

Citizens' Agreement to Share Personal Data for Public Policies: Trust and Issue Importance

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Abstract

The digitalization of public policy requires that the State uses citizens' personal data. Although researchers agree that data privacy is important, we know little about the conditions under which citizens approve of their personal data being used in different policy domains. This study relies on data from original surveys conducted in Switzerland to demonstrate that citizens' willingness to share their data with the State is low and varies across policy domains. Support for sharing is significantly higher when the data are used to prevent benefit fraud in social assistance or to improve health research than when they are used to fight tax evasion or to prevent crime and terrorism. Nevertheless, we also argue that the more citizens trust government and the more important they consider a policy issue to be, the more likely they are to share their data with the State officials in charge of the relevant policy. Previous use of apps also increases citizens' agreement for the policy-related use of their personal data.

Keywords: Personal data; Data sharing; Privacy; Policy-making; Health; Taxes; Trust; Welfare; Terrorism

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1. Introduction

The usage of information and communication technologies (ICTs) comes along with the collection of citizens' data and increases the likelihood of surveillance and manipulation by private companies (Lyon, 2002; Lupton, 2016). Beyond the private sphere, governments use ICTs to collect personal data for policy-making processes and the delivery of public services. For example, health data collected in public data repositories can be used to improve genetic research and health services (Jensen, Jensen, and Brunak, 2012), whereas telephone data, criminal records, and other information are important to implement predictive policing (Ferguson, 2017; Shapiro, 2017). It seems obvious that using digital data can improve public policies, however, such practices come also along with new possibilities for intruding citizens' privacy. This article focuses on studying under which conditions citizens are likely to consent to such an intrusion into their privacy.

Privacy scholars from different disciplines have analyzed the challenge of protecting personal data from potential privacy infringements by companies (e.g., Acquisti, John, and Loewenstein, 2013; Bach and Newman, 2007; Benndorf and Normann, 2018; Caudill and Murphy, 2000; Evens and Van Damme, 2016; Happ et al., 2016; Martin and Nissenbaum, 2016; Urbonavicius et al., 2021) and political parties (e.g., Dobber et al., 2019). The literature has pointed out that the automatic collection of personal data creates a risk for other uses of this data later, and, that individuals tend to underestimate the risk of such data collection by companies (Lupton, 2016; Zimmer et al., 2020). Scholars have analyzed the usage of ICTs and algorithms for the provision of public services (e.g., Ahn and Bretschneider, 2011; Björklund, 2016; Chadwick and May, 2003; Ciusi et al., 2020; Dunleavy et al., 2006; Fang, 2002; Lee, Chang, and Berry, 2011; Silcock, 2001; Twizeyimana and Andersson, 2019), however, this research focuses rarely on the conditions under which individuals are comfortable to share their data with the State for public policies. This is surprising because scholars have also noticed a privacy paradox

regarding the usage of personal data for public policy. For example, once Congressional lawmakers faced criticisms about potential government surveillance, they continued to work with private companies behind closed doors to ensure government surveillance capacities (Rider, 2018). Such a depoliticization of State investigation capabilities might however undermine the democratic legitimacy of these policies even further. Thus, we need to know more about the extent to which citizens are willing to share their personal data for public policy to determine under which conditions such actions are politically feasible and legitimate. This a major topic for the democratic governance of ICTs.

This article contributes to the literature by analyzing when (and potentially why) individuals are willing to share their data with public authorities for specific public policies. Therefore, we embark into a comparative empirical analysis of three representative surveys that were conducted in Switzerland in March 2020, November 2020, and March 2021. Our evidence shows a clear difference between policies: respondents are more likely to share their health and social security data than their banking and telephone data.

Beyond these differences between policy fields, we seek to better understand the elements that are associated with individuals' willingness to share data for public policy. Therefore, we assume that providing their individual data for public policy entails a dilemma for individuals. On the one hand, they might want to share their data if they are used for policies that address problems that are important to them; but on the other hand, they are afraid of the potential infringement into their privacy that comes along with this. Thus, trust (Rousseau et al. 1998) is likely to play an important role for the extent to which individuals are ready to share their data.

Our regression analyses at the individual level confirm the importance of this potential paradox. Citizens are more likely to share their data if they believe that the policy problem the State

seeks to solve is important to them and if they trust their government. The association of issue importance and data sharing becomes stronger the more individuals trust the national government. Previous use of apps requiring sharing personal data also increases the willingness to provide such data for public policy. By contrast, differences in ideology seem to have no effect on whether individuals are willing to share their personal data for public policy or not. We conclude by putting these findings in a broader theoretical perspective and offer a roadmap for policymakers.

2. Background and research approach

Scholars agree that citizens want their data to be protected because they feel uncertain about their privacy being respected in the digital world (Acquisti, Brandimarte, and Loewenstein, 2015; Bennett, 2011, 2016; de Goede, 2014; EU, 2015, Morse & Birnhack, 2020). Data from the 2015 Eurobarometer shows that 69% of the respondents in the 28 members of the European Union are concerned that the authorities and the private companies holding personal information might use it for a purpose other than the one for which it was collected (EU, 2015).³ Similarly, we know that the protection of personal data in several policy fields, such as genetics and policing, is a key citizen concern (Bearth and Siegrist, 2020; Middleton et al., 2020; Macnish, Wright and Jiya, 2020). A recent survey from Austria shows that around 38% of respondents consent to sharing their data to counteract the COVID-19 crisis, and 36% consent to their data being used for public policies that maintain public safety (Kittel et al., 2021). In a similar vein, citizens in Germany, Spain, France, and the United Kingdom are ready to share their personal data for public policies aiming at reducing criminality by using new technologies, such as facial recognition (Ziller and Helbling, 2021).

³ The Eurobarometer surveys are not fielded in Switzerland. In France, 72% of respondents are concerned about their data being abused, whereas in Germany 70% are worried about them being misused.

Importantly, scholars have demonstrated that citizens are willing to share their data rather with public than with private entities and for a limited rather than an unlimited period (Belle et al. 2021). Horvath et al. (2021) showed that individuals are more willing to share their health-related data in a database that is largely maintained by a National Health Service than by central government. We also know that individuals who trust government services are more likely to share their data for public policy (Murphy et al., 2021). The next step for this research is to deepen our understanding about under which conditions individuals are willing to share their data for the purposes of conducting different types of public policies.

This article contributes to the literature on digitalization and public policies broadly defined by assessing the willingness to share data for public policies. Our added value is to put the insights related to COVID apps (e.g., Horvath et al., 2021), the health sector (e.g., Belle et al., 2021), and crime reduction (e.g., Ziller and Helbling, 2021) into a broader perspective by including other policy domains. The aim of this study is twofold. Firstly, we want to understand if there are differences between the purposes for which citizens are willing to share their sensitive personal data with public policy-makers. Secondly, we want to understand if we can identify factors that might potentially be associated to the overall differences between citizens regarding their willingness to share data for public policies.

To study the conditions under which individuals are willing to share their personal data with the state, we focus on four specific and realistic issues where personal data has been used for public policy interventions. Table 1 shows the policy fields addressed as well as the survey items that we used to capture willingness to share personal data for public policy. More details can be found in the methods section and the supplementary materials.

Table 1: Four specific issues for personal data use in public policy

Policy field	Specific issue
Welfare	<i>I consent to sharing my social insurance data to create a more efficient social system with less fraud</i>
Health	<i>I consent to sharing my health data to support research for medical progress</i>
Taxation	<i>I consent to sharing data about my bank accounts to optimize the fight against tax fraud</i>
Security	<i>I consent to sharing my telephone data (connections and movement profile) to improve the prevention of crime and terrorism</i>

Our selection combines four very different policy issues. We frame all the survey questions in a way that makes it not too difficult for citizens to agree because it is well known that privacy is important and they individuals are probably weary that their data might be abused by government (Acquisti, John, and Loewenstein, 2013; Bach and Newman, 2007; Caudill and Murphy, 2000). Nevertheless, it is unlikely that all citizens will consent in a similar way to sharing their personal data for all public policies. In the following, we formulate hypotheses related to a "calculus-based trust" approach (see Rousseau et al. 1998: 399) that could potentially explain why individuals might differ in their willingness to share their sensitive data with public authorities across these four policy domains.

3. Why would individuals agree to share their personal data for public policy?

In their seminal article, Rousseau et al. (1998:395) defined trust as " a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another". This approach is particularly relevant for the research question we address in this empirical study. Indeed, we focus on the relationship between the

State and citizens, who may trust (or not) the government for using their personal data in policymaking processes and service delivery. Such a relationship encompasses the two conditions for trust to emerge, as suggested by Rousseau et al. (1998).

On the one hand, vulnerability is the first condition creating an opportunity for trust. Accepting that the State use personal and sensitive data is always risky because citizens are not sure that the State will act appropriately and protect fundamental civil rights. Citizens may lose something if the State does not limit privacy breach to the strict minimum. In line with the assumptions of the liberal vision of democracy, which dates back to John Locke and John Stuart Mill, the State could indeed represent the greatest danger to privacy (Bennet and Raab, 2006): Citizens' privacy and individual rights must be protected from State intrusion in order to avoid the emergence of an authoritarian State like the one illustrated by the social credit system implemented in China.

Authors embracing the Foucaultian approach go one step further and argue that the protection of individuals' privacy—the one that liberal theories advocate for—is not enough to prevent the development of a disciplinary surveillance system (e.g., Gandy, 1993).⁴ Whatever theoretical and normative benchmark is deployed to assess the potential danger of the State using personal data, it seems reasonable to assume that citizens will only be prone to sharing their data with the State, if they accept to become vulnerable and trust democratic institutions and processes (e.g., Murphy et al., 2021). They should be convinced that public authorities will not instrumentalize their personal data to reduce their freedom and limit their constitutional rights. Our first hypothesis is based on this rationale and stipulates that the citizens reporting that they trust their government are more likely to share their data with the State in all policy

⁴ For instance, see the alliance between the advanced democracies of the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, which collaborate with the digital industry, to conduct espionage and mass surveillance in European countries.

domains. Note that this relationship between trust in government and the collaboration of citizens regarding public policies has been shown related to the COVID-19 pandemic: those who trust government are more likely to get vaccinated against the virus (Tosun and Debus 2021; Wynen et al. 2022).

On the other hand, interdependence between the State and citizens' interests is the second condition for trust to be stabilized. Concretely, the policy objectives as defined by the State cannot be achieved without the reliance upon the citizens' willingness to share their personal data. Vice versa, citizens expect that the public policies decided and implemented by the State will be beneficial to them. Citizens who trust their government probably expect that public authorities will adopt transversal regulations, such as the European General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), to protect their private sphere and individual rights (see Bocquet 2023). In doing so, the government—namely, its data protection agency—works as a classical regulator who develops, implements, and enforces data protection measures. At the same time, the government also is one of the targets of its own privacy policy. Indeed, various ministries and administrative services collect, store, and use personal data. As Weber initially suggested and authors such as Beniger (1986), Desrosières (1993), and Mau (2017) later highlighted, public bureaucracies have a strong motivation and a natural tendency to monitor citizens' sensitive data: Administrative services need to rationalize public service delivery to be able to grant social rights (e.g., welfare policies), enforce obligations (e.g., taxation policy), plan investment in public infrastructure (e.g., transport policy), or to sanction deviant behavior (e.g., criminal policy). A recently published study suggests that context strongly matters for the usage of algorithms in the public sector (Wenzelburger et al. 2023). Accordingly, it makes sense to investigate whether citizens' willingness to share their data with the State depends on the policy problems that public bureaucracies aim to solve through a data-based policy approach.

We assume that citizens will accept a stronger reduction of their privacy if their data are used to address a policy problem that they personally consider to be very important. In other words, citizens are likely to consent to their personal data being used for a highly important policy issue, but they will be strongly reluctant to allow the State to process their personal data to address a policy problem of low priority. Previous studies have identified "issue importance" as a strong predictor of political behavior such as voting: Citizens elect candidates from the party that addresses the policy issues they consider most important to their personal lives (Budge and Farlie, 1983; Bélanger and Meguid, 2008). By analogy, we assume that citizens will accept to share their data with the State only if public bureaucracies focus on a policy problem that citizens deem important. The second hypothesis states that citizens who believe that a policy issue is important are more likely to share their data with the State in that policy domain.

Furthermore, the "calculus-base trust" approach suggests to combine both conditions and, thus, to look at the interaction between the general trust in government and the personal importance given to a policy issue. If citizens generally trust the government and, in addition, perceive the policy problem at stake as highly important, then they are more likely to accept to take a bigger risk—by sharing their personal data with the State—to achieve a policy objective generating a personal and collective benefit. High trust results in the decision to cooperate with the State, which lead to policy gains. However, this relationship is always contingent: the trustor (i.e. citizen) should believe in the positive intentions of the trustee (i.e. the State) and is ready to take high risk (i.e. sharing sensitive data) only if the expected gains (i.e. solving an important policy problem) are high. This third hypothesis also contributes to explain why we observe variation across policy domains.

The fourth hypothesis also assumes that differences across policy domains matter. Moreover, it supposes that political ideology and, specifically, the policy positions citizens adopt are crucial to explain their behavior (intent). Indeed, the "issue ownership" approach has demonstrated that citizens vote for those political parties they consider most apt to handle important policy issues (Petrocik, 1996; Bellucci, 2006; Green and Jennings, 2012; Lachat 2014; Walgrave et al., 2015). Citizens vote for the party that appears to be the one most able to implement the policy solutions they prefer. If we apply this general idea to our research object, we can postulate that citizens will only consent to share their personal data with the State if the policy objectives pursued in that policy domain match their own policy preferences and political ideology. This implies that citizens with different ideologies (captured by their party affiliations) will display different levels of willingness to share their personal data depending on the congruence between their positions and the officially stated policy objectives.

This generic formulation of the fourth hypothesis can be translated into more specific expectations that cover the four policy domains compared in this study. Based on the positions that the Swiss political parties embrace on the policy issues they own (see Lanz and Sciarini, 2016), our hypothesis implies that citizens leaning to the right are more likely to consent to the State using their data in the Welfare and Security policy domains but not regarding Health and Banking policy. In contrast, citizens leaning to the left are more likely to agree that the State use their data in the domains of Health research and Banking policy. Indeed, the electoral manifestoes and political agendas of (radical) right parties strongly focus on the fight against "social benefits abusers" and (foreign) criminals and terrorists. Whereas left-parties have generally taken up capacity-building in public health research and regulatory measures to deter tax frauds and promote fiscal justice (e.g., Varone et al., 2014).

Finally, we should not only focus on citizens and State actors to explain individuals' readiness to share their personal data. Of course, citizens especially trust their national governments (66% of the respondents to the Eurobarometer 2015 in the 28 members of the EU) and healthcare and medical institutions (74% of the same group of respondents) to protect their personal data, while they hold less trust in banks and financial institutions (56%), shops and stores (40%), and telecommunications companies (33%) (EU 2015). This is not surprising, since public authorities are probably more constrained by public regulations than private businesses and should follow citizens' general interests (instead of private and commercial interests) when they use sensitive data.

Nevertheless, it is obvious that the number of electronic devices in our daily life is growing quickly. Consequently, the type and quantity of personal data that are collected, stored, and used (mostly by private businesses) are also exploding. The technical complexity and the globalized dimension of this digitalization process also increase the lack of transparency in privacy issues. It thus becomes difficult, if not impossible, for citizens to accurately understand who collects and processes their personal data and for what purpose they do so (Lyon, 2002; Lupton, 2016). Nevertheless, not all individuals react to the potential threat on their privacy in the same way. Some citizens deliberately refuse to use search engines, websites, operating systems, Internet providers or apps that allow private firms or public authorities to collect sensitive personal data (see Hirsch, 2011). These attitudes and behaviors can be motivated by the "slippery slope" or "foot-in-the door" psychological argument (van der Burg, 1991): the opponents of data sharing assume that using a search engine or an app is a relatively small, but insidious, first step that will eventually lead to a chain of related decisions (i.e., using additional apps and sharing more and more data) culminating in some significant and negative result (i.e., a complete loss of privacy) (Lupton, 2016). In contrast, other citizens do not fear such a risk and readily use available apps without too much hesitation. It is plausible that these citizens

will not be reluctant to allow that the State also use their data in order to improve policy-making and service delivery. Accordingly, our fifth hypothesis assumes that citizens who already share their personal data in apps are more likely to consent to the State using their data in all policy domains.

Table 2 summarizes the hypotheses that emerge from this discussion:

Table 2: Overview of independent variables and hypotheses

Independent variables	Hypothesis formulations
H1: Trust in government	Citizens who report that they trust the government are more likely to share their data with the State in all policy domains.
H2: Issue importance	Citizens who report that the policy problem to be solved is important to them are more likely to share their data with the State in the particular policy domain.
H3 Interaction effect	Citizens who report that they trust the government and find that the policy problem to be solved is important to them are more likely to share their data with the State in the particular policy domain.
H4: Partisan ideology	Citizens are more likely to share their data with the State if their partisan affiliation/ideology is congruent with the policy objectives
H5: App use	Citizens who already share their personal data in apps are more likely to share their data with the State in all policy domains.

4. Data and measurements

This study focuses on citizens' willingness to share their personal data for the purposes of improving public policy. We capture this willingness through three different surveys conducted in Switzerland. However, the main analysis in this article is based on the second and the third of these surveys, which we discuss in the following. Information regarding the first sample can be found in the supplementary materials.

The *second* sample comes from an online survey that was fielded in November 2020 and collected data on 1,458 respondents. This sample is representative on age, gender, educational attainment, and region of residence according to the data published by the national statistical agency of Switzerland (Bundesamt für Statistik). The *third* sample of respondents is like the second survey in terms of its representativity and the way in which variables are measured. It was fielded between March and April 2021 and obtained N=2,102 responses.

The surveys include the variables we use to measure respondents' agreement to share their personal data for the purposes of formulating public policy and that are discussed in Table 1. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of support on a five-item Likert scale. In the surveys, we also include questions to operationalize the hypotheses discussed in the previous section (Table 2). To measure *app use*, we ask respondents whether they use four different types of apps: (1) the app of their health insurance, which promises benefits in exchange for personal health data; (2) the SwissCovid app provided by the national government; (3) the app of the national railway company, and/or (4) an app for online banking. We used regression scores from principal component analysis to combine these four measures to obtain a more robust measurement of app use.

To operationalize *levels of trust*, we ask respondents to indicate the extent to which respondents trust the federal government (five-item Likert scale). Regarding the measurement of *issue*

importance, we use four questions about issue importance—one for each policy issue (Figure 1). We asked respondents whether they believed that the issues for which we requested their propensity to share personal data for public policy—for example, preventing fraud in social insurance—were important policy problems (five-item Likert scale). To measure the placement of respondents on a *left right-scale* we use items to measure respondents’ political ideology on a left-right scale in the same ways as they measured in the Swiss Election Study (Tresch et al., 2020) and in international comparative studies (Kriesi et al., 2012). Notably, we ask questions regarding respondents’ positions on taxation and social spending (cf. supplementary materials for more information).

We also include several control variables. Respondents indicated how willing they were to take risks (scale from one to ten) for us to measure how they assess the uncertainty inherent in sharing personal data for public policy (cf. Nadeau, Martin and Blais, 1999). The survey also measures different levels of education (categorical variable: obligatory school, vocational training, high school, advanced vocational training, university degree) and includes variables for age, region (French- or German-speaking), and sex (female or male).

To analyze the data, we merged the different survey waves and pooled them into a single dataset, even though the respondents in the samples differ. Panel mortality was high and probably non-random and we obtained more responses for the third panel wave. Nevertheless, this is no problem since we do not need statistical panel analyses to test our hypotheses. In a following step, we stacked the data, which means that we appended the dataset along the four policy fields to create one variable that measures data sharing in the four policy fields. Prior to the regression analysis, we also standardized the data around two standard deviations to make the coefficients easier to compare. More information on the questions we posed as well as a table with the descriptive statistics of the unstandardized variables can be found in the

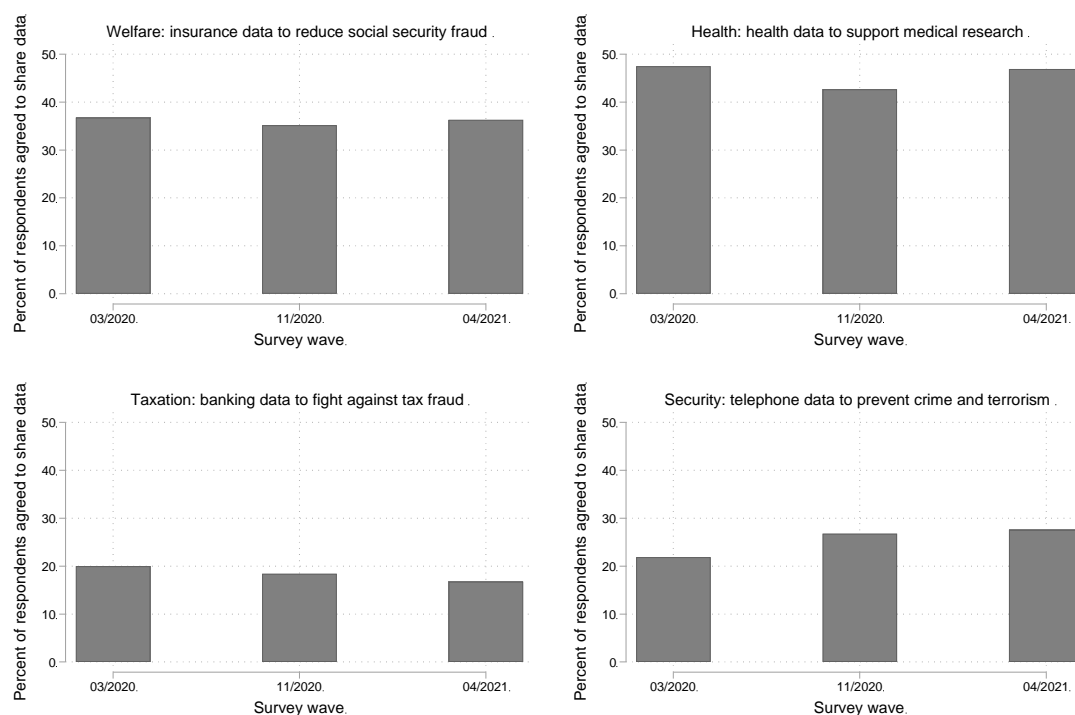
supplementary materials to this article (see Table S1 in the supplementary materials). The data for the analyses is available online (cf. data availability statement).

All survey samples were fielded in times of the COVID-19 crisis, which makes the information of the samples largely comparable. At the same time, respondents react under conditions that are different from the pre-and post-crisis period, and this might affect the results. We discuss this point in the conclusions of the article. Furthermore, the sampling strategy of the first survey is slightly different from the second and third sample. The second and the third survey waves allow for a reasonable comparison over time as they were both fielded after the first wave of the pandemic, i.e., during the "particular situation" once the first measures against the pandemic were taken, when the Swiss COVID app was available, and data sharing for public policy was part of the political debate. For these reasons, we use the first sample only for descriptive analyses (see section 5) and the third and second one for the regression analyses (see section 6).

5. Agreement to share personal data differs between policy issues

In all three surveys, respondents could indicate their consent to share their data on a five-item Likert scale. We aggregated the respondents who indicated that they somehow agreed or completely agreed to share their data for the specific policy issue (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Agreement to share personal data for public policy



The first remarkable result is that less than 50% of respondents are willing to share any of the data types for any of the policy purposes specified. Such a finding is congruent with the 2015 Eurobarometer observation that about two thirds of respondents in various EU members states express strong privacy concerns about data sharing with private companies or public authorities. The results from the Swiss surveys show however that respondents' agreement to share their data strongly varies across policy fields and is only slightly different across survey waves (Figure 1). The data reveal that support for sharing health and social security data is higher vis-a-vis banking and telephone data. The differences across policy fields are statistically significant if we compare the survey samples for the different policy fields using paired T-tests.⁵ Even when there is some variation over time, the "ranking" of the four policy fields

⁵ The results show a difference of -0.079 for insurance and health data, a difference of 0.18 for insurance and banking data, a difference of 0.09 for insurance and telephone data, a difference of 0.26 for health and banking data, a difference of 0.17 for health and telephone data, and a difference of -0.09 for banking and telephone data. All differences between policy fields are statistically significant.

remains the same. Respondents are most willing to share their data for (1) health policy, followed by (2) welfare policy, (3) security policy, and (4) taxation policy.

6. Agreement to share personal data for public policies differs between individuals

We now turn to the results of the regression analyses. We use OLS regression models with heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors, rather than ordered logit regressions, since the OLS models have much lower values for the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) and the Akaike information criterion (AIC). Substantially, the results do not differ across model types. In addition to the above-discussed variables, we insert a binary variable that controls for the two different survey waves and a categorical variable that measures the different policy fields. Model 1 estimates the likelihood to share data for public policy including the variables that operationalize our hypotheses as well as the control variables. Model 2 adds an interaction effect between trust and issue importance. Model 3 includes the interaction between trust and policy fields. Model 4 controls for the interaction between issue importance and policy fields (Table 3).

The results of the analyses show that three main factors are associated with a higher likelihood of sharing personal data for public policy (Table 3). First, when individuals consider the policy problem personally important, they are more likely to share their data. Second, if respondents hold a high level of trust in their government, they are more likely to share their data with State officials. Third, those who already use one or several (private and/or public) apps using personal data (i.e., health insurance, the SwissCovid-app, railway ticketing, or e-banking) are also more likely to share their personal data with the State, regardless of the type of data they share (social security, health, banking, or telephone data).

Table 3: Linear regression models, robust standard errors in parentheses

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 5	Model 6
Trust in federal government	0.101***	0.102***	0.110***	0.100***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.011)	(0.006)
Importance of the issue	0.176***	0.178***	0.176***	0.163***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.011)
App usage	0.063***	0.063***	0.063***	0.062***
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Left-right placement	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.003
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
November 2020 (base category)				
April 2021	0.018**	0.018**	0.018**	0.018**
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Education	0.023***	0.023***	0.023***	0.022***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Risk	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Age	-0.030***	-0.030***	-0.030***	-0.028***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
German-speaking (base category)				
French-speaking	-0.020***	-0.020***	-0.020***	-0.020***
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Male (base category)				
Female	-0.049***	-0.049***	-0.049***	-0.050***
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Welfare (base category)				
Health	0.078***	0.078***	0.078***	0.077***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.007)
Taxation	-0.165***	-0.165***	-0.165***	-0.168***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)
Security	-0.103***	-0.103***	-0.103***	-0.102***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)
Trust in fed. gov.*Issue import.		0.018*		
		(0.009)		
Welfare*Trust in feder. gov. (base_cat.)				
Health*Trust in feder. gov.			-0.006	
			(0.016)	
Taxation*Trust in feder. gov.			-0.027+	
			(0.015)	
Security*Trust in feder. gov.			-0.001	
			(0.016)	

Welfare*Issue import. (base cat.)				
Health*Issue importance				0.069*** (0.015)
Taxation*Issue importance				-0.013 (0.014)
Security*Issue importance				0.007 (0.016)
Constant	0.498*** (0.007)	0.497*** (0.007)	0.498*** (0.007)	0.498*** (0.007)
AIC	7140.63	7139.04	7142.49	7114.48
BIC	7246	7252	7271	7243
Observations	13836	13836	13836	13836

+ p<0.1, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

In contrast, political ideology seems no to be associated with the willingness to share data for public policy. Further analyses reveal that those leaning to the left tend to be more willing to share their social security data than those leaning to the right, however, these results are not very significant/robust (cf. supplementary materials for these analyses). The findings also reveal that women and French-speakers are less likely to share their data for public policy. Those who are older seem to be less willing to share data for public policy. A higher level of education seems to slightly increase the propensity for data sharing. Furthermore, the findings indicate that during the third survey wave (March 2021), respondents are more likely to share their data than during the second wave (November 2020). A plausible explanation for this finding is that respondents got used to data sharing for public policy during the COVID-pandemic. The results also confirm the insight from Figure 1, which shows that compared to social security data, citizens are more likely to share their health data and less likely to share their banking and phone data for public policy. Our results remain the same if we control for respondents' cultural openness and political interest (variables not included in the analysis, in Table 3).

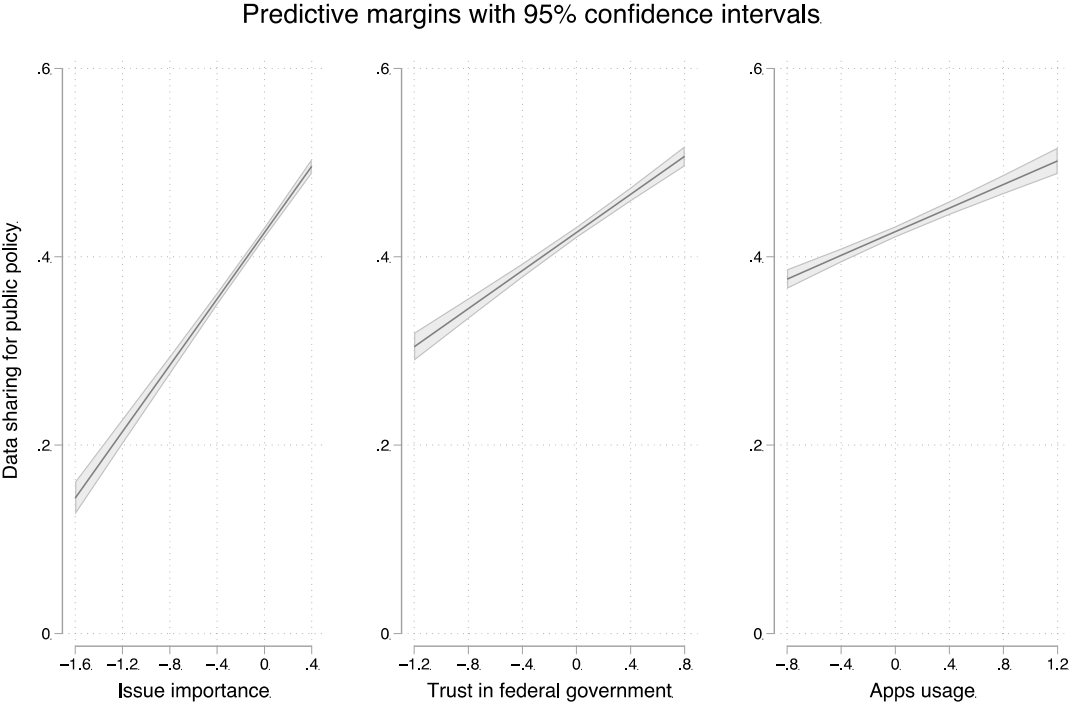
The interaction effects in Model 2 indicate that trust in government and issue importance reinforce each other. In other words, if citizens trust the government, they are more likely to share their data for public policy if they consider the problem to be important to them. Models 3 and 4 include interactions between the different policy fields and trust as well as issue importance. The main finding from the last two models indicates that especially those who consider health an important topic are willing to share their health data (in comparison to social security data).

In addition, we conduct sub-group analyses for some of the control variables. Firstly, we look at the differences between policy fields. The results show that the above discussed findings are quite similar across different policy fields regarding the variables that operationalize the hypotheses we discussed. The only exception is the interaction between trust in government and issue importance. In these analyses, the effect is visible regarding the sharing of banking and phone data but not for social security and health data. The regression coefficients of the control variables indicate that educated individuals are especially likely to share their social security and banking data for public policy compared to those with lower levels of education. Furthermore, the elderly are less likely to share social security and banking data compared to younger generations. Secondly, we compare the two language groups that are included in the analysis. The results reveal that amongst French-speaking respondents the probability to share personal data for public policies increased in April 2021 compared to November 2020. In addition, amongst the German-speaking population, those with a higher level of education and a greater probability to take risks are more likely to share their data, whereas the elderly are less willing to do this. These effects are not as clearly visible amongst French-speaking respondents.

Thirdly, we compare the survey wave from November 2020 with the data from April 2021. In the April 2021 data, the interaction of trust and issue importance is particularly noteworthy.

This result implies that if individuals consider a policy issue important, they are especially likely to share their data if they trust the government. The control variables also reveal that the effects of education (more likely), risk-taker (more likely), and age (elderly less likely) on data sharing are stronger for the later survey wave. We discuss the implication of this finding in the following paragraphs. Fourthly, we conduct sub-group analyses for three different age groups (18-39, 40-60, older than 61). The results reveal a left-right polarization amongst the oldest participants in the survey. Those who agree with policy positions that can be considered left-wing are more likely to share their data compared to those with rather right-wing positions. The youngest group of respondents was much more likely to report willingness to share their data in the April 2021 survey, and French-speaking respondents, in the youngest group, are significantly less likely to share their data.

Figure 2: Predictive margins on issue importance, trust in government, and app usage



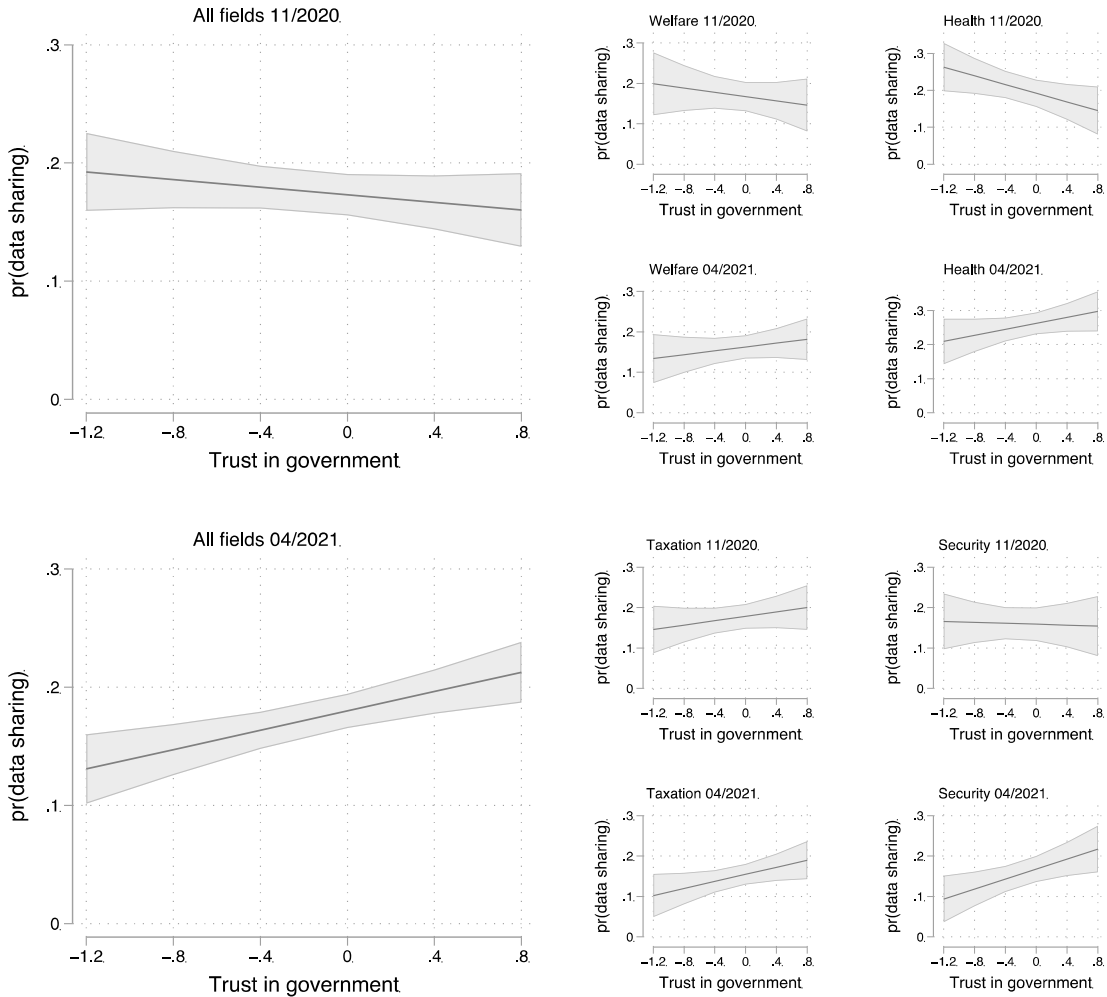
To better interpret the results, we now turn to a graphical analysis of the results regarding those variables that we use to operationalize our hypotheses and that turned out to be statistically significant in the regression analyses. Figure 2 illustrates that the likelihood to share data increases from 14 percent to 50 percent between the lowest and highest levels of issue importance. Regarding trust in federal government the propensity to share data augments from 30 percent to 50 percent from the extreme values of the variable measuring trust. Finally, concerning app usage, the probability to share data increases from 37 to 50 percent between the lowest and highest value for app usage. All the values are calculated with balanced values for the co-variates (Figure 1).

Our findings lend strong support to three of our hypotheses. First, citizens are more likely to share their data for the purposes of improving policy-making if they already use apps. This result supports the "slippery slope" or "foot-in-the door" psychological argument (van der Burg 1991), which implies that once individuals have started to use one application that requires their personal data, they are more inclined to also use other apps. Our results suggest that those who already have the habit of sharing their data also agree to do so for public policy, as expected by our fifth hypothesis. Second, our findings support the first hypothesis, according to which individuals who express higher trust in government are more likely to share their data for public policy as they do not perceive the state as a threat to their personal freedom (Bennet and Raab, 2006; Murphy et al., 2021). Third, the findings also show that individuals tend to share their personal data for public policy if they consider that the policy problem the data ought to help address is an important issue (as expected by our second hypothesis). This result lends support to the argument that citizens are willing to share their data if the latter helps resolve problems they consider important to their personal life, in the same way that they support politicians who promise to address these issues (Budge and Farlie, 1983; Bélanger and Meguid, 2008).

In contrast, the models suggest that ideology does not really matter (Table 3). Only the supplementary sub-group analyses suggest that respondents who are over 60 years old are more likely to share their data if they support policy positions associated with left parties. Apart from this small effect, we do not find any significant information regarding willingness to share data for public policy.

Finally, our findings might have implications for studying how age affects readiness to share data for public policies. Previous research has focused on younger individuals' willingness to share data and pointed to the importance of trust (Murphy et al., 2021). Our work confirms this research and adds that readiness to share data decreases with old age especially in the survey data obtained in April 2021 and amongst the German-speaking population in Switzerland. We also demonstrate that women clearly report a lower agreement for data sharing regarding public policy. This finding might have implications for feminist privacy research (e.g., Wyatt, 2008; Theilens et al., 2021).

Figure 3: Average marginal effects of issue importance over trust in government (95% confidence intervals)



Another important graphical description underlines the findings concerning third hypothesis focusing on the interaction of personal issue importance and trust in government. Figure 3 shows that at the average level of issue importance, trust in government increases the likelihood for the data we obtained in April 2021. During the survey conducted in November 2020, this effect was not visible. This effect is a bit bigger regarding those two policy fields where the overall willingness to share data for public policy is overall low (Banking and phone data). Surprisingly, the effect is rather strong for health data where it changed from a negative effect in November 2020 to a positive one in April 2021.

At this point, we can only speculate about the precise reasons for this change in attitude. One plausible explanation for this is that there was a politicization and learning effect about data-sharing for public policy during the period between the two surveys in the sense that those who trust the government and consider the problem important are more willing to share their personal data with the government for public policy. A very hypothetical justification for this result is that between the two surveys the vaccination programs started in Switzerland, and many citizens understood that they need to provide their data for the authorities to implement measures to lift regulations for those who are not vaccinated. The fact that being a risk-taker, highly educated, and young increases willingness to share data in this survey wave supports this argument since these groups are more likely to get the vaccine (at least amongst the young and urban population) (Léos-Torro et al. 2021).

7. Robustness of findings and limits

Our empirical analyses need to be interpreted carefully and we want to discuss four potential caveats. Firstly, it is worth highlighting that issue importance is not strongly correlated with ideology, thus legitimizing the formulation of two distinct hypotheses. Nevertheless, critics could argue that the concept of "issue ownership" (which the fourth hypothesis relies on) is multidimensional and encompasses both issue importance and policy position. Accordingly, voters perceive the party that owns an issue as the party that most cares about said issue (issue importance or policy priority) and, at the same time, as the party most able to handle the issue (policy objective or ideological policy positions) (see Walgrave et al., 2012, 2015). We thus re-estimate the models leaving the measure of issue importance out as a robustness check: the effect of ideology fails to become stronger (cf. supplementary materials).

Secondly, in our empirical analysis, we measure the willingness of citizens to share their data for public policy based on survey data that reports intended behavior, but we do not measure whether individuals really share their data. This is a potential validity problem in our data. Indeed, we face a paradox that is documented by previous studies: most people express very deep concern for privacy when they fill in a survey; at the same time, when they are confronted with practical choices to share or not to share their data, mostly with private companies, they eventually accept high privacy costs to benefit from the services provided by a new app (see Martin and Nissenbaum. 2016). Nevertheless, there is a high correlation between reported app use and willingness to share data. This implies that the difference of reported vs. real behavior regarding data sharing for public policies is probably not a major concern in our data set because respondents provide coherent information in the survey.

Thirdly, we claim to investigate the willingness of citizens to share private information with the State for the purposes of improving policymaking. We are quite confident that our results are robust for Swiss citizens, since we run consecutive surveys confirming the key findings. However, one limitation of such a research design is that the new insights we provide applies to Swiss residents only. Because privacy concerns are known to vary internationally (e.g., Pleger et al. 2021), the external validity of our conclusions should be addressed by upcoming studies. Indeed, we don't know whether Swiss citizens are more 'privacy preserving' than folks in other countries. In addition, we should also highlight that a Swiss idiosyncrasy might concern specific survey questions, as for instance the item about fiscal fraud. The "banking secrecy" is traditionally high in Switzerland and privacy concerns might be thus higher than in other countries in this particular policy domain.

To ensure that our results are valid beyond the Swiss case, we use data from an Austrian survey to approximately replicate our results (Kittel et al., 2021). In a nutshell, regression analyses

with these new data show that respondents who trust the government and use apps are most likely to share their personal data for public policy related to the COVID-19 pandemic, whereas political ideology has a weaker effect. Our analysis controls for respondents' age, education, readiness to take risks, and sex. The findings are available in the online supplementary materials.

Fourthly, we acknowledge that our survey items conflate data types with data use scenarios. This is potentially problematic since previous work has found data type and data use to have different (if sometimes overlapping) sets of expectations depending on the social context (Martin and Nissenbaum, 2016). Because our survey questions combine different data types with different policy uses, we are unable to disentangle whether it is data type, data use, or a combination of both that eventually impact respondents' judgment of data sharing acceptability. This limit should be considered when developing new surveys and comparison across policy domains. Furthermore, this last point is also relevant from a practical point of view: How is a government agency to know if it has public warrant to use one data type asked about for a different purpose?

8. Conclusions

This study contributes to the social science literature regarding ICT usage in public policy. Our empirical evidence shows that citizens' support for data sharing is generally low, but higher for attempts to prevent benefit fraud in social assistance and to improve health research than for efforts related to fighting tax evasion or preventing crime and terrorism. Our interpretation of this result is that citizens' willingness to give away personal data for public policy increases if they expect a personal benefit. Yet, if they perceive a potential danger from a privacy breach through policing, individuals' readiness to share their data declines. In comparison with

recently published research (e.g., Wenzelburger et al., 2023), our study focuses on the sharing of personal data for public policy in general and examines very different contexts of personal data.

This explanation is plausible because our analyses also clearly indicate that citizens are more willing to share their data with the State if they already use apps developed by private businesses (e.g., health insurers' apps) or public agencies (e.g., the SwissCovid App) (Lyon, 2002; Lupton, 2016). In addition, respondents are more prone to sharing their data for policy-making if they trust their government (Debus and Tosun, 2021; Wynen et al. 2022) and if the specific policy in need of their data addresses an important issue (Budge and Farlie, 1983; Bélanger and Meguid, 2008). In contrast and quite surprisingly, party politics and ideological preferences about the targeted policy objectives less clearly predict citizens' attitudes towards data sharing.

This study opens multiple venues for further research. More specifically, the next step would be to compare respondents who use contact-tracing apps to those who do not to better control for the possible gap between real behavior and self-reported intentions. Another extension of this research would be to include a more fine-grained measurement of trust and compare trust in different sector-specific public authorities and trust in private versus public apps (Six and Verhoest 2017). Future research should also assess the gender dimension of attitudes toward the use of sensitive data in public policy and related differences in the perceptions of the political dimension of privacy (e.g., Wyatt, 2008; Theilens et al., 2021). Finally, it would be important to redo this analysis in a time beyond crisis, since our data was collected during the COVID-19 period. In this instance, it would be particularly interesting to examine whether the level of willingness to share data remains the same and if the explanatory variables maintain their power. Furthermore, it would be very interesting to conduct the same study in different countries. Switzerland's measures against the COVID-19 pandemic were much less restrictive

than in neighboring countries (Trein et al. 2023), which might have influenced on willingness to share data for public policy.

Finally, what are the implications of this study from a normative and practical point of view? So far, the mainstream literature on privacy protection has failed to discuss differences across policy domains in depth. However, we show that issue importance matters. Put differently, it seems that individuals' assessment of the costs and the benefits of sharing their data with State officials—specifically, the tradeoff between their loss of privacy and their gains in solving important policy problems—is crucial to explaining how supportive citizens are of the use of their personal data for public policy. Our results bring policy domains back into the theoretical debate since differentiated privacy perceptions depend on the policy issue at stake. Furthermore, we show that party politics do not seem to matter that much. In contrast, trust in government is relevant in explaining preferences for the use of sensitive data in public policy. One possible explanation for this result is that the political debate is not yet strongly influenced by party politics, since parties do not yet have an intensely polarized position on the matter.

So, what could political decisionmakers undertake to increase the use of citizens' data in policy-making and service delivery? It is obviously too ambitious—and it would also be rather naïve—to develop even a tentative roadmap at this point. However, we suggest that public entities reflect on the following design principles when they elaborate a strategy to digitalize public policies and public administrations (Glasse, 2004). First, avoid a one-size-fits-all solution across policy domains. Rather, adopt a policy-specific and tailored approach. Second, instead of following a depoliticized approach, start with pilot-projects on policy issues that citizens consider high priorities, such as climate change, because data scandals around “hidden” practices of data use (e.g., through AI) might undermine public trust in the technology (König and Wenzelburger, 2021). Trust is key for individuals' willingness to share their data for public

policy, even if they consider an issue to be important. Third, target the actual users of existing apps, including apps developed and deployed by the private sector. Fourth, be sensitive of the gender gap as women are probably more reluctant to share their sensitive data with state authorities. To make our point clear: we do not at all pretend that these four design principles should be considered ultimate success factors. We only claim that they might be worth considering if policymakers want to improve the effectiveness of the delivery of public services through greater use of citizens' personal data.

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Online Supplementary Materials to the paper entitled: *Citizens' Agreement to Share Personal Data for Public Policies: Trust and Issue Importance*

1. Details on the survey questions for the main variables

Survey questions to operationalize willingness to share personal data for public policy.

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of support on a five-item Likert scale:

- I consent to sharing my health data to support research for medical progress.
- I consent to sharing my telephone data (connections and movement profile) to improve the prevention of crime and terrorism.
- I consent to sharing data about my bank accounts to optimize the fight against tax fraud.
- I consent to sharing my social insurance data to create a more efficient social system with less fraud.

Respondents were asked the following question to measure issue salience on a five-item Likert scale:

How important do you think the following political issues are?

- The fight against fraud in social security
- Public support for research into medical progress
- The fight against tax fraud
- Prevention of crime and terrorism

To measure trust, respondents were asked to indicate their level of trust in each of the following actors on a five-item Likert scale:

- The federal government
- The cantonal governments
- Scientific researchers
- Doctors and medical personnel
- The pharmaceutical industry
- Banks and insurances
- Health insurances

To operationalize the usage of apps, we asked whether respondents used one or several of the following apps:

- App provide by an insurance that measures steps and other physical activities
- Swiss-Covid App
- App of the Swiss Railway company
- App used for online banking

Respondents were asked the following two questions to measure their position on a left-right scale. We averaged the responses for the two questions into one variable:

1. Are you in favor of increasing or reducing taxes on high incomes?

- Very much in favor of increasing
- Rather in favor of increasing
- Neither
- Rather in favor of reducing
- Very much in favor of reducing
- No answer

2. Are you in favor of reducing or increasing federal social spending?

- Very much in favor of increasing
- Rather in favor of increasing
- Neither
- Rather in favor of reducing
- Very much in favor of reducing
- No answer

2. Details on the survey questions for the main variables

Table S1: Descriptive statistics

Variable	Sample 1					Sample 2					Sample 3				
	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Social Security data	1,000	0.510	0.308	0	1	1,498	0.459	0.349	0	1	2,102	0.485	0.333	0	1
Health data	1,000	0.584	0.303	0	1	1,498	0.533	0.338	0	1	2,102	0.570	0.333	0	1
Banking data	1,000	0.339	0.320	0	1	1,498	0.294	0.325	0	1	2,102	0.284	0.317	0	1
Tel. data	1,000	0.354	0.324	0	1	1,498	0.391	0.342	0	1	2,102	0.400	0.338	0	1
All apps						1,498	0	1	-1.525	1.816	2,102	0	1	-0.555	2.471
COVID-app						1,498	0.441	.497	0	1	2,102	0.400	.490	0	1
App insurance	1,000	0.197	0.398	0	1	1,498	0.184	0.388	0	1	2,102	0.161	0.367	0	1
Trust Fed. Gov.	0					1,498	3.396	0.955	1	5	2,102	3.306	1.011	1	5
Saliency Welfare	0					1,498	4.059	1.014	1	5	2,102	3.973	1.035	1	5
Saliency Health	0					1,498	4.028	0.947	1	5	2,102	4.040	0.936	1	5
Saliency Taxation	0					1,498	3.780	1.083	1	5	2,102	3.709	1.072	1	5
Saliency Security	0					1,498	4.327	0.834	1	5	2,102	4.237	0.903	1	5
Saliency all	0					1,498	4.049	0.729	1	5	2,102	3.990	0.753	1	5
Left-right	0					1,418	3.555	0.826	1	5	2,017	3.443	0.843	1	5
French-sp.	1,000	0.33	0.470	0	1	1,498	0.310	0.462	0	1	2,102	0.283	0.450	0	1
Risk taker	1,000	5.85	2.338	1	10	1,498	5.529	2.195	0	10	2,102	5.723	2.227	0	10
Education	1,000	3.032	1.271	1	5	1,493	3.103	1.292	1	5	2,102	3.680	1.460	0	6
Age	1,000	44.22	11.608	25	65	1,498	51.344	17.252	18	97	2,102	49.485	19.138	18	97
Female	1,000	0.5	0.500	0	1	1,498	0.493	0.500	0	1	2,102	0.504	0.500	0	1

Additional information regarding the sampling

The first survey is an online survey that was fielded in March 2020 as a part of a larger project on health policy and genetic data. It is a representative sample (N=1,000) of the Swiss population in that men and women are distributed equally and the participants, aged between 25 and 65, are evenly distributed in each age group. Furthermore, 67 percent of the sample is comprised of Swiss-Germans and the remaining 33 percent hail from Switzerland's French-speaking region. Sampling happened according to these three categories. The second and the third survey waves are discussed in the main text of the paper.

3. Supplementary regression models and analyses

Table S2: Linear regression models not controlling for issue salience using data from survey samples two and three, standard errors in parentheses

	Welfare	Health	Taxation	Security
Apps all	0.037*** (0.006)	0.041*** (0.005)	0.028*** (0.006)	0.040*** (0.006)
Left-right	0.005 (0.006)	0.010* (0.006)	0.020*** (0.006)	-0.009 (0.006)
French-speaking	0.003 (0.013)	-0.007 (0.012)	-0.012 (0.012)	-0.022* (0.013)
Trust fed. Government	0.063*** (0.006)	0.071*** (0.006)	0.054*** (0.006)	0.066*** (0.006)
Risk taker	0.003 (0.003)	0.007** (0.003)	0.001 (0.003)	0.000 (0.003)
Education	0.010** (0.004)	-0.002 (0.004)	0.005 (0.004)	0.002 (0.004)
Age	0.001** (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	0.001*** (0.000)
Female	-0.068*** (0.011)	-0.022* (0.011)	-0.069*** (0.011)	-0.030*** (0.011)
Wave three	0.030** (0.013)	0.052*** (0.013)	0.010 (0.013)	0.006 (0.013)
Constant	0.184*** (0.038)	0.219*** (0.038)	0.103*** (0.036)	0.164*** (0.038)
AIC	2097.43	1960.36	1754.98	2130.51
BIC	2159	2022	1816	2192
Observations	3450	3450	3450	3450

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Table S3: Linear regression models including interaction effects

	Health	All data average
Saliency health	0.117*** (0.008)	
User of health app	0.121*** (0.045)	
User of health app*Saliency of health	-0.007 (0.011)	
Left-right	0.004 (0.006)	0.029 (0.021)
French-speaking	-0.021* (0.012)	-0.093** (0.046)
Trust in federal government (cont.)	0.043*** (0.006)	
Third wave	0.044*** (0.012)	0.102** (0.045)
Risk-taker	0.006** (0.003)	0.006 (0.010)
Education	-0.003 (0.004)	0.037** (0.014)
Age	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.004*** (0.001)
Female	-0.032*** (0.011)	-0.193*** (0.040)
High trust in federal government		-0.044 (0.205)
Saliency of all issues		0.380*** (0.041)
High trust in federal government*Saliency of all issues		0.117** (0.055)
App usage		0.112*** (0.020)
Constant	-0.129*** (0.040)	-1.804*** (0.169)
AIC	1561.32	6084.38
BIC	1635	6153
Observations	3450	2262

* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01

Table S4: Differences between language groups, heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors in parentheses, stacked data

	French-speaking		German-speaking	
Trust in federal government	0.086*** (0.011)	0.085*** (0.011)	0.107*** (0.007)	0.108*** (0.007)
Importance of the issue	0.165*** (0.010)	0.168*** (0.010)	0.181*** (0.007)	0.183*** (0.007)
App usage	0.077*** (0.010)	0.077*** (0.010)	0.056*** (0.006)	0.056*** (0.006)
Left-right placement	-0.018+ (0.011)	-0.018+ (0.011)	0.011 (0.007)	0.011 (0.007)
Nov. 2020 (base cat.)				
Apr 21	0.029** (0.010)	0.029** (0.010)	0.013+ (0.007)	0.013+ (0.007)
Education	-0.002 (0.010)	-0.002 (0.010)	0.034*** (0.007)	0.035*** (0.007)
Risk	-0.021+ (0.011)	-0.022* (0.011)	0.019** (0.007)	0.019** (0.007)
Age	-0.001 (0.011)	-0.002 (0.011)	-0.041*** (0.007)	-0.042*** (0.007)
Male (base category)				
Female	-0.063*** (0.010)	-0.062*** (0.010)	-0.044*** (0.006)	-0.044*** (0.006)
Welfare (base category)				
Health	0.061*** (0.014)	0.059*** (0.014)	0.085*** (0.009)	0.085*** (0.009)
Taxation	-0.176*** (0.014)	-0.176*** (0.014)	-0.160*** (0.009)	-0.160*** (0.009)
Security	-0.128*** (0.015)	-0.129*** (0.015)	-0.092*** (0.009)	-0.092*** (0.009)
Trust in fed. gov.*Issue importance		0.036+ (0.018)		0.016 (0.011)
Constant	0.496*** (0.013)	0.495*** (0.013)	0.493*** (0.008)	0.493*** (0.008)
AIC	2152.41	2151.04	4959.47	4959.45
BIC	2234	2239	5053	5060
Observations	4012	4012	9824	9824

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table S5: Differences between language groups, heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors in parentheses, stacked data

	Nov 20		Apr 21	
Trust in federal government	0.104*** (0.009)	0.104*** (0.009)	0.100*** (0.007)	0.101*** (0.007)
Importance of the issue	0.175*** (0.009)	0.173*** (0.009)	0.175*** (0.007)	0.180*** (0.007)
App usage	0.068*** (0.009)	0.067*** (0.009)	0.063*** (0.007)	0.064*** (0.007)
Left-right placement	-0.009 (0.009)	-0.009 (0.009)	0.013+ (0.008)	0.014+ (0.008)
German-speaking (base cat.)				
French-speaking	-0.021* (0.009)	-0.021* (0.009)	-0.017* (0.008)	-0.017* (0.008)
Education	0.019* (0.009)	0.019* (0.009)	0.027*** (0.007)	0.028*** (0.007)
Risk	-0.015 (0.009)	-0.015 (0.009)	0.021** (0.008)	0.021** (0.008)
Age	-0.011 (0.010)	-0.011 (0.010)	-0.041*** (0.007)	-0.042*** (0.007)
Male (base category)				
Female	-0.070*** (0.009)	-0.070*** (0.009)	-0.034*** (0.007)	-0.034*** (0.007)
Welfare (base category)				
Health	0.076*** (0.012)	0.077*** (0.012)	0.079*** (0.010)	0.078*** (0.010)
Taxation	-0.145*** (0.012)	-0.145*** (0.012)	-0.180*** (0.010)	-0.180*** (0.010)
Security	-0.094*** (0.012)	-0.093*** (0.012)	-0.109*** (0.010)	-0.109*** (0.010)
Trust in fed. gov.*Issue importance		-0.016 (0.014)		0.041*** (0.012)
Constant	0.500*** (0.010)	0.501*** (0.010)	0.512*** (0.008)	0.510*** (0.008)
AIC	3136.54	3137.44	3981.06	3972.36
BIC	3223	3231	4072	4070
Observations	5768	5768	8068	8068

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table S6: Differences between age groups, heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors in parentheses, stacked data

	Age 18-39		Age 40-60		Age > 60	
Trust in federal government	0.079*** (0.010)	0.078*** (0.011)	0.118*** (0.009)	0.119*** (0.009)	0.102*** (0.011)	0.100*** (0.010)
Importance of the issue	0.176*** (0.009)	0.175*** (0.010)	0.174*** (0.009)	0.177*** (0.009)	0.182*** (0.011)	0.183*** (0.011)
App usage	0.050*** (0.009)	0.050*** (0.009)	0.088*** (0.009)	0.088*** (0.009)	0.052*** (0.010)	0.052*** (0.010)
Left-right placement	-0.014 (0.009)	-0.014 (0.009)	-0.011 (0.010)	-0.011 (0.010)	0.047*** (0.011)	0.047*** (0.011)
Nov. 2020 (base cat.)						
Apr 21	0.040*** (0.010)	0.040*** (0.010)	0.011 (0.009)	0.011 (0.009)	-0.002 (0.010)	-0.002 (0.010)
German-speaking (base cat.)						
French-speaking	-0.047*** (0.010)	-0.047*** (0.010)	-0.005 (0.010)	-0.005 (0.010)	-0.011 (0.011)	-0.011 (0.011)
Education	0.036*** (0.009)	0.036*** (0.009)	0.003 (0.009)	0.003 (0.009)	0.031** (0.011)	0.031** (0.011)
Risk	-0.022* (0.011)	-0.022* (0.011)	-0.013 (0.010)	-0.012 (0.010)	0.049*** (0.010)	0.049*** (0.010)
Male (base category)						
Female	-0.042*** (0.009)	-0.042*** (0.009)	-0.036*** (0.009)	-0.035*** (0.009)	-0.071*** (0.010)	-0.071*** (0.010)
Welfare (base category)						
Health	0.080*** (0.013)	0.081*** (0.013)	0.049*** (0.013)	0.049*** (0.013)	0.105*** (0.013)	0.105*** (0.013)
Taxation	-0.142*** (0.013)	-0.142*** (0.013)	-0.158*** (0.013)	-0.158*** (0.013)	-0.192*** (0.014)	-0.192*** (0.014)
Security	-0.122*** (0.013)	-0.122*** (0.013)	-0.101*** (0.013)	-0.102*** (0.013)	-0.086*** (0.014)	-0.087*** (0.014)
Trust in fed. gov.*Issue importance		-0.008 (0.016)		0.021 (0.015)		0.025 (0.019)
Constant	0.519*** (0.013)	0.519*** (0.013)	0.476*** (0.012)	0.475*** (0.012)	0.499*** (0.013)	0.498*** (0.013)
AIC	1761.42	1763.18	2314.24	2314.50	2871.35	2871.92
BIC	1844	1852	2398	2405	2955	2962
Observations	4332	4332	4752	4752	4752	4752

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table S7: Differences between data types, heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors in parentheses

	Welfare	Health	Taxation	Security
Trust in federal government	0.105*** (0.012)	0.092*** (0.012)	0.095*** (0.012)	0.105*** (0.011)
Importance of the issue	0.165*** (0.011)	0.234*** (0.012)	0.166*** (0.010)	0.166*** (0.013)
App usage	0.062*** (0.011)	0.066*** (0.010)	0.048*** (0.011)	0.073*** (0.011)
Left-right placement	0.028* (0.012)	-0.006 (0.011)	0.008 (0.011)	-0.021+ (0.012)
Trust in fed. gov.*Issue importance	0.007 (0.019)	-0.001 (0.020)	0.038* (0.016)	0.037+ (0.019)
German-speaking (base cat.)				
French-speaking	-0.006 (0.012)	-0.028* (0.012)	-0.016 (0.011)	-0.034** (0.012)
Education	0.054*** (0.011)	0.001 (0.011)	0.031** (0.011)	0.017 (0.011)
Risk	0.009 (0.012)	0.020+ (0.012)	0.002 (0.011)	-0.002 (0.012)
Age	-0.033** (0.012)	-0.010 (0.011)	-0.079*** (0.011)	0.006 (0.012)
Male (base category)				
Female	-0.062*** (0.011)	-0.029** (0.011)	-0.070*** (0.010)	-0.035** (0.011)
Constant	0.510*** (0.009)	0.578*** (0.008)	0.350*** (0.009)	0.403*** (0.009)
AIC	1902.87	1626.29	1529.52	2015.96
BIC	1971	1694	1597	2084
Observations	3459	3459	3459	3459

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

4. Supplementary regression models and analyses

Table S4: Descriptive statistics recoded Austrian Corona-data (Kittel et al. 2021)

Variable	Obs.	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
Corona-App data (W16_Q27A1)	1,602	.519975	.3281131	0	1
Security data (W16_Q27A2)	1,591	.5012571	.3154786	0	1
Trust in government (W16_Q56A5)	1,603	4.764816	3.075652	0	10
Usage of Corona-App (16_Q24)	2,825	.180885	.5390448	0	2
Right-leaning (W20_Q58)	1,316	4.87766	1.987662	0	10
Education (SD_EDU_CAT)	2,758	2.145395	.7441457	1	3
Gender (SD_GENDER)	2,815	.5062167	.5000502	0	1
Age (SD_AGE_CAT)	2,825	2.707611	1.423508	1	5
Risk-taker (W15_Q83)	1,545	4.659547	2.508654	0	10

Figure S1: Linear regression models based on the Austrian Corona-data (Kittel et al. 2021)

