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PREFACE

The goal of the CIRIGHTS data project is to create numerical measures for every internationally recognized human right for all countries of the world. Human rights scores are necessary for understanding why national governments choose to violate human rights, why they choose to violate some rights more than others, and the consequences of human rights violations for other phenomena, such as conflict and development. Numerical scores also are necessary for monitoring government performance, for evaluating the human rights consequences of policy interventions such as transitional justice programs, and for determining whether government protection of various rights is improving or declining.

The CIRIGHTS project aims to make our data broadly accessible, transparent, and easy to understand. We believe that human rights data can play an important role in educating the public about what obligations states have to their citizens. Unless people demand human rights, governments are unlikely to provide them. As such, it is imperative that people understand what human rights are (and what they are not), what different rights entail, and whether their government is meeting international human rights standards. We see this project as a necessary step towards creating greater human rights awareness, a useful tool for human rights education, a set of measures that can be used for testing human rights theories, and a way to evaluate whether human rights are improving or declining.

This report is aimed at introducing several of the human rights scored by the CIRIGHTS project and the human rights indicators that are available to the public. We describe each right, and provide some examples of violations, as well as data visualization of whether specific rights are protected or not by every country of the world. We hope that teachers, journalists, policy makers, NGOs, and activists will use this data to help improve human rights around the globe.
CIRIGHTS TEAM & Acknowledgements

The CIRIGHTS project is directed by Dr. Skip Mark, Dr. David L. Cingranelli, and Dr. Mikhail Filippov.

This project builds on past work in the CIRI data project and the WorkR project by Dr. David L. Cingranelli, Dr. David Richards, Dr. K. Chad Clay, and Dr. Colin Barry.

This report and the final push to ensure the dataset was ready for release could not have been accomplished without a massive amount of work by Ekaterina Sylvester, who is largely responsible for this launch.

We would also like to thank the team of URI students and faculty who worked on this report: Mary Lind, Yulia Avvakumova, Lina Al Taan Al Hairiri, Jack Cox, Max Ludwig, and Meg Frost.

We would also like to offer a special thanks to Shannon Chandley and Tom Silvia for their generous gift, which allowed this project to launch on time. Without their support, this project would have taken years to finish.

For questions about the CIRIGHTS project, please email Dr. Skip Mark at skipmark@uri.edu.
FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

How do I read the maps?

The maps show the level of respect for various human rights. For all rights, higher values indicate greater respect. The legend shows what colors correspond to “No respect” and “Full respect.” The histogram below the legend shows how the values for this right are distributed around the globe; absent this, discerning distributions can be hard to see, given that some countries are smaller than others.

What are the years covered by the maps?

The maps look at the average respect for a right between the years 2000 through 2019 or 2020. While we have data for a longer period of time, the focus on the 21st Century allows us to see what recent trends in human rights look like. There are three exceptions: Women's social rights covers 2017-2020; Human Rights NGOs only covers 2019; and Brutality-Based Atrocities covers 1981-2020.

How are the data created?

We train undergraduate and graduate students in content analysis—a methodology in social science to convert text into numerical data. They use a scoring guideline (available online) that has rules for what counts as a violation and where to find the texts used to score a country. Two students score each country separately, taking notes that can be reviewed later, and then compare scores. If the scores match, that score is added to the dataset. Where the scores differ, they discuss the case to settle on a single score. However, if they cannot decide, one of the principal investigators steps in to decide on a final score by looking at the case, the notes taken by coders, and the source material. Having multiple people scoring each country helps reduce errors. All of the rights in the dataset have a high degree of inter-coder reliability, meaning there are few disagreements that need to be resolved.

What sources are used to create the data?

One of the reports the CIRIGHTS project uses to quantify nearly all rights currently in the dataset is the annual US Department of State's Country Reports on Human Rights Practices. Depending on the right, researchers may also use the Amnesty International Annual Report, the USSD International Religious Freedom Report, the US Department of State's Trafficking in Persons Report, or the US State Department Country Reports on Human Rights Practices and the Indigenous World Report. We opt to limit the sources of textual information about each variable, rather than adding additional sources with different country coverage and additional bias we may not be able to account for.

Where do the examples in the report come from?

The examples in the report are taken from the annual US Department of State's Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for the country and year indicated in the example. While additional sources used for coding might have added more detail, we want readers to be able to go back and find these examples so they can replicate our scores if they are interested in doing so.

For more information, see the CIRIGHTS Scoring Manual at CIRIGHTS.com.
SECTION 1:
PHYSICAL INTEGRITY RIGHTS
DISAPPEARANCES

Disappearances are cases in which people have disappeared, governments are responsible, and political motivation is present. Disappearances occur because of a victim’s political involvement or knowledge of information that should be classified to the government. Often, victims are referred to by governments as “terrorists,” and labeled a threat to national security. Knowledge of the whereabouts of the disappeared is, by definition, not public knowledge. However, while there is typically no way of knowing where victims are, it is typically known by whom they were taken and under what circumstances.

- Victims are taken under unfair conditions, such as having been taken away for questioning due to suspicion of some political action that opposes the government.
- There are some cases of persons that are held under the circumstance of “clandestine detention.”
- These are prisoners that are known to be in custody but their whereabouts are not known.
- Since the whereabouts of clandestine detainees are not known, they should be counted among the disappeared.

Grounding In International Law:
This right is found in International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Articles 9, 10, 14, 16, and 17.

EXCEPTIONS

Typical kidnappings for ransom and any other kidnapping with no intent or political reason.
EXAMPLES

Belarus, 2014 – 2.
There were no developments in the reportedly continuing investigations into the 2000 disappearance of journalist Zmitser Zavadski and the 1999 disappearances of former deputy prime minister Viktar Hanchar, businessman Anatol Krasouski, and former interior minister Yuri Zakharanka. There was evidence of government involvement in the disappearances, but authorities continued to deny any connection with them.

There were reports alleging that members of the armed forces have been involved in unlawful disappearances. In July 2016 the Constitutional Chamber of the Supreme Court and the criminal court in the municipality of Armenia, in the department of Sonsonate, ruled there was sufficient evidence to proceed with the case in which three men went missing after six soldiers arrested them in 2014 in Armenia.
https://www.state.gov/report/custom/987a262a84-4/

Iraq, 2018 – 0.
There were many reports of enforced disappearances by/behalf of government forces, including ISF, Federal Police, PMF, Peshmerga, and Asayish, as well as by non-government forces and criminal groups. ISIS, however, was responsible for most attributable disappearances. The International Commission on Missing Persons estimated 250,000 to a million persons remained missing from decades of conflict and human rights abuses.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/iraq/
EXTRAJUDICIAL KILLINGS

Extrajudicial killings are killings by government officials without due process of law. They include murders by private groups if instigated by the government. These killings may result from the deliberate, illegal, and excessive use of lethal force by the police, security forces, or other agents of the state against criminal suspects, detainees, prisoners, or others.

Extrajudicial killings include: deaths resulting from torture, military hazing, and killings explicitly referred to as “political” in US State Department reports. Killings that take place outside of immediate defense or due process of law, even if the victims are labeled as terrorists or insurgents, still count as extrajudicial killings. While they may be the result of different motives, both extrajudicial killings and political killings are to be treated identically for the purposes of coding.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 6.

EXCEPTIONS

Combat deaths and deaths as a result of legally sanctioned capital punishment (e.g., the death penalty).
EXAMPLES

Luxembourg, 2020 – 2.
There were no reports that the government or its agents committed arbitrary or unlawful killings. The Police General Inspection in collaboration with the judiciary investigates law enforcement killings and pursues prosecution if necessary. On July 31, the Luxembourg City District Court sentenced a police officer convicted of premeditated murder to a life sentence and fined the officer for damages, payable to the relatives of one of his victims. The police officer was convicted of poisoning his sister and brother-in-law in 2016. The defendant appealed the sentence.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/luxembourg/

Nigeria, 2020 – 1.
There were reports that the government or its agents committed arbitrary, unlawful, or extrajudicial killings. At times authorities sought to investigate, and when found culpable, held police, military, or other security force personnel accountable for the use of excessive or deadly force or for the deaths of persons in custody. However, impunity in such cases remained a significant problem. State and federal panels of inquiry investigating suspicious deaths did not always make their findings public.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/nigeria/

Bangladesh, 2020 – 0.
The constitution provides for the rights to life and personal liberty. There were numerous reports, however, that the government or its agents committed arbitrary or unlawful killings. Law enforcement raids occurred throughout the year, primarily to counter activity related to terrorism, drugs, and illegal firearms. Suspicious deaths occurred during some raids and other law enforcement operations. The government usually described these deaths as “crossfire killings,” “gunfights,” or “encounter killings.” Human rights organizations and media outlets claimed many of these crossfire incidents actually constituted extrajudicial killings. Domestic human rights organization Ain o Salish Kendra (ASK) reported 196 incidents of alleged extrajudicial killings between January and July 28. Human rights organizations and civil society expressed concern over the alleged extrajudicial killings and arrests, claiming many of the victims were innocent.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/bangladesh/
POLITICAL IMPRISONMENT

Political Imprisonment refers to the arrest and incarceration of individuals by government agents because of their:
- Speech
- Acts of nonviolent resistance to government officials or policy
- Religion and nonviolent religious practices
- Membership in a racial or ethnic group.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Articles 18, 19, 21, and 22.

EXAMPLES

Jamaica, 2020 – 2.
There were no reports of political prisoners or detainees.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/jamaica__trashed/

Moldova, 2017 – 1.
In 2017 the Riscani court found Grigore Petrenco, leader of the opposition Our Home Moldova Party, and five other activists guilty of organizing and leading mass disorder accompanied by violence. The court fined the defendants and issued them suspended prison sentences ranging from three to four-and-a-half years. The defendants declared the ruling as illegal and politically motivated because the court had qualified participation in peaceful anti-government protests in 2015 as mass disorder.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/moldova/
EXAMPLES

Egypt, 2016 – 0.
There were reports of political prisoners and detainees, although verifiable estimates were not available. The government claimed there were no political prisoners and all persons in detention had been or were in the process of being charged with a crime. However, human rights groups and international observers maintained that the government detained or imprisoned as many as several thousand persons solely or chiefly because of their political beliefs or opposition to the government.
TORTURE

Torture refers to the purposeful inflicting of extreme pain, whether mental or physical, by government officials or by private individuals at the instigation of government officials. This includes the use of physical and other force by police and prison guards – including rape and beatings – and deaths in custody due to tangible negligence by government officials. Torture can be anything from simple beatings to other practices such as waterboarding, rape, or administering shock or electrocution as a means of getting information, or a forced confession. Torture also takes into account intentional mental abuse of those in custody. Military hazing also counts as torture.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 7.

EXEMPTIONS

The death penalty does not qualify as torture. Under Article 1 of the Convention Against Torture, practices such as flogging, where mandated by courts as a form of legal punishment, do not qualify as torture. Finally, for purposes of coding this variable, torture does not include general prison conditions, regardless of whether these conditions meet minimum international standards. Treatment in detention may count as torture, however.

EXAMPLES

The constitution prohibits such practices, and there were no reports that government officials employed them. https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/micronesia/

Estonia, 2018 – 1.
The law prohibits such practices, but there were reports that police used excessive physical force and verbal abuse during the arrest and questioning of some suspects. The number of cases brought against police officers for excessive use of force declined from previous years. https://www.state.gov/report/custom/d5d5493bad/
EXAMPLES

Peru, 2018 – 0.
The law prohibits such practices. Local nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), however, and the Human Rights Ombudsman’s Office reported that torture by police occurred and stated the government did not effectively prevent and punish those who committed such abuses. In a June report, the Human Rights Ombudsman’s Office identified 174 cases of police-related torture and abuse between March 2017 and April 2018.
https://www.state.gov/report/custom/f21e07e904/
BRUTALITY-BASED MASS ATROCITY

The widespread, direct, extrajudicial killing of non-combatant members of society by the state or by non-state organizations working in concert with the state resulting in fifty or more deaths in an annual period, accompanied by the widespread use of at least one other type of state brutality. The other types of state brutality that, when combined with killing, constitute the minimal definition of an atrocity are the widespread use of disappearances, political imprisonments, or acts of torture. The more types of widespread state brutality in addition to killing, the more intense the atrocity.

The dichotomous indicator ‘batrocity’ is coded as a ONE if a country scores a ZERO on Extrajudicial Killings AND a score of ZERO on at least one of the following additional physical integrity rights: disappearances, torture, political imprisonment.
SECTION 2:
EMPOWERMENT RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS
RIGHT TO FREEDOM OF ASSEMBLY AND ASSOCIATION

The right to freedom of assembly and association is the internationally recognized right of citizens to assemble freely and to associate with other persons in political parties, trade unions, cultural organizations, or other groups. This variable evaluates the extent to which the freedoms of assembly and association are subject to actual governmental limitations or restrictions. Despite the international recognition of the right to assembly and association, in some states, citizens are prohibited by the government from joining, forming, and participating in political parties of their choice. Citizens in many states are prohibited from protesting or publicly criticizing government decisions and actions. In more than a few states, organizations critical of a government or those that are perceived to have political agendas are not allowed to hold demonstrations, and their activities are severely curtailed and closely monitored by the state.

Grounding In International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 22.

EXCEPTIONS
There are many other types of self-restriction, several of which one may encounter in the United States State Department reports. These include, but are not limited to, self-restriction in exchange for bribes by public officials and self-restriction as a means to guarantee continued employment (where a self-restricting individual's superiors are not under government orders to engage in this practice). Such cases DO NOT count against the government, as they are self-invoked for reasons not related to government activity. It is possible that a citizen or group of citizens restricts their own activities a priori because of fear of government reprisal for these public activities. Any such reported cases of self-restriction DO count towards government restrictions on freedom of assembly and association.
EXAMPLES

Netherlands, 2020 – 2.
The laws in the kingdom provide for the freedoms of peaceful assembly and association, and the government generally respected these rights.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/netherlands/

Poland, 2020 – 1.
The constitution provides for the freedoms of peaceful assembly and association, and the government generally respected these rights. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, on March 13, the government limited public assemblies to a maximum of 50 persons. On May 16, police detained more than 380 persons following a protest by entrepreneurs in Warsaw against government policy towards businesses during the pandemic. Police used tear gas to disperse the protest. The government punished 220 persons for violating social distancing restrictions, and five were charged with more serious crimes, including assaulting police officers. Law and Justice Party Chairman and Deputy Prime Minister Jaroslaw Kaczynski released a video statement claiming protesters were committing a “serious crime” by protesting during a period of heightened COVID-19 infections in the country and authorities had an “obligation to oppose such events.”
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/poland/

Vietnam, 2020 – 0.
The government restricted the freedoms of peaceful assembly and association. Laws and regulations require persons wishing to gather in a group to apply for a permit, which local authorities issue or deny without explanation. The government generally did not permit any demonstrations that could be perceived as political. The law permits security forces to detain individuals gathering or protesting outside of courthouses during trials. There were numerous reports of police dispersing gatherings of environmental activists, land rights advocates, human rights defenders, bloggers and independent journalists, and former political prisoners. Police and plainclothes authorities routinely mistreated, harassed, and assaulted activists and those demonstrating against the government.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/vietnam/
FREEDOM OF FOREIGN MOVEMENT

Freedom of foreign movement is the freedom to leave and return to one’s country. There are countries that do not allow citizens to leave at all. Methods used by governments to restrict freedom of movement include:

• Withholding and/or delaying the issuing of passports
• Creating “exit control” lists to prevent emigration
• Requiring exit visas or special permits to leave the country
• Revocation of citizenship and obstacles to the extension of passport’s validity
• Placing restrictions on the duration of one’s stay abroad.

Citizens can lose their property and other assets if they leave for a very long time; some citizens have to get permission to leave, in cases when they leave, they are not allowed to return, or the government makes return very difficult. Some governments also place restrictions on certain groups of people such as opposition political leaders, ethnic minorities, religious leaders, women, human rights activists or monitors, and journalists.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 12.

EXCEPTIONS
Restrictions on the movement of minors.
Restrictions on the movement of refugees from other countries or other non-citizens.
Restrictions necessary to protect national security and/or public order.
EXAMPLES

Nicaragua, 2019 – 2.
The law provides for freedom of internal movement, foreign travel, emigration, and repatriation, and the government generally respected these rights. The government strictly controlled the entry of persons affiliated with some groups, specifically humanitarian and faith-based organizations. The government may prevent the departure of travelers with pending cases; authorities used this authority against individuals involved in the protest movement. The law requires exit visas for minors.

South Korea, 2020 – 1.
The law provides for freedom of internal movement, foreign travel (except to North Korea), emigration, and repatriation; the government generally respected these rights. Citizens traveling to North Korea must obtain prior authorization from the Ministry of Unification. The travelers must demonstrate their trip has no political purpose. Visiting North Korea without prior government authorization is punishable by up to 10 years’ imprisonment under the National Security Law (NSL).

Turkey, 2020 – 0.
The constitution provides for freedom of internal movement, foreign travel, emigration, and repatriation, but the government limited these rights. The government continued to restrict foreign travel for some citizens accused of links to the Gulen movement or the failed 2016 coup attempt. In June authorities lifted passport restrictions for 28,075 individuals, although it remained unclear how many more remained unable to travel. Curfews imposed by local authorities in response to counter-Kurdistan Workers’ Party operations and the country’s military operation in northern Syria also restricted freedom of movement. Authorities also restricted some foreign citizens with dual Turkish citizenship from leaving the country due to alleged terrorism concerns. The government maintained the travel restrictions were necessary to preserve security. Some persons whom the government barred from travel chose to leave the country illegally. The government issued individual exit permissions for Syrians under temporary protection departing the country for family reunification, health treatment, or permanent resettlement, and required an individual exception for all other reasons.
FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT

Freedom of domestic movement is the freedom to travel within one’s country. There are governments that do not allow citizens to travel within their own country or that restrict the movement of certain groups for reasons based on political views or activities, religious beliefs, ethnicity, marital status, and gender.

Examples include:
• Strictly curtailing the freedom of movement of oppositional political leaders, ethnic minorities, religious leaders, human rights activists or monitors, and journalists.
• Monitoring all or nearly all citizens’ internal movements, and citizens are required to notify local officials of their whereabouts or must get their permission to move.
• Requiring that citizens carry national identity cards, travel or work permits, or internal passports for any movement outside their immediate village, neighborhood, or province, and using issuance of these cards to restrict movement within the country.
• Using forced internal resettlement to relocate large numbers of citizens without their consent.
• Imposing curfew laws and military checkpoints on domestic travel during times of military or civil conflict.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 12.

EXCEPTIONS
Restrictions on the movement of minors.
Restrictions on the movement of refugees or other non-citizens.
Restrictions that are necessary to protect national security and/or public order.
Restrictions that are the result of an unsettled political situation or non-state actors’ actions.
EXAMPLES

The law provides for freedom of internal movement, foreign travel, emigration, and repatriation, although there were some restrictions due to COVID-19 outbreak. There were continued reports of forced refugee relocations to Azraq refugee camp, including many to Azraq’s restricted Village 5, as an alternative to deportation for offenses by Syrian refugees. Such offenses included “irregular status” (expired registration documents or working without a work permit); criminal activities; and potential security risks, which were not clearly defined. Residents of Village 5 had access to basic humanitarian assistance inside the village but had limited access to the broader camp facilities, including the camp hospital, which required a security escort. Civil documents of Palestinian Refugees from Syria (PRS) and other refugees were held by authorities during their stay in the camp, and residents were required to apply for leave in order to go outside the camp, severely limiting their freedom of movement.

Cyprus, 2019 – 1.
The law provides for freedom of internal movement within government-controlled areas, foreign travel, emigration, and repatriation, and the government generally respected these rights. The government did not restrict Greek Cypriots from traveling to the area administered by Turkish Cypriots, but the Ministry of Foreign Affairs warned foreigners against spending the night at Greek Cypriot properties occupied by Turkish Cypriots or Turks, gambling in the area administered by Turkish Cypriots, or buying or developing property there. Authorities at ports of entry denied admission to tourists who listed hotels in the area administered by Turkish Cypriots as their intended place of residence during their visit. Local media reported police officers at the crossing points occasionally harassed Greek Cypriots returning from the area under Turkish Cypriot administration.
FREEDOM OF SPEECH

Freedom of speech is the extent to which freedoms of speech and press are affected by government censorship, including ownership of media outlets. Censorship is any form of restriction that is placed on freedom of the press, speech or expression. There are different degrees of censorship. Censorship denies citizens freedom of speech and limits or prevents the media (print, online, or broadcast) from expressing views challenging the policies of the existing government. In many instances, the government owns and operates all forms of press and media.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 19.

EXAMPLES

The constitution and law provide for freedom of expression and the press. In areas controlled by armed groups, freedom of expression, however, was inhibited due to the risk of retaliation by armed groups. The High Commission for Communication is the regulatory body in charge of controlling the content of information broadcast or published in the media. Opposition political candidates alleged that the state-owned media favored the existing administration during the presidential election campaign. In August police briefly detained a journalist from the Association of Journalists for Human Rights radio station while she was investigating irregularities in the issuing of the national identification card. Also in August Henri Grothe, a blogger who resided in France and regularly criticized CAR authorities on social media, was briefly arrested and his passport confiscated upon his arrival at Bangui M’poko international airport. Grothe was released without any charge. The government monopolized domestic television and national radio stations. The government did not restrict or disrupt access to the internet or censor online content.

Australia, 2020 – 1.
Although the constitution does not explicitly provide for freedom of speech or press, the High Court has held that the constitution implies a limited right to freedom of political expression. In July the federal police asked the federal director of public prosecutions to consider charging an Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC) journalist for publishing classified information in 2017 reports alleging Australian war crimes in Afghanistan. The Australian Federal Police (AFP) raided ABC’s Sydney headquarters in June 2019. The News Corp and ABC raids (relating to separate reports but occurring in the same month) sparked a national discussion on press freedom, led by a coalition of media organizations calling for more legal protections for journalists and whistleblowers. In August, the Parliamentary Joint Committee on Intelligence and Security released a report into “the impact of the exercise of law enforcement and intelligence powers on the freedom of the press.” The committee’s inquiry was initiated by the federal attorney general following public concerns about the two federal police raids. The committee recommended the government make changes to the use of warrants that would establish a “public interest advocate” to contest the issuance of warrants against journalists and media organizations. Media organizations including News Corp and the ABC said the report did not go far enough and continued to seek the ability to contest warrants themselves before raids take place.
EXAMPLES

United Arab Emirates, 2020 – 0.
The constitution provides for freedom of speech and of the press. Nonetheless, the law prohibits criticism of national rulers and speech that may create or encourage social unrest. The Ministry of Interior lists 10 types of social media activities considered illegal under the cybercrime law: defaming or disrespecting others; violating privacy; filming persons or places and posting these videos without permission; spreading fake news and rumors; manipulating personal information; engaging in blackmail and threats; establishing websites or accounts that violate local regulations; inciting immoral acts; posting work-related confidential information; and establishing or managing websites or accounts to coordinate with terrorist groups. Authorities stated they could imprison individuals for misusing the internet. Self-censorship was apparent on social media, and there were reports the Ministry of Interior monitored internet use. There were numerous documented instances of online surveillance used to track dissidents in the country and abroad. Service providers did not have the authority to remove sites from blocked lists without government approval. In April, the Federal Judiciary ordered the arrest and provisional detention of well-known TV personality Tariq al-Mehyas for racist comments implying that Asian laborers were inferior to Arabs. In February, Dubai police reported it received 600 criminal tips through its social media accounts and acted in cases where social media users posted content showing them engaging in illegal activity, such as a case involving three men who shared a video on Snapchat in which they appeared to be smoking marijuana.
ELECTORAL SELF-DETERMINATION

Electoral self-determination gives citizens the right to vote in elections to decide how their government will operate. This can include voting for independence, voting for control of their own government, and voting on legislation their government is trying to pass.

Grounding in International Law:
EXAMPLES

Tuvalu, 2020 – 2.
Tuvalu has legal frameworks protecting the right to electoral self-determination and they hold free and fair elections utilizing secret ballot and universal suffrage procedures. In 2019, Tuvalu elected a parliament with 7 new members. After the election, the parliament swore in a new prime minister. There are no formal political parties in Tuvalu and the parliament tends to divide itself into a majority voting bloc and minority opposition.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/tuvalu/

Samoa, 2020 – 1.
In 2016, the election was marred by accusations of bribery which led to 6 lawsuits being filed in the Samoan Supreme Court. One lawsuit was thrown out for a lack of evidence, and the other 5 were rescinded with varying reasoning, namely bribery, local pressures, and threats of countersuits. Only people with a matai title can run for public office or be appointed to the village council. The 2016 election introduced an amendment requiring candidates to complete 3 years of public service, monotaga, to prevent candidates from making large, last-minute contributions to the village or simply using their matai status to win elected office. Five candidates were disqualified from election for not meeting the monotaga requirements.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/samoa/

Seychelles, 2020 – 1.
In 2020, Seychelles held an election in which 78% of the electorate voted with under 2% of ballots spoiled. There was a peaceful transfer of power to current President Wavel Ramkalawan’s Linyon Demokratik Seselwa (LDS) party from previous President Danny Faure’s United Seychelles party. Independent election observers determined the elections were free, credible, and transparent in spite of some reports of bribery and voter intimidation. This marked the first peaceful transfer of power between parties in Seychellois history.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/seychelles/
FREEDOM OF RELIGION

Freedom of religion is the extent to which citizens are able to exercise and practice their religious beliefs without being subject to governmental restrictions. Citizens of all religious beliefs have a right to be able to worship free from government and/or have a right to be able to hold no religion at all. All citizens also have a right to freely practice their religion and proselytize (attempt to convert) other citizens to their religion as long as such attempts are done in a non-coercive, peaceful manner. Members of the clergy have a right to freely advocate partisan political views, oppose government laws, support political candidates, and otherwise freely participate in politics.

Grounding in International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 18.

EXAMPLES

Benin, 2020 – 2.
The constitution establishes a secular state and provides for freedom of religious thought, expression, and practice. All religious groups must register with the government. Government officials at the department and municipal levels have the authority to issue orders suspending certain types of religious practice to maintain peace, although they rarely used it in practice, according to religious groups. Police only interfered in religious practices when there was a “disruption of public order.” By law, public schools may not provide religious instruction. Religious groups may establish private schools with authorization from the state and may benefit from state subsidies.
EXAMPLES

Norway, 2019 – 1.
The constitution prohibits religious discrimination and protects the right to choose, practice, or change one’s religion. It declares the Church of Norway is the country’s established church, and the government continues to provide it with exclusive benefits, including funds for salaries and benefits of clergy and staff. A hate crime law punishes some expressions of disrespect for religious beliefs. During this year, police received 144 reports of religiously based hate crimes. Police arrested a man for an attempted mass shooting at an Islamic center in an Oslo suburb. Several groups reported anti-Semitic and anti-Islamic sentiment remained prevalent among extremist groups and internet hate speech against Jews and Muslims increased during the year. The law bans clothing that mostly or fully covers the face at educational institutions. The prohibition applies to students and teachers wearing burqas or niqabs in schools and day-care centers.

Finland, 2019 – 0.
The constitution prohibits religious discrimination “without an acceptable reason” and provides for the right to profess and practice a religion and to decline to be a member of a religious community. Parliament repealed the military service exemption which had applied only to Jehovah’s Witnesses. A Finns Party politician publicly compared Muslim asylum seekers to invasive species. Jehovah’s Witnesses said the government continued to refuse most applications from Russian Jehovah’s Witnesses seeking asylum for religious persecution. Police reported 155 hate crimes involving members of religious groups but did not specify how many were motivated solely by religion. The Nordic Resistance Movement continued to post anti-Muslim and anti-Semitic statements online and demonstrated with the anti-immigrant group Soldiers of Odin. There were several demonstrations by neo-Nazi or nativist groups. Muslim groups reported a shortage of funds needed to establish houses of worship to match their growing population. A report by the European Commission Against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI) said hate crimes and intolerant speech in public discourse, principally against Muslims and asylum seekers (many of whom belong to religious minorities), had increased in recent years. All citizens who belong to either the ELC or Finnish Orthodox Church pay a church tax, collected together with their income tax payments. Those who do not want to pay the tax must terminate their ELC or Orthodox congregation membership.
WOMEN’S ECONOMIC RIGHTS

Women’s economic rights include a number of internationally recognized rights, such as:
• Equal pay for work
• Free choice of profession or employment and the right to gainful employment without the need to obtain a husband or male relative’s consent
• Equality in hiring and promotion practices
• Job security (maternity leave, unemployment benefits, no arbitrary firing or layoffs.
• Non-discrimination by employers
• The right to be free from sexual harassment in the workplace
• The right to work at night
• The right to work in occupations classified as dangerous
• The right to work in the military and the police force

Grounding In International Law:

EXAMPLES

Cuba, 2016 – 3.
The law grants equal rights for both men and women. The law also prohibits workplace discrimination based on gender; however, there was little data to show if the government properly enforced this. The law provides penalties for sexual harassment, with potential prison sentences of three months to five years. However, some civil society groups noted sexual harassment was very underreported.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/cuba/
EXAMPLES

Employment discrimination based on gender occurred. The law prohibits gender-based job discrimination and harassment of subordinates by superiors, however this was not fully practiced. The law requires that women receive equal pay for equal work. In March 2017 INSEE released a study that indicated that in 2014, the most recent year for which data were available, women working the equivalent of full time earned 18.6 percent less than men did. The average monthly salary was 2,410 euros ($2,770) for men, while women on average earned 1,962 euros ($2,260) per month.

The law prohibits sexual harassment and provides for a one-year mandatory prison sentence for offenders. Although sexual harassment was considered a common problem, few cases were reported to the police. The constitution and labor laws do not prohibit discrimination in employment and occupation based on gender or gender identity.

Ghana, 2015 – 0.
No law specifically prohibits sexual harassment, although some sexual harassment cases were prosecuted under provisions of the criminal code. Women’s advocacy groups, including the Ark Foundation, reported sexual harassment remained a widespread problem. The government did not effectively enforce prohibitions on discrimination, and penalties were not adequate to deter violations. Discrimination in employment and occupation occurred with respect to women.
WOMEN’S POLITICAL RIGHTS

Women’s political rights include a number of internationally recognized rights:
• The right to vote
• The right to run for political office
• The right to hold elected and appointed government positions
• The right to join political parties
• The right to petition government officials

Grounding In International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights: Part II, Articles 2 and 3. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women: Part I, Articles 1 and 3; Part II, Articles 7 and 8.

EXAMPLES

Algeria, 2015 – 3.
The law requires that the government promote political rights for women by encouraging increased female representation within elected assemblies. Although the constitution provides for gender equality, many aspects of the law and traditional social practices discriminate against women.
EXAMPLES

Belize, 2018 – 2.
No laws limit participation of women or members of minorities in the political process, and they did participate. Observers suggested cultural and societal constraints limited the number of women participating in government and women remained a clear minority in government. Although both major parties declared that they took steps to increase female participation, neither adopted party policies to promote an increase in female candidates. https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/belize/

Afghanistan, 2017 – 1.
Traditional societal practices continued to limit women's participation in politics and activities outside the home and community, including the need to have a male escort or permission to work. These factors, in addition to an education and experience gap, contributed to the central government's male-dominated composition. Women active in government and politics continued to face threats and violence and were the targets of attacks by the Taliban and other insurgent groups. https://www.state.gov/report/custom/4099c04f5b-2/

Burma, 2010 – 0.
Women were granted little to no political rights, and the government mostly left women out of the political process. No women were in the senior ranks of political leadership. Members of certain minority groups were denied a role in government and politics. There were no female or ethnic minority members of the State Peace and Development Council, cabinet, or Supreme Court. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2010/eap/154380.htm
WOMEN’S SOCIAL RIGHTS

Women’s social rights include a number of internationally recognized rights and freedoms:
• The right to equal inheritance
• The right to enter into marriage on a basis of equality with men
• The right to travel abroad
• The right to obtain a passport
• The right to confer citizenship to children or a husband
• The right to initiate a divorce
• The right to own, acquire, manage, and retain property brought into marriage.
• The right to participate in social, cultural, and community activities
• The right to an education
• The right to choose a residence/domicile
• Freedom from female genital mutilation of children and of adults without their consent
• Freedom from forced sterilization

Grounding In International Law:
EXAMPLES

The country generally respected the social rights of women, however, reports showed that the government did not fully protect the rights of Indigenous women. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2004/41752.htm

While the law outlawed discrimination of all kinds, the government failed to adequately practice this in some instances. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2002/18368.htm

Senegal, 2003 – 1.
The Constitution states that “men and women shall be equal in law” and prohibits discrimination based on sex, race, class, or language; however, gender discrimination was widespread in practice, and the anti-discrimination laws often were not enforced. According to local NGOs working to protect and promote women’s rights, women continued to experience discrimination. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2003/27748.htm

Saudi Arabia, 2004 – 0.
There was legal and systemic discrimination based on gender. Women have few political or social rights and were not treated as equal members of society. Many laws discriminate against women in terms of clothing, inheritance, divorce, education, and driving. https://2009-2017.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2004/41731.htm
SECTION 3: WORKERS’ RIGHTS
RIGHT TO FORM WORKERS’ UNIONS

The right to form worker unions includes the right of workers and employers to establish and join organizations of their choosing without previous authorization; to draw up their own constitutions and rules, elect their representatives, and formulate their programs; to join in confederations and affiliate with international organizations; and to be protected against dissolution or suspension by administrative authority.

Grounding in International Law:
C087 - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No. 87)
C098 - Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)
C141 - Rural Workers’ Organizations Convention, 1975 (No. 141)
R149 - Rural Workers’ Organizations Recommendation, 1975 (No. 149)
C135 - Workers’ Representatives Convention, 1971 (No. 135)

EXAMPLES

The score a country receives on this variable indicates the extent that worker unions are protected against antiunion discrimination, both in law and practice.


The law and related regulations and statutes provide the right for most workers to form independent unions, conduct legal strikes, and bargain collectively. The law prohibits antiunion discrimination and provides for the reinstatement of workers fired for union activity. The law prohibits members of the military and senior government officials from joining unions and requires that a trade union have at least 20 members to be registered.

In practice, labor unions were generally weak and politicized. Government enforcement of the law remained largely ineffective, in part due to the extent of informal employment. Resources for conducting inspections and remedying violations were not adequate. Penalties were rarely enforced and therefore insufficient to deter violations. Administrative and judicial procedures were subject to lengthy delays and appeals. Arbitration procedures allowed for significant delays that limited worker protections against anti-union activity. Unions representing public sector employees negotiated directly with the government.
EXAMPLES

Bolivia, 2019: Law – 1, Practice – 1.
The law, including related regulations and statutory instruments, provides for the freedom of association, the right to organize and bargain collectively, and the right to strike. The law prohibits antiunion discrimination and requires reinstatement of workers fired for union activity. Workers may form a union in any private company of 20 or more employees, but the law requires that at least 50 percent of the workforce be in favor. The law requires that trade unions register as legal entities and obtain prior government authorization to establish a union and confirm its elected leadership, permits only one union per enterprise, and allows the government to dissolve unions by administrative fiat. The law also requires that members of union executive boards be Bolivian by birth.

The National Labor Court handles complaints of antiunion discrimination, but rulings took one year or more to be issued. Government remedies and penalties – including fines and threats of prosecutorial action for businesses that violate labor laws – were often ineffective and insufficient to deter violations for this reason. The ineffectiveness of labor courts and the lengthy time to resolve cases and complaints limited freedom of association. Moreover, the 20-worker threshold for forming a union proved an onerous restriction, since an estimated 72 percent of enterprises had fewer than 20 employees. Labor inspectors may attend union meetings and monitor union activities.

Bulgaria, 2019: Law – 2, Practice – 0.
The law provides for the right of workers to form and join independent labor unions, bargain collectively, and conduct legal strikes. The law prohibits antiunion discrimination, provides for workers to receive up to six months' salary as compensation for illegal dismissal, and provides for the right of the employee to demand reinstatement for such dismissal. According to the Confederation of Independent Trade Unions, despite the constitutional recognition of the right of association, the law did not provide for it, which prevented parties to a dispute from seeking redress in administrative court. Labor unions stated that the legal limitations on the right to strike and the lack of criminal liability for employers who abuse their workers' right of association are contrary to the constitution. Authorities did not always respect freedom of association and the right to bargain collectively. Labor unions continued to report cases of employer obstruction, harassment, and intimidation of employees, including relocation, firing, and demotion of union leaders and members. In August the Acibadem City Clinic Tokuda Hospital in the capital city of Sofia fired nurse Maya Ilieva, a union leader at the hospital, who led a series of protests complaining of low pay and difficult working conditions. The government did not effectively enforce the labor laws, and penalties were generally insufficient to deter violations. In its annual labor rights report issued in April, the Confederation of Independent Trade Unions of Bulgaria stated that authorities often covered up violations of the right of association and presented them as labor disputes.
RIGHT TO BARGAIN COLLECTIVELY

The right to bargain collectively includes the right of workers to be represented in negotiating the prevention and settlement of disputes with employers. It also includes the right of workers to strike for at least 90 days without being replaced by their employer. Workers who feel that this right has been violated should have the opportunity to remedy their situation through access to a judicial or quasi-judicial procedure. Trade unions must be able to bargain collectively to regulate the terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the livelihood of workers. Trade unions must have the right to strike. Trade union representatives should be protected from employer retaliation.

Grounding in International Law:
C098 - Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)
C135 - Workers’ Representatives Convention, 1971 (No. 135)
R143 - Workers’ Representatives Recommendation, 1971 (No. 143)
C151 - Labor Relations (Public Service) Convention, 1978 (No. 151)
R159 - Labor Relations (Public Service) Recommendation, 1978 (No. 159)
C154 - Collective Bargaining Convention, 1981 (No. 154)
R163 - Collective Bargaining Recommendation, 1981 (No. 163)
R091 - Collective Agreements Recommendation, 1951 (No. 91)
R113 - Consultation (Industrial and National Levels) Recommendation, 1960 (No. 113)
EXAMPLES

The law protects workers’ rights to collective bargaining and prohibits employers from discriminating against employees or applicants based on past, present, or potential union membership or participation in lawful union activities. The law provides for automatic reinstatement of workers dismissed unfairly for conducting union activities. The minister of labor has the authority to extend agreements by majority employers (one or more registered employers’ organizations that represent 50 percent plus one of workers in a sector) and labor representatives in sector-specific bargaining councils to the entire sector, even if companies or employees in the sector were not represented at negotiations.

The government respected the right to collective bargaining. Labor courts and labor appeals courts effectively enforced the right to collective bargaining, and penalties were sufficient to deter violations. Employers often filed for and received Department of Labor exemptions from collective bargaining agreements. If not resolved through collective bargaining, independent mediation, or conciliation, disputes between workers in essential services and their employers were referred to arbitration or the labor courts. Workers frequently exercised their right to strike. Trade unions generally followed the legal process of declaring a dispute (notifying employers) before initiating a strike. During the year there were no cases of anti-union discrimination or employer interference in union functions, although anecdotal evidence suggested farmers routinely hampered the activities of unions on farms.

Lithuania, 2019: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
The law provides for the right of workers, except the armed forces, to form and join independent unions, bargain collectively, and conduct legal strikes. The law prohibits employer discrimination against union organizers and members and requires reinstatement of workers fired for union activity. The law bans sympathy strikes. It also prohibits law enforcement officials, first aid medical workers, and other security-related personnel from collective bargaining and striking, although they may join unions. The law does not afford workers in essential services, whose right to strike is restricted or prohibited, alternative procedures for impartial and rapid settlement of their claims or a voice in developing such procedures. Labor code procedures make it difficult for some workers to exercise the right to strike. The law allows an employer to hire replacement workers in certain sectors to provide for minimum services during strikes.

Penalties ranged from fines to imprisonment and were insufficient to deter violations. According to the International Trade Union Confederation, the judicial system was slow to respond to cases of unfair dismissal and no employer faced penal sanctions for antiunion discrimination as envisaged in the law. No courts or judges specialized in labor disputes. The government generally respected freedom of association but did not enforce the labor code effectively, although resources, inspections, and remediation were adequate. Employers did not always respect collective bargaining rights, and managers often determined wages without regard to union preferences except in large factories with well-organized unions.
REASONABLE LIMITATION ON WORKING HOURS

This is a regulation upon employers that the number of working hours required of employees per week be limited. The following should apply:

• The standard workday shall consist of 8 hours.
• When the hours of work on one or more days of the week are less than 8, the limit may be exceeded on the remaining days, but not by more than an hour.
• The standard workweek shall consist of 40 hours.
• The rate of pay for overtime work shall not be less than one and one-quarter times the regular rate.
• Overtime work shall be voluntary, not mandatory.
• All workers should enjoy, in every period of seven days, a period of rest comprising at least 24 consecutive hours.
• Workers who feel that this right has been violated should have an opportunity to remedy their situation through access to a judicial or quasi-judicial procedure.

Grounding in International Law:
C001 - Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No. 1)
C014 - Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention, 1921 (No. 14)
C106 - Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Convention, 1957 (No. 106)
R103 - Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Recommendation, 1957 (No. 103)
C175 - Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 (No. 175)
R182 - Part-Time Work Recommendation, 1994 (No. 182)
R116 - Reduction of Hours of Work Recommendation, 1962 (No. 116)
R091 - Collective Agreements Recommendation, 1951 (No. 91)
R113 - Consultation (Industrial and National Levels) Recommendation, 1960 (No. 113)
EXAMPLES

The law provides for a 40-hour workweek, a 24-hour rest period, and time-and-a-half payment for hours worked beyond the standard workweek. The law stipulates paid annual holidays and prohibits compulsory overtime. The law does not place a cap on overtime.

The Department of Labor is responsible for enforcing labor laws. It had a team of inspectors that conducted onsite visits to enforce occupational health and safety standards and investigate employee concerns and complaints. Inspections occurred infrequently. The department generally announced inspection visits in advance, and employers generally cooperated with inspectors to implement safety standards. Penalties were sufficient to deter violations.

The law provides for a 40-hour workweek, 20 days of mandatory paid annual leave, and compensation for overtime and nighttime work. The law prohibits compulsory overtime in excess of four hours on two consecutive days and limits it to 180 hours in a year.

Many employees of private companies, particularly in the service and retail sectors, were unable to obtain paid leave and were required to work more than eight hours a day without additional compensation. The survey also revealed problems related to inability to take paid annual leave and lack of compensation for overtime work. On July 2, the workers of the Agarak Copper Molybdenum Mine began protests demanding compensation for overtime. The mine leadership claimed the strikes were illegal and demanded that protest organizers provide explanations for absence from work.

Cambodia, 2019: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
The law provides for a standard legal work week of 48 hours, not to exceed eight hours per day. The law establishes a rate of 130 percent of daytime wages for night shift work and 150 percent for overtime, which increases to 200 percent if overtime occurs at night, on Sunday, or on a holiday. Employees may work a maximum of two hours of overtime per day. The law prohibits excessive overtime, states that all overtime must be voluntary, and provides for paid annual holidays. Workers in marine and air transportation are not entitled to social security and pension benefits and are exempt from limitations on work hours prescribed by law.

The Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training is responsible for enforcing labor laws, but the government did not effectively enforce the law. Outside the export garment industry, the government rarely enforced working-hour regulations. The government enforced standards selectively due to poorly trained staff, lack of necessary equipment, and corruption. Ministry officials admitted their inability to carry out thorough inspections on working hours. Workers reported overtime was often excessive and sometimes mandatory; many complained that employers forced them to work 12-hour days, although the legal limit is 10, including overtime. Workers often faced dismissal, fines, or loss of premium pay if they refused to work overtime.
RIGHT TO BE FREE FROM FORCED LABOR

The right to be free from forced labor is defined as freedom from work or service exacted from any person under the menace of penalty and for which the person has not volunteered.

Grounding in International Law:
C029 - Forced Labor Convention, 1930 (No. 29)
P029 - Protocol of 2014 to the Forced Labor Convention, 1930
C105 - Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)
R035 - Forced Labor (Indirect Compulsion) Recommendation, 1930 (No. 35)
R203 - Forced Labor (Supplementary Measures) Recommendation, 2014 (No. 203)
C106 - Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Convention, 1957 (No. 106)
R103 - Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Recommendation, 1957 (No. 103)
C175 - Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 (No. 175)
R182 - Part-Time Work Recommendation, 1994 (No. 182)
R116 - Reduction of Hours of Work Recommendation, 1962 (No. 116)
R091 - Collective Agreements Recommendation, 1951 (No. 91)
R113 - Consultation (Industrial and National Levels) Recommendation, 1960 (No. 113)

EXCEPTIONS

Freedom from forced labor does NOT include instances in which obligations are imposed to undergo education or training.
EXAMPLES

The constitution prohibits all forms of forced or compulsory labor. The government generally enforced such laws, which was sufficient to deter violations. Although there were no official reports of forced labor during the year, foreigners—especially those from neighboring Caribbean nations—remained at risk for forced labor, particularly in the domestic service, agriculture, and construction sectors.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/barbados/

Comoros, 2019: Law – 1, Practice – 1.
The law prohibits all forms of forced or compulsory labor, with certain exceptions for military service, community service, and during accidents, fires, and disasters. However, the government did not entirely enforce this. Resources and inspections were inadequate and penalties were not sufficient to deter violations.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/comoros/

Yemen, 2017: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
The law does NOT criminalize many forms of forced labor. In both rural and urban areas, there were many reports of practices of forced labor.
https://www.state.gov/report/custom/185033ef2a/
CHILDREN’S RIGHTS

These rights aim to abolish the exploitation of children in the workforce by raising the minimum age for employment and setting safety regulations to ensure the proper development of children’s physical and mental capabilities.

Grounding in International Law:
U.N. Minimum Age Convention
I.L.O. Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention
I.L.O. Medical Examination of Young Persons Conventions
I.L.O. Standards pertaining to childrens’ occupational safety, hours of work, and prohibition of work in certain industries.
EXAMPLES

Andorra prohibits child labor for all persons under the age of 14. Children under 16 can only work 2 months of the year during school holidays, and their employment is heavily regulated. Children under 16 can only work 6 hours a day, and children 16 or 17 can work 8 hours a day. All children are prohibited from working overtime, working overnight, or working in dangerous occupations, most notably construction. The government effectively enforced the law and penalties were sufficient to deter violations.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/andorra/

Iceland, 2019: Law – 1, Practice – 1.
Iceland prohibits child labor for all persons under the age of 12. Children under 18 can work outside of school hours a maximum of 12 hours a week and 2 hours a day during the school year while attending school, and cannot work between 8 PM and 6 AM. Children 13 or 14 can work 35 hours a week and 7 hours per day on school vacations. For children 15 to 18 who are enrolled in school, work is limited to 40 hours per week and 8 hours per day on school vacations. These hours are also applicable to children who do not attend school for the entire year. Children cannot work in occupations that could harm their health, are beyond their physical and mental capacity, or where there is a risk of violence or other harms unless working with adults. The government effectively enforced the law and penalties were sufficient to deter violations.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/iceland/

Guyana, 2019: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
Guyana prohibits child labor for children under 15, with some exceptions for technical school children and family businesses. Children under 18 cannot be employed overnight, except for children over 16 in certain industrial sectors where overnight work is required. These include gold mining, and iron, steel, paper, glass, and raw sugar production. Children employed in gold mining operated dangerous equipment and were exposed to mercury. The law does not explicitly prohibit children from participating in drug trafficking or drug production. Children under 15 are prohibited from factory work, but health and safety protections for children 18 are not adequate. Child labor was most prevalent in farming, domestic work, food service and bars, and street vending. There were some reports of forced child labor and of child sex work. The government did not effectively enforce the law as penalties were insufficient to deter violations and rarely prosecuted employers for violating child labor laws.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/guyana/
RIGHT TO A MINIMUM WAGE

The right to a sufficient minimum wage is the legal requirement that employers provide a minimum hourly wage for workers, with the objective of providing a decent standard of living for workers and their families. Almost always the report will say whether the country has adopted a minimum wage for those working in the formal sector.

Grounds in International Law:
R084 - Labor Clauses (Public Contracts) Recommendation, 1949
C095 - Protection of Wages Convention, 1949
C173 - Protection of Workers’ Claims (Employer’s Insolvency) Convention, 1992
R180 - Protection of Workers’ Claims (Employer’s Insolvency) Recommendation, 1992
C131 - Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970
R135 - Minimum Wage Fixing Recommendation, 1970
R146 - Minimum Age Recommendation, 1973
EXAMPLES

The Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, and Family may impose financial penalties on companies found to be noncompliant. In serious cases of labor rights violations, the NLI may withdraw an employer's license. In cases of “serious misconduct” at a workplace, the law permits labor inspectors to impose additional financial penalties.

The minimum wage exceeds the minimum living standard (an official estimate of the poverty income level). Minimum wage, hours of work, and occupational safety and health standards were appropriate for the main industries and effectively enforced. The number of labor inspectors was sufficient to ensure compliance with the law. Trade unions, local employment offices, and the Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, and Family monitored observance of these laws, and authorities effectively enforced them.

Bosnia & Herzegovina, 2019 – 1.
Although the monthly minimum wage in both entities is above the official poverty income level, more than 30 percent of the population was exposed to the risk of income poverty. The Brcko District did not have a separate minimum wage or an independent pension fund, and employers typically used the minimum wage rate of the entity to which its workers decided to direct their pension funds. There were no official social protections for workers in the informal economy.

Lebanon, 2019: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
The legal minimum wage was last raised in 2012. There was no official minimum wage for domestic workers. The Ministry of Labor is responsible for enforcing regulations related to acceptable conditions of work.

Observers concluded that the minimum wage is lower than unofficial estimates of the poverty income level. Official contracts stipulated monthly wages for domestic workers, depending on the nationality of the worker. A unified standard contract, which was registered with the Directorate of General Security (DGS) for the worker to obtain residency, granted migrant domestic workers some labor protections. The standard contract covered uniform terms and conditions of employment, but not wages. The ministry's enforcement team suffered from a lack of staff, resources, legal tools, and political support for its work. Interference with inspectors affected the quality of inspections and issuance of fines for violators was common. Violations of wage, overtime, and occupational health and safety standards were most common in the construction industry and among migrant workers, particularly with foreign domestic workers. In a typical example, one victim explained that, when she escaped from an employer who was withholding her wages, an NGO helped her file charges against her employer. Authorities reached an administrative settlement with her employer to pay back wages and finance return to her home country but did not seek criminal prosecution of her employer. Authorities settled an unknown number of cases of nonpayment of wages through negotiation.
OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH AND SAFETY RIGHTS

Occupational health and safety rights ensure all workers have access to work in a safe and healthy workplace.

Grounding in International Law:
I.L.O. Occupational Health and Safety Convention
I.L.O. Occupational Health Services Convention
I.L.O. Standards pertaining to occupational safety, non-retribution for refusal to do dangerous work, and protections against dangerous substance exposure among others.
EXAMPLES

The government sets occupational health and safety regulations which are outdated but sufficient for the country’s main industries. Workers were free to remove themselves from hazardous occupational situations without fear for their employment, and the government effectively protected workers who did this. Penalties were sufficient to deter violations and the government effectively enforced the law.  

Kosovo, 2019: Law – 1, Practice – 1.
Kosovo has laws that set occupational health and safety regulations, but public and private employers do not abide by these regulations. The Ministry of Labor Inspectors did not have the resources or capacity to effectively enforce labor laws. Accurate information on health and safety hazards in the workplace was unavailable because workers feared employer retribution for reporting them. The government did not adequately enforce labor regulations and fines were insufficient to deter violations.  
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/kosovo/

Nauru, 2019: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
Nauru has set some health and safety regulations, but they do not have the force of law. The law does not afford workers freedom to remove themselves from hazardous occupational situations without fear for their employment. There are some labor laws for the public sector that allow the Department of Human Resources and Labor to inspect a workplace at any time, but these laws enable authorities to charge employers for contract violations, not health and safety violations. The decline of the phosphate industry perpetuated poor enforcement of health and safety regulations.  
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/nauru/
HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Human trafficking is an increasing international problem, and it is linked with other worker and human rights abuses. It refers to all acts involving the recruitment, abduction, transport, harboring, transfer, sale or receipt of persons that occur within national or across national borders that involve the use of force, coercion, fraud, or deception that result in persons being subjected to:

- Slavery or slavery-like conditions
- Forced labor or services
- Domestic servitude
- Forced or bonded sweatshop labor
- Other types of debt bondage


**EXAMPLES**

**New Zealand, 2019: Law – 2, Practice – 2.**

Human trafficking is criminalized in sections 98D and 98AA of the Crimes Act of 1961. Section 98D, which “criminalized all forms of labor trafficking and some forms of sex trafficking” and the associated penalties were up to 20 years’ imprisonment, a fine of up to 500,000 New Zealand Dollars (NZD) ($335,570 USD), or both. Although Section 98D, in a manner inconsistent with international law, required a “demonstration of deception of coercion to constitute a child sex trafficking offense” and therefore did not fully criminalize child sex trafficking, Section 98AA did fully criminalize it under its “dealing in persons” provision. The penalties in this case are up to 14 years’ imprisonment, on par with those imposed for rape. Sections 20 and 21 of the Prostitution Reform Act (PRA) criminalized the “facilitating, assisting, causing, or encouraging a child to provide commercial sex, in addition to receiving earnings from commercial sex acts provided by a child.” The penalties prescribed by the PRA are a maximum of seven years’ imprisonment for child sex trafficking. 


Eight convictions were obtained (three for labor trafficking and five for sex trafficking), five prosecutions were initiated (three for labor trafficking and two for sex trafficking) and two labor trafficking investigations were initiated. The government “maintained efforts to prevent trafficking,” which included the country's immigration agency, INZ (Immigration New Zealand) chairing an interagency working group on trafficking and working with NGOs, businesses, and other groups to focus on anti-trafficking efforts and provided opportunities for victims to get assistance and restitution.

EXAMPLES

Chile, 2019: Law – 1, Practice – 1.
All forms of human trafficking, including labor and sex trafficking, are prohibited under the law and penalties range from five years and one day to 15 years in prison, in addition to fines. The government “continued to demonstrate serious and sustained efforts” to eliminate trafficking, including “investigating more cases, identifying more victims, improving male victims’ care, increasing legal representation for child victims, and sentencing two labor traffickers to the longest prison term under the trafficking law.”


Though Chile has laws prohibiting trafficking, they are not always enforced or enforced properly. The vast majority of convicted traffickers received only probation and no time in prison due to courts issuing lenient sentences. This “[creates] potential safety concerns for trafficking victims, [weakens] deterrence, and [undercuts] nationwide efforts to fight trafficking. The government also “did not provide adequate resources for victim protection efforts, and available care was particularly lacking for male victims and victims outside the capital.” Child sex trafficking cases were often prosecuted under different laws that had lesser penalties. Sentencing guidelines for first-time offenders “provide automatic parole for any sentence of less than five years’ confinement,” meaning that many convicted traffickers received “weak and inadequate sentences, which hampered efforts to deter and hold traffickers accountable.” However, the interagency government anti-trafficking task force, which includes international organizations and NGOs, worked to combat and prevent forced labor by creating and publishing a national action plan, which began implementation in 2019.

https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/chile/

Libya, 2019: Law – 0, Practice – 0.
While there are some forms of sex trafficking that are criminalized (though not in ways consistent with international law), labor trafficking is not. Slavery is criminalized. Punishments for sex trafficking and slavery in the are both on par with penalties for other serious crimes, such as rape. There were continued reports that government officials, private employers, criminal networks, and militia groups exploited “migrants, refugees, and asylum seekers in sex and labor trafficking.” “Rampant complicity” of government officials involved in human trafficking and migrant smuggling has been reported as well. Contributing to the GNA’s “inability to effectively address trafficking” were influence from militias and “endemic government corruption.” They are a party to the UN TIP protocol but lacked the institutional capacity and resources that were necessary to prevent human trafficking.


Trafficking victims in Libya, including men, women, and children, are “highly vulnerable” to extreme violence and other human rights violations such as “physical, sexual and verbal assault; abduction for ransom; arbitrary killings; inhumane detention; and child soldiering” at the hands of both government officials and non-state armed groups. Migrants and internally displaced persons within the country are also exploited for forced labor at the hands of traffickers and smugglers, as well as armed groups aligned with the GNA. Despite the prevalence of human trafficking in the country, there were no known arrests or prosecutions made by the GNA of Libyan nationals engaged in human trafficking and smuggling. The Libyan judicial system was also very poorly funded and not fully functional (courts in major cities had been unoperational since 2014). Trafficking victims were often arrested, detained, or otherwise punished for unlawful acts that they had been compelled to do. The government did not have any formal procedures in place to care for trafficking victims; however, they did work with international organizations and NGOs to assist refugees and migrants, who are both very vulnerable to trafficking. https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/libya/
SECTION 4: JUSTICE RIGHTS
INDEPENDENCE OF THE JUDICIARY

Independence of the judiciary indicates the extent to which the judiciary is independent of control from other sources, such as another branch of the government or the military.

Important questions to consider include:
• Are judges safe from removal by other government officials?
• Can actions of other government branches be challenged in the courts?
• Are court hearings public?
• Are judicial officials generally free from corruption and intimidation?
• Are case outcomes protected from governmental interference?

Grounding In International Law:
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Part III, Article 14.
EXAMPLES

Kiribati, 2019 – 2.
The constitution provides for the right to a fair and public trial, and an independent judiciary generally enforced this right. Extrajudicial, traditional communal justice, in which village elders decide cases and mete out punishment, remained a part of village life, especially on remote outer islands. The incidence of communal justice, however, continued to decline under pressure from the codified national law.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/kiribati/

Brazil, 2013 – 1.
The constitution provides for an independent judiciary, and the government generally respected judicial independence. Freedom House stated that corruption within the judiciary, especially at the local and state level, remained a serious concern, and the judiciary was often subject to outside influences.

Fiji, 2015 – 0.
The constitution provides for an independent judiciary subject only to the constitution and law, but gives the president, prime minister, and attorney general control over the appointment and removal of the chief justice and other members of the judiciary. The constitution prohibits all tiers of the judiciary from considering cases relating to the 2006 coup. The courts were often subjected to some outside influences.
RIGHT TO A FAIR TRIAL

The right to a fair trial refers to everyone charged with a penal offense having the right to be presumed innocent until proven guilty according to the law in a public trial at which they are guaranteed defense.

This means that:
• Everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial court
• All people are considered equal before the courts
• All people will be informed in detail in a language which they understand of the nature and cause of the charge against them
• All people will have the time and resources to provide an adequate defense
• All will be tried in their own presence and be able to defend themselves in person or through legal assistance if they choose to do so

Grounding In International Law:
EXAMPLES

Tonga, 2019 – 3.
The constitution provides for the right to a fair and public trial, and an independent judiciary generally enforced this right. Although unavailability of judges, witnesses, or lawyers could delay cases, legal authorities processed most cases without undue delay. There is no provision for public defenders, but local lawyers accepted pro bono cases as needed.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/tonga/

Saint Lucia, 2019 – 2.
Defendants enjoy the right to a presumption of innocence until guilty, prompt and detailed information about charges, and a fair and public trial without delay. They have the right to be present at their own trial, communicate with an attorney, and have adequate time and facilities to prepare a defense. However, attorneys are not provided to defendants who cannot afford them unless the charge is murder.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/saint-lucia/

Russia, 2018 – 1.
The law provides for the right to a fair and public trial, but executive interference with the judiciary and judicial corruption undermined this right. The defendant has a legal presumption of innocence and the right to a fair, timely, and public trial, but these rights were not always respected. Authorities particularly infringed on the right to a fair trial in the Republic of Chechnya, where observers noted that the judicial system served as a means of conducting reprisals against those who exposed wrongdoing by Republic head Kadyrov. In addition, the outcomes of some trials appeared to have been predetermined.

There were reports of pressure on defense attorneys representing clients who were being subjected to politically motivated prosecution and other forms of reprisal. For example, on September 9, police in Krasnodar beat and then charged defense lawyer Mikhail Benyash with disobeying police by “injuring himself.” Police warned he would be arrested if he provided legal assistance to political protestors who were detained, and they claimed the injuries on his head were from Benyash striking his head on the glass door of a police car while disobeying their orders.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/russia/

Zimbabwe, 2019 – 0.
The constitution provides for the right to a fair and public trial, but political pressure and corruption frequently compromised this right. While the law proclaims defendants to be innocent until proven otherwise, the courts did not always respect this. There were trials held without juries and little legal representation in magistrate courts. Authorities often denied attorneys access to their clients. Government officials also frequently ignored court orders.
https://www.state.gov/reports/2019-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/zimbabwe/
COUNTRY REPORT CARDS
COUNTRY REPORT CARDS

We generated an overall human rights score for the 25 different human rights included in the report. For each right a country received ZERO points if there were widespread violations of the right, TWO points if there were some violations, and FOUR points if there were no violations. For the Brutality Based Atrocity measure countries received ZERO points if there was an atrocity and FOUR points if there was no atrocity. This adds up to a score between 0-100 with higher values indicating greater human rights respect.

This score does not capture all human rights and some countries which score very high on this report card may violate other rights we did not include. Similarly, countries which scored poorly may respect other rights at a high level. Given the number of rights included in the report we believe this is a good measure of overall human rights respect.

Below we provide scores and information about the best and worst 11 human rights performers in the world for 2019. We also provide some information about which of the major human rights agreements the country has ratified.
Scan the QR code below to find out more information about these countries, including the human rights agreements they have ratified, as well as their population, life expectancy, GDP per capita, and regime type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Score</th>
<th>Human Rights Score</th>
<th>Lowest Score</th>
<th>Human Rights Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
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<td>Iran</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
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<td>North Korea</td>
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<td>China</td>
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<td>Portugal</td>
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<td>Iraq</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
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<td>Burundi</td>
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<td>Saint Kitts and Nevis</td>
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<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
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<td>San Marino</td>
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<td>Egypt</td>
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<td>Improved</td>
<td>Worsened</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minimum Wage</td>
<td>Reasonable Limitation on Work Hours</td>
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<td>Human Trafficking</td>
<td>Occupational Health &amp; Safety</td>
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<td>Right to a Fair Trial</td>
<td>Children’s Rights</td>
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<td>Women’s Political Rights</td>
<td>Forced Labor</td>
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<td>Foreign Movement &amp; Travel</td>
<td>Collective Bargaining</td>
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<tr>
<td>Domestic Movement &amp; Travel</td>
<td>Right to Form Unions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Torture</td>
<td>Women’s economic rights</td>
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<td>Political Imprisonment</td>
<td>Independence of the Judiciary</td>
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<td>Electoral Self-determination</td>
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<td>Freedom of Association &amp; Assembly</td>
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<td>Freedom of Speech</td>
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<td>Extrajudicial Killings</td>
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<td>Disappearances</td>
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<td>Brutality Based Atrocities</td>
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ARE HUMAN RIGHTS IMPROVING?

Given the number of rights in the dataset, it is worth asking whether human rights are getting better or worse over time. If we compare scores from 2000 to scores for the most recent year we have data for (2020 or 2019), we can examine whether human rights are evolving.

Our data suggest that economic rights have declined in the 21st Century apart from the right to a minimum wage. Similarly, rights associated with the ability to criticize the government (1st Amendment-type rights) have declined across the globe. Finally, rights associated with democracy, such as electoral self-determination and an independent judiciary, have declined. All of this is consistent with the global backsliding in democracy that we have witnessed in the 21st Century and the rise in global inequality.

On the other hand, there have been improvements in the right to a fair trial (despite a pronounced decline in the most recent years), protection from human trafficking, women’s political rights, and freedom of domestic and foreign movement.

For physical integrity rights, two have improved (torture and political imprisonment) while two have deteriorated (disappearances and extrajudicial killings). While the number of brutality-based atrocities has significantly increased, this has mostly been the result of a rise in low-intensity, rather than high-intensity, atrocities.

**Why are some rights declining while others are improving?**

While we might expect all rights to rise or fall together, these findings suggest that the story of human rights protection requires a more nuanced analysis. There is no easy answer to this question, but the CIRIGHTS dataset gives us a place to start.
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