A Survey on Access to Justice in Libya

How people in Libya deal with justiciable problems encountered in their daily lives

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Preface

This report addresses the third phase of 'Access to Justice in Libya' (A2JiL), a research project by Benghazi University's Centre for Law and Society Studies (CLSS) and Leiden University's Van Vollenhoven Institute for Law, Governance and Society (VVI). The project is carried out over five years (2021-2025) and has three research phases: 1) on justice seekers and their justice journeys, 2) on justice providers and their responses, and 3) a national survey on access to justice. The present report was written after the third phase, and it provides an overview of the survey's key results.

The A2JiL project is part of a decade-old research cooperation between Libya and the Netherlands. For this project, our team is led by project leader Prof. Suliman Ibrahim who sits on both the Benghazi and Leiden teams. On the Benghazi side, the team further includes Prof. Zahi Mogherbi, Prof. El-Koni Abuda, Prof. Nagib Al-Husadi as senior experts, as well as Dr Jazeeh Shayteer, Dr Hala Elatrash, Mr Ali Abu Raas, Mr Mohamad Lamloum, and Dr. Tareq El-Jamali as principal researchers, and Dr Fathi Ali, as survey director. In addition, Ms. Fathia Shayteer took on various organizational tasks related to the survey, Mr. Ihab Al-Fallah provided IT-expertise and prof. Yousef El-Gimati cleaned and weighed the dataset. Furthermore, to gather the data, a team of 6 supervisors, 8 team leaders, and about 120 enumerators worked all throughout Libya to collect survey responses.
On the Leiden side, Suliman is joined by senior expert Prof. em. Jan Michiel Otto, project researcher Gieneke Teeuwen, and project officer Megan Ferrando. Between 2021 and 2024, Dr. Bruno Braak, post-doctoral researcher, and Dr. Hagar Taha, project officer, were part of the Leiden team.

We would like to express our gratitude to our colleagues at the VVI for their support in many different ways. We thank Prof. Adriaan Bedner, Prof. Janine Ubink, and Niels Verwers.

We would like also to acknowledge the generous funding and support for this project by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Netherlands Embassy in Libya. We would particularly like to thank Ambassador Mr Joost Klarenbeek, Ms Mariska Meijerhof, Ms Joëlle Blankestein, Ms Judith Gerrits, and Mr Bart Woelders. While the research team is grateful for the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs' funding, it appreciates the fact that it was always allowed to maintain its full independence.

Suliman Ibrahim,
15 September 2025

Part I: Substantive Survey Report

Introduction

This report presents the first results of a nationwide survey conducted in Libya in September and October 2024 as part of a research project on access to justice in Libya (A2JiL) by the Center for Law and Society Studies at the University of Benghazi, and the Van Vollenhoven Institute for Law, Governance and Society at Leiden University. This report provides an initial quantitative overview of the results of the survey. The findings in this report will inevitably raise numerous questions. Therefore, the results of the survey will be further contextualized, interpreted, and explained in upcoming publications.

The A2JiL project aims to determine the extent to which, and how, in a country beset by political and institutional divides, armed conflict, and a lack of security, people have access to justice, and how to enhance such access by identifying and reducing barriers. To disentangle the complex field of A2JiL, this project examines five areas: (1) Justice seekers, their concerns and actions, (2) justice providers, their institutions and services, (3) the outcomes of justice seeking-processes, (4) the contexts which impact on A2J (legal, political, economic, social, and historical), and (5) A2J problems (barriers), and interventions to mitigate them.[1]

The project employs qualitative and quantitative research methods to study these five areas. In its first qualitative phase, the project focused on justice seekers through twelve case studies covering diverse groups, thematically and geographically, such as victims of spousal violence in Benghazi, victims of oil pollution in the oases area, wives of missing persons in Bani Walid, and victims of displacement in Tawergha. In the second qualitative phase, a similar number of case studies were devoted to justice providers, such as the Sabha District Court, the Ajdabiya Court of First Instance, the Benghazi and Tripoli Courts of Appeal, the Benghazi and Sabha Public Prosecutions, and the Shahat Council of Elders. In both phases, the studies relied, among other methods, on interviews and focus groups. Despite the richness of the data revealed by these studies, the nature of these methods makes it difficult to generalize their findings.

The survey represents the quantitative research phase of this project and is a step towards generalization. It aims to answer the project's key questions from the perspective of the people in Libya, focusing on the following research questions[2]:

1. What justiciable problems have people in Libya experienced and who experienced those problems?
2. How, where and why did people try to solve the problems? How do problem resolution strategies differ between types of problems and different (groups of) people?
3. What were people's experiences in their journeys for justice and how do these differ?
4. What were justice seekers looking for and what were the actual outcomes of their journeys for justice?
5. What barriers did people encounter?
6. What are people's opinions on justice institutions, and do these differ between those that encountered justiciable problems and those that did not?

1 The project research questions are as follows: 1) When facing ordinary or transitional justice concerns, how, why and to what extent do people in Libya – particularly members of disadvantaged groups such as women, ethnic minorities, migrants and IDPs – engage with existing state and non-state justice providers in order to obtain a remedy? 2) How, why and to what extent do justice providers in Libya, both state and non-state, respond to the approaches and requests of the abovementioned justice seekers? 3) To what extent are justice providers' remedies adequate, both from the perspective of justice seekers and from the perspective of the rule of law? 4) How is A2J in Libya impacted by (e.g., legal, political, cultural, economic, social and historical) contextual factors and actors? 5) What are the main access to justice 'elements that work' and 'barriers'? Extrapolating from this, which elements that work could most effectively be built upon and improved, and which interventions offer the greatest potential in reducing the barriers and enhancing A2J in Libya?

2 This report will look into questions 1, 2, and 6.

The design of the survey served the purpose of collecting the necessary data to answer these questions. In this design, the project team drew inspiration from surveys conducted in other countries, such as the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. Libyan specificity was considered in the design of the survey. In order to achieve this, the team revisited the case studies and introduced questions to verify the hypotheses revealed by these studies. For instance, unlike the aforementioned surveys, the current survey includes not only questions addressing civil issues, but also criminal issues and issues relating to transitional justice. Thus, the survey represents an attempt to benefit from the wisdom and experience of similar survey projects while considering Libyan specificity. Consequently, the relationship among the different phases of the project is complementary. The results of the first two qualitative phases, although challenging to generalize, informed the survey questions, aiding in their validation and subsequent generalization or refutation.

It is important to emphasize that the present survey focuses mainly on justice seekers. The questions included on justice providers are directed towards these justice seekers, by asking about their experiences with justice providers and their perceptions of them. Surveying the experiences and views of members of justice-providing institutions, such as judges and traditional leaders, should be conducted through other surveys that, although planned, could not be carried out due to funding constraints. The project team tried to clarify the views of some of these members by commissioning former Supreme Court judges to write reflection papers about their experiences in various parts of the judiciary: criminal, civil, administrative and personal status. Despite the richness of these studies, they do not replace sectoral surveys targeting various judicial institutions, including courts, public prosecutions, public lawyers, councils of elders and others. The research team hopes to have the opportunity to do this in the future.

In presenting the first findings of the survey, this report pays special attention to vulnerable groups. It examines several characteristics, including gender, ethnicity, displacement, education, income, age, and region. Further characteristics will be taken into account in future studies.

Methodology

The Access to Justice in Libya survey aims to contribute to a better understanding of the justiciable problems that people in Libya face in their daily lives, and how they go about solving them. Aiming to cover the journeys for justice from the perspective of those facing justiciable problems, the survey took inspiration from Hazel Genn's seminal work titled 'Paths to Justice: What people do and think about going to law' (1999). The A2JiL survey is based on the notion of justiciable problems as coined by Genn. This refers to problems that "raise legal issues, whether or not it was recognized by the respondent as being "legal" and whether or not any action taken by the respondent to deal with the [problem] involved the use of any part of the [...] justice system" (Genn, 1999, p.12). In the A2JiL survey the 'justice system' has been interpreted broadly, including non-state institutions operating in the justice sphere. Furthermore, whereas Genn's focus was mainly on civil justice, the A2JiL survey includes a wide variety of justiciable problems people living in Libya may face in their daily lives, including those of criminal nature. For the sake of brevity and readability, 'problems' will be used to refer to justiciable problems in the remainder of this report.

Table 1: Overview of problem categories and an illustration of sub-types included per category as used in this report.

Problem category	Includes sub-problems related to (amongst others):
Employment	Contract & terms, unequal opportunities, loss of job, non- or late payment, working conditions, work accidents or injuries, harassment at work, rights at work, work permit, disciplinary procedures
Housing & land	Owning, renting or renting out real estate, forced eviction, expropriation, displacement, neighbors, environmental pollution, land use, war related damages, non- or late payment of rent or deposit, subletting, terms of lease, living conditions, joint ownership & communal repairs
Services & goods	Healthcare, education, utilities, allowances or monetary assistance, consumer problems
Crime	Crimes against persons including assault, defamation, sexual offences, witchcraft, kidnapping, attempted murder, and crimes against property including damaging property, theft or robbery, occupying property, fraud, cybercrime, traffic incidents
Family	Proof of lineage, ending a marriage, forced marriage, spousal violence, alimony, custody, inheritance, missing & absent persons
Citizenship & identification	Nationality & citizenship, national number, registering births & deaths, obtaining personal documents
Personal liberties	Unlawful search of person or property, unlawful arrest, unlawful detention, kidnapping, enforced disappearance, eavesdropping, poor treatment, abuse, torture, other wrongs during investigation or trial
Debt & money	Borrowing & lending, harassment by creditors, rejection of loan or (insurance) claim without reason, guarantor problems

The survey includes 10 categories of problems[3], which in turn include various problem sub-types. Respondents were asked to select each sub-type in which they experienced a problem between August 2019 and August 2024, including problems that started before August 2019 but remained relevant in that timeframe. Table 1 above provides an overview of the problem categories and examples of the sub-types included per category.[4] Respondents were asked several questions regarding the oldest problem they had experienced in each relevant category, in order to gather more information on the nature of their problems and approaches. Once all problems were identified, more detailed questions were asked about their single oldest problem. More detailed information was collected on this oldest problem, covering, for instance, its nature and impact, the courses of action pursued, and the experiences with various institutions encountered in those courses of action. Because the selected problem was the oldest (that is, it started the furthest away in time), the journey for justice that the survey seeks to grasp is more likely to have developed towards the final stages.

The survey targeted residents of Libya who are 18 or above at the time of the survey. A sample of 3,975 respondents was selected using a stratified multi-stage random sampling technique with interviews allocated according to the Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) method. This method ensures a complete demographical and geographical representation of the population of Libya. The sample size allows for generalization about the population of Libya (18 years old and above with a confidence level of 95% and a maximum margin of sampling error of 1.55%). A face-to-face personal interviewing technique, in respondents' homes, was used to collect the data. Fieldwork was carried out between 8 September 2024 and 17 October 2024. The interviews were conducted by a group of enumerators from the university of Benghazi. Most of the enumerators have been working with the university for a long time and draw on extensive experience in conducting surveys all over the country. The enumerators also received a training course that covered areas like theoretical perspectives of social research and practical aspects of the research, especially those related to the Libyan context, the questionnaire contents, research ethics, and interview skills. Throughout the fieldwork, a rigorous quality control routine was implemented. A complete overview of the sampling, data collection, fieldwork, data cleaning and weighting is available in the technical survey report, in part II of this report (page 31 and onwards). Furthermore, appendix A presents an overview of the descriptive statistics of the seven core variables included in this report: gender, ethnicity, displacement, education, income, age, and region. As mentioned before, this report is limited in scope and includes an initial and selective analysis of the survey data. The results presented below are based on bivariate statistical analyses including the chi-square test, t-test, ANOVA, phi, Cramer's V, and Pearson's r. For the purpose of readability and to align with the intended audience's priorities, this report only includes the findings of these tests. The test statistics themselves are not included. Generally, results were included if they were statistically significant and meaningful in terms their importance to the research objectives. Multivariate analyses, including regressions, have not been carried out and are envisaged for future publications and reports.

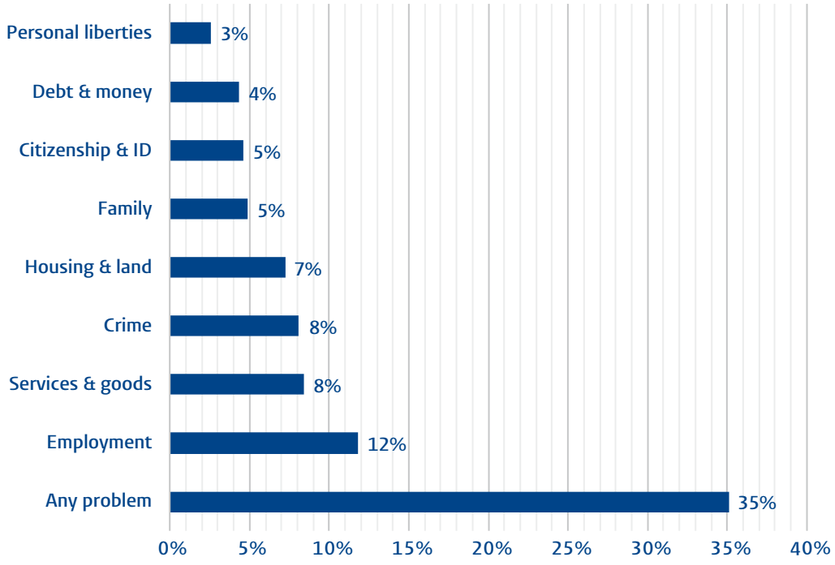
3 Employment, owning real estate, renting real estate, renting out real estate, citizenship & identification, goods & services, debt & money, family, personal liberties, and crimes.

4 For the purpose of analysis, the problem categories related to housing, land and real estate were merged into one category: housing & land. For this reason, the table includes 8 categories instead of the 10 included in the survey. The analyses in this report are based on these 8 categories.

An Overview of Justiciable Problems in Libya

More than **one in every three people** (35%, 18 and older) in Libya experienced at least one justiciable problem in the past 5 years. As shown in figure 1, problems related to employment occur most frequently; more than one out of ten people (12%) in Libya experienced one or more **employment-related problems.** Problems around **services and goods** were also quite common, with about 1 in every 12 people (8%) in Libya having experienced them at least once. Furthermore, slightly more than 8% of adults in Libya experienced a **problem related to crime** in the last 5 years. Problems related to **housing and land** were experienced by slightly more than 7% of people. The average number of problem types in which one or more problems were reported is 0.65 per person.[5] Out of those experiencing problems, the majority, about 60%, experienced only one problem in the last 5 years.

Figure 1: Percentage of respondents (n=3975) with one or more problem, per problem category.



5 This number represents the average number of sub-types that were selected per person, and it is likely an underestimation of the actual average number of problems faced. This is due to the way problems were identified. Respondents were asked to select a problem from a list if they experienced it at least once in the last 5 years. 2579 problems were selected in total. This means that all respondents combined experienced at least that number of problems, but the actual number could be higher as it is possible to face a specific problem multiple times.

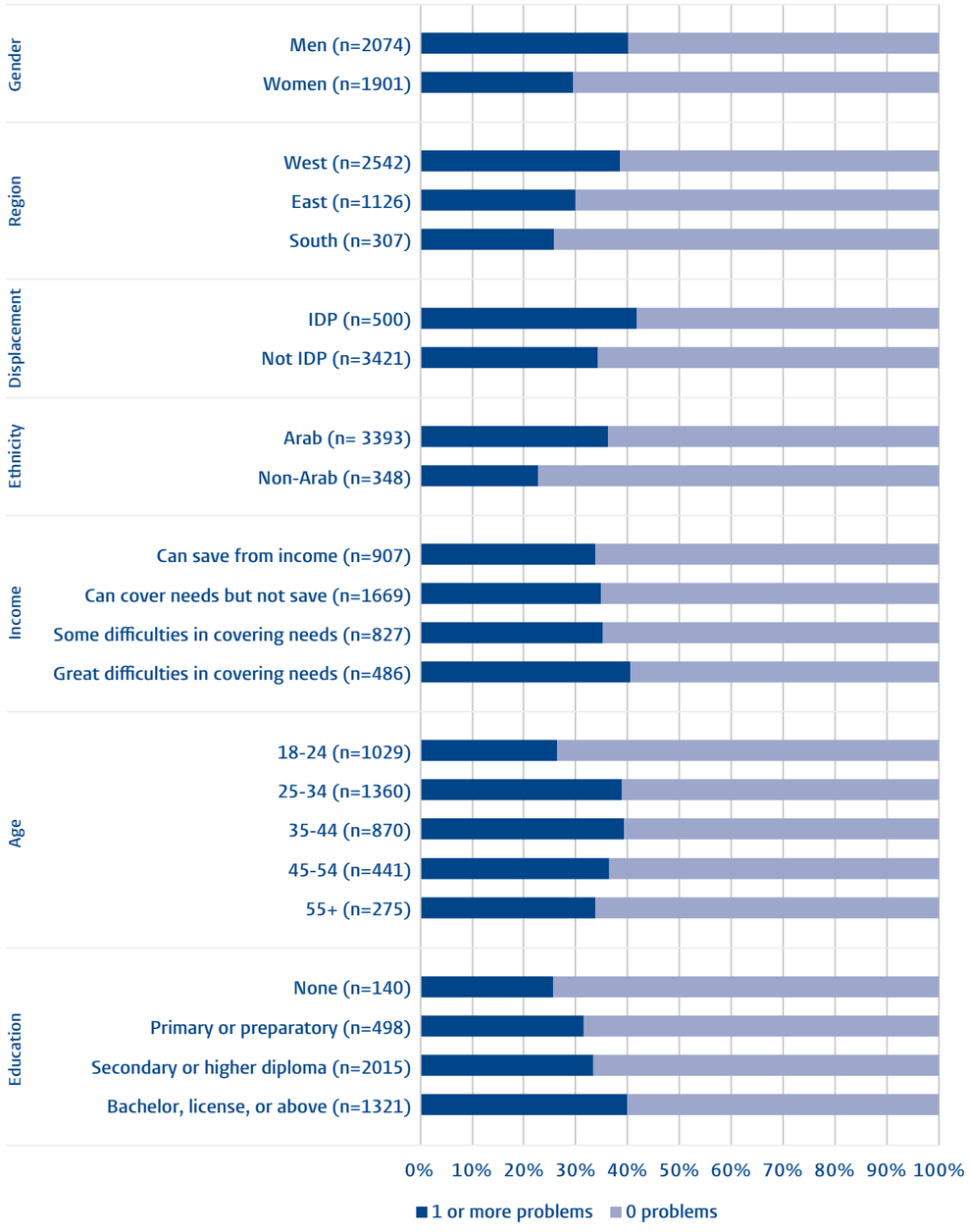
Different groups in Libyan society have different experiences with justiciable problems. As shown in figure 2 below, some were more likely to experience a problem, or experienced more problems on average. More **men** experienced a problem, and they experienced problems in a higher number of problem types on average compared to women.[6] **People between 25 and 34 years old** faced most problems out of all age categories, closely followed by the 35-44 year olds. This latter group faced problems in the highest average number of problem types of all age groups.[7]

Problem experience also increases with the **level of education**. Compared to people with lower levels of education, more people in Libya with bachelor degrees or above experienced a justiciable problem, and experienced more problem types on average.[8] Furthermore, ethnicity is related to problem experience. Our survey includes people in Libya from various ethnicities, who have been grouped into Arabs and non-Arabs for analytical purposes. More **Arabs** experienced a justiciable problem and they also experienced problems in a relatively high number of problem types on average compared to non-Arabs.[9]

The extent to which the **income** is sufficient to provide for the household's needs is related to problem experience. More people living in a household that faces great difficulties in covering their needs experienced a justiciable problem compared to those facing some or no difficulties. On average, this group also faced problems in more problem types than the others.[10] Lastly, where someone lives contributes to problem experience. People in Libya who are, or have been, **displaced from their original place of residence** experienced problems more frequently, and also experienced problems in a much higher number of types.[11] More **people living in the west** of the country experienced a problem compared to those in the east and south, and they also faced problems in a higher average number of problem types.[12]

6 0,74 problem types on average for men, compared to 0,54 problem types on average for women.
7 Problems in 0.78 problem types on average.
8 0.80 problem types for bachelor and above, compared to 0.45-0.67 problem types for lower educational levels, depending on the level.
9 0.64 problem types on average for Arabs, compared to 0,35 for non-Arabs.
10 0.87 problem types per person on average.
11 1.07 per person for IDPs and 0.59 per person for non-IDPs. Displacement is also included as a problem in the housing category. The average number of problem types in which IDPS experience problems remains higher when excluding displacement from the analysis (0.97 on average, compared to 0.58 for non-IDPS). However, the difference in percentage of IDPs that experience any problem is no longer significantly higher than non-IDPs.
12 For the west, the average number of problem types in which problems were experienced per person is 0.74, compared to 0.51 and 0.41 in the east and south.

Figure 2: Percentage of people experiencing one or more problems, per demographic category.



Dealing with Justiciable Problems: Looking for Information

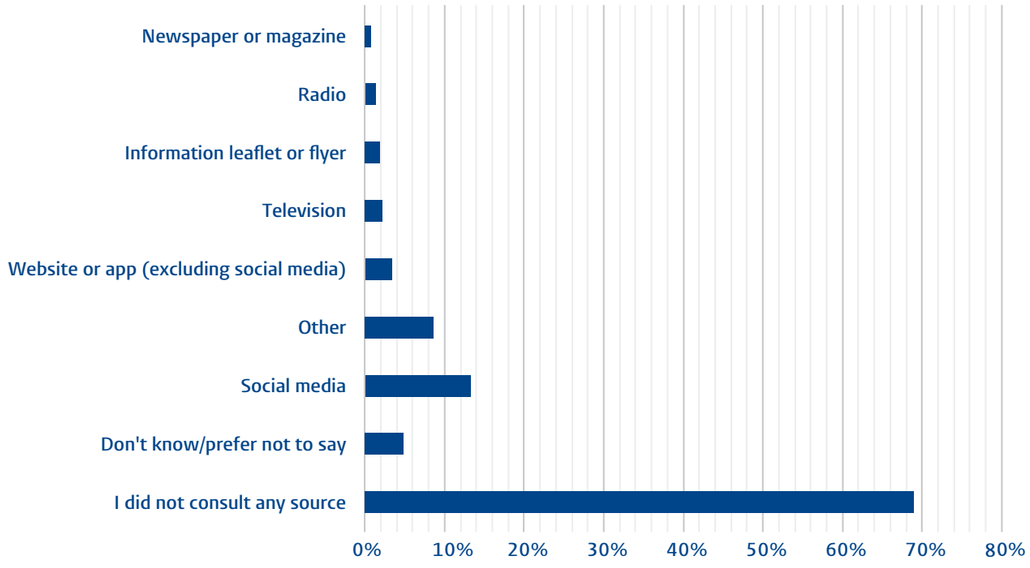
A person faced with a justiciable problem can take various different courses of action. The survey includes **three different 'steps'** in the journey for justice: 1) looking for information in material sources; 2) consulting an advisor for assistance, advice or representation; and 3) taking actions towards dispute resolution, including the involvement of a third party (or institution) to resolve the dispute. The following parts will look at these steps. Also, the reasons for not taking a certain step will be presented.

Consulting material sources of information

In the survey, respondents were asked whether they consulted material sources of information to help them better understand or resolve the problems they were facing, and if so, which ones. As shown in figure 3, **for the vast majority of problems no material source was consulted.** When a material source was used, **social media** was the most frequently used option.

The usage of material sources is different across problems and groups of people. Material sources were consulted most in problems related to crime, and services and goods, where they were used in 30% of problems for both categories. In problems related to debt and money, or citizenship and identification, material sources were used the least (in 18% and 23% of problems respectively). Material sources were used the most by people in the east (36% of problems, compared to 24% in the west and 21% in the south), those who are better off financially (33% of those who can save, compared to 16% of those who face great difficulties covering their needs) and women (29% of problems, compared to 25% for men).

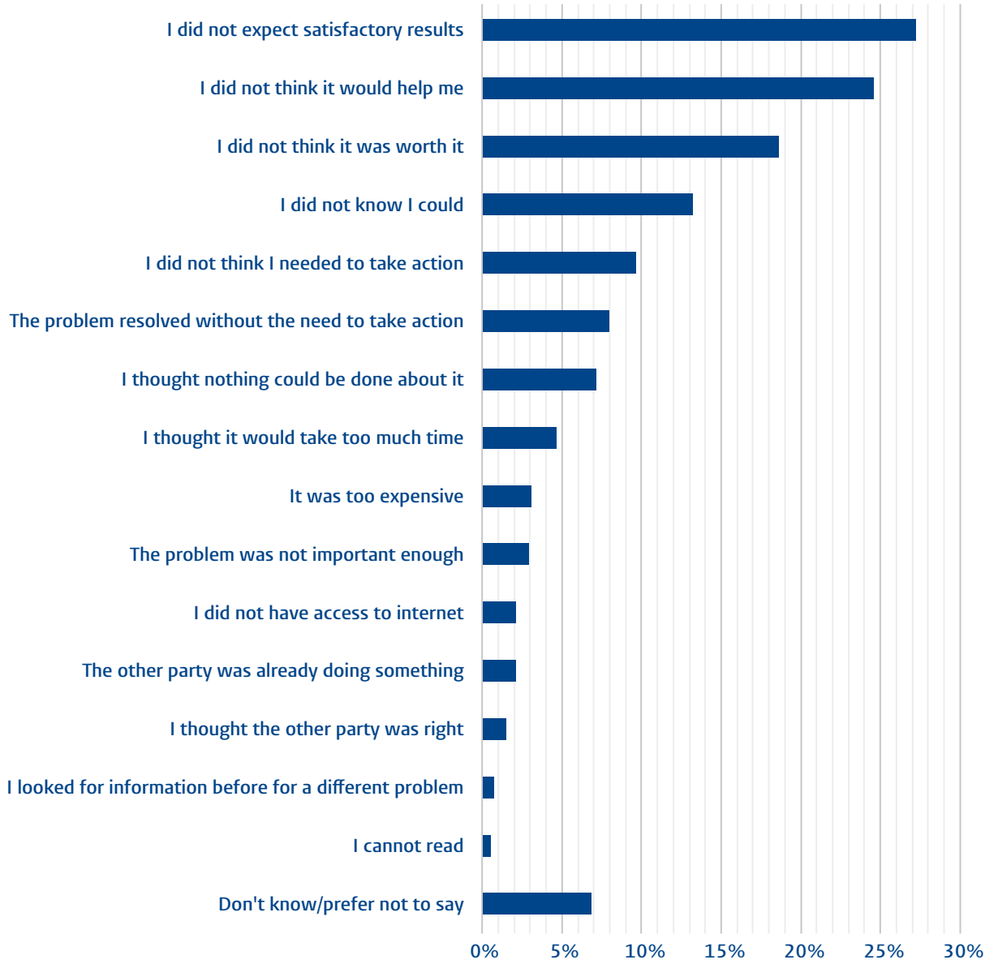
Figure 3: Percentage of problems in which a material source was consulted (n=2110). Respondents could select multiple answer options.



Reasons for not consulting material sources

For the vast majority of problems, no material source was consulted. Out of all reasons, as presented in figure 4 below, the top-3 relate to negative expectations about how doing so could contribute to resolving the problem. For the majority of reasons, reporting rates do not vary between different groups of people. For the sake of brevity, not all reasons are further analyzed in this report.[13] The average percentages per group are included in footnotes.

Figure 4: Percentage of problems in which a reason was provided, out of the number of problems where no material source was consulted (n=1454). Respondents could select multiple answer options.



13 Differences between groups exist for the following reasons not included in the text: 'the problem was not important', 'the other party was right', 'the problem was already resolved without the need to do so' and 'I did not think it was needed'.

People in the East, Arabs, women, and those living in lower income households reported **not expecting satisfactory results**[14] as a reason for not consulting material sources in a higher percentage of problems on average.[15] The difference between the first two groups is especially noteworthy, with the percentage being more than twice as high in the east compared to the south, and double for Arabs compared to non-Arabs. Furthermore, respondents in the west reported much more frequently that they thought **consulting a source would not help** them, compared to respondents from the east.[16]

Differences in other reasons for not consulting material sources are quite small, hence only a selection will be presented here.[17] People in lower income households reported that it was **too expensive** and that they had **no internet access** more often than those in higher income households. However, the average percentage of problems in which these reasons were reported was still low, with 3% and 6% for lower and higher income households respectively. People aged 55 and over reported not having internet access more often, in 9% of problems. The same group reported not being able to read as a reason for not consulting material sources in 3% of their problems, which is higher compared to other age groups, but is still quite limited. People without any education reported not knowing they could consult sources, not having internet access and not being able to read as reasons for not consulting material sources in a higher percentage of problems. However, this finding needs to be interpreted cautiously due to the rather limited size of this group.

14 Reported in average percentage of problems: 35% East, 27% West, 15% South; 30% Arabs, 15% non-Arabs; 33% for women, 25% for men; 31% low income household, 29% middle income household; 20% low income household.
15 The number of experienced problems differs across groups. To facilitate comparison between groups, the percentage of problems for which each respondent reported a certain action or reason was calculated. In this way, the number of problems per unit (person, group) does not impact the analysis of differences between units. For this reason, the average percentages per group are reported rather than the average number per group.
16 12% of problems on average in the East, compared to 25% in the West.
17 In addition, differences exists for: 'I did not think it was worth it' (reporting increases with level of education) and 'I thought it would take too much time' (higher percentage of problems for low and middle income households).

Dealing with Justiciable Problems: Consulting an Advisor

Talking to an advisor can help a justice seeker better understand or resolve a justiciable problem. Respondents were asked whether they contacted an advisor to obtain assistance, advice or representation in relation to each problem they faced. In order to grasp justice journeys as completely as possible, this study is not limited to legal advisors. Rather, it includes various types of people and organizations, which are presented in table 2 below.

Table 2: Categories of advisors covered in A2JiL survey.

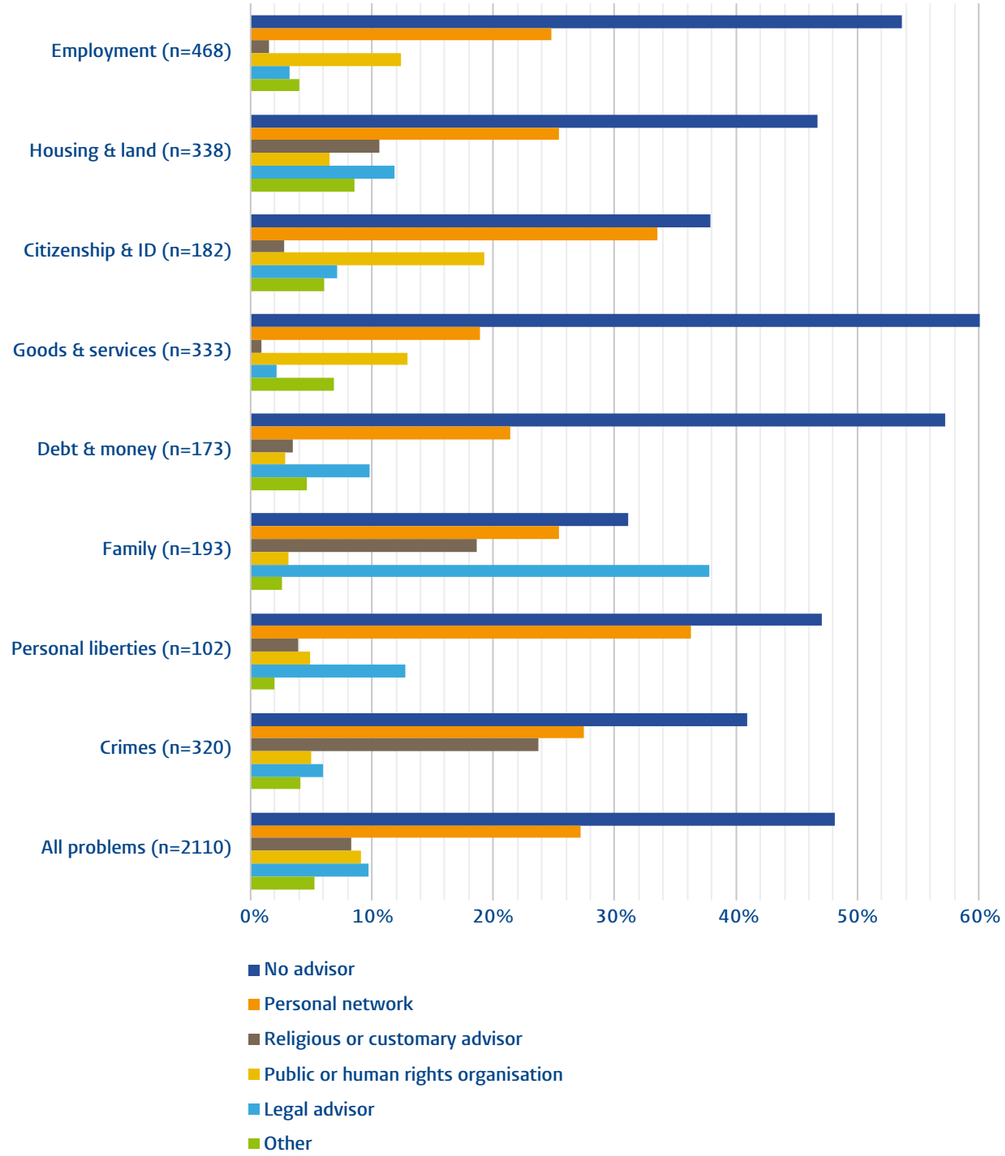
No advisor	Those who did not consult an advisor
Personal network	Family, friends & acquaintances An influential person
Religious & customary actors	Religious sheiks or institutions Sheikh of a tribe or customary committee
Public or human rights organizations	A public official or government agency A human rights organization
Legal advisors	A public lawyer A private lawyer
Other	Other

When people in Libya with a problem consulted an advisor, someone in their **personal network** was by far the most popular choice. These were consulted in almost 1 out of 3 problems. The second most popular advisor overall, **a lawyer**, was only contacted in 1 out of 10 problems. Private lawyers were contacted in about 7% of all problems, making them more popular than public lawyers, who were only contacted in 2% of all problems. No advisor was contacted in 48% of all problems.

People consult different advisors for different types of problems, as shown below in figure 5. In particular, **family problems stand out**. People in Libya with family problems consulted a lawyer in 38% of problems, which is considerably higher than in other problem categories. Also, only 31% of those with a family problem did not consult any advisor, which is low compared to other problems. Religious and customary leaders were consulted most in problems related to crime, whereas personal networks were used most in problems related to personal liberties, and citizenship and identification. Public and human rights organizations were contacted most in citizenship & identification issues, which could be unsurprising given the nature of those problems.

Furthermore, several personal characteristics relate to the consultation of advisors. Across the entire population, advisors are consulted in an average of 48% of problems per person. However, people in higher-income households, people that have never been displaced and those living in the west made more use of advisors. People in Libya facing great difficulties in covering their family's needs contacted an advisor in only 37% of their problems on average; for those who can save from their income this percentage is significantly higher (54% on average). People who were displaced consulted an advisor in 39% of their problems on average, compared to 49% for those who have never been displaced. Albeit less striking than the differences mentioned before, there is also a regional difference. People living in the east consulted an advisor in 42% of their problems on average, compared to 49% for those living in the west. Lastly, there is a difference between men and women. On average, men did not contact any advisor for 53% of their problems, against 46% of women. However, there is no statistical evidence that women used advisors in a higher percentage of problems.

Figure 5: Percentage of problems in which advisor was consulted. Respondents could select more than one advisor per problem.



Some advisors were used more frequently by some groups of people compared to others. Those living in the west, those who have never been displaced, and those with higher incomes made most use of their **personal network**. Libyans in the west used advisors from their personal networks in 26% of problems on average, compared to 23% in the south and 18% in the east. Displaced persons consulted their personal networks in an average of 19% of the justiciable problems they experience, compared to 25% for non-displaced persons. For income, those with the lowest incomes reached out to their personal networks in the lowest percentage of problems on average, but the highest income groups do not necessarily consult their networks most.

Consultation of **religious or customary advisors** is different across ages and levels of income. People aged 35-54 consulted religious or customary advisors more than other age groups. Those aged 35-44 and 45-54 contacted these advisors in an average of 10% and 12% of problems respectively, compared to only 4% of problems on average for 18–24-year-olds. Having an income that is sufficient to cover one's needs relates to the consultation of religious or customary advisors. People in Libya with an income that covers their needs contacted this type of advisor in 9% of problems on average, compared to 7% for those who faced difficulties covering their needs.

Education and income relate to consulting **legal advisors**. People in Libya without any education hardly ever used lawyers; they did so in less than 1% of their problems. However, since this group is rather small[18] this finding has to be interpreted cautiously. Lawyer usage was highest for those with primary or preparatory education. This group consulted a legal advisor in 11% of their problems on average. For those with higher than primary or preparatory education, the average is slightly lower, at 8%. With regards to income, those with middle-incomes[19] made most use of lawyers, in 10% of problems on average. When considering how well the income covers the family's needs, those who can save from their income consulted lawyers in the highest average percentage of problems (11%), in contrast to those who face some difficulties in covering their needs (5%). Those who can cover their needs but cannot save, and those who face great difficulties in covering their needs both consulted a lawyer in about 8% of their problems on average.

Consulting the last type of advisor, a **public or human rights organization**, is only related to displacement. Displaced persons consulted these organizations in 5% of problems, compared to 9% for non-displaced persons. Ethnicity is not related to consultation of advisors, not in general and not for specific types of advisors. This means that, based on this data, there are no differences in whether and which advisors are consulted between people who belong to different ethnic groups.

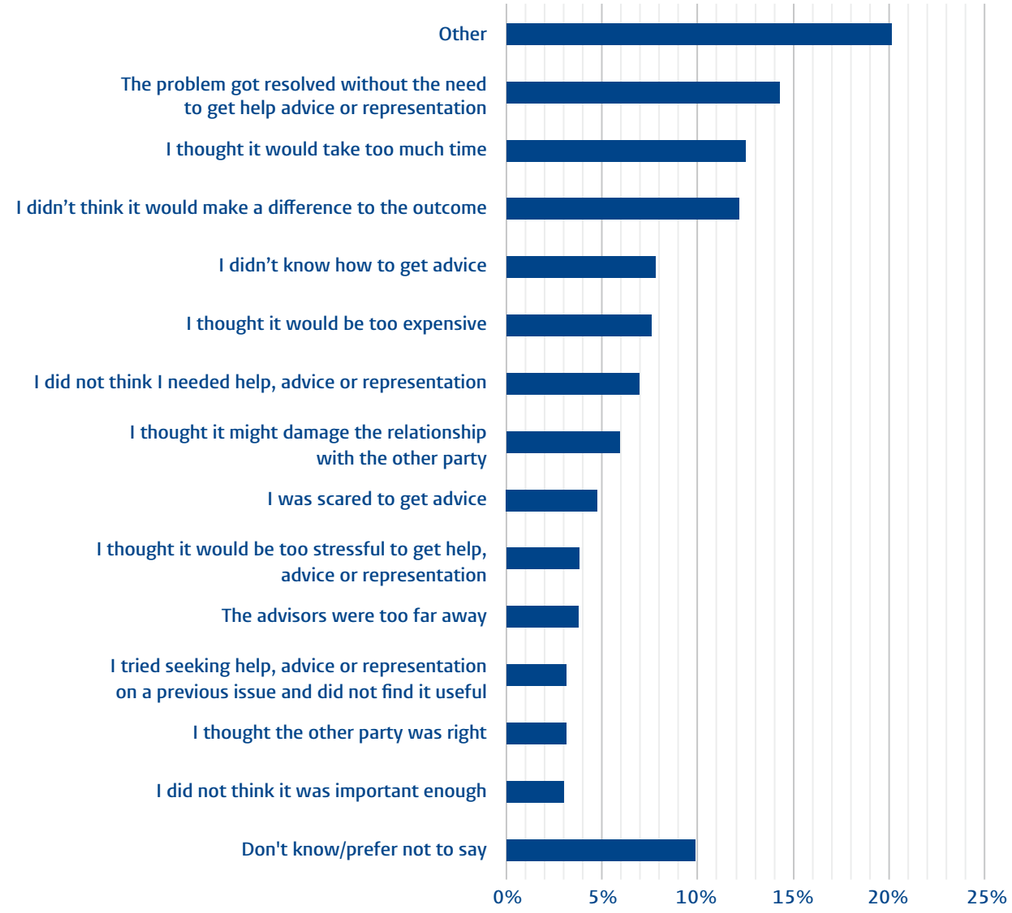
Reasons for not consulting an advisor

In about half of the problems no advisor was contacted. The reasons for not doing so are presented in figure 6. In 14% of problems where no advisor was consulted, this was because the problem was resolved **without the need to do so**. Furthermore, in 12% of problems no advisor was contacted because the person facing the problem thought the consultation **would take too much time**. In the same percentage of problems, respondents reported **not thinking it would make a difference** to the outcome as the reason for not consulting an advisor.

18 Only 3,5% of respondents (n=3975) did not complete any education. Out of all respondents with one or more problems (n=1397), 2,6% did not complete any education. Out of all respondents (n=3975) only 0,9% faced a problem and did not complete any education, making this a rather small group

19 Between 2000 and 6000 LYD per month.

Figure 6: Percentage of problems in which a reason was provided, out of the number of problems where no advisor was consulted (n=1015). Respondents could select multiple answer options.



Groups of people differ in their reasons for not contacting an advisor, but these differences are generally not very big.[20] The most and largest differences can be found in the average percentage of problems in which **fear of damaging the relationship with the other party** was reported. This percentage is higher in the South (14%) compared to the West (7%) and East (3%), for Arabs (8%) compared to non-Arabs (2%), for people living in high- (13%) and middle-income (9%) households, compared to low-income households (4%), for those aged 25-34 (8%) compared to 18-24 (2%), and for those with no education (19%) compared to those with education at the primary (2%) or secondary level (5%). Due to the limited group size, the findings related to education need to be interpreted with caution.

Thinking that contacting an advisor **would not make a difference** was reported more often by those in middle-income households and those with higher levels of education. For middle-income households this reason was mentioned in 17% of problems on average, compared to 10% for low- and 2% for high-income households. For those having completed education on the secondary or bachelor level, this reason was indicated in 12% and 15% of problems on average respectively, compared to 5% for no education and 7% for primary education.

There are various reasons for not consulting an advisor relating to **practical concerns**, such as the expected investment in terms of money and time, and the distance to the advisor. The **expected expenses** were reported more by those living in lower income households, people aged 35-44, and those with lower levels of education. People in low-income households reported this reason in 10% of problems on average, compared to half of that (5%) for middle- and high-income households. For those aged 35-44, the average percentage of problems in which this reason was reported was 13%, compared to 7% or below for all other age groups. With regards to education, the average percentage of problems in which this reason was reported is much higher (29%) for those who did not complete any education, compared to other educational levels with averages of 11% for primary, 6% for secondary and 5% for bachelor and up.

People in middle-income households more often said that the advisor was **too far away**. The distance was reported as a reason for not consulting an advisor in 7% of problems on average for middle-income households, compared to 4% for high-income and 2% for low-income households. Compared to women, men also found advisors to be too far away more frequently, and in addition they stated that contacting an advisor would take too much time in a higher percentage of problems. The **time investment** was mentioned in 13% of problems on average for men, compared to 9% for women and the distance was reported in 5% of problems on average for men and 2% for women. For people aged 35-44 the time investment needed to contact an advisor was reported in a relatively high percentage of 19% on average, compared to 9% for those aged 18-34.

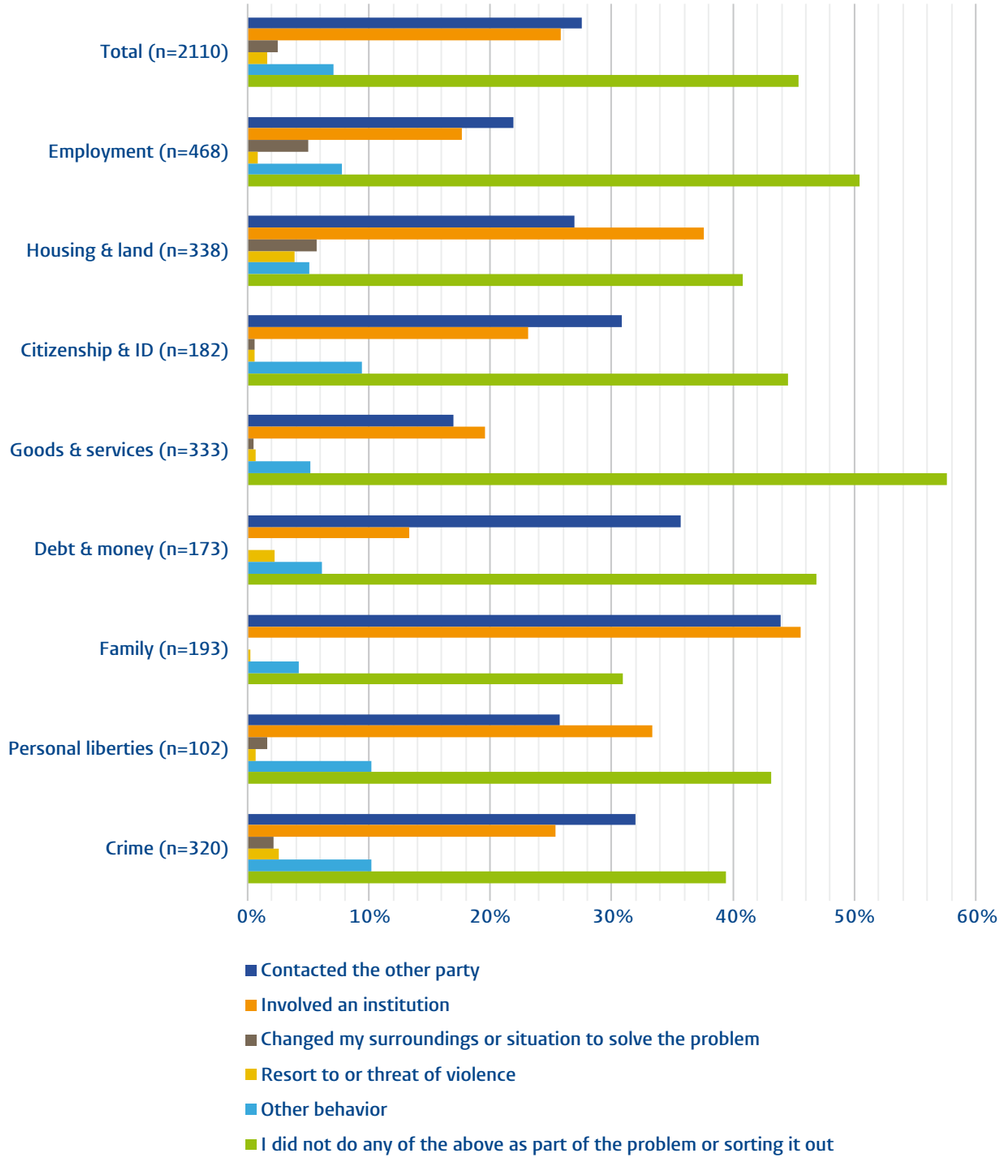
For other reasons, the differences between groups are quite small. People aged 35-44, those who did not complete any education, and those living in the west reported thinking it would be too stressful in a slightly higher percentage of problems. Men and people living in the west reported being scared as a reason for not consulting an advisor in a marginally higher percentage of problems on average. Men and those facing great difficulties covering their needs reported not knowing how to consult an advisor in a somewhat higher percentage of problems on average. Lastly, not thinking it was needed was reported in a slightly higher percentage of problems by men, people who did not complete any education, and people who completed a bachelor or above.

20 Reasons that do not point towards problems related to the access to advisors are not discussed in this report. This includes the following reasons: Thinking that the other party was right, the problem resolved without the need to contact an advisor, the problem was not important enough. Also, 'other reason' is not discussed as part of the results here, due to not having further information on the topic.

Dealing with Justiciable Problems: Actions and Institutions for Dispute Resolution

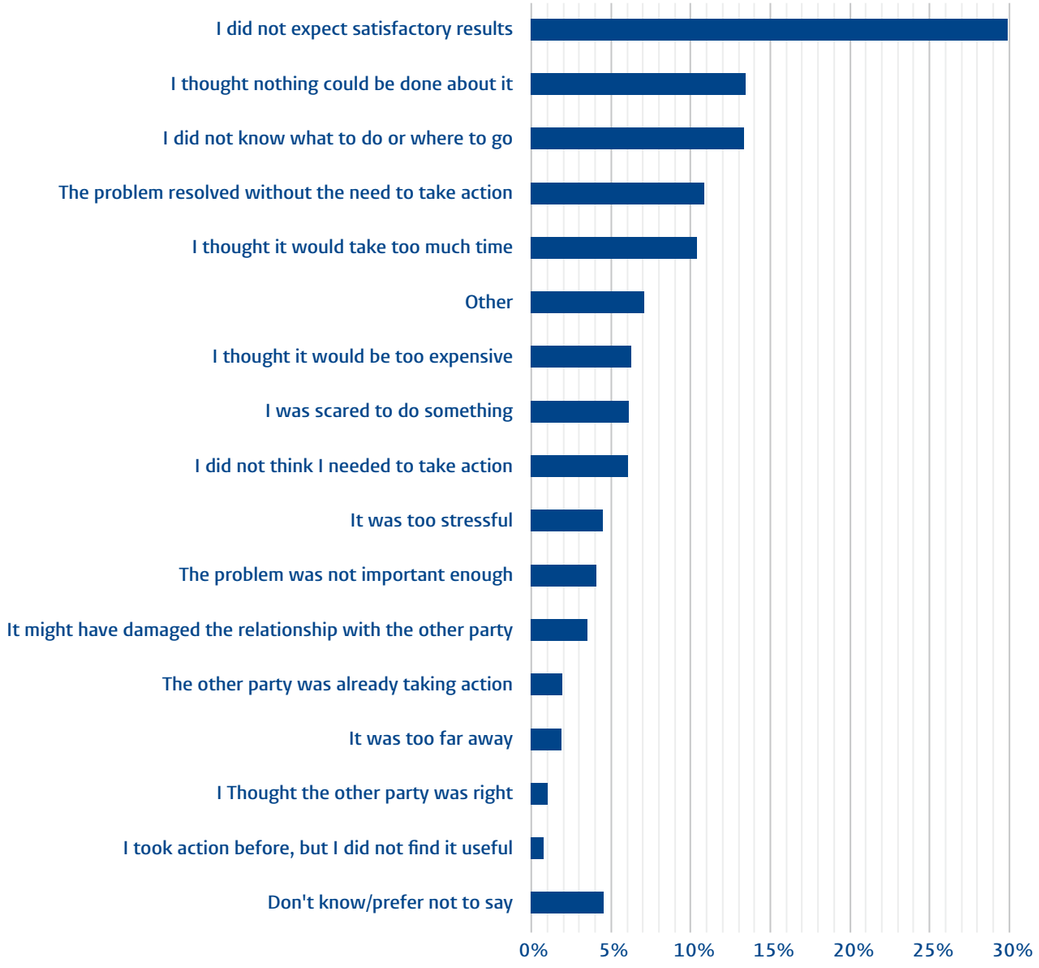
Besides gathering information and consulting an advisor, people faced with a problem can perform a variety of actions with the intention to resolve their dispute. When reporting a problem, the survey asked respondents to indicate which actions they took in response to their problem. An overview of the actions taken is presented in figure 7 below.

Figure 7: Actions towards dispute resolution per problem type. Respondents could select more than one action per problem.



People in Libya took different actions in different types of problems. Many people facing a justiciable problem did not do any of the listed actions as part of their problem or its resolution. When taking action, **contacting the other party** was the most popular choice in all problems, except for family problems. Out of those faced with a family problem, about one-third contacted the other party and about one-third did not do any of the actions listed in response to their problem. In slightly more than 1 in every 4 problems, people in Libya **contacted an institution**.[21] Overall, in 45% of the problems **no action** was taken. Except for family problems, this makes up the most common response. The reasons for not taking action towards dispute resolution can be found in figure 8 below. **Not expecting satisfactory results** was, by far, the most reported reason. This reason was reported in almost 1 in 3 problems in which no action was taken.

Figure 8: Percentage of problems in which a reason was provided, out of the number of problems where no action was taken (n=958). Respondents could select multiple answer options.



21 Including state and informal organizations, the police, and other actors, where the respondent could specify.

In 26% of all problems, an institution was involved in trying to resolve it. For the oldest problem reported, respondents were asked to select those justice institutions that their problem was brought to from a list of institutions for adjudication, negotiation, mediation or conciliation. For analytical purposes these institutions have been categorized as shown in table 3.

Table 3: Categorization of justice institutions included in A2JiL survey.

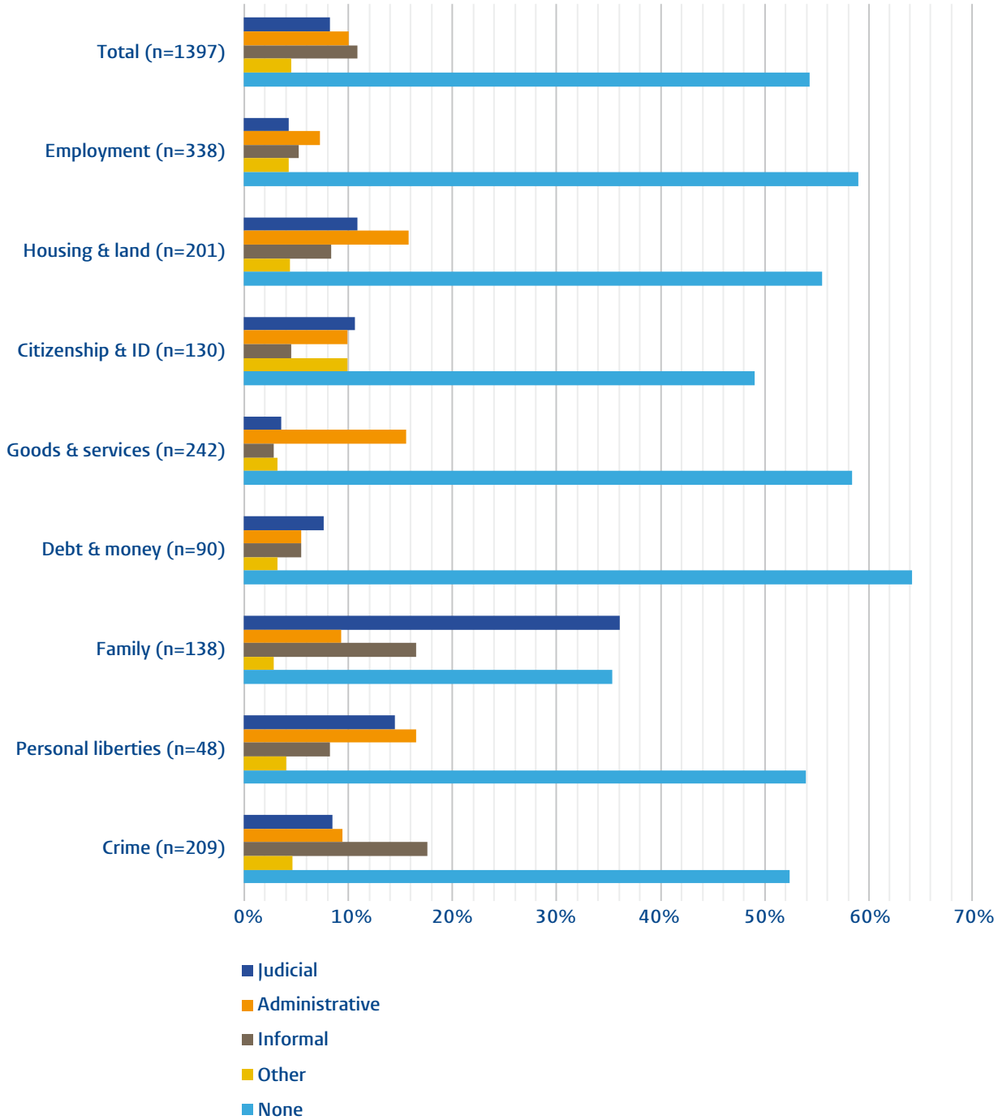
None		The problem was not brought to any party for adjudication negotiation, mediation or conciliation
Formal	**Judicial**	Court A quasi-judicial committee Public prosecution
	Administrative	Police Formally designated authority or agency A formal appeals process operated by the other party Members of the House of Representatives or High Council of State Members of the municipal council
Customary or religious		Customary dispute resolution process A religious authority Mediation, conciliation, or arbitration
Other		Other

As shown below in figure 9, in most cases people in Libya did not bring their oldest problem[22] to any justice institution. Out of all problem types, **judicial institutions** were involved most in family-related problems, while **administrative institutions** were involved most in problems related to personal liberties. The involvement of **informal institutions** was highest for crimes.

There are some differences between groups in what institution is involved in the oldest problem. More women, people living in the east, and people living in middle income households involved one or more institutions in their oldest problem.[23] Zooming in on the specific types of justice institutions shows that 12% women went to **judicial institutions**, compared to 9% of men. **Administrative institutions** were used more by people in the east, by 17% of the people, compared to the west and south, where these were used by 9% and 8% of people respectively. More people living in middle-income households, women, and those with bachelor's degrees and up involved **informal institutions**.[24] **Other institutions** that were not included in the list of answer options, were used by 12,5% of non-Arabs, compared to 4% of Arabs. There is no evidence of differences in the involvement of justice institutions between different ages and being displaced or not.[25]

22 Previous sections focused on the problems identified in the 'screening' part of the questionnaire, where individuals could report multiple problems. Therefore, one individual can be associated with multiple problems. Here, focus shifts to the oldest problem reported, and one individual can only have one (oldest) problem.
23 36% of women compared to 26% of men; 38% of people in the east compared to 28% of people in the west; 35% of middle income households compared to 25% for low-income.
24 12% of people in middle-income households compared to 6% of people in low-income households; 11% of women compared to 6% of men; 10% for bachelor and up, compared to 4% for primary.
25 The difference in the proportion of Arabs and non-Arabs that involved justice institutions in the 'other' category is statistically significant, but this result is based on a rather small group of respondents (n=10).

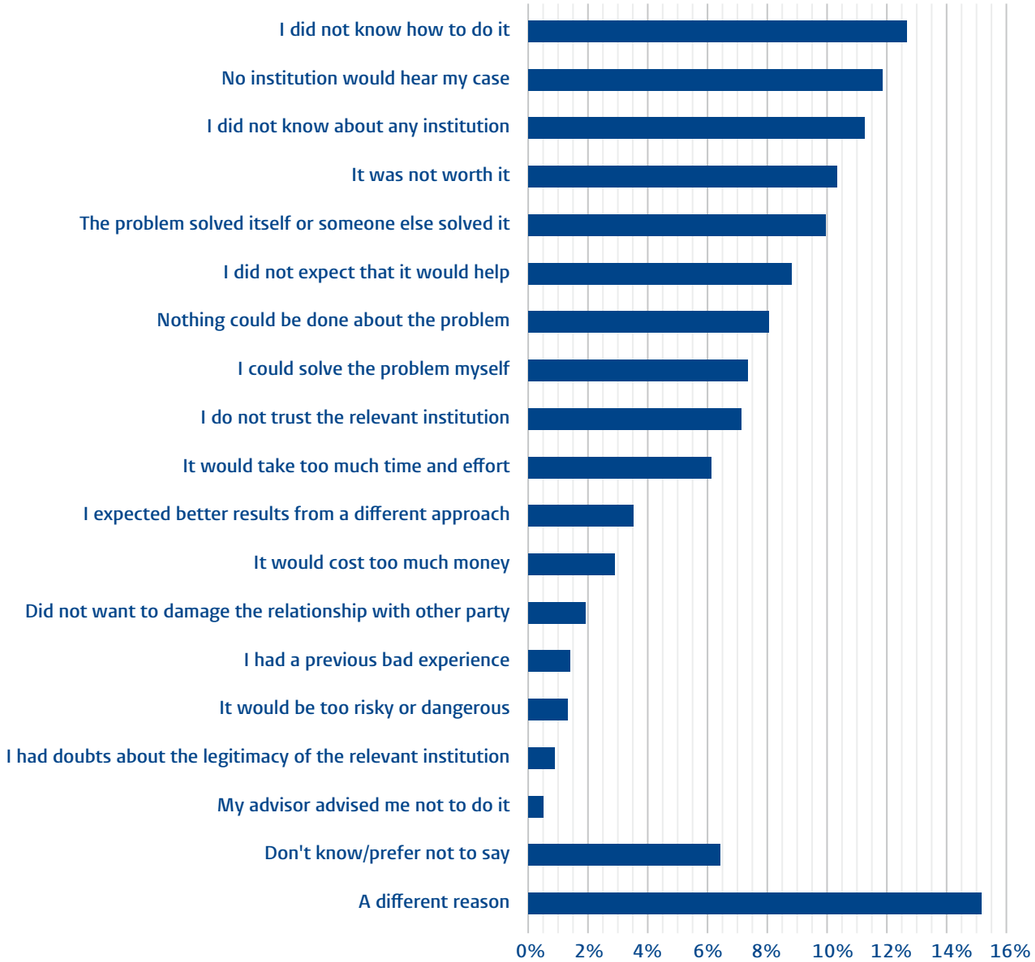
Figure 9: Use of justice institutions in the oldest problem, per problem type. Respondents could select more than one institution.



Reasons for not going to a justice institution

More than half of the people who experienced at least one problem did not take their oldest problem to a justice institution. Out of the most frequently reported reasons for not doing so as presented in figure 10, multiple reasons could be indicative of **limited accessibility of justice institutions**. For instance, 13% of people reported **not knowing how** to bring their oldest problem to an institution, and 11% did **not know about any institution**. In addition, 12% of people reported not involving an institution in their oldest problem because **no institution would hear their case**. Comparing the reasons reported by people in different groups shows various differences. Below, some of the most important results are presented.

Figure 10: Percentage of oldest problems in which a reason was provided, out of the number of oldest problems where no action was taken (n=761).



People who did not complete any education and people in the east reported much more that they **did not know about any of the institutions**. Out of all oldest problems in which no institution was involved, this reason was reported by 33% of people that did not complete any education compared to 18% of those with primary or preparatory education, and 9% and 11% respectively for those with secondary or higher education and a bachelor or above.

Regional differences are also quite striking. **Not knowing about any institution** was reported by 21% of people in the east who did not involve an institution in their oldest problem, compared to 10% of people in the west and only 4% of people in the south. Compared to other regions, people in the east also reported **not knowing how** to bring their oldest problem to an institution, and having a previous bad experience more often as a reason for not involving an institution in their oldest problem. This first reason was reported by 20% of people in the east, compared to 11% in the west and 13% in the south. **Previous bad experiences** were reported by 5% of people in the east, compared to only 1% of people in the west, and none in the south. In addition, previous bad experiences were reported slightly more by women and people with bachelor's degrees and up.[26] It should be noted that, due to limited group sizes, the results for different educational levels and income groups should be interpreted cautiously.

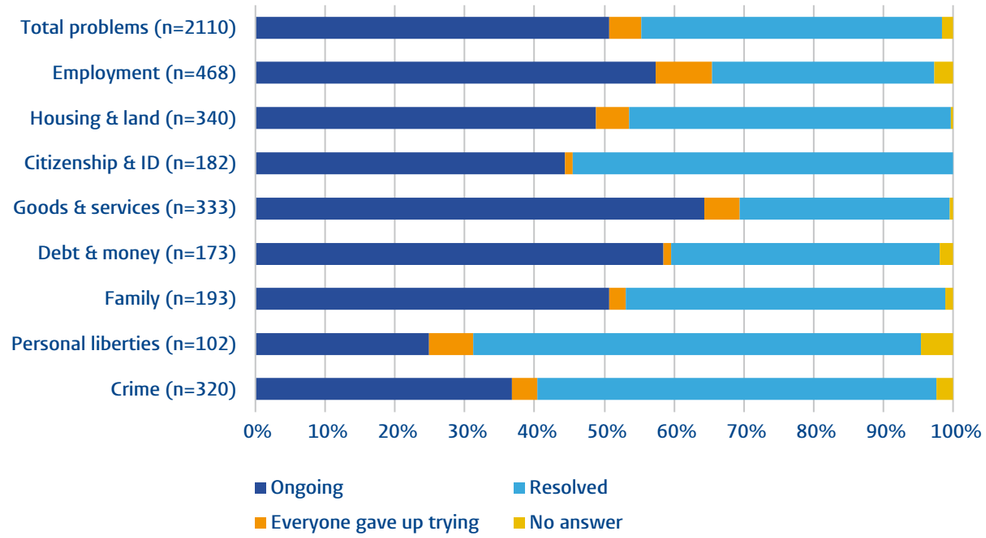
Out of all non-Arabs who did not involve an institution, 9% reported that it would **cost too much money** as a reason for not doing so, compared to 2% of Arabs. Men and people in low- to middle-income households[27] more frequently reported that **no institution would hear their case**. This was reported by 13.5% of men compared to 8.5% of women who did not involve an institution in their oldest problem. Some reasons provided relate to **trust in and legitimacy of justice institutions**. 10% of women reported not trusting the relevant institution as a reason for not involving an institution in their oldest problem, compared to 6% of men. 5% of people who are or were displaced reported that involving an institution in their oldest problem would be **too risky or dangerous**, whereas this reason was only reported by 1% of those who have never been displaced. Although not frequently reported in general, **doubts about the legitimacy** of the relevant institution were reported more by non-Arabs, those living in high-income households, and people who completed a bachelor's degree.[28]

26 3% of women compared to 1% of men. 3% of bachelor and up, compared to 0,3% of those with secondary or higher education.
27 The group sizes for income groups are small, warranting cautious interpretation of these findings. 15% of people living in middle-income households, compared to 10% for low-income and 0% for high income households who did not involve an institution in their oldest problem.
28 5% for non-Arabs compared to 1% for Arabs. 4,5% for high-income, compared to 1% for middle-income and 0% for low-income. 2,5% for bachelor and up, compared to 0% for all other levels of education.

The Outcomes of Justiciable Problems

Unfortunately, not every journey for justice results in resolving the initial problem. When the A2JiL survey was conducted, about half of the problems were still ongoing and only 2 out of 5 problems were resolved.[29] Differences between types of problems are shown in figure 11. Problems related to personal liberties were resolved most frequently, whereas most problems related to goods and services, debt and money, and employment were still ongoing.

Figure 11: Status of problems, per problem type.

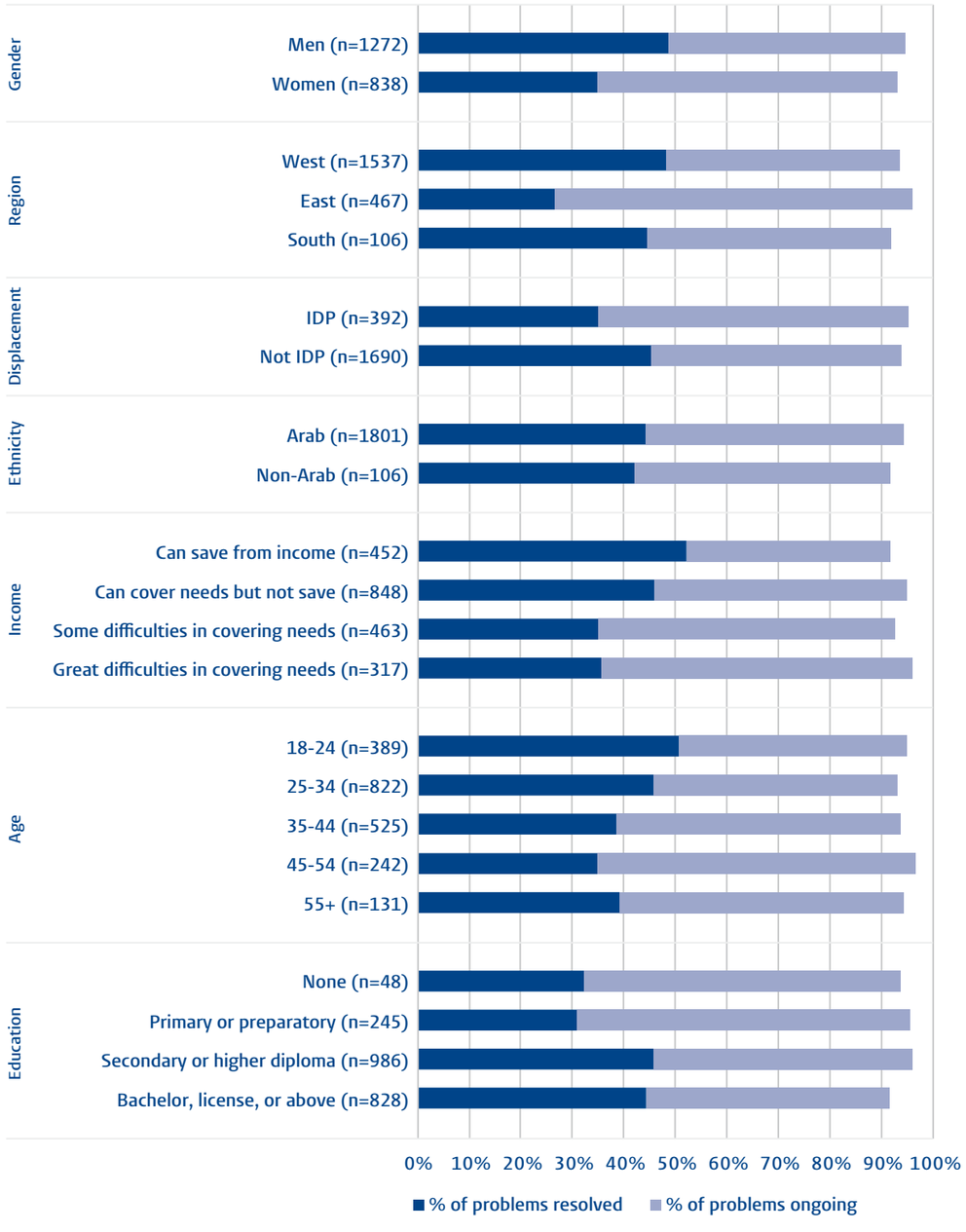


Differences in the percentage of problems that get resolved are apparent between different groups, as presented in figure 12. Even though more women involved justice institutions and more men did not consult an advisor, **fewer problems experienced by women were resolved**. For men, half of their problems were resolved, whereas for women this is only slightly more than one in three problems. In line with this, women had more problems that were still ongoing than men. Furthermore, there is an inverse **relationship between age and problem resolution**, meaning that as age increases, the percentage of problems that gets resolved decreases. Compared to those aged 35 and over, more problems faced by those aged below 35 were resolved.

Education and **income** also relate to problem resolution. People in Libya with higher levels of education or who live in more affluent households resolved a higher percentage of problems compared to the poor and the less educated. Being **displaced** is also associated with lower percentages of problem resolution, with only 35% of problems resolved for those who are or were displaced, compared to 45% for those who have never been displaced. **Region** also seems to be an important factor, as people living in the East of Libya resolved only 27% of their problems, compared to 44% in the South and 48% in the West.

29 Of course, problems that were still ongoing at the time of the survey could be solved in the future.

Figure 12: Percentage of problems resolved and ongoing, per group.



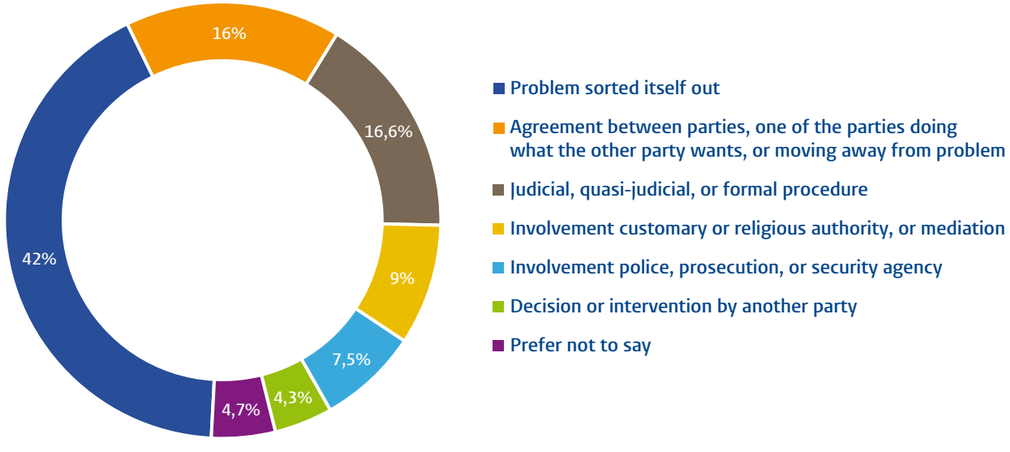
Interestingly, **consulting an advisor** seems to relate to the status of the oldest problem. Out of those problems where no advisor was consulted, more were still ongoing, more were given up on by all parties, and less were resolved at the time of the survey. The differences in the status of the problem seem to be particularly noteworthy for the oldest problems in which the personal network was consulted, with more problems where the personal network was involved being resolved. Out of all the oldest problems in which the personal network was consulted, 57% were resolved, compared to 39% in which the personal network was not involved.

Except for informal institutions, the **involvement of justice institutions** offering procedures to resolve the dispute in the oldest problem does not seem to be related to the status of the problem. This means that at the time of the survey, problems brought to institutions were not more frequently resolved or ongoing when compared to problems that were not brought to institutions. For the oldest problems that were resolved, respondents were asked how this resolution came about. As shown in figure 13, about 1 in 3 problems were resolved by a decision or intervention by an institution.

Contrary to other institutions, the **involvement of informal institutions** does relate to the status of the problem. When an informal institution was involved in the oldest problem, it was less frequently resolved and more often still ongoing at the time of the survey. A total of 63% of the oldest problems in which an informal institution was involved were still ongoing, compared to 50% where an informal institution was not involved. At the same time, less problems were resolved: 33% of the oldest problems in which an informal institution was involved were resolved, compared to 44% of problems where this type of institution was not involved. Of all the oldest problems that were resolved, 9% of respondents indicated that the resolution was due to a decision or intervention by an informal institution.

When looking at how problems were resolved, it is evident that in most cases the oldest problem resolved itself (42%). In 16.6% of the oldest problems, a decision or intervention by a (quasi-)judicial or formal institution resulted in a resolution. Another 16% was resolved by agreement between parties, one of the parties independently doing what the other party wanted, or moving away from the problem. A smaller percentage, 9%, was solved by involving customary or religious authorities, or using mediation. Involvement of the police, prosecution, or security agencies lead to resolution in 7.5% of the oldest problems that were resolved. In 4.3% of cases, a decision or intervention by another authority led to resolution.

Figure 13: How the resolution of the oldest problem came about (n=584)



Perceptions of Justice Institutions, Legal Anxiety and Legal Self-Efficacy

In addition to questions about problems and how people in Libya dealt with them, the survey included questions on the opinions on, and level of trust in, various justice institutions. Figure 14 below shows that most people trust the different justice institutions fully or to some extent.

Figure 14: Trust in institutions on a 4-point scale (n=3975).

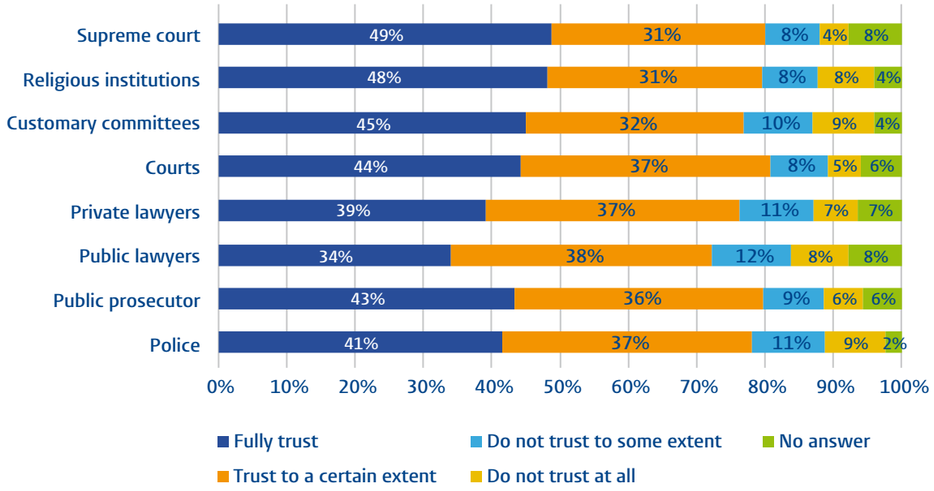
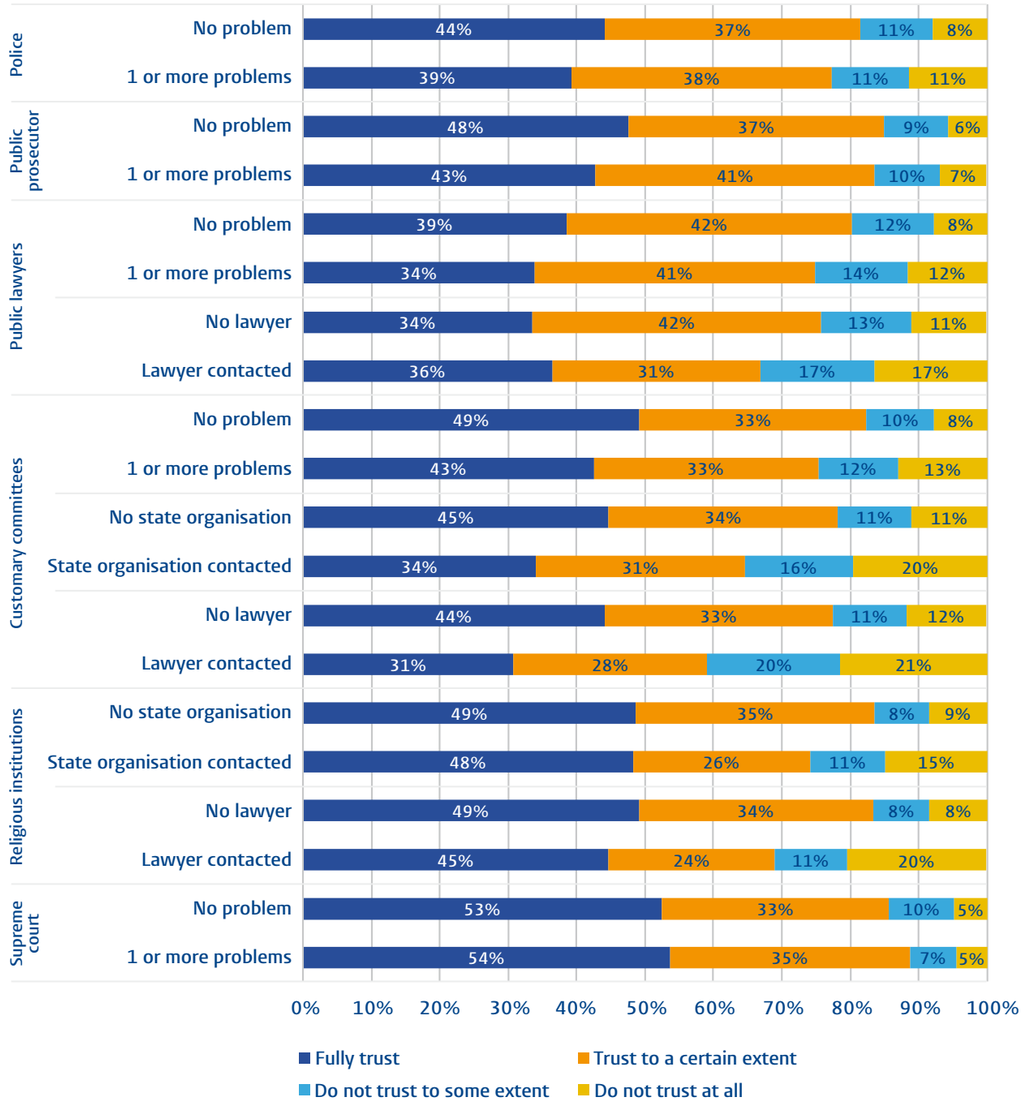


Figure 15 below shows differences in trust between people that have experienced problems and involved certain institutions.[30] Having experienced one or more problems in the last 5 years relates to trust in justice institutions. People in Libya who have experienced at least one problem reported having slightly lower trust in the police, public prosecution, public lawyers, customary committees, and the supreme court. Those who have involved state organizations in any of their problems reported lower trust in customary committees and religious institutions. Trust in customary committees, religious institutions, and public lawyers is lower for those who consulted a lawyer.[31] It is important to note that based on the information above, it is not possible to make causal inferences. In other words, it is not possible to know if having contacted any of the institutions leads to lower or higher trust, or if lower trust in a certain institution leads to involving a different institution. A better understanding of the potential existence and direction of such causal dynamics would require further research.

30 For the analysis of institutions, only those who faced one or more problems were included.
31 When looking at the average scores this group reports higher trust in private lawyers. However, when looking at the distribution of scores, which is arguably more appropriate given the scale, this effect disappears.

Figure 15: Differences in trust between groups. Non-significant differences are not included.



In addition to trust in the justice system, the survey measured anxiety in relation to the resolution of legal disputes and legal self-efficacy.[32] The items used to measure **legal anxiety** include questions on the extent to which a respondent sees themselves as being afraid, worried, confident, and conflict avoidant in relation to a significant legal problem. **Legal self-efficacy** was measured using a set of questions on the respondent's self-reported abilities to deal with significant legal problems. Both concepts were measured on a scale of 0 – 100, with higher scores indicating higher anxiety and higher self-efficacy.

32 Two scales, developed and tested by Pleasence & Balmer (2018), were used to measure these concepts. Their publication details the exact items included to measure both concepts.

The average legal anxiety among Libyans is 49.5 and the average legal self-efficacy is 69.0. Differences in the averages between groups are displayed in figure 16 below. Those who are or were displaced, those with lower levels of education, younger people, those with lower incomes, and people living in the East experienced **higher levels of anxiety**. The differences are most notable for those with high incomes versus those with low incomes, and those who completed a bachelor's education or higher, compared to those without any education. Differences for the other groups are generally small. Studying scores for legal self-efficacy shows that, although the differences are not very large, women, those who are or were displaced, those with lower incomes, those with lower levels of education, non-Arabs, and older people reported **lower levels of legal self-efficacy**.

Figure 16: Average scores for legal anxiety and legal self-efficacy per group on a scale of 0-100. Differences that are not statistically significant are not included.

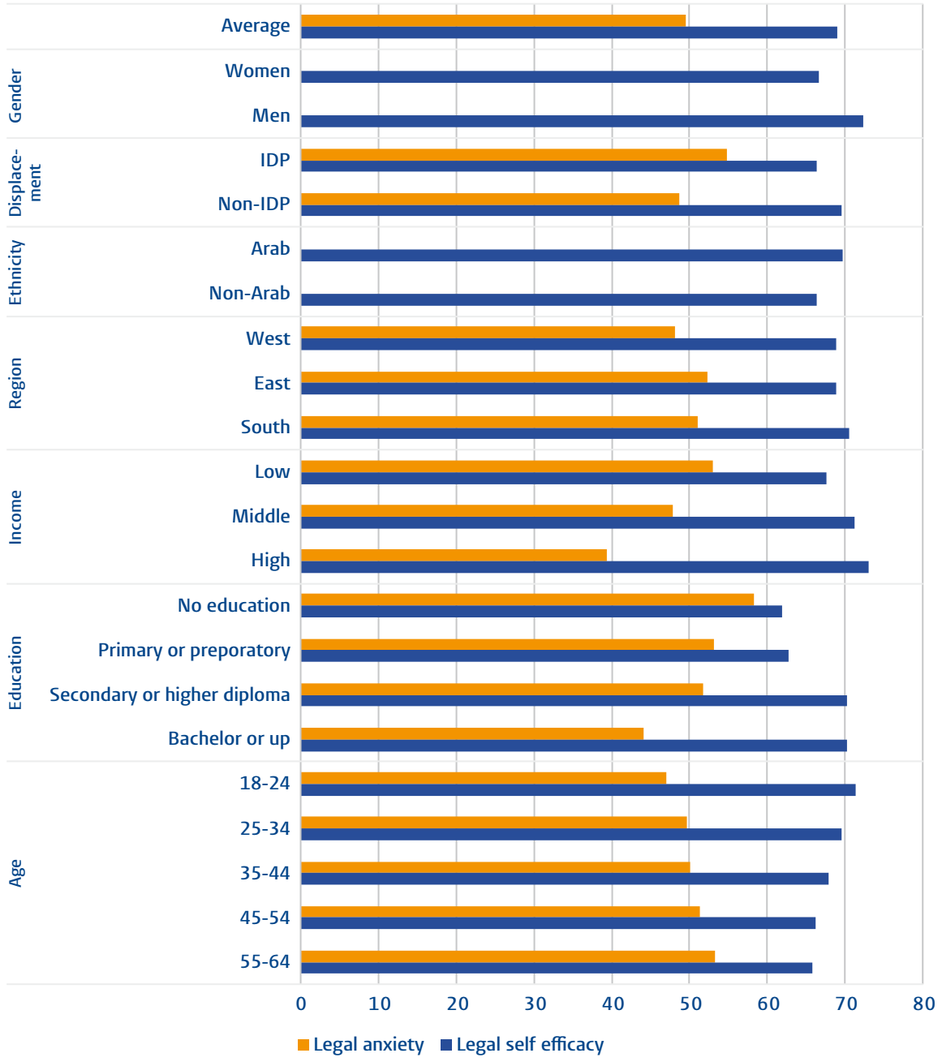
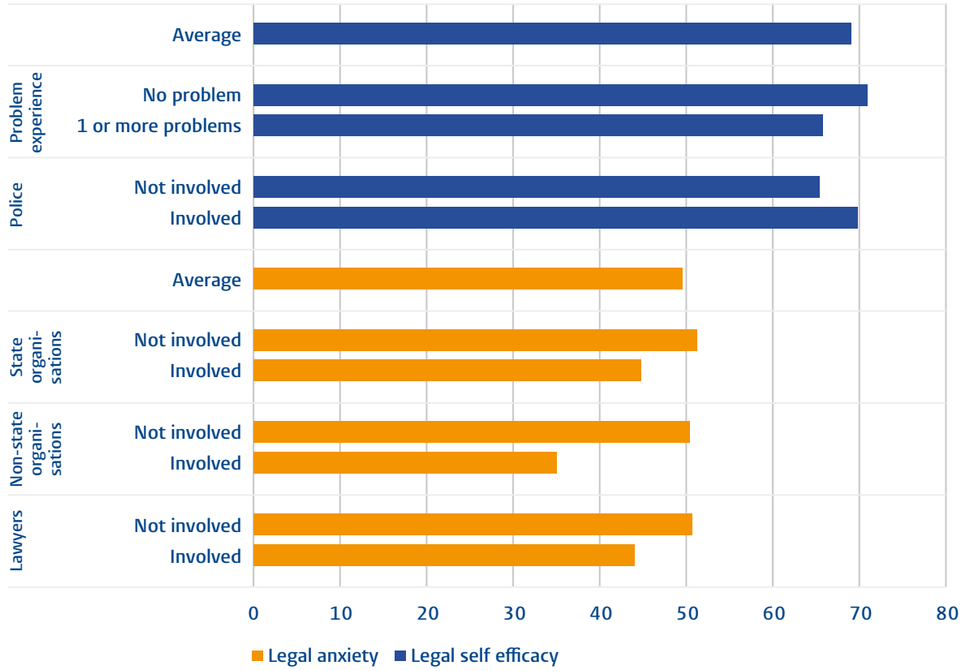


Figure 17 shows differences in the levels of legal anxiety and legal self-efficacy for those who have or have not experienced a problem or involved a certain institution.[33] Having experienced one or more problems relates to the level of legal self-efficacy, with those who faced a problem scoring lower on legal self-efficacy. People who have involved the police in one or more problems have a higher legal self-efficacy score than those who have not contacted the police. Lower levels of anxiety were reported by people that contacted lawyers, state institutions, and non-state institutions. Furthermore, legal anxiety and legal self-efficacy relate to the status of problems. Higher scores of legal anxiety are associated with higher percentages of ongoing problems,[34] and lower percentages of resolved problems.[35] At the same time, higher scores for legal self-efficacy are associated with higher percentages of resolved problems[36] and lower percentages of ongoing problems. [37] In both cases these correlations are weak, but statistically significant.

Figure 17: Levels of legal anxiety and legal self-efficacy on a scale of 0-100. Differences that are not statistically significant are not included.



33 For the analysis of institutions, only those who faced one or more problems were included.
34 r=0.08, p<.005.
35 r=-0.096, p<.001.
36 r=0.233, p<.001.
37 r=-0.207, p<.001.

Part II: Technical Survey Report

This report will outline the methodological and technical aspects of the survey conducted in the context of the Access to Justice in Libya project.

Sampling Design

This section discusses the population of the survey, the sample size, and the sampling method.

The population of the survey

The survey targeted the residents of Libya, who were 18-year-old or above at the time of the survey, regardless of their nationalities. The survey covered all the three historic regions of Libya: Tripolitania (also referred to as the west), Cyrenaica (the east), and Fezzan (the south).

Sampling frame

The sampling is based on the most recent population census of 2006. The reason for using this census is that it represents the most recent, reliable census of Libya's residents. After 2011, Libyan authorities made a number of attempts to conduct a robust nation-wide census. However, due to the political and security instability in the country these attempts have been unsatisfactory, leaving social researchers with the 2006 census as the most recent reliable sampling frame for their surveys.[38] The 2006 census divides Libya into 22 shabiyahs (provinces), which are further divided into 667 mahallahs (localities). The survey covered all 22 shabiyahs with no area excluded.

Sample size

Following the seminal work of Hazel Genn, 'Paths to Justice: What people do and think about going to law' (1999), the sample size was set to be 4,000 individuals. The reason for targeting such a large sample is to increase the probability of including a significant number of individuals who have experienced at least one justiciable problem during the research period. Moreover, the large sample of 4,000 not only allows for generalizations about the residents of Libya with a confidence level of 95% and a maximum margin of sampling error of 1.55%, but also for generalization about the residents of all the three historic regions of Libya (Tripolitania, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan) with a confidence level of 95% and a maximum margin of sampling error of 1.94%, 2.94%, and 5.39% respectively. However, the sample size is not large enough to allow for generalization about the ethnic minorities in Libya. Nevertheless, with such a large sample it is expected to collect around 280 observations[39] from non-Arab Libyans. According to the *Rule of Thumb* on sample size[40], this number of observations is more than enough to provide adequate information to make a statistically sound conclusion about a population.

38 The Research and Consulting Centre of University of Benghazi has used the 2006 census as a sampling frame in a number of surveys some of which are internationally accepted, like Global Entrepreneurship Monitor of 2013 and World Values Survey of 2014.

39 Although the population census in Libya does not provide data about race distribution, previous surveys conducted by the University of Benghazi show that non-Arab Libyans represent between 6 and 8 percentage of the Libyan population.

40 The rule of thumb states that 30 randomly selected observations should provide enough information to make a statistically sound conclusion about a population.

Sampling method

The survey employed a **stratified multi-stage random** sampling technique as a sampling method. This method ensures a complete demographical and geographical representation of the residents of Libya.

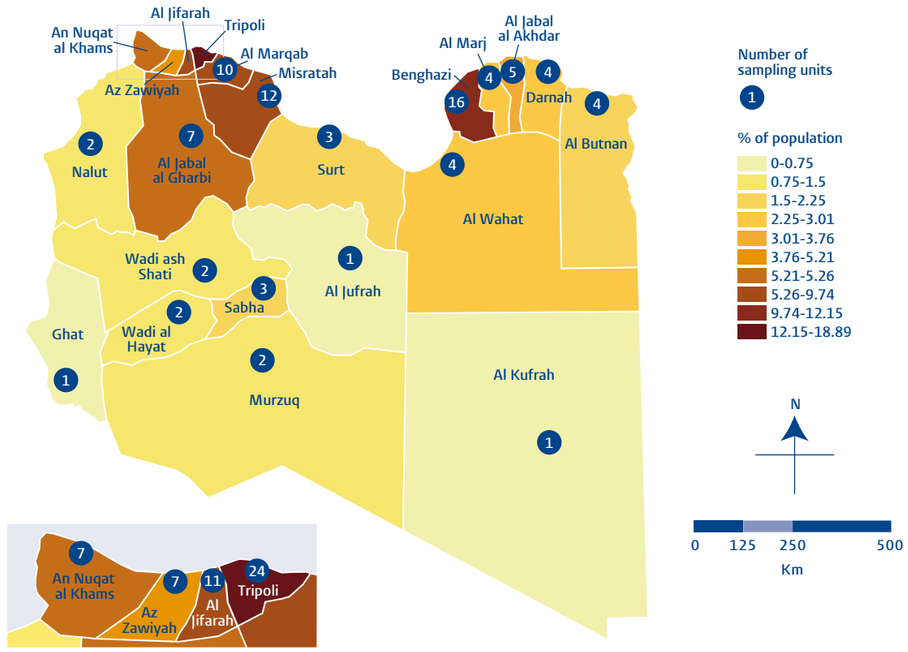
In the first stage, the number of the interviews per shabiyah was allocated in proportion to the population size of each of the 22 shabiyahs (strata). In table 4, the first column shows the name of the 22 shabiyahs. The second column shows the population size of each shabiyah according to the 2006 census. In the third column the relative size of the population of each shabiyah is calculated; the number of interviews allocated to each shabiyah is shown in the fourth column.

Table 4: Overview of sampling per shabiyah.

Shabiyah	Population census 2006	Percentage of population	Number of interviews	Number of mahallah	Number of sampling points
Tripoli	1,063,571	18.80%	752	25	50
Benghazi	674,951	11.93%	477	16	32
Misurata	543,129	9.60%	384	13	26
Jafara	451,175	7.97%	319	11	21
Al-Margheb	427,886	7.56%	303	10	20
Al-Gabal Al-Gharbi	302,705	5.35%	214	7	14
Zawia	290,637	5.14%	205	7	14
Nikhat Al-Khams	287,359	5.08%	203	7	14
Al-Gebel el-Akhdar	206,180	3.64%	146	5	10
Al-Marj	184,531	3.26%	130	4	9
Al-Wahat	179,155	3.17%	127	4	8
Derna	162,857	2.88%	115	4	8
Al-Batnan	157,747	2.79%	112	4	7
Sirt	141,495	2.50%	100	3	7
Sebha	133,206	2.35%	94	3	6
Nalut	93,896	1.66%	66	2	4
Murzuk	78,772	1.39%	56	2	4
Wadi Al-Shati	78,563	1.39%	56	2	4
Wadi Al-Haya	76,258	1.35%	54	2	4
Al-Joufra	52,092	0.92%	37	1	2
Al-Kufra	48,328	0.85%	34	1	2
Ghat	23,199	0.41%	16	1	1
Total	**5,657,692**	**100.00%**	**4000**	**133**	**267**

In the second stage, the number of mahallahs (the primary sampling units) for each shabiyah was calculated as shown in the fifth column.[41] Within each shabiyah, the allocated number of mahallahs was randomly selected by using the **probability proportional to size** (PPS) sampling technique. In this technique, the probability of selecting a sampling unit (mahallah) is proportional to the size of its population. The PPS technique ensures that individuals in larger mahallahs have the same probability of getting into the sample as those in smaller mahallahs, and vice versa. In total 133 out of 667 mahallahs were selected across all shabiyahs. Figure 18 below shows the sampling units on a map of Libya.

Figure 18: Overview of the sampling units as a percentage of the population. This map was created by Mohammed Ibrahim Al Hamali using Arc Map GIS 10.8.



In the third stage, thirty households were selected in each mahallah. A sketch map for each mahallah was drawn, using satellite maps. Then, each mahallah was divided into approximately equal-sized segments. Two segments were randomly selected[42]. Each segment represents a sampling point. In each segment, team leaders randomly selected a starting point, for instance a public or educational facility or infrastructural point. A random-route routine and a skip figure were used to select 15 households using a **systematic sampling method**.

In each selected household, an individual was randomly selected by using a **Kish grid**. The survey operated a call-back system which revisited temporarily unavailable targeted respondents up to three times. If the targeted individual was not available after three-time call-back, there was no replacement from the same household, and a new household was selected instead.

41 The number of the primary sampling units in each shabiyah was calculated by dividing the number of interviews by 30, which represent the number of interviews allocated to each sampling unit.

42 By simple random method.

Fieldwork Administration

This section discusses the organization of the survey team, the field work administration, and the time of the survey.

Survey team organization

A team of around 120 interviewers conducted the survey. Most interviewers have worked with the University of Benghazi for a long time and draw on extensive experience of conducting surveys all over the country, including in the most challenging locations and amongst the most difficult people to reach.

The interviewers were organized in 8 sub-teams. Table 5 shows these sub-teams and the provinces (shabiyahs) they covered. Each team has a team leader and two or three supervisors. Each supervisor has four to six interviewers working under their supervision. In the field, each sub team worked as group using two vehicles to reach targeted mahallahs. In this way, a rigorous quality control routine could be implemented as shown below.

Table 5: Overview of shabiyahs covered per team.

Sub-team	Shabiyahs
West 1	Misurata, Al-Margheb
West 2	Tripoli, Jafara
West 3	Zawia, Nikhat Al-Khams
Nafosa Mountain	Al-Gabal Al-Gharbi, Nalut
East 1	Al-Batnan, Derna, Al-Gebel el-Akhdar
East 2	Al-Marj, Benghazi, Al-Wahat, Al-Kufra
South	Wadi Al-Shati, Wadi Al-Haya, Murzuk, Ghat, Al-Joufra, Sebha, Sirt

The quality control procedure starts with the careful selection of interviewers. All the interviewers completed university education and participated in a training course on the latest surveying and interviewing techniques. The training course covered areas such as theoretical perspectives of social research, fieldwork ethics including informed consent, practical aspects of the research, especially those related to the Libyan context, interpersonal and interview skills, and ways of ensuring low refusal rates. The candidates of the training course were evaluated and took an exam, with only those with very good evaluation being selected to participate in the fieldwork. Moreover, interviewers were requested to spend a great deal of time familiarizing themselves with the survey questionnaire, its logic and consistency and the supporting materials, including documents for the implementation of quality control. In mock sessions, researchers practiced the survey questionnaire and were monitored by their supervisors and team leaders. Some of the interviewers had already participated in several surveys with the university.

During the fieldwork, interviewers applied a quality control procedure which required the supervisors to (partially) attend at least 10% of the interviews to ensure their quality and correctness. Also, supervisors had to do a call back for at least 10% of the interviews to check a limited number of questions with the respondent in order to see if there was any inconsistency between the completed survey questionnaire and the back-checked answers.[43] If there were any inconsistencies, interviewers would be instructed to resolve them.

43 The checks focused on the demographic questions only, due to the complex build-up of the questionnaire it would not be possible to check the substantive answers without redoing the full interview.

On average, 20% of the interviews were partly attended and monitored by the supervisors and nearly 15% of the interviews were backchecked by supervisors or team leaders. The procedure also required interviewers to check their work at the end of the day, resolving inconsistencies and calling back interviewees where errors were detected.[44] At the end of this process, they signed the completed questionnaires[45] and passed them to their supervisor. The supervisor then checked the completed questionnaires of each of their interviewers for inconsistencies, then signed off and passed them on to their team leaders. After receiving the completed questionnaires, team leaders checked them again and reported the progress to the project manager. Completed and checked questionnaires were uploaded by team leaders as soon as possible, mostly at the end of a fieldwork day when a reliable internet connection was available.

All interviews were conducted face-to-face in respondents' homes. Several measures were taken to make sure that respondents were at ease during the interview, including matching the gender of respondent and interviewer, taking sufficient time for the interview and, if necessary, coming back at a time that was convenient for the respondent. Respondents were free to stop the interview at any time and withdraw their consent. The survey questionnaire was administered through electronic tablets using Kobo Toolbox Software which minimized human errors and helped detect inconsistencies. After the data entry, statisticians checked the data files for any inconsistencies and out of range values.

Survey time

The fieldwork and data collection started on the 8th of September 2024 and ended on the 17th of October 2024. In total, the survey team completed 3,998 interviews in 126 mahallahs. The reason for the reduction of the number of visited mahallahs from 133 to 126 is that the size of population in some mahallahs are so large that they were sampled more than once. This happened in some mahallahs in Tripoli, Benghazi, and Al-Batnan. After data cleaning, the number decreased to 3,992 valid interviews.

It is worth noting that no major events, political or otherwise, happened during the fieldwork period that might affect the consistency of the collected data. However, the survey team had to resample a number of mahallahs due to various unfavorable circumstances. Table 6 shows these mahallahs, their replacements and the reasons for resampling.

Table 6: Replacement of mahallahs.

Shabiya	Original mahallahs	Resampled mahallahs	Reason for resampling
Misurata	Makass	Al Watania- Area	The original population (Tawergha group) were displaced to a new area46
Zawia	Sidi Nassur	Jood Daim	The original mahallah was not safe due to tribal fighting
Nalut	Wazin	AL-Qasser	The original mahallah was almost deserted due to local migration
Darnah	Al-Billad	Ajoubailah	The original mahallah was largely wiped out by storm Daniel

44 Idem.
45 This was done on a separate form.
46 In this case there was no resampling. Instead, the survey team interviewed the original population of Makass in their new displacement area, Al Watania.

Refusal rate

The refusal rate is the percentage of all selected individuals who refused to be interviewed. High refusal rates in survey research can affect the representativeness of the selected samples and therefore affect the reliability and validity of survey findings.

To keep the refusal rate at a minimum, the survey team implemented various effective measures to ensure that no group was excluded from participation in the survey. First, interviewers were trained in techniques for encouraging potential respondents to participate, always taking into account the principles of informed consent. Second, interviewers were provided with documentation to ensure that the introduction to the survey would be complete and compelling, giving respondents sufficient information about, and reasons for, participating in the survey. Third, the survey operated a call-back system which revisited temporarily unavailable targeted respondents for up to three times and replaced them with a respondent from a new household if they were unavailable.

Table 7 shows the refusal rate in each shabiya. As can be seen from the table, the refusal rate is below 30% in all locations. In fact, it is rather low in many shabiyas which is reflected in the overall refusal rate of the survey. This overall refusal rate of 14% (indicating an 86% response rate) is considered to be good in such a survey.

Table 7: Refusal rates per shabiya.

Shabiyah	Number of interviews	Household refusals	Respondent refusals	Total	Total refusal rate
Tripoli	754	112	5	871	13%
Benghazi	485	80	2	567	14%
Misurata	389	68	4	461	16%
Jafara	329	93	2	424	22%
Al-Margheb	300	31	1	332	10%
Al-Gabal Al-Gharbi	210	15	2	227	7%
Zawia	208	15	2	225	8%
Nikhat Al-Khams	209	0	4	213	2%
Al-Gebel el-Akhdar	150	21	11	182	18%
Al-Marj	120	34	0	154	22%
Al-Wahat	120	49	1	170	29%
Derna	119	10	5	134	11%
Al-Batnan	90	11	5	106	15%
Sirt	90	9	1	100	10%
Sebha	90	6	1	97	7%
Nalut	59	2	1	62	5%
Murzuk	60	15	4	79	24%
Wadi Al-Shati	60	7	1	68	12%
Wadi Al-Haya	60	5	1	66	9%
Al-Joufra	30	10	2	42	29%
Al-Kufra	30	5	0	35	14%
Ghat	30	6	0	36	17%
Total	**3992**	**604**	**55**	**4651**	**14%**

Sample Representation and Weight

Weights are used to compensate for any deviation in the sample from the population it represents. In particular, they are used:

- to compensate for unequal probabilities of selection
- to compensate for (unit) non-response
- to adjust the weighted sample distribution for key variables of interest such as: gender, age, education, race/ethnicity, and place of residence to make it conform to a known population distribution.

The development of sampling weights usually starts with the construction of the base weight for each sampled unit, to correct for their unequal probabilities of selection. In general, the base weight of a sampled unit is the reciprocal of its probability of selection into the sample. In mathematical notation, if a unit is included in the sample with probability p_i, then its base weight, denoted by w_i, is given by: $w_i = 1/p_i$.

The procedure of adjusting sample weights is implemented in the following steps:

- *Step 1:* Apply the initial weights;
- *Step 2:* Partition the sample into subgroups and compute weighted response rates for each subgroup;
- *Step 3:* Use the reciprocal of the subgroup;
- *Step 4:* Calculate the adjusted weight for the ith unit as: $w_i = w_{1i} \times w_{2i}$
  where w_{1i} is the initial weight and w_{2i} is the non-response adjustment weight. Note that the weighted non-response rate can be defined as the ratio of the weighted number of interviews completed with eligible sampled cases to the weighted number of eligible sampled cases.

After examining the collected data and calculating the geographical and the demographical distribution of the sample, it appears that there is a need to compensate for some geographical deviations in the sample and therefore a weight was calculated. However, for the demographic variables on gender, age and education weighting is not needed to compensate for any deviations in the sample as shown below.

Gender distribution

Table 8 shows the gender distribution of the sample and it is clear there is no deviation in the gender distribution to compensate for.

Table 8: Gender distribution.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	1,998	50.05
Female	1,994	49.95
Total	**3,992**	**100**

Age distribution

Table 9 shows the age distribution of the survey data along with the age distribution of the Libyan population as it was in 2006 and the age distribution of the Libyan population as projected in 2023 by United Nations **World Population Prospects 2024**.

Table 9: Age distribution.

Age group	2006 census	Survey sample	2023 projection
18-24	24.13%	15.81%	17.54%
25-34	32.19%	21.34%	21.91%
35-44	20.49%	20.09%	22.61%
45-54	10.33%	19.95%	19.71%
55-64	6.47%	14.1%	10.89%
65+	6.39%	8.76%	7.34%

As can be seen from the table, it seems as if there is a clear difference between the age distribution of the survey sample and the age distribution of the Libyan population as it was in 2006 census. In particular, there seems to be underrepresentation of young people and overrepresentation of other age groups. However, due to the fact that the Libyan population is witnessing demographic changes, it is quite possible that its age distribution has changed since 2006.

To account for these demographic changes, the age distribution projection for year 2023 is used to reevaluate the survey sample representation. As can be seen from the table, there is no large deviation in the sample age distribution from the projected age distribution of the population in 2023. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no significant underrepresentation or overrepresentation for any age group and therefore no weighting is needed to correct the age distribution of the survey sample.

Educational level distribution

Table 10 shows the educational level distribution of the survey data along with the educational level distribution of the population as it was in the 2006 census and in the 1995 census.

Table 10: Educational level distribution.

Level of education	Survey sample	2006 census	1995 Census
Illiterate	4.68%	11.52%	18.69%
Able to read and write	2.43%	-	-
Some primary school	-	10.28%	18.20%
Primary education (6yrs)	5.46%	17.67%	22.17%
Preparatory or basic education (6+3yrs)	11.6%	22.92%	21.31%
General secondary education	18.01%	22.12%	16.08%
Technical secondary education	8.17%	-	-
Higher diploma	20.72%	-	-
Bachelor or license	25.88%	14.85%	3.54%
Master's or above	3.03%	-	-
No answer	0.03%	0.64%	0.01%
Total	**100.00%**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Despite the fact that there are slight differences in the categories of educational levels used in the survey data and the census data, it seems that there is a clear difference between the educational level distribution of the survey sample and the educational level distribution of the Libyan population as it was in the 2006 census. In particular there is an underrepresentation of illiterate people and people with a lower level of education in general, and there is an overrepresentation of people with a higher level of education.

Before deciding to use a weight to correct this deviation in the survey data, it is crucial to investigate if this deviation is due to sampling or selection errors, or due to a change in the Libyan population since 2006. Comparing the educational level distribution in 2006 with the educational level distribution in 1995 may help in this investigation. As can be seen in table 10, the share of people with university education increased in 11 years from just 3.54% in 1995 to 14.85% in 2006, more than a fourfold increase. This increase can be attributed to two factors: the high enrolment rate in tertiary education and a change in the age distribution of the population.

According to the Global Competitiveness Report of 2008, Libya has the highest enrolment rate in the tertiary education in the region, and is ranked 32nd out of 134 countries included in the report. Given this high enrolment rate and the change in age distribution in the country in the last 17 years, it is expected that the share of people with university education in 2023 will increase just like it increased between 1995 and 2006. Thus, it seems that the deviation in educational level is due to the change in the Libyan population since 2006 and not due to sampling or selection errors. Therefore, no weighting is needed to correct the educational level distribution of the survey sample.

Reliability of the Data

Assessing the reliability of the data is important before making any statistical analysis. Reliability is concerned with the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure. More specifically, reliability refers to the degree to which an instrument or a technique generates the same results at different times and under different conditions.

The equivalence measure of reliability for this survey was done to focus on the internal consistency or internal homogeneity of the set of statements, which formed the statements in the questionnaire into groups as mentioned. In this survey, because of practical difficulties in adopting more than one method, we have decided to use the coefficient alpha score to measure the reliability of the survey questionnaire.

The alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, and it is common practice to take 0.65 as the minimum acceptable value of alpha. Reliability tests were carried out on all groups of data, the result shows that the alpha coefficients in all cases are more than 0.70. These results indicate that the data obtained from the survey questionnaire are reliable and suitable for further analysis.

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Appendix A: Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Category		Percentage (n=3975)	Frequency
Gender	Female		47.8	1901
	Male		52.5	2074
Ethnicity	Arab		85.4	3393
	Non-Arab:	Amazigh	5.3	209
		Tebu	2.2	88
		Tuareg	1.3	51
	No answer		5.9	234
Displacement	Displaced (in past or present)		12.6	500
	Never been displaced		86.1	3421
	No answer		1.4	54
Age	18-24		25.9	1029
	25-34		34.2	1360
	35-44		21.9	871
	45-54		11.1	440
	55+		6.9	275
Education	No education		3.5	140
	Primary or preparatory education		12.5	498
	Secondary education or higher diploma		50.7	2015
	Bachelor, license, or above		33.2	1321
	No answer		0	1
Family income	<900		12.7	503
	900-1999		33.6	1335
	2000-3999		30.3	1204
	4000-5999		9.8	391
	6000-7999		1.8	72
	8000+		1.1	45
	No answer		10.7	424
Family income	Covers needs and can save		22.8	907
	Covers needs but cannot save		42.0	1669
	Face some difficulties covering needs		20.8	827
	Face great difficulties covering needs		12.2	486
	No answer		2.2	86
Region	West		64.0	2543
	East		28.3	1126
	South		7.7	307

Colophon

This report presents the findings of the third phase of the 'Access to Justice in Libya'-project, concerning a nation-wide survey on justice seeking. This is a joint undertaking by the Centre for Law and Society Studies (CLSS) at the University of Benghazi and the Van Vollenhoven Institute for Law, Governance and Society (VVI) at Leiden University, with support of the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

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