant metrics can be found in the Open Contracting Partnership's Public Procurement Indicators Guide and Red Flags Methodology. At a minimum, the central procurement body (or procurement units in individual ministries and agencies) should make available the necessary data to monitor the following 'red flags' in procurement processes: • A high proportion of contract awards to single bidders, even in the post-emergency phase, when direct awards should be gradually abandoned in favor of more competitive procurement solutions • Large differences between contract awards and final contract amounts • Frequent discrepancies between call for tender and contract award notices e.g. changes in line item requirements • Higher final price on contract than industry average • Significant price differences for certain common medical supplies between the country's various regions or between hospitals • A high number of new companies being awarded contracts shortly after being established **2. Measuring public experiences and perceptions of bribery with sample corruption surveys** Population surveys on corruption enable direct access to those who have experienced corruption. They are an important complement to administrative statistics on crime which typically underreport corruption events. In the context of COVID-19, corruption surveys can be used in several ways: • They can help identify the characteristics of those most affected by corruption – the "bribe payers" (e.g. by sex, age, educational level, rural/urban, ethnic group, poverty level, etc.) – and the characteristics of the "bribe receivers" (e.g. type of public official, such as medical personnel, police officers, tax officials, court staff, etc.) Based on these profiles, targeted awareness-raising campaigns can be designed to reach the most affected groups (e.g. to inform them about telephone hotlines to report cases of corruption), and specific control measures can be implemented by public institutions to prevent and sanction illicit behavior. • They can give an estimate of the actual prevalence of corruption (as measured by SDG indicator 16.5.1 on experiences of bribery), at a time when such metrics are all the more important that public institutions may not be able to uphold their usual integrity measures, faced with pressures to urgently address the crisis. This can be done not only by asking respondents about their experiences of corruption, but also about how widespread they believe bribery to be, and whether they find "acceptable" certain types of corrupt behaviors, in the context of a pandemic (such as a "gift" to a health worker to provide expedited/extra services).

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	• They can provide insight on the drivers of bribery, by requesting information about the about the reason for its request/offer (e.g. to obtain better healthcare, to speed up a procedure, to obtain exemptions from lockdown measures, etc.) • They can measure the reporting rate of corruption and map out the main reasons for non-reporting (e.g. fear of retaliation, perception of bribery of healthcare personnel as a much "lesser ill" compared to the risk of serious illness related to COVID-19, etc.) • When conducted regularly at different stages of the health emergency and ensuing economic crisis, they can help track changes in the incidence and patterns of bribery, and monitor the effectiveness of anti-corruption measures. They can also alert policymakers to new forms of corruption requiring new anti-corruption measures. Asking about corruption in interviews can be a sensitive issue. In order to collect reliable data, the interviewer's attitude is crucial: s/he must be completely neutral so that the respondent feels totally at ease. To avoid social desirability biases, special attention must be paid to the wording of questions on corruption. In the context of COVID-19, for instance, bribery of health personnel could be described as "fees paid for treatment, drugs, or expedited/extra services even when those should be free, or offered in the hope that doctors or nurses will provide better care." The UNODC's Manual on Corruption Surveys provides detailed guidance on other such methodological issues that are important to consider when designing and conducting corruption surveys among the population. **3. Conducting surveys targeted at businesses to better understand the drivers of corrupt practices between the private sector and public officials** While the core objective of corruption surveys targeted at businesses is to produce data on the prevalence of bribery among businesses when dealing with public officials, they can also be used for other more specific diagnostic purposes, such as to identify the drivers of bribery in the procurement cycle, such as red tape; to reveal the administrative procedures particularly at risk of corruption; to understand the consequences of accepting or refusing a bribe; and to assess the functioning of anti-corruption measures, including reporting channels available to businesses that experience or witness illicit practices. NSOs generally maintain business registers (i.e. central repositories of baseline information on business entities) and should be able to extract from these registers the businesses operating in any given sector, such as the healthcare and pharmaceutical sector. Guidance on how to conduct such surveys can be found in the UNODC's Manual on Corruption Surveys and a useful starting point is the metadata for SDG indicator 16.5.2 on bribe-paying by businesses to public officials. **4. Conducting sample surveys among civil servant to obtain information on the circumstances facilitating corruption in public administration** Information on the factors facilitating or preventing corruption can be collected through sample surveys targeted at specific categories of civil servants. In the context of COVID-19, such "integrity surveys" can be filled by personnel working in institutions at the frontline of the response, such as healthcare personnel, the police, employees managing procurement processes and judiciary personnel (given the steep rise in justice problems likely to arise during the economic downturn, such as disputes over housing and problems with debt). Survey results can be used to produce a range of indicators on the effectiveness of integrity measures in place – or lack thereof – such as indicators on recruitment to the public service; mobility and promotion within the public service; integrity awareness and training; knowledge of and perceptions of effectiveness of whistleblowing mechanism in place; working conditions and job satisfaction; and internal inspection and sanction regimes. For obvious reasons, civil servants may be more inclined to conceal corruption than ordinary citizens. The confidentiality of the responses can be enhanced — and thus the willingness of civil servants to disclose sensitive information increased — through self-administered questionnaires that can be submitted online anonymously by respondents.

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	**5. Monitoring state responses to detected cases of corruption** One way to assess government effectiveness in controlling corruption is to measure whether channels for reporting to authorities are functioning correctly and whether appropriate subsequent action is taken by the criminal justice system. The latter requires investigating and substantiating corruption cases reported to official authorities, which can be challenging and is unlikely to be completed in the short-term, especially during a health emergency. On the other hand, information on reporting patterns can be monitored on a regular basis (e.g. number of cases filed by citizens with a corruption hotline, number of cases reported by civil servants or businesses through a whistle-blower mechanism or other reporting mechanisms) as well as data on administrative sanctions imposed by institutions. Actions by authorities can also be taken further upstream to prevent corruption, for instance through information campaigns or a sensitization programs addressed to specific categories of the population (e.g. youth, civil servants, etc.) or to the general public. Survey data providing information on whether citizens, civil servants and businesses are aware of any official anti-corruption mechanism, and on their views on the effectiveness of such mechanisms, are important to collect.
Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	The Open Tender platform allows users to search and analyse official tender data on the entire lifecycle of procurement processes from 33 jurisdictions (28 EU member states, Norway, the EU Institutions, Iceland, Switzerland, Georgia). The platform also assesses countries based on a set of seven integrity indicators, and as such may provide valuable insight to NSOs and other institutions wanting to monitor public procurement risks in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. To identify sectors and specific administrative processes that were already susceptible to corruption prior to the pandemic, and that may be further at risk in the context of an emergency, some readily available sources of survey data on experiences of corruption compiled by civil society and research institutions can offer a useful starting point, such as Transparency International's Global Corruption Barometer, the World Values Survey, as well as the regional barometers (Afrobarometer, Latinobarometer and Eurobarometer).
Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on corruption	NSOs can partner with civil society to crowdsource information on corruption. A wide spectrum of well-tested crowdsourcing tools – such as U-Report, HarassMap or Ushahidi – are used by civil society to generate community-data (disaggregated by sex, age, location, etc.) and community-level mapping on corruption. This information can usefully complement official corruption data to enable more targeted responses to specific groups affected by particular forms of corruption.
Some **recommended indicators**	*Data sources: AR: Administrative records; HS: Household surveys; BS: Business surveys; CSS: Civil servant surveys* **Intolerance to corruption** • Proportion of population / businesses who believe that a government employee will accept an improper payment (HS/BS) • Level of tolerance ("social acceptability") by population / businesses for paying a bribe to avoid complying with lockdown measures (HS/BS) • Level of tolerance ("social acceptability") by population for paying a bribe to get preferential treatment in hospitals for oneself or a relative (HS) • Level of tolerance ("social acceptability") by businesses for paying a bribe to win a contract from the government (BS)

| Some **recommended indicators**, cont. | **Levels and patterns of corrupt practices**
• Proportion of persons who had at least one contact with a public official and who paid a bribe to a public official, or were asked for a bribe by those public officials, during the previous [x months – i.e. period affected by COVID-19] (SDG 16.5.1), disaggregated by characteristics of bribe payer (e.g. sex, age, income level, etc.) and bribe receiver (i.e. type of public official – medical personnel, police, court staff, etc.) (HS)
• Proportion of healthcare professionals who know that theft of medical equipment or supplies by staff is happening in their workplace (CSS)
• Proportion of population / businesses who believe that corruption is widespread in the healthcare sector (% who consider corruption is "often/always a problem" in this sector) (HS/BS)
• Proportion of single bidder contracts out of total contracts awarded by government for COVID-19 procurement of healthcare equipment and medical supplies, by procuring entity and/or by item category (AR)
• Total value awarded in tenders that received a single bid in comparison to the value awarded in competitive tenders, by procuring entity and/or by item category (AR)
• Proportion of businesses that had at least one contact with a public official and that paid a bribe to a public official, or were asked for a bribe by those public officials during the previous [x months – i.e. period affected by COVID-19] (SDG 16.5.2), disaggregated by characteristics of bribe payer (sector, size of the firm, location) and bribe receiver (i.e. type of public official) (BS)
• Distribution of reasons for a bribe request/offer according to businesses (BS)

State responses to corruption
• Proportion of the population / businesses aware of available channels for reporting a case of corruption (e.g. phone hotlines, online reporting mechanisms, whistleblower mechanisms, other complaint mechanisms) (HS/BS)
• Proportion of the population / businesses victim of corruption in the past [x months] who reported the event to a relevant authority, disaggregated by the channel through which the report was made (HS/BS)
• Distribution of reasons for citizens / businesses not to report cases of bribery (HS/BS)
• Proportion of corruption cases reported for which sanctions were applied on the public servants involved (AR)
• Proportion of corruption complaints processed in the criminal justice system (AR) |

4.7 TRUST

- **Why** produce statistics on trust in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on trust in time of COVID-19?	During all stages of the COVID-19 pandemic, including containment, mitigation and recovery, trust in public institutions is vital for governments' ability to respond rapidly and to secure citizen support and compliance. For instance, new regulations on lockdown measures, wearing of masks and contact tracing tools that rely on people's voluntary participation have been easier to implement in high-trust settings. At the same time, the way recovery programmes are designed and communicated – including perceptions of their fairness in terms of who benefits – will have a lasting impact on public trust and influence the social climate going forward.

Recent evidence from selected OECD countries shows that after an initial rise during the early onset of COVID-19 when citizens looked to their leaders and institutions to provide security in times of crisis, trust in institutions dropped again a few weeks later.[27] Given the fragility of trust and potential for public disengagement, polarization and social unrest, frequent high-quality statistics on institutional trust and its drivers (i.e. the integrity, fairness and openness of public institutions, as well as government's competence, that is, its responsiveness and reliability in delivering public services and anticipating new needs as they arise) are therefore essential to provide timely indications to policymakers on their perceived conduct of public affairs.

It is also important to monitor people's trust in others. Until a vaccine is developed, people will be more likely to adhere to containment strategies when they believe others to act responsibly, too. This was observed in the United States, where COVID-19 fatalities were lower in US counties with higher levels of interpersonal trust.[28] Pandemics can also have lasting negative impacts on social cohesion: in a charged-up climate where some groups perceive themselves as being treated differently, or where certain communities are stigmatized for spreading the virus, measures of interpersonal trust can help governments mitigate growing societal divides at a time when collective action is critically needed. |
| **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19 | 1. **Institutional trust:** Trust in institutions strongly correlates with perceptions of institutional performance, especially with people's views of government integrity, openness, participation, effectiveness, as well as with their satisfaction of public services.
2. **Interpersonal trust:** Trust in other people fosters cooperation within and among different groups in society. |

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27 Edelman, 2020; Australia Institute, 2020; Kantar, 2020

28 Aassave et al., 2020 "Pandemics and social capital: From the Spanish flu of 1918-19 to COVID-19"; Borgonovi, 2020 "The role of social capital in promoting social distancing during the COVID-19 pandemic in the US"; Pew Research Center, 2020 "The state of Americans' trust in each other amid the COVID-19 pandemic".

What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	**1. Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • Do people **trust key public institutions** involved in the immediate response to the crisis (e.g. executive, parliament, health institutions, police) to be able to implement an effective response? (*Sub-dimension: Institutional trust*) • Are there significant **'trust deficits' among certain population groups** and which public institution are best places to reach out to these groups? (*Sub-dimension: Institutional trust*) • Do people **trust that others will act responsibly** and with the greater good in mind, as COVID-19 containment measures are being rolled-out? (*Sub-dimension: Interpersonal trust*) **2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • How does the level of **trust in key public institutions** involved in the recovery (e.g. executive, parliament, health institutions, police) evolve over time? (*Sub-dimension: Institutional trust*) • How do levels of **interpersonal trust** evolve during the recovery? (*Sub-dimension: Interpersonal trust*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	Official trust measures are typically elicited via household surveys. The OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust, on which the Praia Handbook chapter on Trust is based, recommend that NSOs should use a core set of five standardized questions on trust, for which evidence on validity and relevance is the strongest (see p. 179 in the Handbook for the full text of these five questions). This core module takes only about 90 seconds to complete. The first two questions are about trust in others, distinguishing between "people" in general and "people you know personally". The second set of three questions pertain to trust in public institutions, distinguishing between the national parliament (as key political institution), the police and the civil service. This core set of questions should be implemented as is and in its entirety, and can be used to benchmark against pre-COVID-19 periods and trust levels of other countries. The OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust also provide examples of supplementary questions that could be adapted to the specific context of COVID-19 by survey designers. These questions should be viewed as more experimental than the core module, whose questions have been tested in terms of validity and statistical quality: 1. Evaluative questions on a broader range of public institutions: In the context of COVID-19, these could include: national health institutions, medical services (doctors, hospitals), the media, political parties and the current government, for instance; 2. Questions on expectations as to what could happen in a given situation, focusing directly on the conduct expected of a third party: In the context of COVID-19, a question could be asked about people's expectations about their government's capacity to respond efficiently to a second wave of the pandemic if it occurs, for instance; 3. Experience-based questions asking respondents about situations they may have experienced and that are typically associated with a trusting behavior: In the context of COVID-19, a question could be asked about how often respondents leave their door unlocked. The following are best practices to mitigate risks of biases and measurement errors when collecting trust data: • It is recommended to use a numerical 0-10 scale with verbal scale anchors, based on empirical evidence that this allows for greater variance in responses, increases overall data quality and facilitates translatability across languages. • Verbal descriptions of the scale anchors in the 0-10 scale should represent absolute responses (e.g. completely/not at all) to minimize acquiescence bias and socially desirable responding and to allow for the full spectrum of possible responses. • Whenever a list of institutions is used, the order of these institutions should be randomized across respondents to minimize order effects. • Since order effects are more common when two or more questions deal with the same or closely related issues, individual trust items should be buffered by intervening text.

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	• Trust questions should not be asked immediately after items that are likely to elicit strong emotional responses (e.g. references to COVID-19) or that refer to experiences with other people or institutions. • Typically, data collection should be spread throughout the year or at least over multiple weeks to minimize the impact of holidays, seasons and elections. In times of crisis, when developments can change on a short-term basis, high-frequency surveying is needed to capture trust precisely and link it to implemented policies. For more detailed measurement guidance, see the OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust.
Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	Several unofficial data producers and academics have launched surveys during the COVID-19 pandemic to "feel the pulse" of citizens – including on levels of institutional and interpersonal trust – at a time when official data are quickly outdated. Examples include the 2020 Edelman Trust Barometer Spring Update: Trust and the COVID-19 Pandemic (data available for Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Japan, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, South Korea, U.K. and U.S), the Eurofound e-surveys on "Living, Working and COVID-19" (data available for the EU and the UK), surveys on COVID-19 by the Pew Research Center and the private polling company Kantar, or the international COVID-19 survey on citizen behaviours and attitudes launched by an academic consortium of 12 universities.
Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on trust	Stats Canada recently started crowdsourcing to collect data on people's trust in others and in government, for use by "government organizations such as the Public Health Agency of Canada and Employment and Social Development Canada to evaluate the delivery of health and social services and economic support, and to ensure best practices are adopted when reopening workplaces and public spaces." In contexts where NSOs are unable to launch short-term data collection initiatives on trust during COVID-19, collaboration with unofficial data producers can be particularly helpful, provided NSOs work closely with such outfits to ensure high data quality. For instance, most unofficial survey initiatives launched during COVID-19 use different question wordings on trust. NSO guidance on the formulation of trust questions used in previous official surveys, or on the wording recommended in the Praia Handbook, could ensure benchmarking with official time series on trust available at country level, and/or with international comparable data on trust.
Some **recommended indicators**	Indicators highlighted in **bold** refer to "regular" trust questions as recommended in the Praia Handbook on Governance Statistics (see p. 179 for the full text of the 5 questions in the "core module" on trust) and the OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust. These are suggested to be collected at a minimum. Additional optional questions listed here can be used to gain more specific insights on COVID-19. • Mean value or proportion of the population above/below a specified threshold of **interpersonal trust** (using a 0-10 scale, with 0 as "not at all" and 10 as "completely"): — **trust in others ("most people")** — **trust in others ("most people known personally")** — trust that most people adhere to rules that slow the spread of COVID-19 (e.g. mask wearing, practicing social distancing) • Mean value or proportion of the population above/below a specified threshold of **institutional trust** (using a 0-10 scale, with 0 as "not at all" and 10 as "completely"): — **trust in parliament** — **trust in the police** — **trust in the civil service** — trust in national health institutions — trust in medical services (doctors, hospitals) — trust in the media — trust in political parties

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	— trust in the current government — trust in the private sector/ businesses — trust in employers • Mean value or proportion of the population above/below a specified threshold of **institutional trust**, based on expectations that (using a 0-10 scale, with 0 as "very unlikely" and 10 as "very likely"): — If a second wave occurs, the government response will be timely and efficient— T h e government's recovery strategy will effectively reduce unemployment as a result of COVID-19 — The government's communication around COVID-19 is factually truthful • Mean value or proportion of the population above/below a specified threshold of **interpersonal trust**, based on experience: — How often do you leave your door unlocked? (1. Never; 2. Infrequently; 3. Sometimes; 4. Often; 5. Very often)

4.8 SAFETY AND SECURITY

- **Why** produce statistics on safety and security in time of COVID-19?
- **Key sub-dimensions** of interest in time of COVID-19
- What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?
- What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?
- Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?
- Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/or quality assure data on non-discrimination and equality
- Some **recommended indicators**

Why produce statistics on safety and security in time of COVID-19?	The pandemic and related lockdown measures can quickly escalate into heightened levels of insecurity, new forms of crime, and civil or communal unrest. In the past, economic crises have been associated with surges in crime rates, especially violent property crimes such as robberies.[29] While several cities saw a fall in crime figures during the first months of the pandemic, analysis shows that this may have been due to mobility restrictions preventing people from reporting crimes to the police. Statistical modelling by the UNODC suggests a time lag of approximately four and a half months between changes in economic conditions and a resultant impact on crime levels.[30] The production of timely statistics on crime during a crisis can help track the changing nature of crime and put in place appropriate preventive measures.
	Emergency situations which require stringent confinement measures increase the incidence of specific forms of crime. For instance, the risk for gender-based violence against women and girls, with intimate partner violence as its most common form, may be exacerbated by lockdown policies confining people at home.[31] Evidence also shows that during COVID-19, sexual harassment and other forms of violence against women continue to occur in public spaces, including on streets, in parks, on transport, and online. Additionally, home-based working and schooling has led to a significant increase in the use of online communication by public authorities, businesses and individuals alike, thus increasing the potential cybercrime victim-pool.[32] Meanwhile, organized criminal groups have taken advantage of the state of emergency imposed in several countries to expand their activities and adopt a more prominent role in the governance of certain areas, where they act as protectors of communities and enforce confinement measures.[33]
	Without timely analysis of trends in these specific types of crime, and analysis of how these criminal activities are impacted by various COVID-19 measures, it is difficult for authorities to implement effective prevention strategies and multi-sectoral responses to protect and support victims and survivors. In contexts where the police and other law enforcement agencies may have been diverted away from the criminal justice system towards more immediate public health measures, systematic monitoring of patterns of crime and public perceptions of safety is particularly important to know where additional capacity might be needed.

29 UNODC (2011), "Monitoring the impact of economic crisis on crime"

30 Ibid, p. 36.

31 UNODC (2020), "Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) response – UNODC Thematic Brief on gender-based violence against women and girls"; UN Women (2020) COVID-19 and Ending Violence against Women and Girls; UN Women (2020) COVID-19 and violence against women and girls: addressing the shadow pandemic

32 UNODC (2020), "CYBERCRIME AND COVID19: Risks and Responses"

33 UNODC (20202), "The impact of COVID-19 on organized crime"

Why produce statistics on safety and security in time of COVID-19?, cont.	The threat posed by COVID-19 is higher in situations of armed conflict where fighting has ravaged health systems, displaced people, and forced them to live in overcrowded conditions with limited or no access to essential services. This concern has led the UN Secretary General to call for a global ceasefire to create conditions for a more robust response to the pandemic and the delivery of humanitarian aid to the most vulnerable people.[34] While it is too early to assess the full impact of the pandemic on conflict-related deaths, the UN has documented an increase in civilian casualties in the situations of armed conflicts in Libya, Mali and South Sudan.[35] In Afghanistan, the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) documented the harm to healthcare workers, damage to healthcare facilities and other ways in which parties to the conflict have interfered with necessary healthcare, both as a result of targeted attacks as well as from ongoing fighting during the COVID-19 pandemic.[36] In conflict settings, statistics are needed to monitor how international human rights, humanitarian, and refugee laws are being respected to protect civilians, including health and humanitarian workers, during the pandemic.
Key sub-dimensions of interest in time of COVID-19	1. **Levels and patterns of crime and violence and perceptions of safety:** Includes actual levels of specific types of crime as estimated by victimization or other population surveys, or as reported to or detected by the criminal justice system or other authorities, and individual perceptions of safety. 2. **Quality of law enforcement and justice and security institutions:** Capacity, efficiency and effectiveness of the security sector, as well as level of public trust in justice institutions. 3. **Casualties directly linked to conflict:** Direct deaths are deaths where there are reasonable grounds to believe that they resulted directly from war operations.
What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?	1. **Illustrative immediate data needs (to inform the immediate response):** • Do people **feel safe and protected from violence and crime**? (*Sub-dimension: Perceptions of safety*) • Do people **trust the police** to keep the area where they live safe during lockdown measures? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of law enforcement and justice and security institutions*) • Have **existing forms of crime and violence**, such as gender-based violence, intensified in frequency and severity during the implementation of lockdown measures? (*Sub-dimension: Levels and patterns of crime*) • What **new forms of crime against persons and against property** have emerged during the implementation of lockdown measures? (*Sub-dimension: Levels and patterns of crime*) • To what extent have **businesses** been affected by **cybercrime** during the crisis? (*Sub-dimension: Levels and patterns of crime*) • Do women and girls at risk of gender-based and domestic violence **know how to report abuse and access support** and/or safe spaces? (*Sub-dimension: Perceptions of safety*) • Have **support services for survivors of gender-based violence** adapted to the context of the pandemic to ensure continuity and adequate response? (*Sub-dimension: Quality of law enforcement and justice and security institutions*) • Is the **UN call for a global ceasefire** to create conditions for a more robust response to the pandemic upheld by warring parties, or is the pandemic creating incentives for actors to press their advantage, or to strike hard while attention is focused elsewhere? (*Sub-dimension: Casualties directly linked to conflicts*)

34 UN (March 2020), Secretary-General's Appeal for Global Ceasefire; UN Security Council Resolution 2532 (2020)

35 For more information on the impact of COVID-19 on the protection of civilians in armed conflict, see Secretary-General's report on the protection of civilians in armed conflict (S/2020/366); for more information on civilian casualties data for Libya, see the UN Support Mission in Libya (UNSMIL) Civilian Casualties Report, 1 January- 31 March 2020 and the Secretary-General's remarks to the Security Council open debate on the Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict; for Mali, see OHCHR, '589 killed in central Mali so far in 2020 as security worsens – Bachelet', and for South Sudan see HRD UNMISS, 'Quarterly Brief on Violence Affecting Civilians'

36 UNAMA, June 2020, 'Afghanistan, Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict Special Report: Attacks on Healthcare during the COVID-19 pandemic'

What are some likely **data needs** of national actors (incl. government, oversight institutions, civil society)?, cont.	**2. Illustrative medium-term data needs (to inform the recovery):** • How do **feelings of safety evolve over time** for various population groups, and in respect to different spaces (e.g. at home during the lockdown vs. in the streets and in public transportation when confinement measures are lifted)? (*Sub-dimension: Perceptions of safety*) • Have **conflict-related patterns of civilian harm** changed as a result of COVID-19? (*Sub-dimension: Casualties directly linked to conflicts*)
What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?	**1. Service-use data (i.e. data on reports made to telephone helplines, shelters or other services to victims of crime) may be the most useful, up-to-date source of information on crime** Generally speaking, most crimes go largely undetected as most incidents are not reported to the police or other responsible authorities. This is even more the case when confinement measures are imposed, making it difficult for victims to physically report crime to a police station. In such a context, some of the most useful information on crime can be extracted from (anonymized) administrative records associated with emergency helplines established to facilitate reporting on various forms of crime. Statistics on phone-based reports can be analysed in real-time and can help detect increases in types of crime that are more easily perpetrated during periods of domestic confinement, such as domestic violence[37] or online child sexual abuse.[38] These data, however, need to be interpreted with caution. For instance, a decrease in calls to helplines for victims of domestic violence may not imply a decrease in the number of violence incidents, but rather an increase in women's difficulties in accessing telephones while being confined in the same space with the perpetrator. It may also be due to lower availability and functioning of helplines during the pandemic. It is therefore important to triangulate phone reports with service-use data from other support services for women survivors of violence which can provide information about changes in types or severity of violence, and survivors' difficulties in seeking help.[39] Service-use data however does not provide information on the magnitude of the problem, but only on the number of users seeking help from that service. Representative data on the prevalence of gender-based violence during COVID-19 can only be collected through surveys using a random sample of women.[40] Statistics on emergency call records can be complemented by surveys of police officers on activities performed during the period of confinement, to help identify gaps between levels and types of crime and available law enforcement capacity to address these crimes. This is particularly important in a context where law enforcement personnel is being diverted from regular duties, such as in relation to incidents of gender-based and domestic violence, to support extraordinary measures related to COVID-19. **2. Victimization and other population surveys can provide a valuable complement to administrative data, especially in settings with little or no administrative data** Victimization and other population surveys can provide much more granular information (i.e. disaggregated for various population groups) on the prevalence of various types of victimization affecting people during this crisis, on people's perceptions of their safety and security in various situations, and on their trust in, and perceptions of performance of, law enforcement personnel. Victimization surveys can also be conducted with the private sector to assess business experiences with crime and safety during the crisis (disaggregated by economic sectors), as well as their perceptions and attitudes as regards the risk of being victimised by organized crime, fraud,

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37 Centre of Excellence for Statistical Information on Government, Crime, Victimization and Justice (2020), "Monitoring violence against women during the COVID-19 confinement"; UN Women and WHO (2020) Violence against women and girls. Data collection during COVID-19

38 UNODC (2020), "CYBERCRIME AND COVID19: Risks and Responses"

39 UN Women and WHO (2020) Violence against women and girls. Data collection during COVID-19

40 UNWomen, UNFPA, WHO, NoVAWdata (2020), Data Collection on Violence Against Women and COVID-19: Decision Tree

What **measurement guidance** is particularly relevant to measuring these issues?, cont.	counterfeiting, requests for protection money, intimidation, extortion and cybercrime, among others. The following considerations should be kept in mind when conducting surveys on victimization during periods of confinement (see UNODC's Manual on Victimization Surveys for more detailed guidance): • The period of confinement may be used as the reference period when asking respondents if they were victim of a criminal event. • Questions regarding perceptions of safety must be adapted to the context of confinement. Instead of asking the standard question about how safe respondents feel when walking alone around the area where they live (SDG indicator 16.1.4), which is uncommon during periods of confinement, a more appropriate question may be to ask respondents how safe they feel when they are at home (disaggregation by sex and age can reveal particular insecurities faced by women and the elderly population.) When the confinement is lifted, changes in perceptions of insecurity in various public spaces (e.g. on the streets, in public transportation) become more important to monitor. • It is advised not to include questions about women respondents' experiences of domestic violence during the lockdown, particularly when using remote data collection methods (SMS/phone calls/web platform) because they can put women at further risk.[41] Electronic communications can leave a trail and guaranteeing confidentiality is nearly impossible. If a perpetrator learns that a woman is sharing her experience, it increases her risk of further abuse. Broader questions about the respondents' feelings of safety when at home are less risky for women respondents who are in abusive relationships.[42] • Questions on reasons for not reporting crime to law enforcement authorities during the confinement are important to help assess the extent to which a decline in cases reported can be attributed to these reasons (vs. an actual overall decline in crime). • Detailed guidance on how to design business victimization surveys can be found in the UNODC's Manual on Victimization Surveys (p.198, Appendix B). In addition to measuring the types and extent of crimes committed against businesses, such surveys are also useful to obtain their perceptions on the crime situation overall and on the likelihood of specific crimes occurring against their company. • Individuals at home are particularly targeted for online fraud, extortion and online child sexual abuse. The survey module on cybercrime as experienced by household being discussed by the Working Group on the Latin America and the *Caribbean Crime Victimization Survey Initiative (LACSI)* and tested as part of the National Crime Victimization Survey of Saint Lucia (2019) may serve as a useful starting point. 3. **To measure casualties linked to conflict, data on documented deaths and injuries related to armed conflict can be found in UN human rights entities and National Human Rights Institutions** The mechanisms, bodies, and institutions that have the mandate, capacity and independence to document and investigate incidents related to conflict (e.g. UN peacekeeping operations, commissions of inquiry, humanitarian operations, UN human rights offices and National Human Rights Institutions) all produce casualty records. NSOs are also relevant actors in this area, given their work in strengthening the administrative records of government entities, including those working on vital, crime, health, justice, and security statistics. During the pandemic, implementation of the International Classification of Diseases-11 is even more crucial to distinguish among different causes of death.

41 UN Women and WHO (2020) Violence against women and girls. Data collection during COVID-19
42 UNWomen, UNFPA, WHO, NoVAWdata (2020), Data Collection on Violence Against Women and COVID-19: Decision Tree

Are there **existing data sources** that could be considered by NSOs if options to collect new data remain constrained?	To measure conflict-related deaths, UN human rights entities operating in situations of armed conflict, given their mandate, proximity to hostilities, extensive local networks, and cooperation with various actors, are well placed to provide data on individually documented civilian direct deaths resulting from the conflict. The methodology used ensures that the data generated is verified, comprehensive, and disaggregated according to multiple factors.[43] This methodology has been endorsed as part of SDG indicator 16.1.2 on conflict-related deaths. Readily available and frequently updated global datasets on conflict-related datasets include the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) and the Armed Conflict Location & Event Dataset (ACLED) (the latter is updated on a weekly basis.)
Example(s) of how NSOs can engage with **unofficial data producers** (private sector, civil society, academic institutes, etc.) to generate and/ or quality assure data on safety and security	Some NSOs commission crime victimization surveys to private research organizations. For instance, Kantar, one of Britain's largest independent research organisations, has been conducting the Crime Survey for England and Wales on behalf of the Home Office and Office for National Statistics since 2001. This year, for the first time in 40 years, Kantar is conducting a shorter version of the survey by telephone, instead of conducting interviews in-home, given the social distancing measures imposed by the government.

NSOs can also partner with civil society to crowdsource information on victimization. A wide spectrum of well-tested crowdsourcing tools – such as U-Report, HarassMap or Ushahidi – are used by civil society to generate community-data (disaggregated by sex, age, location, etc.) and community-level mapping on violence and crime victimization. This information can usefully complement official data on crime to enable more targeted responses.

Insightful qualitative information can also be obtained from civil society organizations on the frontline of the response to various forms of violence perpetrated during the lockdown. For example, the UN Trust Fund to End Violence Against Women (UNTF EVAW) conducted a rapid assessment of the global impact of the outbreak on the civil society organizations and women's rights organizations that it funds. The methodology used included 10 open-ended questions on the impact of COVID-19 on violence against women and girls and on the work of CSOs on the frontline, among other issues, and was supplemented by further examples provided by grantees during virtual meetings. The findings of this qualitative assessment represent a valuable source of practitioner-led evidence. |
| Some **recommended indicators** | *Data sources: AR: Administrative records; HS: Household surveys; BS: Business surveys; PS: Police surveys*

Perceptions of safety
- Proportion of population that feel safe when at home (*during confinement*) and when walking alone around the area where they live (*when confinement measures are lifted*) (SDG indicator 16.1.4) (HS)
- Proportion of population that feel safe a) at their job; b) on the streets they usually use; c) at the market; d) at the shopping mall; e) at the ATM; f) in public transport; g) on the road; h) in the park (HS)
- Proportion of women and girls able to identify reporting channels in case they are victim of domestic or gender-based violence (HS)
- Proportion of population trusting the police to keep the area where they live safe during lockdown measures (HS)

Levels and patterns of crime and violence
- Proportion of population subjected to (a) physical violence and (b) psychological violence in the previous [*x months – respondents can be asked to focus only on the period of confinement*] (SDG indicators 16.1.3 and 11.7.2) (HS) |

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43 OHCHR (2019), OHCHR Guidance on Casualty Recording

Some **recommended indicators**, cont.	• Proportion of population who were a victim of various types of crime in the previous [x months] – including: domestic burglary/robbery/theft, consumer fraud, assault and injury, threats, extortion, cybercrime, etc., disaggregated by perpetrator (HS) • Proportion of businesses who were a victim of various types of crime in the previous [x months] – including: business property theft, fraud, threats, extortion, cybercrime, etc., disaggregated by perpetrator (BS) • Percentage change in reports of violence against women and girls filed through phone calls to emergency helplines, disaggregated by type of violence (*comparing the average during the confinement period with the average for the same period in previous years; and/or comparing the average prior to and after an awareness campaign informing the public about dedicated hotlines for women and girls victim of violence*) (AR) **Quality of law enforcement and justice and security institutions** • Proportion of victims of violence in the previous [*x months*] who reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms (SDG indicator 16.3.1) (HS) • Main reasons for not reporting a crime to authorities (e.g. fear of retaliation, sense that it will have no consequence, low trust in law enforcement personnel, lack of time, obstacles related to lockdown measures in place, etc.) (HS) • Proportion of police officers who say they performed different duties than their usual functions in the past [x months] (PS) **Casualties directly linked to conflict** • Number of conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause (SDG indicator 16.1.2) (AR)