LIVING AND WORKING IN THE MIDST OF CONFLICT:

The Status of Long-term Migrants in Libya

ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS



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This publication was made possible through the financial support of the European Union.

Publisher: International Organization for Migration

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ISBN 978-92-9068-827-3 (PDF) © 2019 International Organization for Migration (IOM)

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ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS







To assess the circumstances of long-term migrants in conflict-affected Libya, IOM Libya's Research Unit, the IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) programme and the Columbia University School of International and Public Affairs (SIPA) developed this study with a mixed-methods approach consisting of a literature review, semi-structured interviews with key experts, and a survey administered to 1,300 long-term migrants in Libya. The qualitative data from the literature review and the interviews played a key role in informing the development of the survey and providing a contextual understanding for analysing the quantitative data collected.





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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

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DTM Displacement Tracking Matrix

FMS Flow Monitoring Survey

IOM International Organization for Migration

IRB Institutional Review Board

MoL Ministry of Labour



KEY CONCEPTS

For the purposes of the research, key concepts include the following:

IOM

IOM is the leading international organization for migration that acts with partners in the international community to assist in meeting the growing operational challenges of migration management, advance understanding of migration issues, encourage social and economic development through migration, and uphold the human dignity and well-being of migrants.

Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)

The IOM DTM system tracks and monitors displacement and population mobility. It is designed to regularly and systematically capture, process, and disseminate information to provide a better understanding of the movements and evolving needs of displaced populations, whether on site or en route.

Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS)

FMS is a DTM tool to collect data on the profiles of individual migrants. The information collected includes age, sex, areas of origin, levels of education, key transit points on their route, cost of journey, motives and intentions.

Enumerator

This refers to a data-gatherer who is directly contracted as a third-party consultant by IOM.

Migrant

A migrant is any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his/her habitual place of residence, regardless (1) of the person's legal status; (2) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (3) of the causes for the movement; or (4) of the length of the stay. For DTM programmatic purposes in Libya, a migrant is considered any person present in Libya who does not possess Libyan nationality.

Long-term migrant

This refers to a person who moves to a country other than that of his/her usual residence for a period of at least a year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes his/her new country of usual residence. For DTM programmatic purposes in Libya, any migrant who has resided in Libya for at least one contiguous or non-contiguous year is considered a long-term migrant.

Irregular migration

This movement takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries.

Regular migration

This type of migration occurs through recognized, authorized channels.

Mantika

This refers to a region in Libya. There are 22 mantikas in the country.

Remittance

This refers to the money earned or acquired by non-nationals that is transferred to their countries of origin.

Distribution of non-food items (NFIs) in Qasr Bin Ghasheer detention centre. © IOM 2019/Ahmed SHAEBI



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

Since 2011, Libya has been experiencing political turmoil that has reverberated across its society. Recognizing the broad impacts of these developments, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) commissioned a study on long-term migrants in Libya, focusing specifically on circumstances related to livelihoods, remittances and security.

While existing literature extensively focuses on the conditions, challenges and risks associated with transiting through Libya, this study aims to shed more light on the circumstances of migrants who have stayed in Libya for more than a year. Research conceptualizing migration in Libya through the perspective of transit migration frequently focuses on mobility as a central topic and explores issues arising from circumstances that put transitory migrants at risk, such as dangerous desert and sea crossings, incidences of human rights violations, risk of exploitation, and limited access to public services and justice. While recognizing that some of those challenges and vulnerabilities may be applicable to both long-term migrants and short-term transit migrants, this research intends to contribute to the migration discourse on Libya by distinguishing between these two groups and specifically examines the situation of long-term migrants in terms of livelihoods, remittances, security and migration intentions to provide a better understanding of their circumstances.

KEY FINDINGS

The research suggests that Libya hosts a sizeable population of long-term migrants whose circumstances vary from those of transit migrants. Long-term migrants appear to have adjusted to adverse circumstances in the country, continuing to work and send remittances despite limited access to services or justice.

From the perspective of long-term migrants, the labour market in Libya appears to have remained functional. The majority of respondents are working and reported facing no major challenges for finding employment in Libya. Among respondents who were unemployed, most attributed this status to a lack of skills than a lack of job opportunities, further indicating that the informal labour market may have remained sufficiently large to absorb migrant labour. Additionally, the vast majority of respondents indicated that they received compensation in cash, primarily Libyan dinars — evidence that the liquidity crisis is not preventing migrants from earning a livelihood.

There remains a significant proportion of migrants who send remittances to their countries of origin. The majority of these individuals are the breadwinners of the recipient households, and, as such, their remittances contribute to basic expenses such as food, rent, utilities and health care. Respondents are almost entirely unbanked and reported relying mostly on informal remittance transfer methods. Survey results show a positive correlation between increased remittances and intention to stay in Libya.

Approximately one sixth of the respondents have experienced abuses while in Libya, with instances of verbal abuse, physical abuse and robbery most common. Half of the respondents reported feeling safe, and a large number of respondents assessed that the threat of various abuses had decreased since their arrival in Libya. There was regional variation in migrants' perceived safety in Libya, with perceptions of safety being lowest in the south. Those who felt unsafe identified organized crime networks and petty

criminals as their greatest threats, and those who had experienced abuses reported turning to friends, family members and community leaders instead of official channels. The most popular coping strategies were staying in at night and remaining in groups.

For now, most long-term migrants want to stay in Libya, motivated by work opportunities and high salaries. A smaller number reported intending to stay because they have adjusted to the circumstances. Compared to transit migrants, long-term migrants may be more likely to adjust to the adverse circumstances, as they have spent more time in Libya, potentially developing greater contextual knowledge and more effective coping strategies.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1. Align programming, where necessary, with the distinct circumstances, motivations and needs of long-term migrants.
- 2. Identify and address gaps in the primarily informal structures that can leave long-term migrants vulnerable to abuses and violations.
- 3. Strengthen the protection environment by collaborating with private and public sector actors, as well as expanding access to community-level justice mechanisms.
- 4. Advocate increased accountability of employers.

FURTHER RESEARCH

- 1. Incorporate the research on long-term migrants in the regular activities of the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) programme.
- 2. Conduct complementary research on female long-term migrants in Libya.
- 3. Consider further research on the various informal remittance transfer processes.
- 4. Investigate where abuses occur across the migrant journey.







•

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. CONTEXT

1.1.1. Brief history of migration to Libya

Libya has been a destination country for migrants since the 1970s, when strong growth in the oil industry created demand for foreign labour. The boom in the oil industry provided the Libyan economy with new income, fuelling development and demand for labour in other sectors. Libya began to rely on migrant workers, who initially arrived mostly from neighbouring Arab countries, especially Tunisia and Egypt (Zampagni et al., 2017). The Government of Libya offered generous compensation packages to attract skilled labour. Moreover, the relatively high standard of living and salaries compared to neighbouring countries, coupled with insufficient labour migration governance, fuelled irregular migration (ICMPD, 2010).

By the 1990s, the pan-African ambitions of Libya's leader, Muammar Gaddafi, led to the signing of labour agreements with other African countries and the large-scale arrival of sub-Saharan African labourers. Permission to work in key economic sectors, such as construction, agriculture and cleaning, was extended, which presented an opportunity for low-skilled and unskilled workers, and visa requirements were, initially, loosened to require only a medical certificate (ibid.). At the same time, Libya also became a significant transit country for migrants. International sanctions negatively impacted the domestic economy and the job market, and an increasing number of migrants started to enter Libya not to work but in hopes of reaching Europe (Hamood, 2006).

In the 2000s, Libya entered a new phase of cooperation with European countries as they began to work together on border management and security. During the first decade of the new century, the Government of Libya also took strong political stances against irregular migration, changing related legislation and creating an increasingly hostile environment for migrants in the country. Hundreds of thousands of foreigners, mostly from sub-Saharan Africa, were deported by the Libyan authorities between 2000 and 2007 (MPC, 2013).

Before 2011, there were 600,000 regular migrants and between 750,000 and 1.2 million irregular migrants in Libya, according to figures from the Government reported by the European Commission (ibid.). According to estimates by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the number of migrants could have been as high as 2.5 million (ETF, 2014), and the number of foreign workers exceeded the native Libyan workforce (ICMPD, 2010).

1.1.2. Conflict-affected environment

Political unrest in Libya began in February 2011 with protests against Gaddafi, who had led the country for 42 years. After the Gaddafi regime fell in August 2011 and the transitional government declared the "liberation of Libya" the following October, much of the international community considered the immediate humanitarian emergency in Libya to have ended. Nonetheless, after a short period of respite, political instability and conflict continued, reaching a state of civil war in 2014 (Zampagni et al., 2017).

Since 2014, political power in Libya has been split between two rival governments, one in Tripoli and another in Tobruk, with the former having been recognized by the international community. Several types of actors vied for power: armed groups, "city-States" (particularly in western and southern Libya) and tribes, which are particularly relevant in eastern and southern Libya. The country remains unstable, and there are constant reports of violence erupting between the different actors (Fitzgerald and Toaldo, 2016).

1.1.3. Current status of migration in Libya

According to latest estimates by IOM, there are currently at least 666,717 migrants, representing more than 38 nationalities, in Libya. Of these migrants, 94 per cent are estimated to originate from 27 different African countries, and the remaining 6 per cent come from 10 Asian and Middle Eastern countries (IOM, 2019b).

A significant amount of research has been conducted on the conflict-affected environment and the status of migration in Libya (REACH and UNHCR, 2018; REACH, 2017; Zampagni, et al., 2017; Abuhadra and Ajaali, 2014). Following several displacement waves, IOM established the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) Libya programme in 2015, with the purpose of capturing accurate and timely information on the locations and movements of internally displaced persons (IDPs), returnees and migrants in Libya. IOM uses the data and results produced by the DTM to coordinate targeted and evidence-based humanitarian assistance and advocacy in the country (IOM, 2019a).

Partly as a response to the large number of migrant arrivals in Europe, which peaked in 2015–2016, the international community and the media have predominantly focused on reporting transit migration through Libya to Europe (Torelli, 2017). However, existing IOM data suggests that more than 50 per cent of migrants in Libya have stayed in the country for over six months (IOM, 2019b). Many are simply stranded in Libya, as their economic resources or the current security situation is preventing them from continuing to another destination, but there are also reports suggesting that a significant number of migrants are not attempting to reach Europe but intending to remain in Libya (REACH, 2017). There is a knowledge gap in existing research related to the population of long-term migrants in Libya, particularly their circumstances and motivations for staying in the country.

1.2. PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study is to address the knowledge gap by collecting data on long-term migrants in Libya, to better understand the demographics of this population, as well as the circumstances in which these migrants work and live. More specifically, this study attempts to answer the following research question:

Given the conflict-affected environment in Libya, what are the circumstances for long-term migrants in terms of (a) livelihoods, (b) remittances and (c) security?

IOM commissioned a team of six graduate students from Columbia University School of International and Public Affairs to design the research and analyse the data collected. Livelihoods, remittances and security were selected as areas of particular interest after consultations with several subject matter experts.

The objective is to complement the data collected by the DTM Libya programme, by providing information that is specific to long-term migrants. The results will help bridge the existing information gap, guide the development of IOM's response in Libya and ultimately inform migration policy in the Libyan context.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. RESEARCH APPROACH, METHODS AND TOOLS

To assess the circumstances of long-term migrants in conflict-affected Libya, a mixed-methods approach consisting of a literature review, semi-structured interviews with key experts and a survey administered to long-term migrants in Libya was developed for this study. The qualitative data from the literature review and the interviews played a key role in informing the development of the survey and in providing a contextual understanding for analysing the quantitative data collected.

Figure 1 provides a summary of the process.

Figure 1. Project methodology

INCEPTION PHASE

Define the project scope Identify key research questions Develop a research approach

CONCEPTUAL OVERVIEW

Review relevant literature and reports Conduct expert interviews in New York, Tunis and Cairo, and remotely

RESEARCH DESIGN

Create a survey questionnaire Secure approval from the Columbia University International Review Board

DATA COLLECTION

Administer the survey on long-term migrants in Libya, with the help of IOM enumerators

ANALYSIS AND REPORTING

Clean the data collected Conduct an in-depth data analysis Present results and recommendations Write and publish a final report The project was initiated in November 2018. The conceptual overview and research design phases took place between December 2018 and January 2019. Data collection started in mid-February, immediately after the project received the approval of the Columbia University Institutional Review Board (IRB).

More than 50 books, studies, and media reports on the topic of migration, political and economic context in Libya, conditions in migrants' countries of origin, and circumstances facing migrants in Libya were consulted as part of the literature review. In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 experts from academia, international organizations and the private sector. Themes of the interviews included the history and political economy of Libya, migration patterns and intentions, general security environment, livelihoods and remittance transfer methods of migrants, data collection in Libya and the role of the international community.

Due to the sensitive nature of collecting data from migrants within a conflict-affected environment, the project proposal, methodology, and research tools were submitted for IRB review and approval at Columbia University. After the approval was received, IOM DTM enumerators were trained to conduct the survey in Libya. The survey was fielded nationwide, in conjunction with the IOM Flow Monitoring Survey (FMS), for a period of three weeks. It resulted in almost 1,300 responses; after data cleaning, a total of 1,244 of responses were usable for data analysis.

2.2. LIMITATIONS

This survey was the first instance in which long-term migrants were asked specific questions on livelihoods, remittances and security by the IOM DTM enumerators after the regularly administered FMS. The FMS questions collect sociodemographic and travel history information used to understand migrant characteristics in specific locations within a particular time period. Due to time constraints, pilot-testing of the survey questions was not feasible after enumerators' training and before survey distribution. The scale of any resulting data limitations is difficult to estimate due to the absence of previous surveys or data sets, or even a consistent count of long-term migrants in Libya.

Adding questions after the FMS risked making the survey a time-consuming process, which could have resulted in respondents skipping questions to expedite survey completion. Hence, survey questions were limited to the key thematic areas of livelihoods, remittances and security. Therefore, limited conclusions can be drawn about other topics relevant to long-term migrants that were not included in the survey. Lack of baseline data also limits the analysis of how migrants' intentions, livelihoods, remittance sending and security situations may have changed over time, both during migrants' journeys from their home countries and during their time in Libya.¹

The survey asked respondents to report sensitive information like migration intentions, security status, employment and income. The sensitivity of this information may have led to under- or misreporting. Questions that yielded a high percentage of "no answer", for example, may indicate respondents' hesitation to report particular information.

Some responses, specifically to the security questions, may not be linked to the geographic survey point where the long-term migrants were interviewed but, rather, a previous location along their journey.

Some terms in the survey may not have exact translations to the Libyan context. One example that may have impacted the analysis was the question that asked each respondent to select employment status. Day labour is common, and a migrant might start each day "unemployed" or "self-employed" until being picked up from a work recruitment point. Thus, migrants may have interpreted employment status differently, which could have led to underreporting in the follow-up questions that were only asked to migrants who self-identified as "employed".

The data also underreports female migrants. Of the 1,244 long-term migrants sampled, only 49 were women. Based on the data reported in other sections of the survey, this percentage of women underestimates the total share of female long-term migrants in Libya. Female long-term migrants are often supported by their male spouses or engaged in domestic work. Thus, they are rarely present at work recruitment points or transit points, key locations from which long-term migrants were sampled for this research. The underrepresentation of women in the sample means that limited conclusions can be drawn about the circumstances of female long-term migrants in Libya.

Sabratha crisis intervention. © IOM 2017/Ahmed SHAEBI





3. KEY FINDINGS

3.1. LONG-TERM MIGRANT DEMOGRAPHICS

Among the full sample, 50 per cent (n=619/1,244) were in the west, while 29 per cent (357) were in the south and 22 per cent (268) in the east. By *mantika*, the greatest share of respondents was surveyed in Tripoli (14%, 175). The fewest respondents were surveyed in the *mantika* of Al Jabal Al Akhdar (3%, 32).

Compared to the most recent round of the DTM (January–February 2019), variations are observed between the sample of long-term migrants and the overall migrant population. However, as there is no distinction in the DTM data between long-term and other migrants, it is impossible to determine whether the variation between the survey sample and the overall migrant population reflects patterns among long-term migrants or is an artifact of the sampling itself (IOM, 2019b).

That said, variations between the survey sample of long-term and the total migrant populations are observed in individual *mantikas* across all regions. Table 1 compares the number of long-term migrants surveyed and the overall population of migrants in Libya.

Table 1. Distribution of migrants surveyed and overall migrant population by mantika

Survey sample of long-term migrants			Total population of migrants in Libya	
Mantika	Number of respondents	% of the total respondents	All migrants in Libya	% of all migrants
		West		
Tripoli	175	14%	143 838	22%
Misrata	145	12%	59 708	9%
Almargeb	134	11%	20 865	3%
Azzawya	59	5%	37 890	6%
Aljfara	59	5%	34 390	5%
Nalut	47	4%	9 406	1%
Al Jabal Al Gharbi	_	_	41 947	6%
Zwara	_	_	15 505	2%
Sirt	_	_	5 303	1%
East				
Alkufra	70	6%	26 194	4%
Ejdabia	63	5%	69 724	10%
Tobruk	57	5%	7 372	1%
Benghazi	46	4%	31 172	5%
Al Jabal Al Akhdar	32	3%	10 770	2%
Almarj	_	_	8 175	1%
Derna	_	_	6 605	1%

Survey sample of long-term migrants			Total population of migrants in Libya	
Mantika	Number of respondents	% of the total respondents	All migrants in Libya	% of all migrants
		South		
Murzuq	145	12%	55 334	8%
Aljufra	78	6%	13 464	2%
Ghat	78	6%	11 265	2%
Sebha	56	5%	44 315	7%
Ubari	_	_	9 255	1%
Wadi Ashshati	_	_	4 220	1%
Total	1 244	100%	575 707	100%

Source: IOM, 2019b.

3.1.1. Nationality

Of all long-term migrants surveyed, those from the Niger represent the largest nationality at 35 per cent (434), followed by Egyptians (14%, 176) and Sudanese (13%, 165). All other nationalities constitute less than 10 per cent of the sample.

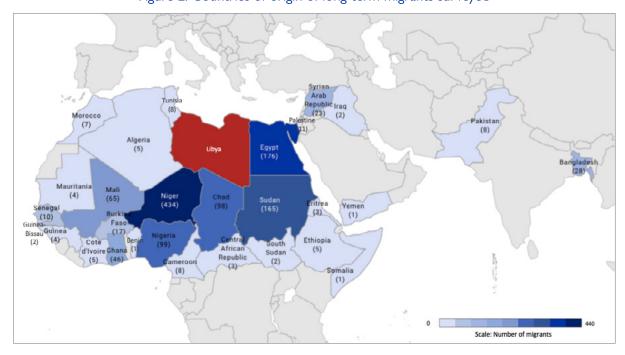


Figure 2. Countries of origin of long-term migrants surveyed

Sources: IOM, UN OCHA (https://data.humdata.org/), OpenStreetMap and ArcGIS.

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by IOM.

Long-term migrants from sub-Saharan Africa constitute 65 per cent (810) of the sample, while those from North Africa represent 29 per cent (361) of the sample. The Middle East (37) and Asia (36) each accounts for 3 per cent.

As reported by the DTM, Niger nationals constitute 20 per cent of the total migrant population in Libya, followed by Egyptians (15%), Chadians (14%), Sudanese (12%) and Nigerians (10%). Overall, the sample for this research included respondents from 30 nationalities, while the DTM identified migrants from 44 countries (IOM, 2019b). Table 2 compares the survey sample with the entire migrant population, based on nationality.

Table 2. Distribution of migrants surveyed and overall migrant population by country of origin

Country	Survey sample	All migrants
Niger	35%	20%
Chad	8%	14%
Nigeria	8%	10%
Mali	5%	5%
Ghana	4%	7%
Burkina Faso	1%	1%
Senegal	0.8%	1%
Cameroon	0.6%	0.5%
Ethiopia	0.4%	2%
Côte d'Ivoire	0.4%	1%
Guinea	0.3%	1%
Mauritania	0.3%	0.2%
Eritrea	0.2%	2%
Gambia	0.2%	0.1%
Central African Republic	0.2%	0%
South Sudan	0.2%	_
Guinea-Bissau	0.2%	_
Somalia	0.1%	2%
Benin	0.1%	_
Sub-Saharan Africa	65%	65%
Syrian Arab Republic	2%	1%
Palestinian Territories	0.9%	0.3%
Iraq	0.2%	0%
Yemen	0.1%	0%
Middle East	3%	1%
Egypt	14%	15%
Sudan	13%	12%
Morocco	0.6%	1%
Tunisia	0.6%	1%
Algeria	0.4%	0.3%
North Africa	29%	30%
Bangladesh	2%	4%
Pakistan	0.6%	0.3%
Asia	3%	4%

Source: IOM, 2019b.

3.1.2. Gender

The vast majority (96%, 1,195/1,244) of long-term migrants in the sample are male. According to the DTM, the overall migrant community in Libya is also predominantly male, though females constitute 13 per cent of this population (ibid.).

3.1.3. Age

The average age of the sample of long-term migrants is 31. Across the full sample, respondents were between 16 and 58 years old. Half (51%, 636) of long-term migrants surveyed were between 20 and 29. A further 38 per cent (468) were between 30 and 39, 10 per cent (127) are 40 or older, and 1 per cent (13) were younger than 20 years old. The DTM does not report the age breakdown of adult migrants (ibid.).

3.1.4. Marital status

The majority (55%, 678) of respondents reported that they were single, while 44 per cent (547) reported being married or in a union. The remaining respondents reported being either divorced or separated, widowed, or opted not to answer the question.

3.1.5. Education level

The survey results indicate that respondents have little to no formal education. A quarter of respondents indicated that they had not completed any level of education (26%, 329), while another quarter had completed primary levels (24%, 298). Fewer respondents reported completing middle school (12%, 147) or high school (13%, 162), while 12 per cent (151) of migrants reported completing Quranic school. Only 2 per cent (31) of migrants reported completing university, while 10 per cent (124) had earned a vocational degree. Those with higher levels of education and technical training were surveyed in the west; of 155 long-term migrants who held a university or vocational degree, 68 per cent (105) were surveyed in this region.

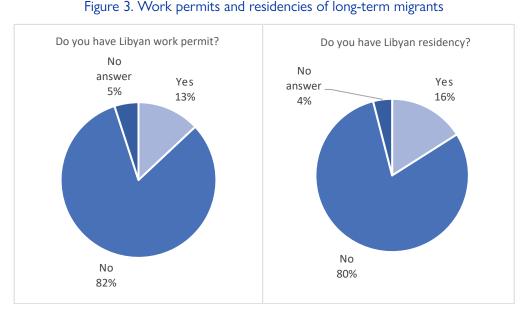
3.2. MIGRATION STATUS AND INTENTIONS

3.2.1. Access to legal documentation

Migrants make vital economic contributions to both their host countries and countries of origin, but they often lack access to official services and legal documentation. In theory, management of foreign labour in Libya lies mainly with employers who present applications for work permits to the Ministry of Labour (MoL). The rights of workers are stipulated in the work contract, which is submitted by the employer to the MoL for approval together with a work permit application (Eurasylum and IOM, 2014). In practice, many migrants do not have written contracts or work permits and are often dependent on employers to provide documentation to maintain a legal status (International Labor Rights Forum, 2019).

A majority of long-term migrants surveyed reported not having Libyan residency. Most respondents who reported not having Libyan residency were from the Sahel region. In fact, 95 per cent of Malians (62/65), 93 per cent of the Niger nationals (403/434), 91 per cent of Chadians (89/98) and 91 per cent of Ghanaians (42/46) reported not having Libyan residency. In contrast, nearly all respondents from South Asia (Bangladesh and Pakistan) (92% or 33/36), as well as a large percentage of those from Egypt (44%, 77/176), reported having Libyan residency. Of all respondents who said they had Libyan residency, 39 per cent were Egyptians (77/195).

As might be expected, 62 per cent (32/52) of respondents who had been staying in Libya for more than five years had Libyan residency, whereas among those who had been in Libya for less than five years, only 14 per cent (163/1192) had Libyan residency.



Note: n=1.244.

Among respondents who possessed Libyan work permits, 25 per cent reported working in sectors like construction, water supply, and electricity and gas (41/164). In the east, the greatest percentage of respondents had a work permit (22%, 59/268), followed by the group of migrants in the west (14%, 84/619), and the south (6%, 21/357). Additionally, 95 per cent of respondents in Tripoli (167/175) reported not having work permits.

Ninety-seven per cent of Malians (63/65), 95 per cent of Nigerians (94/99), 94 per cent of Burkina Faso nationals (16/17), 93 per cent of Ghanaians (43/46) and 92 per cent of nationals from the Niger (400/434) reported not having a work permit. Unlike Libyan residency, there was a marked difference among Egyptian respondents regarding possession of a work permit: only 30 per cent (53/176) reported having one. A majority of respondents from South Asia (Bangladesh and Pakistan) reported having work permits (81%, 29/36).

3.2.2. Obtaining or renewing documents

Approximately 60 per cent of respondents reported that they either had no one to turn to or did not know to whom to turn to get legal documents issued or renewed (744/1,244). Ten per cent (122/1,244) said they would rely on their employers (of whom 59% were in the west) and 8 per cent said they would turn directly to some official channels² for documents (100/1,244). The low level of interaction with government did not vary markedly across the country, although in certain regions the formal authorities seem to be particularly distant; no respondents from Al Jabal Al Akhdar Aljfara, Ghat, Nalut or Sebha said they would turn to official channels.

3.2.3. Difficulties faced in obtaining or renewing documents

Most respondents reported that they had not tried obtaining legal documents (64%). Among those who reported facing difficulties in obtaining or renewing documents (11%, 133/1,244), 56 per cent were surveyed in the east (74/133). At the *mantika* level, those surveyed in Al Jabal Al Akhdar reported facing difficulties in obtaining or renewing documents at the highest rate (66%, 21/32).

The main challenge respondents reported in obtaining or renewing documents was not having required supporting documents (50%, 67/133) or not being able to afford the service (41%, 54/133). Of those who reported a challenge of not knowing to whom to turn, 58 per cent were surveyed in the east (23/40).

Official channels include government institutions (57/1,244) and local authorities (43/1,244).

3.2.4. Drivers shaping long-term migrants' migration intentions

Libya has been a country of both transit and destination for migrants coming from North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa, but it has never been clear what proportion migrate to Libya with the intention to stay and work.³ Most respondents reported Libya as their intended destination; few reported coming to Libya with intent to transit to another destination. While 56 per cent of respondents reported intending to stay in Libya for some time and then return to their home countries in the future (691/1,244), 24 per cent reported intending to stay in Libya indefinitely (300/1,244). Overall, 13 per cent of respondents reported intending to stay in Libya before continuing to a different destination (166/1,243). Only 5 per cent of respondents reported intending to continue to another destination as soon as possible (63/1,244).

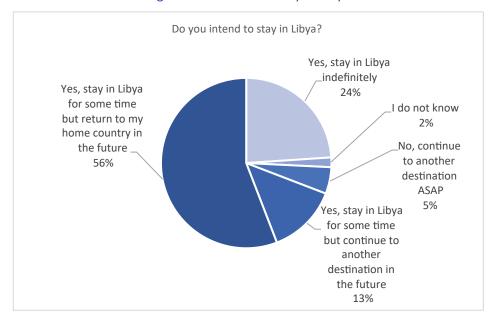


Figure 4. Intentions to stay in Libya

Note: n=1,244.

Sixty-two per cent of respondents intending to stay indefinitely in Libya were surveyed in the west (187/300), whereas only 25 per cent of these respondents were surveyed in the east (76/300) and 12 per cent in the south (37/300).

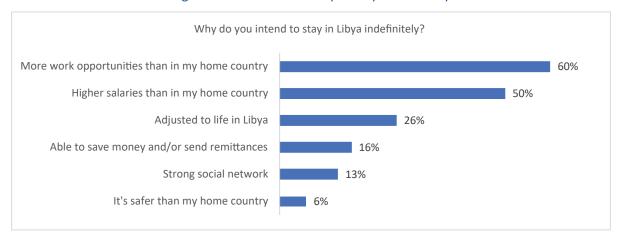
In terms of nationality, 25 percent of respondents from the Niger (110/434) reported intending to stay indefinitely in Libya. Seventy-eight per cent of respondents from South Asia (Bangladesh and Pakistan) (28/36), 70 per cent from Egypt (123/176), 67 per cent from the Niger (289/434) and 65 per cent from Chad (64/98) reported intending to return to their home countries after some time in Libya. Sudanese respondents (8%, 13/165) held the highest percentage share by any one nationality among all respondents who reported intending to continue to another destination as soon as possible.

The availability of employment opportunities and relatively higher salaries in Libya in comparison to those in respondents' countries of origin are key drivers of migration to Libya (REACH, 2017). The survey data shows that respondents' reasons to stay in Libya were mostly associated with the perception of not being able to realize their objectives for work and wages back home. When respondents were asked about their main reasons for staying in Libya indefinitely, 60 per cent (179/300) cited more work opportunities in Libya and 50 per cent (149/300) cited higher salaries. Twenty-six per cent (77/300) of respondents who intend to stay indefinitely reported that was because they had adjusted to life in Libya. Security considerations were another factor, although only 6 per cent (19/300) of respondents reported feeling safer in Libya than in their home countries.

³ See Annex III for the full list of expert interviews conducted for the research.

All Malians (13/13), 65 per cent of Nigerians (11/17), 64 per cent of Egyptians (28/44) and 63 per cent of Chadians (12/19) who reported a desire to stay in Libya indefinitely responded that salaries were higher in Libya than in their home countries. Seventy-two per cent of Sudanese (38/53), 68 per cent of the Niger nationals (75/110) and 63 per cent of Chadians (12/19) said that there were more work opportunities available in Libya than in their home countries.

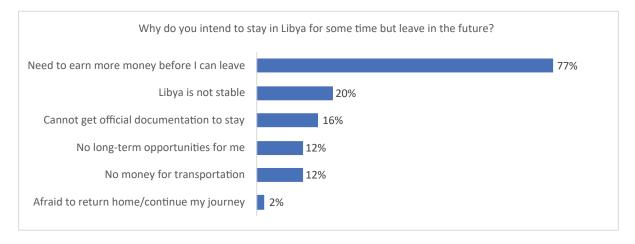
Figure 5. Motivations to stay in Libya indefinitely



Note: n=300.

The large majority of long-term migrants reported intending to stay in Libya to earn enough money and economic resources to return home in the future. When respondents were asked about their main reasons for staying in Libya for some time before leaving in the future, almost 90 per cent said money influenced that decision, with most respondents noting that they needed more money before leaving (663/857) and/or they could not afford transportation to leave Libya (105/857). Of all respondents from South Asia (Bangladesh and Pakistan) who reported intending to stay in Libya for some time before leaving in the future, 90 per cent noted that they needed to earn more money before leaving (28/31). Eighty-six per cent of Chadians (61/71), 86 per cent of Egyptians (110/128) and 81 per cent of the Niger nationals (248/307) noted the same reason. Of all respondents who intended to stay in Libya for some time before leaving, 33 per cent said their intention to leave some time was due to negative factors or circumstances in Libya, such as instability in the country (174/857) and/or absence of opportunities in the long term (107/857).

Figure 6. Motivations to stay in Libya but leave in the future



Note: n=857.

3.3. LIVELIHOODS

3.3.1. The context of migrant livelihoods in Libya

Comparative advantage for certain migrants in earning a livelihood

Libya has been a destination country for migrants across the region for decades. Egypt has historically been one of the largest countries of origin, but especially after Gaddafi's tilt towards Africa, migrants from Central and West Africa, particularly the Sahel countries, have been present in large numbers (ICMPD, 2010). However, the circumstances of these nationals often vary distinctly. Egyptians, in particular, are largely considered to have advantages in earning livelihoods. For one, Egyptians enjoy historical migration routes and active connections between expatriates in Libya and those in Egypt aspiring to migrate. Regular migration channels exist, due to agreements between the Government of Libya and the Government of Egypt (though most Egyptians migrate irregularly), and the existing Egyptian migrant community in Libya is considered to offer an important source of connections for finding work. In fact, some Egyptian migrants are reported to serve as brokers, bringing additional nationals from their home country to Libya for manual labour (Zampagni et al., 2017). Further, as an expert on Egyptian migration elaborated, the cultural linkages, including kin connections and similar dialect, between Libyans and Egyptians, particularly those from the south, constitute an important source of trust between the two communities.⁴ In contrast, migrants from Central and West Africa, such as those from the Niger, Nigeria and Ghana, face more pronounced challenges, including exploitation and menial labour, because of their nationalities. Often unable to speak Arabic, known by employers to be irregular, and locked out of the formal sector, these migrants have limited economic opportunities and often must contend with abuse by employers or others in their immediate environment (ibid.).

Existence of an in-kind compensation system

The instability of the Libyan dinar and the liquidity crunch suggests that migrants receive a portion of their compensation in kind (REACH and UNHCR, 2018; REACH, 2017). Some of the most common forms of in-kind compensation include food, housing, transportation and transfer of income as remittances. A review of literature also suggests that migrants might prefer an in-kind system of compensation. Reflecting fears for their safety, migrants may prefer to be given housing close to their workplace, reducing the risk inherent in travel, or prefer being given food, so they do not have to go out and shop. However, as these in-kind means are not fungible, migrants who send remittances might be less keen to accept them. A final supposition is that employers might be more reluctant to pay migrants in cash, preferring to keep it for themselves, and provide lower-quality substitutes or delayed payments (REACH, 2017).

3.3.2. Survey results

Employment status in Libya

Half of those surveyed reported being self-employed in Libya (51%, 631), while 38 per cent (476) reported being employed, and 11 per cent (132) reported being unemployed and looking for a job. Less than 1 per cent (4) of respondents reported being unemployed but not looking for a job.

Nearly all migrants who reported being unemployed and looking for work (95%, 126/132) came from sub-Saharan Africa. On the other hand, migrants originating from Asia and the Middle East had the highest rates of employment: 81 per cent (29/36) and 57 per cent (21/37), respectively. Disaggregated by region, almost all migrants who reported being unemployed (90%, 122/136) were surveyed in the south. On the other hand, 98 per cent of those surveyed in the east (263/268) as well as those surveyed in the west (609/619) reported being either employed or self-employed.

⁴ This information was obtained during an interview with an expert on Egyptian migration.

Employment status in origin countries

The greatest share of respondents reported having been unemployed (44%, 545) before travelling to Libya. While 32 per cent (392) reported having worked for an employer, 23 per cent (290) of respondents reported having been self-employed. Of the 545 respondents who reported having been unemployed in their countries of origin, 82 per cent (445) reported being employed or self-employed in Libya.

Table 3. Employment status of long-term migrants in Libya and in their countries of origin

		Status in Libya			
		Employed	Self-employed	Unemployed	Total
٠	Employed	194	172	26	392
atus in countr origin	Self-employed	100	187	3	290
Status ne cour of orig	Unemployed	175	270	100	545
St: the of	Total	469	629	129	1 227

Note: Data on employment status in the country of origin excludes students and those who did not want to answer.

The greatest share of respondents who reported being employed or self-employed in their countries of origin said they had worked in the agriculture sector (32%, 218/682), followed by construction (17%, 113) and crafts (13%, 92).

Professions in Libya

Long-term migrants surveyed most often reported working in construction, water and sanitation (26%, 290/1,107); craft (15%, 164/1,107); agriculture (14%, 149/1,107); service work (11%, 127/1,107); and plant and machine operation (8%, 93/1,107). Table 4 summarizes the professions of employed and self-employed respondents in Libya.

Table 4. Distribution of long-term migrants' reported professions in Libya

Profession/Sector	Total
Agriculture	149
Construction, water and sanitation	290
Craft	164
Domestic work	48
Hospitality and tourism	11
Managerial and clerical support	14
Mining	5
Plant and machine operation	93
Retail sales	82
Service work	127
Transportation and truck driving	28
Other	96
Total	1 107

Professions in Libya vary by country of origin. Some nationalities were concentrated in certain industries; for instance, 69 per cent of Ghanaians (27/39), 45 per cent of Malians (25/55), and 42 per cent of Egyptians (72/173) reported working in construction, water and sanitation. The service industry was among the top three sectors only for migrants from the Niger, and similarly, retail sales was among the top three only for Nigerians and Sudanese migrants. Table 5 shows the top three professions reported among the seven most represented nationalities in the sample.

Table 5. Top three professions of long-term migrants in Libya by country of origin

Egypt	n=173
Construction, water and sanitation	42%
Craft	27%
Agriculture	8%
Other	23%
Mali	n=55
Construction, water and sanitation	45%
Agriculture	18%
Craft	13%
Other	24%
Nigeria	n=79
Construction, water and sanitation	30%
Plant and machine operation	27%
Retail sales	9%
Other	34%
Chad	n=93
Agriculture	25%
Craft	18%
Construction, water and sanitation	13%
Other	44%
Ghana	n=39
Construction, water and sanitation	69%
Plant/machine operation	21%
Craft	8%
Other	2%
Niger	n=357
Agriculture	24%
Construction, water and sanitation	22%
Service	21%
Other	33%
Sudan	n=161
Retail sales	16%
Craft	15%
Construction, water and sanitation	12%
Other	57%

Finding work

Among all respondents, 36 per cent reported facing difficulties at some point in their search for work (448/1,244). Those from sub-Saharan Africa appear to have faced greater challenges than their counterparts from North Africa. For example, 46 per cent of Nigerians (46/99), 44 per cent of the Niger nationals (193/434) and 40 per cent of Malians (26/65) reported difficulties at some point, compared to 29 per cent of Sudanese (48/165) and 22 per cent of Egyptians (39/176). According to the survey results, finding work was most difficult in the south. Most respondents surveyed in the south reported

The Status of Long-term Migrants in Libya

challenges finding work (60%, 214/357). Specifically, in *mantikas* in the south, one third of respondents who noted that they had faced difficulties in their search for work were concentrated in Murzuq and Sebha (150/448).

Respondents who were previously employed in agriculture (36%, 79/218) and retail (34%, 21/62) in their countries of origin had the most difficulty in finding work in Libya.

Specific obstacles to finding work

Economic factors, primarily the lack of jobs or insufficient skills, pose the greatest challenge to finding work.

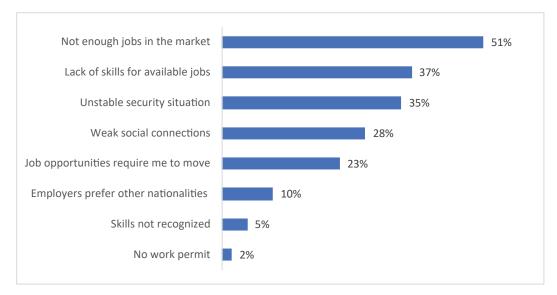


Figure 7. Obstacles to finding employment

Note: n=448.

Long-term migrants in the south considered the lack of job opportunities (54%, 115/214) and security (47%, 100/214) to be the biggest challenges in finding work. In contrast, long-term migrants in the west considered the lack of job opportunities (54%, 93/174) and inadequacy of their skills for the job market (54%, 93/174) to be the most common problems in finding work. This stood in contrast to the responses of migrants in the east, who identified weak social connections (63%, 38/60) as the most common obstacle to finding employment.

Among the 11 per cent of migrants who reported being unemployed (136/1,244) and experiencing difficulties in finding work attributed this problem to the security situation (55%, 65/119) and the lack of skills (50%, 60/119). Only 39 per cent of respondents linked it to the lack of job opportunities (47/119).

Obtaining jobs

The most common means of obtaining jobs among employed long-term migrants was through fellow migrants from their home countries. Across all countries of origin, fellow migrants were the most common means of obtaining a job, though respondents from the Niger selected work recruitment places⁵ as equally common.

Recruitment places include roundabouts, markets and other urban locations where migrants gather in the mornings and wait for employers to pick them up for daily work.

Migrants from home country

Work recruitment place

Employer recruitment

Social network

Family

Migrants from other countries

Facilitators

36%

23%

11%

Family

9%

Figure 8. Means of obtaining work

Note: n=476.

Across the country, the picture varies: migrants from the same country were the most common means of obtaining work in Azzawya (63%, 30/48), Almargeb (44%, 20/45) and Murzuq (42%, 22/53). In Tripoli, however, nearly three quarters of respondents indicated they obtained work through work recruitment points (30/41), while, in Nalut, three quarters indicated that they were recruited by their employers (23/30). In Aljufra, 35 per cent of respondents reported they were recruited by family (the highest of any *mantika*) (23/66), while an equal number of migrants (35%, 23/66) had been recruited by migrants from their countries.

Across all the migrants' professions in Libya, except for construction, migrants from the same country were the most common means of obtaining jobs. Among construction workers, a majority indicated work recruitment points (52%, 47/91) as their means of obtaining their present jobs. Approximately 38 per cent of plant and machine operators (20/52) indicated that they were recruited by a specific employer. Facilitators played only a marginal role in helping migrants obtain jobs, with this assistance concentrated among those in the agriculture and craft industries.

Compensation

Cash was the most common compensation, with 94 per cent of employed long-term migrants identifying this means (449/476). Compensation in goods and services (25%, 118/476) and bank transfers (5%, 22/476) were less common. Of all those who noted that they received goods and services as compensation, the most common forms of compensation were found to be housing (87%, 103/118) and food (82%, 97/118). Bank transfers were received by fewer than two dozens of the respondents, and of those, three quarters were from South Asia (Bangladesh and Pakistan). Most long-term migrants in the south (53%, 64/120) said that they received goods and services. The greatest number of respondents reported receiving their payments on a monthly basis (46%, 221/476), followed by 37% (178) who said they received their salaries on a daily basis.

The vast majority of migrants who reported receiving compensation in cash, 94 per cent, said that they received it in Libyan dinars (LYD) (93/99). Note, however, that only 22 per cent (99/449) of respondents who received cash as compensation chose to provide information on the specific currency.

Denied expected payment

One quarter (25%, 309/1,244) of migrants said that they had not received their expected payments while working in Libya on at least one occasion. Denial of expected payments was found to be greatest in the south (38%, 136/357), where it existed at nearly double the rates in the west (20%, 122/619) and the east (19%, 51/268). At the *mantika* level, denial of expected payments was even more concentrated; 73 per cent of respondents in Aljufra (57/78) reported not receiving their expected payments, along with 56 per cent of those in Tobruk (32/57) and 46 per cent in Sebha (26/56).

As a percentage of nationality, Ghanaian (35%, 16/46) and Nigerian (32%, 32/99) respondents were most likely to say they had not received expected payments at some point. Those in the craft (34%, 55/164) and construction sectors (29%, 84/290) were also most likely to report receiving less than the agreed payments.

Respondents who had received goods and services as a portion of their compensation were more likely to report receiving less than the expected payments than those who were paid cash. Specifically, 42 per cent of employed migrants who received goods and services as a portion of their payments reported receiving less than expected (49/118), compared to 21 per cent of employed migrants who did not receive compensation with goods and services (76/355).

Delay in receiving compensation

Half of long-term migrants who reported being employed said that there had been delays in the disbursement of their compensation (238/476), but the data shows that these delays were infrequent.

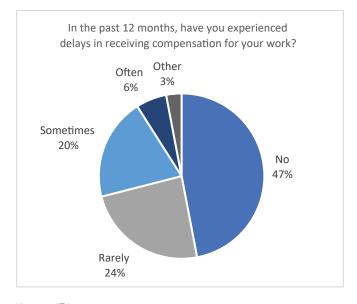


Figure 9. Frequency of delay in receiving compensation

Note: n=476.

Egyptian migrants appear to face the greatest delays, with 59 per cent saying they faced delays of varying frequency (60/101). Further, 63 per cent of respondents currently employed in the craft sector (45/71) reported facing delays at higher rates than those in other professions; service workers appear to be the least affected by delays.

A majority of workers in the west (56%, 137/243) responded that they had faced no delays. In contrast, a majority of those in the east (58%, 66/113) and south (62%, 74/120) reported having faced delays. In fact, though migrants in the east accounted for only 24 per cent (113/476) of employed migrants surveyed, they were 50 per cent (15/30) of those who said their salaries were "often" delayed. These delays were

found to be concentrated primarily in Tobruk, where 74 per cent of respondents reported facing delays in payment (31/42). However, the highest rate was observed in Aljufra, where 80 per cent of migrants reported experiencing delays (53/66).

Receiving cash appears to offer greater certainty in receiving payments on time. Forty-seven per cent of those who received cash as some portion of payment reported experiencing no delay (213/449). In comparison, 36 per cent of those who reported receiving goods and services as some portion of their payments reported the same (42/118).

Among those who reported receiving delayed payments, lack of cash on the employer's part (76%, 181/238) was cited as the most common reason for the delay. Of the respondents who reported delays, those in the south (85%, 63/74) and west (82%, 80/98) were more likely to be impacted by the lack of cash than those in the east (58%, 38/66). Respondents in the east were also more likely to say that their employers both saw no urgency in paying salaries on time and provided no explanation for the delayed payments.

Types of contract

The majority of respondents reported having either an oral contract (45%, 214/476) or no contract at all (43%, 207/476). Only 11 per cent reported having a written contract (51/476), the majority of whom were South Asians. Of all written contracts, 84 per cent (43/51) were reported by respondents in the west.

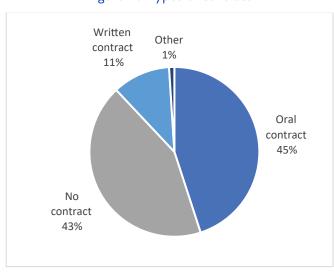


Figure 10. Types of contract

Note: n=476.

Education appears positively correlated with having a written contract: 45 per cent of those with a university degree (10/22) and 37 per cent of those with a vocational degree (25/68) reported possessing written contracts. Significantly, individuals with vocational education were over-represented among respondents holding written contracts; these migrants constituted only 14 per cent (68/476) of respondents to this question but 49 per cent of those with written contracts (25/51).

There is wide regional variation in the reported results. In Nalut, 70 per cent of workers reported having written contracts (21/30), which may reflect the high rate of workers who were recruited directly by employers seeking their particular skills.⁶ In Aljufra, by contrast, 97 per cent of workers had no contract (64/66). In all other *mantikas*, oral contracts were most common, reaching 87 per cent in Murzuq (46/53) and 78 per cent in Tripoli (32/41).

⁶ As detailed earlier, 23 of the 30 respondents from Nalut indicated that they obtained their present jobs through the recruitment by their employers.

The impact of contracts on payment regularity appears to have mixed results. The vast majority of migrants with written contracts said their payments had been delayed at some point in the last 12 months (76%, 39/51). In comparison, workers with oral contracts reported receiving their payments delayed 42 per cent of the time (89/214) and those with no contract, 52 per cent of the time (109/207).

However, results show that contracts positively correlate with receiving the proper amount of payment. Of all the respondents who reported having written contracts, the vast majority reported never receiving less than their expected compensation (96%, 49/51). Further, 21 per cent of those with oral contracts reported receiving less than their expected payments (46/214), compared to 37 per cent of those without any contract (77/207).

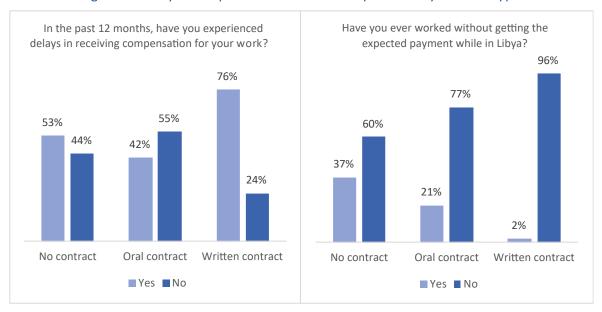


Figure 11. Delayed compensation and undercompensation by contract type

Note: n=476.

Nearly half of those with written contracts reported receiving goods and services as some portion of their payments (45%, 23/51), compared to only 14 per cent of those with oral contracts (31/214) and 31 per cent of those with no contract (64/207).

Forced labour

Approximately 15 per cent of long-term migrants reported that they had been forced to work against their will at some point in Libya (185/1,244). Among Ghanaians, 35 per cent reported having been forced to work against their will at some point (16/46). Rates of forced labour were also high among migrants from the Niger (22%, 95/434). In fact, the Niger nationals, though representing 35 per cent of the sample (434/1,244), constituted the majority of those who reported being subjected to forced labour (51%, 95/185).

Rates of forced labour are highest among respondents in the south (31%, 112/357), where 61 per cent of those reporting forced labour were surveyed (112/185). Nearly two thirds of those in Aljufra (65%, 51/78) reported being subjected to forced labour, as well as 55 per cent of those in Sebha (31/56). Further, 28 per cent of all reports of forced labour came from Aljufra (51/185), despite the *mantika* comprising only 6 per cent of the total sample (78/1,244). Contracts negatively correlate with reports of forced labour.

Criminal networks (41%, 76/185) were the most common perpetrators of forced labour.

Criminal network

Employer

Security forces

Migrant

5%

Other

5%

Don't want to answer

Figure 12. Perpetrators of forced labour

Note: n=185.

In the south, criminal networks (49%, 55/112) and employers (34%, 38/112) were reported as the most common perpetrators, while, in the west, criminal networks (28%, 19/68) were the most common. Within the south, migrants in Sebha almost unanimously identified criminal networks as the perpetrators (81%, 25/31). In contrast, the majority of those in Aljufra (51%, 26/51) identified employers.

3.3.3. Analysis

For long-term migrants, the Libyan economy and labour market appears to have remained functioning. Despite the disruption caused by armed conflict, migrants and the labour market, in general, appear to have adjusted. Most migrants reported facing no difficulties in finding work and, among those who are currently unemployed, the security situation and a lack of personal skills were more common impediments than insufficient jobs. This indicates that the demand in Libya for migrant labour, in evidence before the revolution (ICMPD, 2010), has not been significantly altered. There is still a need across the economy for migrants to fill various positions and migrants are still willing to move to Libya to take such positions.

The data presents new information on the impact of the liquidity crunch on long-term migrants. Reports on contemporary Libya have focused on the absence of hard cash in the economy and the resulting increase in the real exchange rate. However, the data suggests that the effect of this economic crisis on migrant livelihoods may be overstated. According to the survey results, the vast majority of long-term migrants received their salaries in cash, with only a fraction receiving compensation in goods and services (i.e. in-kind compensation). Further, cash correlate with both (1) being paid on time and (2) being paid the agreed-upon rate, indicating that employers may not be cutting back on cash payments to compensate for the declining liquidity. For migrant labourers, almost none of whom reported having bank accounts, the lack of liquidity may not be an overly constricting force although other research suggests that the crisis has made migrants a more attractive target for extortion and robbery by armed groups and also disrupted remittance networks (REACH and UNHCR, 2018). These topics are discussed in the following sections.

Contracts do not exist in great numbers among the long-term migrant community, but that does not appear to be a decisive factor in guaranteeing labour protections. The majority of migrants with written contracts indicated that they faced delays in receiving their salaries in the past 12 months, in excess of those with oral or no contracts. However, long-term migrants with written contracts were found to be more likely to receive the agreed-upon payment than those with oral or written ones.

Approximately 15 per cent of long-term migrants reported being forced to work against their will since they arrived in Libya. Those from West Africa (e.g. Ghana and the Niger) reported rates of forced labour above the total sample, confirming existing assertions that these nationals are more vulnerable to such forms of abuse. Criminal networks are the most common perpetrators, followed by employers. Importantly, 9 per cent of long-term migrants, including 22 per cent of those in the west, identified security forces as the perpetrators. It is critical to note that the distinctions between these various groups are not always mutually exclusive. As existing research and key experts confirmed, there is often an overlap between security forces and criminal networks, especially in southern locales (El-Kamouni-Jannsen, 2017).

What is the story in Aljufra?

Aljufra is a *mantika* located at the dead centre of Libya. Surrounded by the southern gateways of Sebha and Murzuq and on the way to both the coast and economic centres of Tripoli and Misrata, the area constitutes a major artery for transit across Libya. However, the region is also home to the city of Hun.

Table 6. Circumstances in Aljufra

	Aljufra	South	Overall
Difficulty in finding work due to absent jobs	98% (n=39/40)	54% (n=115/214)	51% (n=227/448)
Obtained primary job through family	35% (n=23/66)	23% (n=28/120)	9% (n=45/476)
Receive goods and services as compensation	80% (n=53/66)	53% (n=64/120)	25% (n=118/476)
Have received payment beneath expectations	73% (n=57/78)	38% (n=136/357)	25% (n=309/1 244)
Have experienced a delay in payment	80% (n=53/66)	62% (n=74/120)	50% (n=238/476)
Have no contract	97% (n=64/66)	57% (n=68/120)	43% (n=207/476)
Have been subjected to forced labour	65% (n=51/78)	31% (n=112/357)	15% (n=185/1 244)
Employers as perpetrator of forced labour	51% (n=26/51)	34% (n=38/112)	25% (n=46/185)

There are two possible hypotheses to explain the unique numbers in Table 6.

Aljufra as a safer environment

For many long-term migrants, life in Libya is replete with potential threats. This is especially pronounced for those who reside in the south, particularly those in the migration hub of Sebha, and this may skew the responses. As one expert who has conducted quantitative surveys of migrants in Libya suggested, migrants may not report abuse until they have left the environment in which the abuse took place; thus, for example, a migrant may experience abuse in Sebha and not report it until they reach Tripoli, creating a false impression of the circumstances in both areas. Thus, migrants in Aljufra may be reporting instances of abuse that took place elsewhere, especially for those who have just left more dangerous locales.

Aljufra as a unique environment

The data is an accurate representation of circumstances for migrants in Aljufra. The geopolitical fragmentation of Libya since 2014 and the localization of authority following the overthrow of Gaddafi (circa 2011) has allowed local circumstances to dominate regional or national ones. Reflecting this, it is conceivable that, as the data indicates, the local labour market in Aljufra is cash poor and defined by threats to decent work, be it denial of a contract or prevalence of forced labour at the hands of employers.

3.4. REMITTANCES

3.4.1. Migrant remittances in the Libyan context

Historically large migrant remittance outflows

As an oil-rich nation with an economy that depends on foreign labour, Libya has long hosted migrants, regular and irregular alike, who fill gaps in the labour market and send large portions of their earnings home (Bob-Milliar and Bob-Milliar, 2013). Prior to the 2011 uprising in Libya, the World Bank estimated that the total size of remittances exiting the country was approximately USD 1.6 billion in 2010, or 2.3 per cent of Libya's GDP. While outward migrant remittance flows fell in 2011, likely due to massive numbers of migrants fleeing armed conflict associated with the uprising, total remittance outflows in 2012 and 2013 far exceeded the 2010 total, indicating that large numbers of migrants were again coming to Libya for work. A decrease in remittance outflows from 2014 onward coincides with disruptions to oil production that sparked the severe economic downturn and liquidity crisis now plaguing Libya.

Table 7. Libyan migrants' remittance outflows, 2007–2018 (USD million)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Remittance	762	964	1 361	1 609	650	1 971	3 199	1 120	840	756	-	_

Source: World Bank, 2019.

Despite the comparative difficulty of sending remittances since 2014, remittance outflows in 2015 and 2016 confirm the continued importance of migrants to Libya's economy. While the World Bank has not provided estimates of remittance outflows for Libya since 2016, IOM Libya's most recent round of the DTM Migrant Report indicates that there are at least 666,717 migrants currently in Libya, suggesting that remittance outflows could still be quite significant (IOM, 2019b).

Reliance on informal remittance transfer mechanisms

Migrants in Libya largely rely on informal mechanisms to send remittances. This is partly due to the fact that Libya is mostly a cash-based economy, and access to bank accounts has been further limited as a result of the liquidity crisis (REACH and UNHCR, 2018). While bank transfers were more widely available to some migrants as a means of sending money home before 2014, the liquidity crisis has further eroded what public trust there was in the banking system, making both Libyans and non-Libyans more likely to be unbanked (Zway, 2017). With few exceptions, migrants and refugees do not have access to bank accounts in Libya (REACH and UNHCR, 2018). Private money transfer service providers, such as Western Union, have also become less available. Many migrants who relied on private transfer agencies, such as skilled migrants working as doctors or nurses, have reportedly left Libya due to increased difficulty sending remittances (Zway, 2017).

Though it is widely recognized that migrants increasingly rely on informal remittance transfer methods, especially given the difficulties accessing bank accounts and using private transfer agencies, there is a lack of more detailed information about how the informal mechanisms work and which are preferred (ibid.). DTM enumerators have indicated that many migrants use an informal value transfer system, usually paying fees up to 15 per cent. Egyptian migrants, particularly in eastern Libya, reportedly send cash and in-kind remittances by microbuses, many of which run direct routes between towns in Libya and Egypt. These migrants pay a small fee to send in-kind remittances, but they may also be able to send cash remittances with bus drivers for little to no fees. Regardless of how exactly the money is making its way from Libya to the intended destination, the only way for migrants to exchange or transfer money is on the parallel market, which some studies have found to be more directly accessible in the west and east than in the south (REACH and UNHCR, 2018).

Sustaining households, supporting regional economies

Many studies have shown that the vast majority of migrants in Libya send a large portion of their earnings to their families in their home countries who depend heavily on this money. In a study conducted in 2014, migrants in the agriculture sector in Libya reported sending, on average, 58 per cent of their salaries to their families abroad (DIWAN, 2014). Experts explain that migrants in Libya are often the main source of income for the households that receive their remittances. In a 2012 survey by IOM, 77.8 per cent of Egyptian migrants reported being the only breadwinner for their respective families (Aghazarm, Quesada and Tishler, 2012).

While the remittances of migrant breadwinners are sustaining individual households abroad on a micro level, when considered on the macrolevel migrant remittance outflows make Libya part of "a larger economic system across the African region" (REACH and UNHCR, 2018). Indeed, the economies of the countries of origin of the largest numbers of migrants in Libya according to the DTM (all are from Africa and Bangladesh) are highly dependent on migrant remittance inflows.

Table 8. Remittance as percentage of the GDP of the origin country, 2018

	Migrant remittance inflows (USD million)	Remittances as % of GDP
Egypt	28 918	11.6%
Ghana	3 803	7.3%
Nigeria	24 311	6.1%
Bangladesh	15 496	5.4%
Mali	885	5.1%
Niger	282	3.0%
Sudan	271	0.8%
Chad	_	_

Source: World Bank, 2019.

⁷ This informal value transfer system is commonly referred to as "hawala", in which a handler in one country accepts cash from a customer and then instructs a handler in another country to pay the equivalent amount (minus commission) to the final recipient.

⁸ Information was obtained from an expert on the subject matter during an interview.

⁹ An expert on the subject matter provided this information during an interview.

3.4.2. Survey results

Libyan bank accounts

Nearly all survey respondents reported being unbanked in Libya. Only one per cent of respondents reported having a Libyan bank account, and most of those also had Libyan residency and work permits. Of the 16 respondents who reported having Libyan bank accounts, 15 were surveyed in the west. More than half (10/16) reported not being able to withdraw money at all, while the remainder reported being able to withdraw only limited amounts.

Prevalence of remittances and expenses covered

Of all respondents, 42 per cent reported sending some of their earnings as remittances, as shown in Figure 13.

No 52%

No answer 6%

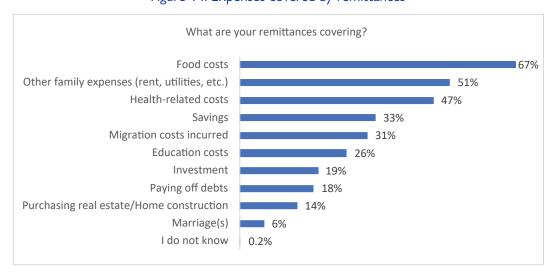
Figure 13. Percentage of respondents sending remittances

Note: n=1,244.

Respondents who send remittances reported family members as the primary recipient, including spouses or intended spouses, parents, children and siblings. Additionally, 5 per cent of those who send remittances reported sending a portion of their remittances to creditors (24/523). More than half of those sending remittances (55%, 287/523) identified themselves as the primary source of income for the household receiving their remittances. Notably, across all employment statuses, respondents reported sending remittances at similar percentages.

According to the survey results, remittances mostly cover basic needs – primarily food, health care and other family expenses such as rent and utilities, as shown in Figure 14.

Figure 14. Expenses covered by remittances

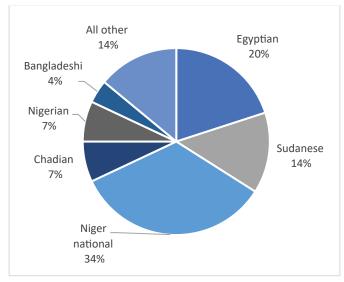


Note: n=523.

Remittances by origin and location in Libya

Figure 15 shows the nationality breakdown of the 523 respondents who remit.

Figure 15. Nationalities of respondents who send remittances



Note: n=523.

Notably, Bangladeshis reported sending remittances at a much higher percentage of total (79%, 22/28) than any other national group (though the total sample size of respondents from Bangladesh was comparatively smaller). The nationalities with the highest percentage of respondents reporting sending remittances are shown in Figure 16.

Bangladeshis (n=28)

Egyptians (n=176)

Sudanese (n=165)

Niger nationals (n=434)

Chadians (n=98)

Nigerians (n=99)

35%

Figure 16. Percentage of nationals who reported sending remittances

When grouped according to broader world area, respondents from South Asia (83%, 30/36) and North Africa (52%, 186/361) reported sending remittances at comparatively higher percentages than the percentage of all respondents who send remittances (42%, 523/1,244). Respondents from sub-Saharan Africa (37%, 297/810) and the Middle East (27%, 10/37) reported sending remittances at slightly lower percentages.

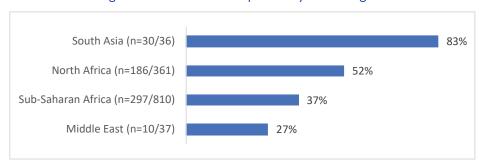


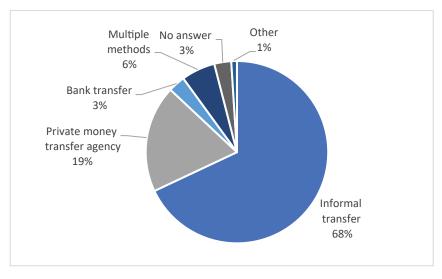
Figure 17. Remittances reported by world region

Long-term migrants surveyed in the west and east reported sending remittances at comparatively higher percentages than those surveyed in the south. About half of all respondents in the west and east -48 per cent (296/619) and 51 per cent (138/268), respectively - reported sending remittances, compared to 25 per cent in the south (89/357).

Remittance transfer methods

Respondents were asked which method(s) they used to send remittances from among the following options: bank transfers, private money transfer agencies (e.g. Western Union), mobile money transfers, informal transfers (e.g. the value transfer system) and an option to specify another mode. Of the 523 respondents who sent remittances, 34 reported using multiple methods. Informal transfer methods and private money transfer agencies were most common, as shown in Figure 18.

Figure 18. Remittance transfer methods



Notes: 1. n=523.

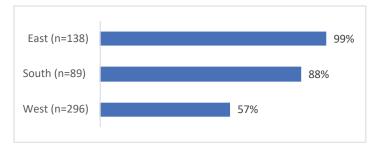
2. All other methods or combinations of methods were reported by five or fewer respondents.

Of the 383 respondents who reported sending remittances through informal channels, 30 per cent reported that their informal transfer agent was "a person recommended by an employer or trusted contact", and 29 per cent reported that their informal transfer agent was a friend. This is followed by 19 per cent who reported relying on a fellow national with whom they did not have a personal relationship and 15 per cent who reported using "a facilitator or a network".

Of the 30 respondents who reported using bank transfers to send remittances, 26 were surveyed in the west, and 18 were surveyed in the *mantika* of Nalut alone. More than half (57%, 17/30) were South Asians (Bangladeshis and Pakistanis). Nearly all respondents who reported using bank transfer for remittances said they did not have a bank account (90%, 27/30). About half of the respondents who reported using bank transfers, all of whom were surveyed in Nalut, specified that bank transfers were facilitated by the same construction company (53%, 16/30). All 16 of these respondents were recruited directly by this company, reported having written contracts and identified "transfer of remittances" as a means of compensation.

Disaggregated by region, 99 per cent of respondents surveyed in the east who indicated to have sent remittances (136/138) and 88 per cent of respondents surveyed in the south who indicated to have sent remittances (78/89) reported using informal channels. A comparatively smaller percentage of respondents surveyed in the west reported using informal transfer methods (57%, 169/296).

Figure 19. Use of informal transfer methods by Libya's three regions



All but three migrants who reported using private transfer agencies to send remittances were surveyed in the west (98%, 120/123).

Survey results show great variation by *mantika* in terms of percentages of respondents who reported using informal remittance transfer methods. In 10 of the 15 *mantikas* where long-term migrants were surveyed, at least 95 per cent of respondents reported using informal channels. In the *mantika* of Misrata, however, only 9 per cent of migrants surveyed reported using informal transfer methods (10/114). Respondents who reported using private transfer agencies to send remittances were surveyed in only six *mantikas*. Of those using private transfer agencies, 90 per cent were surveyed in Misrata (111/123).

Of the 508 respondents who reported the method(s) used for sending remittances, all reported why they chose such method(s) or a combination of methods. Among respondents who indicated to have used informal transfer methods, most reported using these channels because they were trustworthy and effective. In fact, only 27 per cent of respondents who preferred informal channels (105/383) reported doing so because they did not know of alternatives. A majority of respondents who used private money transfer agencies or bank transfers reported trust and security as main reasons for using these services.

Sending and receiving currencies, fees and exchanges

Of all respondents who indicated to have remitted money, 95 per cent reported sending remittances in either Libyan dinar or US dollar (497/523). All other reported sending currencies (i.e. West African franc, Central African franc, Egyptian pound, Tunisian dinar, euro, Sudanese pound) were used by 2 per cent or fewer of respondents who indicated to have sent remittances. On the other hand, 43 per cent of respondents who remitted money reported that remittances were received in US dollars (225/523). Other commonly reported receiving currencies were Egyptian pound (15%, 77/523), West African franc (12%, 64/523), Nigerian naira (9%, 48/523) and Sudanese pound (7%, 39/523).

Respondents who reported sending remittances were asked how they paid for remittance transfer services. Their responses are shown in Figure 20.



Figure 20. Methods of payment for remittance transfer services

Note: n=523.

Most respondents who reported paying "a fee dependent on the amount I am sending" and "a fee regardless of the amount I am sending" did not report the fee amounts. For those who did report, most paid the fees in Libyan dinars. Of 209 respondents who reported paying "a percentage of the amount I am sending," 187 opted to specify the percentages they paid. Of those 187, fees ranged from 1 per cent to 25 per cent of the remittance amount. The average fee reported was 5 per cent.

Slightly less than half of all respondents who indicated to have sent remittances reported exchanging their money before sending it (46%, 238/523). Of those who reported exchanging their money first, 48 per cent reported that a Libyan friend provided this service for them (114/238).

¹⁰ All currency abbreviations are defined in Annex II.

Migration intentions and remittances

Respondents who intend to stay in Libya for some time before returning to their home countries and respondents who intend to stay in Libya indefinitely reported sending remittances at comparatively higher percentages than respondents who intend to stay in Libya for some time before continuing to another destination, respondents who intend to continue to another destination as soon as possible, and respondents who reported not knowing their intentions. Results are shown in Figure 21.

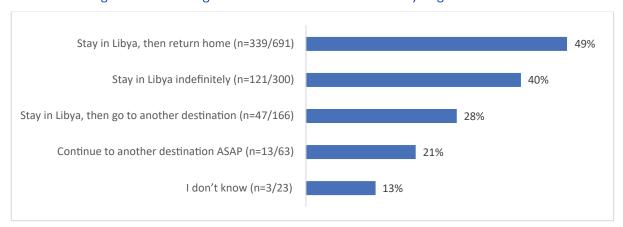


Figure 21. Percentage of those who send remittances by migration intention

Of all respondents who reported a change (increase or decrease) in remittances over the past 12 months, 61 per cent reported that the change made them more likely to stay in Libya (258/422), while 20 per cent reported that the change had no effect on their migration intentions (86/422), and 18 per cent reported that the change made them more likely to leave Libya (78/422).

Respondents whose remittances increased over the past 12 months reported a comparatively higher percentage of being likely to stay in Libya (68%, 186/272) and a comparatively lower percentage of being likely to leave Libya (14%, 39/272). Respondents whose remittances decreased over the past 12 months reported a comparatively lower percentage of being likely to stay in Libya (48%, 72/150) and a comparatively higher percentage of being likely to leave Libya (26%, 39/150).

All survey respondents were asked whether they received money from outside Libya. Only one per cent responded in the affirmative (13/1,244).

3.4.3. Analysis

Long-term migrant remittances from Libya on a macrolevel

Survey results confirm prevailing views that many long-term migrants in Libya are still sending significant amounts of money to their countries of origin. This suggests on a macrolevel that Libya's remittance outflows are still quite high. That remittances mainly support the basic needs of respondents' family members abroad and that many respondents are the primary source of income for receiving households affirm the critical role played by the Libyan economy in sustaining other regional economies. Notably, only 1 per cent of respondents reported receiving money from outside Libya, which distinguishes the directional flow of money for long-term migrants from that for transit migrants, many of whom reportedly receiving money from families abroad to facilitate their journeys (OHCHR and UNSMIL, 2018).

Informality

Survey results also confirm the prevailing understanding that long-term migrants in Libya operate almost exclusively within the informal economy. Nearly all respondents reported being unbanked and most reported relying primarily on informal remittance transfer methods, which they find trustworthy and effective. While it remains unclear exactly how various informal transfer methods work, the survey

results could suggest that use of the value transfer system is common; most remittances are reportedly sent in Libyan dinars or US dollars but received in a wide variety of currencies corresponding to various countries of origin. With regard to formal mechanisms, though a significant number of respondents reported using "private transfer agencies", it is not clear what respondents understood by that term or which private transfer agencies are still active in Libya. Likewise, it is unclear how "bank transfers" operate, especially given that many respondents who reported using this method also reported being unbanked. A likely explanation is that some companies transfer money from their bank accounts in Libya directly to accounts in migrants' home countries.

Regional variation

There appear to be important regional dimensions to how long-term migrants manage and transfer money. While the number of respondents who reported having Libyan bank accounts was so small that it was almost negligible, it is worth noting that all but one of those who indicated they had a Libyan bank account were surveyed in the west. Compared to the east and west, a smaller percentage of respondents surveyed in the south reported sending remittances, which could suggest more difficulty making enough money to remit or accessing remittance transfer facilitators.

Impact of the liquidity crisis

Survey results for remittances support results from the livelihoods section about the potentially overstated impact of the liquidity crisis on long-term migrants. Though other reports have highlighted the absence of hard cash in the economy, results from this survey suggest that long-term migrants have at least enough access to cash, especially Libyan dinars and US dollars, to continue payments for exchange and remittance transfer services.

Remittances and migration intention

Survey results show a positive correlation between intention to remain in Libya for the long term (for some time before returning home or indefinitely) and sending remittances, with the highest percentage of those who remit among those who reported intending to stay in Libya for some time and then return to their home countries in the future. This suggests that this subset of long-term migrants has come to Libya to take advantage of opportunities to make money before eventually returning home to the households they are supporting. Likewise, that respondents who reported an increase in remittances over the past 12 months were more likely to stay in Libya provides further evidence for the hypothesis that long-term migrants are in Libya to remit.

3.5. SECURITY

3.5.1. Safety of migrants in Libya

Since the outbreak of armed conflict in 2011, the security situation in Libya has been precarious, and migrants, in particular, have been affected by various forms of protection concerns (UN OCHA, 2018). In December 2018, the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and the United Nations Support Mission in Libya (UNSMIL) reported "overwhelming evidence of human rights violations and abuses" suffered by migrants and refugees at the hands of State officials, members of armed groups and criminal networks facilitating illicit activities (OHCHR and UNSMIL, 2018).

The security situation varies greatly between cities and neighbourhoods. A 2017 report by REACH suggests that, in Tripoli and Misrata, neighbourhoods densely populated by migrants were perceived as less safe than areas inhabited by Libyan families. The study also indicates that migrants felt more likely to be targets of violence or abduction, compared to the local population. The migrants surveyed perceived themselves as especially vulnerable to robbery and kidnapping (REACH, 2017).

Correlations with nationality and race

Reports suggest that migrants from sub-Saharan Africa face racism and discrimination in Libya more frequently than migrants from North Africa and the Middle East. They are sometimes blamed for the spread of diseases and rise in criminal activities, and migrant women, particularly from countries where the majority of the population is non-Muslim, are perceived as having "loose" sexual morals. Black people are commonly referred to as "abidat", which translates to "slaves", although some Libyans argue that the term does not carry racist undertones. Reports dating back to 2011 suggest that the conflict has further fuelled negative attitudes and led to an increase in abuse against sub-Saharan Africans (OHCHR and UNSMIL, 2018). In late 2017, the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination published a statement expressing concern in relation to "anti-black discrimination" against "black men from Sub-Saharan countries being sold in slave markets in Libya" and "black women being subjected to torture and the worst forms of sexual violence" (CERD, 2017). After 2011, sub-Saharan Africans, along with darker-skinned Libyans, were also widely accused of being supporters of the fallen Gaddafi regime, having fought as mercenaries for Gaddafi (Human Rights Watch, 2012).

Little to no recourse to justice

Years of armed conflict have limited Libyan institutions' ability to address abuses committed against migrants, while armed groups have exercised control over large swaths of Libya's territory, borders and key installations since 2011. The resulting environment of "lawlessness" has provided fertile ground for various illegal activities, as noted by the joint OHCHR and UNSMIL report (OHCHR and UNSMIL, 2018). Studies suggest that abuses towards migrants are greatly underreported due to weak reporting structures and lack of confidence in the formal justice system. It is suspected that female migrants, in particular, use informal channels to access legal justice, out of fear of exposure and public shaming (UN OCHA, 2018). It is also possible that victims are hesitant to report abuses in the locations where they took place and only speak up once they have moved to other areas.

Many actors in Libya are aware of migrants' vulnerability and inability to access justice, which leaves migrants at the mercy of predators to be exploited and extorted for financial gain (ibid.). For instance, employers are known to confiscate passports and documentation, preventing migrants from leaving, and forcing them to work without compensation (REACH, 2017). Further, migrants are at risk of arbitrary arrest or capture at checkpoints or on the streets, even if they have proper documentation, but are rarely charged or tried under Libya's migration legislation. Many are placed in detention centres indefinitely, or until they are returned to their home countries with the help of international organizations, or forcibly deported by Libyan authorities (UN OCHA, 2018). The 2016 depreciation of the Libyan dinar and the resulting liquidity crunch has increased the threat of robbery and extortion for migrants. Almost all migrants carry their assets in cash, making them an attractive target for armed groups and other predators (REACH, 2017).

Coping strategies

As a response to the dangerous circumstances in Libya, migrants have been forced to develop coping mechanisms to mitigate the risks they are facing. In the REACH study, almost one third of migrants reported not going out at night as well as commuting during daylight hours. Migrants prioritized living in a secured shelter with a locked entrance and a reduced number of tenants, while in Tripoli, respondents preferred neighbourhoods with a lower presence of militia and armed groups (ibid.). Expert interviews confirmed the existence of these coping mechanisms, adding that many migrants' strategy is to live with other migrants from the same country of origin, in neighbourhoods they deem safer than others. Many migrants also seek to develop strong ties within the more established migrant community, especially those of the same nationality, in the cities and towns they settle in. These social relationships may provide migrants with an increased sense of security and protection. Finally, those migrants in sufficiently stable employment often opt to receive a portion of their compensation in housing, often near the workplace,

An expert on the subject matter also provided information in an interview.

This was according to an expert on the subject matter during an interview.

or transportation to the workplace, reducing their exposure to outside actors and the possible threat of abuse (ibid.).

3.5.2. Survey results

As part of the study, long-term migrants were surveyed on various abuses they had experienced and had witnessed (ranging from verbal abuse to physical harm and extortion), as well as their overall sense of safety, perceived threats, coping strategies and access to justice.

Frequency of abuse

Of the 1,244 long-term migrants surveyed, 15 per cent (183) reported being direct victims of abuse while in Libya. Seventy per cent of those were between the ages of 20 and 29 (129/183), although this age group represents only 51 per cent of the entire sample (636/1,244). There was no significant difference between genders: 14 per cent of women (7/49) and 15 per cent of men (176/1,195) reported being victims of abuse. Further, there was no substantive variation between Libya's three main regions: 15 per cent of those surveyed in the west (94/619), 15 per cent of those in the south (54/357) and 13 per cent of those in the east (35/268) reported being direct victims of abuse.

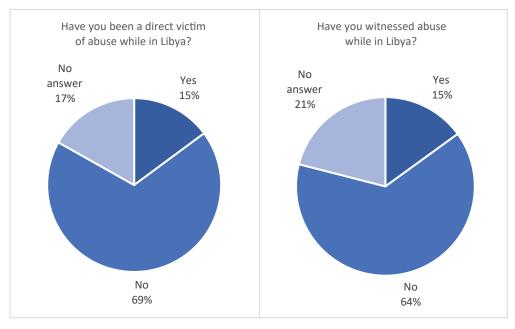


Figure 22. Frequency of abuse experienced and witnessed

Note: n=1,244.

Disaggregating by country of origin, 22 per cent of Ghanaians (10/46), 20 per cent of Malians (13/65) and 18 per cent of Nigerians (18/99) reported being victims of abuse while in Libya. Additionally, 17 per cent of the Niger nationals (75/434) and 16 per cent of the Egyptians (28/176) had experienced abuse. Partly due to the large number of the Niger nationals among those surveyed, 41 per cent of all those who reported direct abuse came from the Niger (75/183).

One hundred eighty-eight long-term migrants reported witnessing some form of abuse during their time in Libya, a figure comparable to those who said they had experienced it directly. Across the country, long-term migrants reported witnessing abuse at relatively equal rates in the east (18%, 49/268) and the west (16%, 96/619), followed by a slightly lower rate in the south (12%, 43/357). However, nearly half of respondents in the south (46%, 163/357) as well as one sixth in the west (15%, 95/619) did not answer the question.

All respondents in Libya's south who reported witnessing abuse were located in Murzuq (43/43); of the 78 respondents in Aljufra and the 56 in Sebha, none reported witnessing an act of abuse. In Aljufra, 65 of the 78 did not answer the question. These figures stand out considering 48 per cent (27/56) of respondents in Sebha reported being direct victims of abuse and, as further analysis will present, these mantikas are considered some of the most unsafe by long-term migrants.

Greater diversity was observed across *mantikas* in the east and west. In the east, of the migrants who reported witnessing abuse, those in Alkufra and Ejdabia accounted for 35 per cent (17/49) each, while in the west, migrants in Tripoli accounted for 45 per cent (43/96) of those who reported witnessing abuse, and those in Misrata constituted 23 per cent (22/96). All other respondents in the west were spread across four additional *mantikas*. In the east, respondents in Ejdabia (27%, 17/63) and Alkufra (24%, 17/70) reported witnessing abuse at the greatest rates. Among those in the west, respondents in Tripoli (25%, 43/175) and Nalut (21%, 10/47) reported witnessing abuse at greater rates.

Different types of abuse

Long-term migrants reported experiencing verbal abuse¹³ (87%) at the greatest rates, followed by robbery (80%) and physical violence (53%). Among these respondents, 87 per cent of those surveyed in the south had experienced physical violence (47/54), followed by 40 per cent of those in the east (14/35) and 38 per cent of those in the west (36/94). The pattern is similar for most types of abuse, except for home invasion, which was greatest in the west (48%, 45/94).

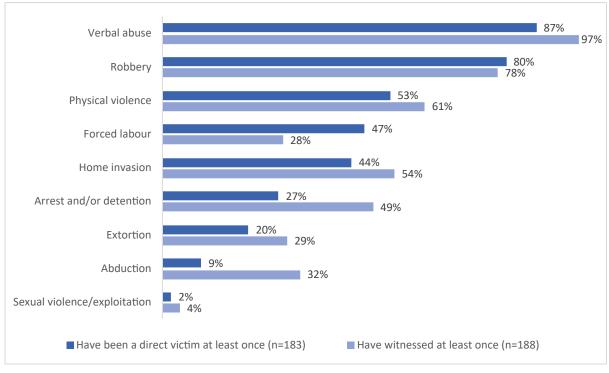


Figure 23. Types of abuse experienced and witnessed

Note: The number of migrants who reported forced labour is lower than the number of migrants who reported being forced to work against their will in the livelihoods section. The discrepancy may be attributed to the following: 1) only those who had reported being abused were asked these questions, therefore limiting the number of potential respondents; and 2) an Arabic translation inaccuracy in which the Arabic translation of the conditional question asked whether migrants had been a victim of an "assault" instead of "abuse". This inaccuracy may have led some who were forced into labour to answer "no", which would have resulted in not being asked the follow-up questions on different types of abuse.

Many find verbal abuse to be subjective. Out of 159 respondents who reported instance(s) of being abused verbally, 155 also reported another type of abuse. When those who only reported verbal abuse (4) are removed, the overall rate of direct abuse drops from 14.7 per cent (183/1,244) to 14.4 per cent (179/1,244). Therefore, due to the high correlation between verbal abuse and other forms of abuse, including verbal abuse in the survey results does not cause any significant bias.

The rates at which different forms of abuse were witnessed often exceeded the rates at which they were experienced. Migrants surveyed in the south (91%, 39/43) reported witnessing incidents of robbery at the greatest rates among respondents, though a majority of those in the west (79%, 76/96) and east (65%, 32/49) reported the same. Physical violence was witnessed by the vast majority of respondents in the east (86%, 42/49) and the south (81%, 35/43), but only 40 per cent of those in the west (38/96). Arrest and detention were also witnessed most by respondents in the east (69%, 34/49). Long-term migrants in the west reported witnessing home invasion (61%, 59/96) and abductions (41%, 39/96) at greater rates.

Overall sense of safety

Of all long-term migrants surveyed, 50 per cent reported feeling safe in Libya (625/1,244), while 36 per cent reported not feeling safe (446/1,244). Although the sample of female migrants was small, the data suggests a gender imbalance: 57 per cent of female respondents did not feel safe (28/49), as opposed to 35 per cent of male respondents (418/1,195). Sense of safety was similar across the different age groups represented in the sample.

Long-term migrants from South Asia (Bangladesh and Pakistan) reported feeling safest in Libya (75%, 27/36). This was followed by 60 per cent of the respondents from North Africa (218/361) and 44 per cent from sub-Saharan Africa (360/810). Among nationalities well represented in the sample, Egyptian migrants felt the safest, while Nigerians had the lowest sense of security: 72 per cent (127/176) of those from Egypt reported feeling safe, as opposed to 34 per cent Nigerians (34/99). Long-term migrants from Ghana, Chad, Mali, the Niger and Sudan were close to the overall average, with 46–54 per cent of respondents reportedly feeling safe. On the other hand, 47 per cent of migrants from Nigeria (47/99), 46 per cent from Ghana (21/46) and 45 per cent from Mali (29/65) felt unsafe in Libya. All these nationalities were found to be above the average of 36 per cent. It is also worth noting that 21 per cent of respondents from the Niger (89/434), 18 per cent of Nigerians (18/99) and 16 per cent of Sudanese (27/165) migrants did not answer the question.

Among long-term migrants surveyed in the east, 66 per cent reported feeling safe in Libya (176/268), compared to 59 per cent of those surveyed in the west (364/619) and 24 per cent of those in the south (85/357). Even greater differences were found in perceived safety at the *mantika* level. In some *mantikas* almost every respondent noted that they felt safe, while in others no one did. For instance, 99 per cent of long-term migrants surveyed in Ghat (77/78) and 96 per cent of those surveyed in Benghazi (44/46) reported feeling safe in Libya. On the other hand, 100 per cent migrants surveyed in Sebha (56/56) and 97 per cent of migrants surveyed in Alkufra (68/70) reported feeling unsafe.

Tripoli Azzawya Al Jabal Al Akhdar (90%)(47%)Almargeb (59%)Benghazi Tobruk (57%)(96%)(89%)Misrata (62%)Aljfara (36%)Ejdabia Nalut (95%) (85%)Aliufra (5%)Sebha (0%)Ghat (99%)Alkufra Murzua (3%)(3%)

Figure 24. Sense of safety by mantika

Sources: IOM, UN OCHA (https://data.humdata.org/), OpenStreetMap and ArcGIS.

Per cent of Migrants Feeling Safe per Mantika

100%

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by IOM.

Of those migrants who reported that they had been victims of abuse while in Libya, 41 per cent felt safe (75/183), while 54 per cent felt unsafe (99/183). In comparison, of all migrants who reported that they had not been victims of abuse, 61 per cent felt safe (525/854) and 31 per cent felt unsafe (269/854). In addition to abuses experienced, the data suggests that sense of safety correlates with migration intention. Of all migrants who reported intending to stay in Libya indefinitely, 66 per cent reported feeling safe in the country (198/300). Whereas, of all migrants who reported wanting to stay in Libya for some time but return home in the future, 51 per cent reported feeling safe in the country (351/691). Also, only 27 per cent of those who reported intending to stay in Libya for some time but continue to another destination in the future (45/166), and 24 per cent of those intending to continue to another destination as soon as possible (15/63), reported feeling safe.

Sense of safety in different locations

0%

Long-term migrants were also asked to estimate their sense of safety in different locations, such as their accommodations, workplaces, neighbourhoods, as well as other areas within and outside their regions. The data suggests that migrants feel safer in their immediate surroundings, compared to the wider region or the rest of the country. Of the 1,244 migrants surveyed, 485 felt their accommodations were completely safe and 542 considered them somewhat safe, and a total of 950 migrants reported their workplaces as completely or somewhat safe.

0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100% My accommodation My workplace My neighbourhood Anywhere in my town/city 27% Towns or cities within my region 32% 36% Towns or cities outside my region ■ Completely safe ■ Somewhat safe ■ Neutral ■ Somewhat unsafe ■ Completely unsafe ■ No answer

Figure 25. Perceived safety in different locations

Note: n=1,244.

Areas outside the migrants' immediate neighbourhoods, but within the same town or city, as well as other towns or cities within the region, were considered somewhat or completely unsafe by 12 per cent of all respondents. Further, towns or cities outside the migrants' region were considered somewhat unsafe by 15 per cent and completely unsafe by 7 per cent of all respondents. Of the 155 respondents who considered towns or cities within their region somewhat or completely unsafe, 74 were surveyed in the south (48%). Finally, of the 164 migrants who reported feeling somewhat or completely unsafe anywhere in their towns or cities, 112 were surveyed in the south (68%).

Sense of safety over time

Of all respondents, 554 said they feel safer now than when they arrived in Libya, as opposed to 300 migrants who reported feeling less safe than before. Sixty per cent of Egyptians (105/176) reported feeling safer, while among those who reported feeling less safe, only Nigerians were clearly above average (34%, 34/99).

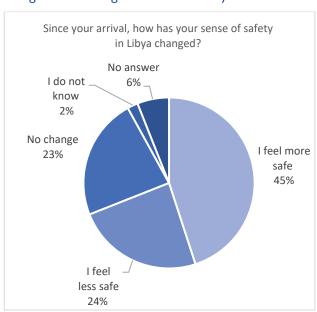


Figure 26. Change in sense of safety since arrival

Note: n=1,244.

The Status of Long-term Migrants in Libya

Similar to the previous findings, the data suggests some regional differences: 69 per cent of migrants surveyed in the east felt safer (184/268), as compared to 46 per cent of those surveyed in the west (287/619) and 23 per cent of those in the south (83/357). On the contrary, 12 per cent of those surveyed in the east (32/268), 23 per cent in the west (144/619) and 35 per cent in the south (124/357) reported feeling less safe than when they arrived in Libya. Disaggregating the responses by *mantika*, 99 per cent of migrants surveyed in Ghat (77/78) reported feeling safer than when they arrived in Libya, followed by 95 per cent in Azzawya (56/59), and 94 per cent in both Ejdabia (59/63) and Nalut (44/47). On the other hand, 79 per cent of respondents surveyed in Sebha (44/56) and 55 per cent of those in Almargeb (74/134) reported a decrease in their perceived sense of safety.

Targeting of migrants

Of the total 1,244 migrants surveyed, 41 per cent felt more likely to be a target of crimes than Libyans (512). On the other hand, 31 per cent of the sample did not consider themselves more likely to be targeted (384/1,244).

Especially female migrants (63%, 31/49) and those aged 20–29 (48%, 307/636) felt more likely to be targeted. Among the different nationalities, the highest percentages were reported by Ghanaians (54%, 25/46) and Egyptians (47%, 83/176). Although migrants surveyed in the east reported feeling overall safer than those surveyed in the west and south, respondents in the east also felt more likely to be targeted in comparison to the host population. Further, 69 per cent of those surveyed in the east (186/268), 32 per cent of those in the south (114/357) and 34 per cent of those in the west (212/619) reported feeling more likely to be targeted than Libyans.

Perceived threats

The 446 migrants who reported feeling unsafe in Libya were asked further questions on what and who they perceived to be the main threats to their safety. Of the various threats, robbery was identified most frequently; 63 per cent of respondents ranked robbery within the top two of their primary threats (280/446). This was followed by arrest or detention and the threat of physical violence, at 35 per cent (155) and 32 per cent (144), respectively.

Further segregating the question of ranking in the perceived threats, the data suggests that some types of violence was more feared in certain regions of the country. For example, the perceived threat of physical violence was more prevalent among those surveyed in the east than the west and the south. However, perceived threats of abduction, forced labour and extortion were more prevalent among migrants in the south when compared to those in the east and the west.

Extortion Forced labour Home invasion Abduction Arrest and/or detention Physical violence Robbery 0% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 10% ■ Total (n=446) ■ South (n=178) ■ West (n=183) ■ East (n=85)

Figure 27. Perceived threats to safety by region

At the *mantika* level, nearly all long-term migrants in Aljufra (95%, 55/58), Aljfara (93%, 28/30) and Almargeb (88%, 50/57) identified robbery as a top threat, whereas barely any respondent in Sebha (7%, 4/56) identified robbery as their top threat. Instead, nearly all respondents in Sebha identified abduction as a primary threat (89%, 50/56). Arrest and detention were most feared in Tripoli (79%, 53/67).

Perceived threats over time

Long-term migrants were asked to evaluate how their perceived threats had changed since their arrival in Libya. Across the six categories of abuse presented in the survey, 32–47 per cent of respondents perceived that the level of threat had decreased since their arrival in Libya. Further, the proportion of respondents who perceived the threat to have decreased exceeds the combined rates of those who believed it had increased or stayed the same in each category.

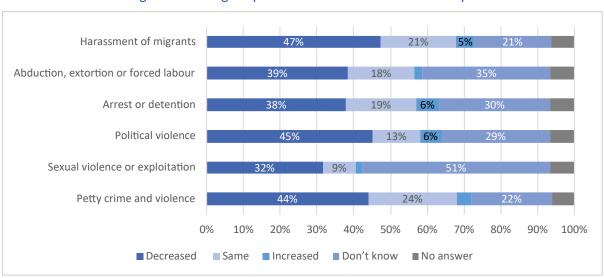


Figure 28. Change in perceived threats since arrival in Libya

Note: n=1,244.

Variations in perceptions of threats correlate with the migrants' years of arrival in Libya and, thus, the number of years they had been in Libya. Especially migrants who arrived in 2013–2014 reported decreases in their perceived threat levels. For instance, 67 per cent of those who arrived in 2013–2014 (64/95) noted that the threat of petty crime and violence had decreased, while only 42 per cent of migrants who arrived more recently, in 2017–2018, agreed (285/675). Similarly, 64 per cent of those who arrived in 2013–2014 reported that the risk of abduction or detention had decreased (61/95), while 35 per cent of those who arrived in 2017–2018 (239/675) agreed.

Threatening actors

In terms of actors that long-term migrants perceived as the most significant threats, organized crime networks facilitating illicit activities, petty criminals and local security forces were the most selected responses at 73 per cent, 46 per cent, and 24 per cent, respectively.

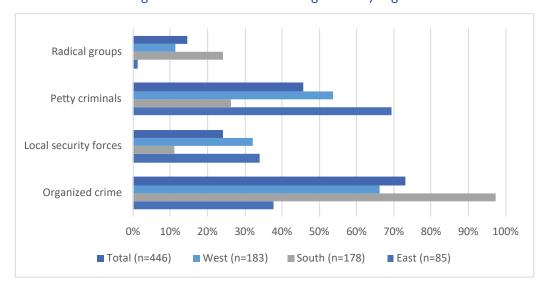


Figure 29. Perceived threatening actors by region

Note: There were other answer options for this question (members of host population, employers, law enforcement, etc.), which are not shown due to the low percentage of respondents.

Across regions, variations were observed. Of respondents surveyed in the west and the south, organized crime networks were identified as the most threatening actor, while those surveyed in the east considered petty criminals the largest threat.

Respondents in the east were more likely to consider members of their communities as threats: 22 per cent (19/85) identified the host population as a threatening actor, while another 19 per cent (16/85) identified their neighbours. Almost all (34/35) of these migrants were surveyed in Alkufra. Further, of the 59 migrants located in the east who identified petty criminals as the main threat, 56 were located in Alkufra.

The vast majority of respondents surveyed in Murzuq (63/64), Sebha (55/56), Aljufra (55/58) and Almargeb (54/57) identified organized crime as a primary threat to their safety. On the other hand, the majority of respondents in Tripoli (52/67) identified local security forces as the main threat, while respondents in Alkufra (56/68) and Almargeb (41/57) identified petty criminals as the primary threats to their safety.

Access to justice

Long-term migrants who reported being victims of abuse in Libya were asked who they had turned to in order to receive justice. Migrants mostly reported turning to unofficial channels like family, friends and community figures. Twenty-one per cent said they had turned to no one, and, notably, no one had turned to a lawyer.

Friend/Family member

Religious leader

Community leader

Employer

Police

13%

Security forces

Lawyer

No one

21%

Figure 30. Who victims of abuse turned to in order to receive justice

Note: n=183.

Respondents in the south indicated that they turned to friends and family (52%, 28/54) or community leaders (50%, 27/54) after experiencing abuse. In the west, friends and family (48%, 45/94) and religious leaders (50%, 47/94) were the most common choices, while migrants in the east reported turning to employers (31%, 11/35) at the highest rate.

Coping strategies

In order to stay safe in Libya, long-term migrants employed various coping strategies. A clear majority reported not going out at night and staying in groups, and the top two coping strategies were the same across all nationalities surveyed.

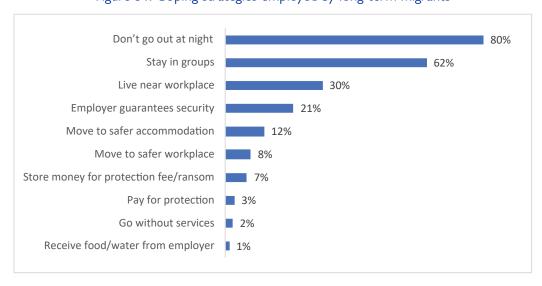


Figure 31. Coping strategies employed by long-term migrants

Note: n=1,244.

The Status of Long-term Migrants in Libya

However, some regional differences could be identified. Most migrants surveyed in the east (31%, 82/268) indicated that their security was guaranteed by their employers, followed by those surveyed in the west (26%, 161/619). Moving to a safer accommodation was reported at an above-average rate in the east (22%, 59/268), while storing money in case they would need to pay for their safety or release was most often mentioned in the south (12%, 42/357), and more specifically in Sebha, where the overall rate for storing money was as high as 75 per cent (42/56).

In 10 out of 15 mantikas, more than 88 per cent of respondents avoided going out at night. For instance, everyone in Aljufra (78/78) and nearly everyone in Sebha (55/56) employed this strategy. However, there are two outliers: only 22 per cent of respondents in Azzawya (13/59) and 28 per cent of those in Benghazi said that they avoided going out at night (11/46). Similarly, staying in groups was reported at a clearly below-average rate in Azzawya (12%, 7/59), Ghat (18%, 14/78) and Benghazi (26%, 12/46). Respondents in Nalut (74%, 35/47) and Tobruk (53%, 28/57) were more likely to receive protection from their employers, compared to those in other mantikas. Eighty-seven per cent respondents in Aljufra (68/78) identified living near their workplaces as a means to stay safe, followed by 53 per cent of those in Tripoli (92/175).

3.5.3. Analysis

Overall safety

Of the 1,244 long-term migrants surveyed, 15 per cent reported having directly experienced abuse while in Libya. Further, half of long-term migrants reported feeling safe in the country, and a majority felt that their accommodations, workplaces and neighbourhoods were somewhat or completely safe. Compared to when they first arrived in Libya, 45 per cent felt safer, and a majority reported that the threat of different abuses has either decreased or stayed the same.

The survey results suggest that Libya hosts a sizeable population of long-term migrants who have adjusted to the adverse circumstances in the country, developing coping strategies that allow them to feel safe to some degree, especially in their immediate surroundings. These migrants continue to work and live their lives in a relatively normal manner and want to stay in Libya.

Vulnerable groups

The data suggests that younger migrants, between the ages of 20 and 29, have experienced relatively more abuses, and feel more likely to be targets of crime than Libyans. Female migrants also feel less safe and more likely to be targeted; however, the sample size is small.

There is some indication that migrants from sub-Saharan Africa may face more abuses than others. Fewer sub-Saharan Africans reported feeling safe compared to Asians and North Africans. Nigerians, especially, reported feeling unsafe, while Ghanaians, Nigerians and Malians reported the highest rates of abuse. However, the survey results do not provide clear insights into racism and discrimination against sub-Saharan migrants, an issue raised by many subject matter experts and previous reports.¹⁴

As may be expected, those who had already become victims of abuse while in Libya felt less safe than others and reported that they were more likely to leave the country as soon as possible.

Sub-Saharans represent 65 per cent of the entire sample. The sample sizes of North Africans and especially Asians are much smaller, which limits comparisons. Further, as some interviews noted, migrants from North African countries (e.g. Sudan) may suffer racism-motivated abuses. Thus, the issue of racism is difficult to assess on the basis of nationality or region of origin.

Reporting abuses and threats

Verbal abuse, robbery and physical violence were the most common types of abuse experienced, as well as witnessed. Among migrants who reported feeling unsafe, robbery and physical violence were also among the most commonly perceived threats, together with arrest or detention. Organized crime networks were the most feared actor, especially in the south. In the south, all respondents who reported witnessing abuse were concentrated in Murzuq, and, despite the high rates of respondents in other mantikas (e.g. Sebha) who reported having experienced abuse, none reported having witnessed it.

Geographical variation

The reported rates for most types of abuse were highest in the south of Libya, and only 24 per cent of long-term migrants surveyed in the south reported feeling safe. Further, migrants surveyed in the south reported less improvement in their sense of safety since their arrival in Libya, as compared to those surveyed in the east and the west.

Although the south appears less safe relative to other regions, there were some exceptions. For instance, home invasion was experienced at the greatest rate by those in the west, and migrants surveyed in the east felt most likely to be targeted for crime in comparison to Libyans. Overall, perceived threats seem to vary according to region. Migrants surveyed in the east reported feeling most threatened by physical violence and extortion, while those in the south were more threatened by abduction and forced labour, and those in the west felt more threatened by arrest or detention and home invasion.

The greatest geographical variations were observed at the *mantika* level. Almost every long-term migrant surveyed in Ghat, Benghazi, Azzawya and Ejdabia felt safe, while almost everyone in Sebha and Alkufra reported feeling unsafe. Further, 79 per cent of respondents surveyed in Sebha and 55 per cent of those in Almargeb reported a decrease in their perceived sense of safety. Not going out at night (80%) and staying in groups (62%) were identified as the most common safety measures, though those surveyed in Azzawya, Ghat and Benghazi reported a significantly smaller need to employ these coping strategies.

Overall, the survey results suggest that long-term migrants' locations in Libya strongly correlate with their sense of safety, risk of abuse and perceived threats.

Changes in safety

The data on changes in perceived safety could be interpreted to mean that Libya has become a safer place for long-term migrants, especially since 2013–2014. However, based on the literature review and expert interviews, it is easy to conclude the opposite: these changes suggest that the security situation has decreased and become more volatile after 2011.

Further, the sample of migrants who arrived in 2013 and 2014 only represent those who chose to stay in Libya, compared to their counterparts who may have already returned home or transited to a different country. As assessed above, intent to remain in Libya was found to positively correlate with perceived sense of safety. Therefore, it could be possible that, in the survey sample, the migrants who arrived in 2013–2014 were those who developed effective strategies for staying safe in Libya, while migrants who arrived at similar times but were not able to achieve the same level of security had already left the country, removing their perceptions from the sample.

Access to justice

A clear majority of long-term migrants who had experienced abuse sought justice through unofficial channels, turning to friends, family members, religious leaders and community leaders. Migrants surveyed in the east were also likely to turn to their employers. Overall, only 13 per cent reported that they had sought police and 7 per cent had turned to security forces. Twenty-one per cent of respondents reported not turning to anyone.





4. CONCLUSION

The main conclusions from this study are addressed by section.

4.1. LIVELIHOODS

Most respondents reported facing no difficulties in finding work, an indication that the market is large enough to absorb migrants, and there is still demand in Libya, as there has been historically, for migrant labour. Further, only 2 per cent of respondents indicated facing challenges due to lack of permits, suggesting that legal frameworks and the permit system have little influence on employment of migrant workers. According to the survey results, 94 per cent of respondents received their salaries in cash, which indicates that the effect of the liquidity crisis on migrant livelihoods may be overstated. Though contracts were largely absent among respondents, their effect on guaranteeing labour protection was unclear. A pertinent question is whether institutions exist across Libya to enforce labour contracts, without which contracts have little power. Approximately 15 per cent of respondents reported being forced to work against their will since arriving in Libya, with the highest rates reported among West Africans. Criminal networks were the most common perpetrators, followed by employers.

4.2. REMITTANCES

Survey results suggest that there remain a significant population of long-term migrants in Libya who are sending remittances to their countries of origin, primarily to support the basic needs of households for which they are often the main breadwinners. Respondents are almost exclusively unbanked and rely largely on informal methods, such as the informal value transfer system, to send remittances. Whether and how long-term migrants send remittances appear to vary regionally and at the *mantika* level, but further study is necessary to understand the reasons for variation observed in the survey results. The main currencies respondents use to pay for exchanges or transfers are the Libyan dinar and the US dollar, suggesting that this is also true of the larger long-term migrant community in Libya. There is a positive correlation between increases in remittances and likelihood of remaining in Libya.

4.3. SECURITY

Overall, 15 per cent of long-term migrants surveyed had experienced one or multiple forms of abuse while in Libya. Verbal abuse was the most common, followed by robbery and physical violence. Still, half of respondents reported feeling safe in Libya, and many respondents believe that the threat from various forms of abuse has decreased since their arrival in Libya.

Perceptions of safety were greatest among respondents from South Asia and lowest among those from sub-Saharan Africa. There was notable variation in perceptions of safety across different regions: those surveyed in the south of Libya felt the least safe, and at the *mantika* level, perceptions of safety ranged from completely safe to entirely unsafe. Respondents who felt unsafe identified organized crime networks and petty criminals as their greatest threats. Among those who reported being direct victims of abuse, most respondents indicated seeking out help from friends and family members, religious leaders and community leaders for justice; few reported turning to police or security forces. Among all long-term

migrants surveyed, within all regions, respondents identified staying in at night and remaining in groups as the most popular strategies to stay safe.

4.4. OVERALL

The survey results suggest that Libya hosts a sizeable population of long-term migrants who have adjusted to the adverse circumstances in the country and have developed effective coping strategies that allow them to stay safe in the conflict-affected environment. These migrants continue to work, send remittances and live their lives in a relatively normal manner, even though they have no legal status, limited access to services (e.g. bank accounts), and little or no recourse to justice. Most of them want to stay in Libya, at least in the short term. Therefore, it can be concluded that the circumstances of long-term migrants in Libya are notably different from those of transit migrants.







5. RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. PROGRAMMATIC RECOMMENDATIONS

The research provides a wide range of data with relevance for programmes targeting long-term migrants. Following are recommendations to guide these efforts:

- Consider the distinct circumstances, motivations and needs of long-term migrants
 as compared to transit migrants and the overall migrant population in Libya. If warranted,
 programming should be tailored or expanded to address this segment of the migrant population.
- 2. In the absence of formalization, identify and address gaps in the informal structures that can leave long-term migrants vulnerable to abuse and human rights violations. These may include:
 - a. Reliance on informal transfer mechanisms, which might impose exorbitant transfer fees, reducing the volume of remittance flows;
 - b. The limited role of formal justice and law enforcement institutions in the lives of migrants, which restricts access to justice.
- 3. Strengthen the protection environment by collaborating with private and public sector actors, as well as expanding access to community-level justice mechanisms. In the absence of effective institutional capacities and a functional justice system, long-term migrants rely predominantly on personal connections, such as friends or family, in the aftermath of abuse. The data and experts suggest several actors that these initiatives could engage:
 - a. Associational groups and leaders at the community level that can facilitate the integration of long-term migrants into host communities and help migrants develop personal bonds with residents in their immediate vicinity.
 - b. Employers who have the potential to expand protection. The research confirms that employers can help protect migrants by limiting their exposure to unsafe environments through provision of housing or transportation. Further, by nature of their status as members of Libyan society, employers can serve as a source of justice or protection in the event of abuse.
 - c. Embassies of countries of origin, which often serve as focal points for the migrant community in Libya and provide services for their nationals.
 - d. Libyan government officials in a position to strengthen existing justice mechanisms and rebuild institutional capacity for enforcement. A Libya expert noted that the Illegal Migration Investigative Unit has shown initial successes in combating organized crime networks. Such efforts could be strengthened to also provide security services and serve as a resource for justice for migrants.
- 4. Advocate for increased accountability of employers when it comes to ensuring decent work conditions for both Libyan and migrant employees. The more established, organized and, especially, foreign employers could be considered comparatively suitable candidates for such efforts.

5.2. RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

The limitations of the present study can be addressed through future research. This section provides a description of improvements that can be made in the event of future research.

- 1. Incorporate the research on long-term migrants into the regular activities of the DTM programme. Conducting surveys at regular intervals allows for data-driven programming that addresses the distinct circumstances, motivations and needs of long-term migrants. Future iterations of this survey will also (a) allow for methodological adjustments, and (b) enable the research to assume a longitudinal character, permitting comparisons over periods of time.
- 2. Conduct complementary research on female long-term migrants in Libya, to assess whether the circumstances and intentions of women vary from those of men in the long-term migrant communities. Women seem to have been underrepresented in the sample. Only 49 women were interviewed as part of this study, which may not be reflective of the overall percentage of long-term migrants that are female.
- 3. To better understand remittance-sending mechanisms, consider further research on the various informal transfer processes (e.g. value transfer system). The current research suggests that qualitative tools may provide greater insights into the different components, the costs involved and the specific stages by which money or goods are actually transferred from Libya to other countries.
- 4. Seek to understand where abuse occurs across the migrant journey. The current research did not determine where abuses took place, only the rate at which they occurred and where they were reported. The data suggests that different forms of abuse may be associated with certain stages of the migrant journey, such as transiting across borders, or circumstances, such as employment or accommodation. The current research suggests that qualitative tools, namely case studies, may be valuable in addressing this question.

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ANNEXES

ANNEX I: LIST OF INTERVIEWS

Interviewee	Title	Organization	Date of interview	Location of interview
George A.	Programme Officer	IOM Libya	16 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Lisa A.	Professor	Columbia University, School of International & Public Affairs (SIPA)	2 January 2019	New York, United States
Ibrahim A.	Director	Center for Migration and Refugee Studies	17 March 2019	New Cairo, Egypt
Amit B.	Project Coordinator	IOM Libya	18 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Youssef C.	Deputy Director	Columbia Global Centers – Tunis	16 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Tim E.	Research Fellow	Chatham House	28 April 2019	New York, United States
Anwar F.	Field Coordinator	IOM Libya, DTM	17 January 2019	Over Skype
Francesca G.	Senior Migration Assessment Officer	REACH Libya	10 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Nicoletta G.	Analyst	Mixed Migration Centre, Danish Refugee Council	16 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Diana I.	Migration Assessment Manager	REACH Libya	10 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Brendan K.	Consultant	IOM Libya	18 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Dominic N.	Conflict and Political Economy Specialist	Danish Refugee Council	8 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Kamran P.	Libya Country Director	Altai Consulting	15 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Barbara P.	Child Protection Officer	IOM Libya	8 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Gabriele R.	Mixed Migration Manager for North Africa	Danish Refugee Council	16 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Jean-Louis R.	Head of Office	Voluntas Advisory	15 January 2019	Tunis, Tunisia
Craig S.	Director of Global Health in Emergency Medicine	Columbia University, Mailman School of Public Health	27 November 2018	Over Skype
Frederic W.	Senior Fellow	Carnegie Endowment for International Peace	12 March 2019	Over Skype
Ayman Z.	President	The Egyptian Society for Migration Studies	18 March 2019	New Cairo, Egypt

 ${\it Note:} \quad \ {\it For security reasons, the full names of the interviewees are not indicated.}$

ANNEX II: CURRENCY GLOSSARY

Currency abbreviations		
Angolan kwanza	AOA	
Egyptian pound	EGP	
Euro	EUR	
Ghanaian cedi	GHS	
Guinean franc	GNF	
Libyan dinar	LYD	
Nigerian naira	NGN	
Pakistani rupee	PKR	
South Sudanese pound	SSP	
Sudanese pound	SDG	
Tunisian dinar	TND	
United States dollar	USD	
Central African franc	XAF	
West African franc	XOF	

ANNEX III: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Columbia University School of International and Public Affairs Questionnaire – Displacement Tracking Matrix on Migrants Residing in Libya Affected by the Conflict

استبيان كلية الشؤون الدولية العامة بجامعة كولومبيا - مصفوفة تتبّع النزوح حول المهاجرين المستقرين في ليبيا المتضررين من النزاع

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND QUESTIONS FROM IOM FLOW MONITORING SURVEY

القسم 1: أسئلة من استمارة المنظمة الدولية للهجرة لرصد تدفق الهجرة Date: Name of enumerator التاريخ Enquêteur اسم الباحث Baladiya Muhalla Mahalla Location classification: a. Transit point b. Work recruitment point Classification du lieu de transit Point de recrutement نقطة تحمع عمال تصنيف الموقع c. Detention centre d. Other urban location Centre de détention Autre lieu urbain مركز ايواء a. Yes Interviewee consent: b. No Consentement de la personne interviewée: هل تمر الحصول على موافقة الشخص لاجراء المقابلة؟ Have you already participated in this survey in Libya? b. No Avez-vous déjà participé à cette enquête menée par l'OIM en Lybie هل تمر الحصول على موافقة الشخص لاجراء المقابلة؟ Sociodemographic Info معطيات اجتماعية و ديمغرافية 2.1. Nationality (origin country) 2.1. Origin location (admin Nationalité (pays d'origine) 1-province) Lieu d'origine (admin (بلد الأصل) الجنسية 1-province) وى الاداري الأول المحافظة) Sex a. Male b. Female Masculin Sexe **Féminin** Age b. Married-Union Marital status a. Single Marié(e) / Union libre Statut matrimonial Célibataire الحالة الاجتماعية c. Divorced or separated d. Widowed Divorcé(e) / Séparé(e) Veuf(ve) أرمل/ة e. Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre لا يريد الاجابة Level of education (highest level of education a. None b. Single completed) Aucun Célibataire Niveau d'éducation دراسة ابتدائية ستوى التعليمي (المستوى الأعلى المُنهى بنجاح) d. High school c. Middle school Ecole intermédiaire Secondaire تعليم ثانوي e. University f. Vocational (>1 year) Universitaire Formation professionnelle دراسات عليا (>1 an) g. Quranic school h. Other Ecole Coranique Autre

مدرسة قرآنية

7. What was your employment status before leaving your country of departure? Quelle était votre situation d'emploi avant de venir au	a. Employed Salarié موظف/ حرفي يشتغل لدى الغير	b. Self-employed Travailleur indépendant عامل لحسابه الخاص
Avbie ? ماذا كانت حالتك الوظيفية قبل المجيء لليبيا؟	c. Unemployed and looking for a job Sans emploi et à la recherche d'un travail	d. Unemployed and NOT looking for job Sans emploi et ne cherche pas un travail
	عاطل عن العمل و يبحث عن شغل	عاطل عن العمل ولا يبحث عن شغل
	e. Student Etudiant	f. Retired Retraité
	dlly	متقاعد
	g. Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre	لا يريد الرجابة
7.1. If employed, what was your main profession/ occupation prior to departing (the one that brings more money)? (single answer) Si vous avez un emploi, quelle était votre profession / occupation principale avant de partir vers la Lybie (celle qui apporte le plus d'argent)? (un seul choix)	a. Agriculture, pastoralism, fishing, food industry Agriculture, elevage, pêche, industrie alimentaire الزراعة, تربية المواشي ، الصياحات الغذائية	b. Construction, water supply, electricity, gas Construction, approvisionnement d'eau, gaz واعمال البناء، امدادات المياه او الكهرباء او الغاز
إذا كنت موظفا، ما كانت مهنتك الأساسية (التي توفر لك الدخل الأهم) قبل المجىء لليبيا (اختر اجابة واحدة)	c. Transportation, truck driver, taxi Transport, chauffeur de poids- lourd, taxi النقل، سائق شاحنة او تاكسي	d. Domestic work Travail ménager أعمال منزلية
	e. Craft Artisan	f. Manager, clerical support worker Directeur, technicien, employé de bureau
	g. Service worker Agents des services عامل في مجال الخدمات	h. Armed forces Forces armées
	i. Plant and machine operators, technicians and assemblers, mechanicals Opérateur d'usine, mécanicien, technicien, assembleur , والآلات والتجميع, عمال تشغيل المصانع والآلات والتجميع,	j. Retail, sales Commerce de détail, ventes تاجارة التجزئة، المبيعات
	k. Mining Mine في المناجم	I. Hospitality industry, tourism, waiter Hôtellerie, tourisme, serveur سیاحة و فنادق، نادل
	m.Other (specify) Autre (spécifier svp)	()-) = =
7.2. If first option [sic], have you experienced loss of	a. Yes	اخری (حدد) b. No
production or animal deaths due to environmental factors (drought, floods, etc.)? Si première option, avez-vous connu une perte de production ou des décès d'animaux dus à des facteurs environnementaux (sécheresse, inondations, etc.) ? إذا اخترت أول اختيار ، هل واجهت خسارة في الإنتاج أو نفوق حيوانات بسبب عوامل بيئية (الجفاف ، الفيضانات ، إلخ)	Oui isaa	Non V
8. What is your employment status in Libya? Quelle est votre situation d'emploi en Lybie ? ماهی حالتك الوظیفیة فی لیبیا؟	a. Employed Employé موظف/ حرفي يشتغل لدى الغير	b. Self-employed Travailleur indépendant عامل لحسابه الخاص
ساس حسن الرسيسية في تيبيد ا	c. Unemployed and looking for a job Sans emploi et à la recherche d'un travail	d. Unemployed and NOT looking for a job Sans emploi et ne cherche pas un travail
	e. Student Etudiant	f. Retired Retraité
	g. Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre	لا يريد الاجابة

The Status of Long-term Migrants in Libya

8.1.	[If A to Q8] What is your main profession/ occupation (the one that brings more money) in Libya? Si vous étiez salarié, quelle était votre profession / occupation principale en Lybie ? إذا كنت موظفا، ماهي مهنتك الرئيسية في ليبيا ؟	a. Agriculture, pastoralism, fishing, food industry Agriculture, elevage, pêche, industrie alimentaire الزراعة, تربية المواشي ، الصيد ، الصناعات الغذائية	b. Construction, water supply, electricity, gas Construction, approvisionnement d'eau, gaz عمال البناء، امدادات المياه او الكهرباء او الغاز
		c. Transportation, truck driver, taxi Transport, chauffeur de poids- lourd, taxi	d. Domestic work <i>Travail ménager</i> أعمال منزلية
		النقل، سائق شاحنة او تاكسي	
		e. Craft Artisan حرفي	f. Manager, clerical support worker Directeur, technicien, employé de bureau مدير, موظف بمكتب
		g. Service worker Agents des services عامل في مجال الخدمات	h. Plant and machine operators, technicians and assemblers, mechanics Opérateur d'usine, mécanicien, technicien, assembleur میکانیکی عمال تشغیل المصانع والالات
		i. Retail, sales Commerce de détail, ventes	j. Mining Mine
		k. Hospitality industry, tourism, waiter Hôtellerie, tourisme, serveur	في المناجم I. Other (specify) Autre (spécifier)
		سياحة و فنادق، نادل	. , , 55
Tra	vel History		تفاصيل الرحلة
9.	When did you leave your country of departure (mont mentioned above in Q2.2)? Quand avez-vous quitté votre pays de départ mentionné	• • •	(month / year) (mois / année) (الشهر / السنة)
10.	When did you arrive in Libya? (month / year) Quand avez-vous arrivé en Lybie ? (mois / année)	متي وصلت لليبيا (الشهر / السنة)	(month / year) (mois / année) (الشهر / السنة)
11.	Cost of journey (\$ per person)		
	Coût du voyage (\$ par personne) تكلفة الرحلة (بالدولار للشخص الواحد)	amount montant المبلغ	currency devise
		Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre	
		The soundite pus repondre	لا اريد الاجابة
12.	How did you pay for your travel? (Select all that apply.) Comment avez-vous payé votre voyage? (Choisir toutes	a. My savings Mes épargnes متخراق	b. Debts Dettes تداین
	les réponses qui appliquent.) كيف دفعت تكاليف سفرتك (اختر كلِّ ما ينطبق)	c. Family and friends in the country of departure/origin Famille et amis dans le pays de départ / origine من عند العائلة/الأصدقاء في بلد العائلة/الأصدقاء في المغادرة الأصل	d. Relatives/Friends aboard Parents / Amis à l'étranger من عند العائلة/الأُصدقاء في الخارج
		e. My earning after reaching Libya Mes gains aþrès mon arrivée en Libye من کسي بعد وصولي للبيبا	f. My earning during travel Mes gains pendant le voyage من كسبي خلال السفر
		g. Sale of properties Vente de propriétés بيع الممتلكات	h. Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre لا يريد الإجابة
		i. Other (specify)	
		Autre (spécifier)	اخری (حددها)

12.1.	If indebted, from whom have you incurred this debt? Qui vous a contracté ces dettes? اذا اخترت تداین مِن مَن تداینت؟	rontracté ces dettes? Famille / Amis au pays d'origine	
		destination (different de la Lybie) في بلد الوجهة (مختلف عن ليبيا)	Autres sources informelles (ex. facilitateurs, marchands) من مصادر غیر رسمیة أخری (مهرین، تجار، محلات)
		e. Formal sources (e.g. savings bandles sources formelles (épargne	
13.	Who did you arrive in Libya with? Avec qui vous êtes arrivé en Lybie? مع من وصلت الى ليبي	a. Alone Seul(e)	b. With a group En groupe
13.1.	If with a group Si en groupe اذا كانت الاجابة مع مجموعة	a. Non-family/Non-relatives Ne faisant pas partie de ma famille من غير الاقارب	b. Family/Relatives Faisant partie de ma famille من الاقارب /العائلة
13.2.	If with a group, how many children were with you? Si en groupe combien d'enfants étaient avec vous? معكم؟	اذا مع مجموعة، كمر كان عدد الأطفال المسافرين	
13.3.	If with a group, how many women were with you? Si en groupe combien de femme étaient avec vous?	اذا مع مجموعة، كمر كان عدد النساء المسافرات م	
14.	You have reached Libya through Vous avez atteint la Libye par: تمكنت من الدخول للسا من خلال:	a. Public transportation Transport publique وسيلة نقل عام	b. Private transportation Transport privé وسيلة نقل خاصّة
	ستنگ من الفاعول نمینید من عرب.	c. Facilitator networks Réseau de facilitateur	d. Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre لا يريد الإجابة
		e. Other, please specify: Autre	أخرى، الرجاء ذكرها
14.1.	If through facilitators, how did you get in contact with them? Si facilitateur, comment avez-vous été en contact avec	a. Social media Des médias sociaux وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي	b. Family Famille
	eux ? اذا عن طریق مُیسّر, عن طریق مَن تواصلت معهم؟	c. Friends Amis الأصدقاء	d. Neighbours <i>Voisins</i>
		e. Direct contact Contacte directe	f. Other, please specify: Autre (spécifier)
		g. Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre	لا اريد الاجابة
15.	What were the transit countries/places where you p departure country (from the oldest to the most rec Quels sont les principaux pays / lieux de transit où vous	ent)?	

SECTION 2: MIGRATORY STATUS/INTENTIONS

القسم 2: وضع المهاجرين/ نواياهم

				القسم 2: وضع المهاجرين/ نواياهم
1.	Do you have Libyan residency? Avez-vous le statut de résident en Libye ? هل لديك ترخيص إقامة في ليبيا؟	Yes Oui	No Non	Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة
2.	Do you have a Libyan work permit? Avez-vous un permis de travail en Libye ? هل لديك ترخيص عمل في ليبيا؟	Yes Oui	No Non	Don't want to answer Ne souhaite pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة
3.	Who would you turn to for document issuing/renewal? A qui vous retournez pour établir un document ? لمن تلجأ من أجل إصدار الوثائق/ تجديدها؟	a. A governme Une institutio gouvernemen	n .	b. Local authorities Autorité locale سلطة محلية
		c. A religious o leader Dirigeant relig communauta نمع المحلي	gieux ou	d. A facilitator Facilitateur
		e. An employer Employeur	r مشغّل	f. A Libyan friend Un ami Libyen صديق ليبي
		g. A fellow mig Un autre mig		h. There is no one to turn to ال n'y a personne لا يوجد من نلجأ إليه
		i. I do not kno Je ne sais pas		j. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp آخرون، الرجاء تحديدهم
4.	Have you faced challenges in obtaining/renewing documents while in Libya? Est-ce que vous avez confronter des difficultés lors de l'obtention / le renouvellement des documents ?	Yes Oui	نعمر	No Non
	هل واجهتك تحديات في الحصول على وثائق/ تجديدها في ليبيا؟	Don't want to Ne veux pas rét		لا يريد الاجابة
5.	[If A to Q4] What are the main challenges you have faced? (Select all that apply.) Quels sont les principaux défis auxquels vous avez dû faire face? لإجابات التي تنطبق (أ) عن السؤال 4، ما هي التحديات التي واجهتها؟ (اختر كل الإجابات التي تنطبق)	payer les frais		b. I do not know who to turn to for the service Je ne sais þas qui est le responsable d'établir ce service لا أعرف إلى من ألجأ للحصول على هذه الخدمة
		Je n'ai pas les nécessaires	locumentation	d. The service is not offered in my area Ce service n'est pas disponible dans ma région لا يوجد مثل هذه الخدمة في المنطقة
		e. It is too risky service L'obtention de présente trop مة يعتبر مخاطرة	e ce service	f. There is a language barrier Il y a une barrière linguistique الصعوبات اللغوية
		g. There are no ways to obta documents Il n'y a pas do officiels pour ou le renouve documents acout all lights and lights are series.	ain/renew e moyens l'obtention	h. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها

6.	Do you intend to stay in Libya? Est-ce que vous avez l'intention de rester en Libye ? هل تعتزم البقاء في ليبيا؟	a. Yes, I intend to stay in Libya indefinitely Oui, j'ai l'intention de rester en Libye pour une durée non déterminée	b. Yes, I intend to stay in Libya for some time but will return to my home country in the future Oui, j'ai l'intention de rester en Libye pour une durée déterminée mais je vais retourner à mon pays d'origine à l'avenir is avenir less vais mars less vais retourner à mon pays d'origine à l'avenir
		c. Yes, I intend to stay in Libya for some time but will continue to another destination in the future Oui, j'ai l'intention de rester en Libye pour une durée déterminée mais je vais continuer à une autre destination à l'avenir نعم، لبعض الوقت لكني سأواصل السفر نحو وجهة أخرى لاحقا	d. No, I intend to continue to another destination as soon as possible Non, j'ai l'intention de continuer vers une autre destination le plutôt possible لا، أنوي مواصلة السفر إلى مكان آخر في أقرب وقت ممكن
		e. I do not know Je ne sais pas	لا أعرف
7.	[If A to Q6] Why do you intend to stay in Libya indefinitely? (Select all that apply.) Si vous voulez rester en Libye, Pourquoi vous avez l'intention de rester en Libye pour une durée nondéterminée ? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) § الماذا تحرت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال 6، لماذا تريد البقاء في ليبيا لمدة غير محددة	a. The salaries are higher than in my home country Les salaires en Libye sont supérieurs aux salaires dans mon pays d'origine الأجور في ليبيا أعلى من الأجور في بلد الأصل	b. There are more work opportunities available than in my home country Il y a plus d'offres d'emploi en Libye que dans mon pays d'origine ما أوفر للعمل مقارنة ببلد الأصل
	c. I am able to save money and/or send remittances Je suis capable d'épargner de l'argent et / ou d'émettre des transferts لائني قادر على ادخار المال أو ارسال التحويلات	d. I am safer in Libya than in my home country Je suis plus sécurisé en Libye que dans mon pays originaire رافي في أمان أكبر في ليبيا من بلد الأصل	
		e. I have a strong social network J'ai un réseau social solide لدى شبكة اجتماعية قوية	f. I have adjusted to life in Libya Je me suis adapté à la vie en Libye لقد تأقلمت مع الحياة في ليبيا
		g. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	9
			أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
8.	[If B, C to Q6] Why do you intend to stay in Libya for some time but leave in the future? (Select all that apply.) Si vous voulez rester pour une durée puis quitter à l'avenir, quels sont les raisons? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (ب أو ت) عن السؤال 6، لماذا تريد البقاء في ليبيا لبعض الوقت السفر لاحقا؟ اختر كل ما ينطبق	a. I need to earn more money before I can return home/ continue to my planned destination Je dois gagner plus d'argent avant que je retourne à mon pays d'origine / continue vers ma destination بيعب أن أكسب مزيدا من المال قبل وطني/ مواصلة السفر إلى وجهتي المقصودة	b. I am afraid to return home/ continue to my planned destination J'ai peur de retourner à mon pays d'origine / continuer vers ma destination أخش العودة إلى وطني / من مواصلة السفر نحو وجهتي المقصودة
	c. I cannot afford transportation home/to my planned destination Je ne peux pas assumer les couts de transports لا أستطيع تحمّل تكاليف السفر إلى وطني / إلى وجهتي المقصودة	d. I cannot get official documentation to remain in Libya long term Je ne peux pas obtenir la documentation nécessaire pour rester en Libye pour une longue durée لا أستطيع التحصّل على وثائق رسمية تخولني البقاء في ليبيا لمدة زمنية أطول	
		e. I do not think Libya is a stable country Je ne pense pas que la Libye est un pays stable والمتر ليبيا بلدا ينعم بالاستقرار	f. I do not think there will be opportunities for me in Libya in the long term Je ne pense pas qu'il y'aura des opportunités en Libye à long terme لا أظن أني سأحظى بفرص في ليبيا على المدى
		g. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	رین أخری، الرجاء تحدیدها

SECTION 3: LIVELIHOODS/LES MOYENS DE SUBSISTANCE

القسمر 3: مصادر كسب الرزق

1.	Have you faced difficulties when looking for work in Libya? Est ce que vous avez confronté des difficultés en cherchant un travail en Libye ? هل واجهت صعوبات في بحثك عن عمل في ليبيا؟	Yes Oui	No Non	Don't want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا يريد الإجابة
2. ن	[If A to Q1] What difficulties have you faced when looking for work in Libya? (Select all that apply.) Quels sont les difficultés que vous avez confrontées? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال 1، ما هي الصعوبات التي واجهتك خلال بحثك عمل في ليبيا (اختر كل ما ينطبق)	a. There are no in the marke Il n'y a pas d' d'emploi	t ő,	b. I do not have enough skills for the available jobs Je n'ai pas les compétences nécessaires pour les offres de travail لا أملك المهارات المطلوبة لفرص العمل المتوفرة
		c. I do not have connections Je n'ai pas un solide ية قوية	Ü	d. Employers prefer hiring other nationalities Les employeurs préfèrent embaucher les migrants d'autres nationalités المشغّلون يفضلون توظيف مهاجرين من جنسيات أخرى
		e. My skills and qualifications recognized ir Mes compéte pas reconnue مترف بها في ليبيا	are not n Libya ences ne sont	f. The security situation is unstable La situation sécuritaire n'est pas stable الوضع الأمني غير مستقر
		work permit Il est difficile emploi sans d de travail vali	t having a valid de trouver un voir un permis	h. Employment opportunities require me to move to other locations in Libya Les offres d'emploi exigent que je parte vers d'autres régions يجب علي الانتقال إلى أماكن أخرى من ليبيا لأجد فرص عمل
		i. Other, please Autre, spécifie		أخرى، الرجاء ذكرها

Ask questions 3–21 if the respondent is employed (FMS Q8). Ask all respondents questions 13, 16, 18, 20, 21.

اطرح الأسئلة من 21-3 إذا كان المستطلع يعمل (استمارة رصد التدفق السؤال 8)، اطرح الأسئلة13 و 16 و18 و20 و21 على الجميع

3.	Do you currently work for more than one employer? Est-ce que vous travaillez maintenant pour plus qu'un	Yes Oui	No Non	Don't want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا بريد الإجابة
	employeur? هل تعمل حاليا لحساب أكثر من مشغّل واحد؟			و يريد الإدب
4.	How did you obtain your main job (the one that brings most money)? Comment vous avez trouvez votre travail actuel principal ? كيف تحصّلت على عملك الحالي الرئيسي (الذي يوفر لك الدخل الأكبر)؟	a. Through (ex connections Par des liens (famille élargi العائلة الممتدة)	familiaux	b. Through social networks with Libyans Par des réseaux sociaux avec les libyens عبر شبكات اجتماعية مع الليبيين
		þartir vers la	Libya ateurs avant de	d. Through facilitator after arrival in Libya Par les facilitateurs après l'arrivée en Libye عن طريق الميشرين بعد الوصول إلى ليبيا
		d'origine	grants from my nts de mon pays عن طریق مهاجرین من	f. Through migrants from other countries Par les migrants d'autres pays d'origine عن طريق مهاجرين من بلد آخر
		or other me Point de recru rencontre	ruitment places eting points utement ou de عبر نقاط التوظيف أو نذ	h. By an employer recruiting for particular skills Par les employeurs qui cherchent des compétences spécifiques عن طريق مشعًل يوظّف أصحاب مهارات معينة
		i. Other, please Autre, spécifie		خری، الرجاء ذکرها :

5. How are you compensated for your work? (Select all that apply.) C'est quoi le type de rémunération en échange de votre travail ? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) كيف يتم الدفع لك مقابل العمل؟ (اختر كل ما ينطبق)	a. Cash En éspèces	b. Goods/Services (e.g. food, housing, transport, security, transfer of remittances by employer, etc.) Des biens / Des services (nourriture, logement, transport, sécurité, transfert de l'argent par l'employeur) سلع/ خدمات (الغذاء، المسكن، النقل، الأمن) d. Bank transfer
	c. Paycheck Salaire شيك مصرفي e. I do not want to answer	Virement bancaire تحویل مصرفی
	Ne veux pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة	f. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
6. [If A, C, or D to Q5] How frequently do you get paid? Si vous recevez du cash, sur quelle fréquence vous recevez votre paiement?	a. Daily Journalier	b. Weekly Chaque semaine
إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال 4، إذا كنت تستلم نقدا مقابل عملك، هل يتم الدفع لك ؟	c. Monthly Mensuel شهریا	d. I do not want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة
	e. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp	أُخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
7. [If A, B, C, or E to Q6] What is the amount you get paid per (frequency from Q6)? Si vous recevez du cash, sur quelle fréquence vous recevez votre paiement?	a amount somme	b. I do not want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة
إذا اخترت الإجابات (أ، ب، ت،ج) عن السؤال 5، كمر يبلغ قيمة ما تستلمه كلَّ مرة (حسب اجابة السؤال السابق)؟	currency monnaie العملة	
8. [If B to Q5] What type of goods/services do you receive as compensation? (Select all that apply.) Quels sont les types des biens / services que vous	a. Food Nourriture	b. Housing Logement
recevez comme compensation ? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (ب) عن السؤال 4، ما هو نوع السلع/ الخدمات التي تستلمها مقابل العمل؟ (اختر كل ما ينطبق)	c. Transport to planned destination Transport vers la destination النقل إلى الوجهة المقصودة	d. Transport to/from workplace Transport de et vers le lieu de travail
	e. Security Sécurité الأمن	f. Transfer of remittances to home country by employer or facilitator Transfert de l'argent aux pays d'origine par l'employeur ou le facilitateur لقويل الأموال إلى الوطن من طرف المشلل
	g. I do not want to answer Ne veux þas réþondre لا أريد الإجابة	h. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
9. [If B to Q5] Why do you receive goods/services as compensation instead of cash or other payment? (Select all that apply.) Pourquoi vous recevez des biens / des services au lieu de cash ou autres paiements ? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (ب) عن السؤال 4، لماذا تستلم سلع/ خدمات مقابل عملك عوضا عن النقد أو المنفوعات الأخرى ؟	a. It is a safer option than keeping cash C'est un choix plus sûr que garder la monnaie لأنه اختيار أضمن من الاحتفاظ بالنقود	b. The value of Libyan currency is unstable and regularly depreciated La valeur de la monnaie libyenne n'est pas stable لأن قيمة الليبية غير مستقرة وتنخفض باستمرار
	c. I do not have to leave the workplace for shelter Je ne serais pas obligé de quitter le lieu de travail vers le lieu de logement لن يكون علي مغادرة مكان العمل للذهاب إلى المسكن	d. I do not have to venture into neighbourhoods or unsafe areas to purchase goods Je ne serais þas obligé d'aventurer dans les quartiers ou les endroits non sécurisés pour acheter des biens ولن يكون على المجازفة بالدخول إلى أحياء أو المناطق غير أمنة من أجل اشتراء السلع
	e. My employer only offers goods/services as compensation Mon employeur n'offre que les biens / services comme compensation مشغّلي لا يعرض سوى السلع أو الخدمات كمقابل للعمل	f. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp آخری، الرجاء تحدیدها

10.	In the past 12 months, have you experienced delays in receiving compensation for your work? Est-ce que vous avez connu des retards de paiement?	a. Yes, often Oui, souvent		b. Yes, sometimes Oui, parfois	
هل تعرضت لتأخيرات في الدفع لك مقابل لعملك خلال آخر 12 شهرا؟		نعم، غالبا c. Yes, rarely Oui, rarement		نعمر، أحيانا d. No Non	
		e. I do not wan Ne veux pas		لا لا أريد الإجابة	
11.	[If A, B, C to Q10] How long was the longest delay? Combien a duré le plus long retard ? إذا اخترت الإجابات (أ، ب، ت) عن السؤال 10 ، كمر دامر أطول تأخير؟	days jours		ا do not want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة	
12.	A, B, C to Q10] What was the reason for that elay? (Select all that apply.) uelles étaient les raisons de ce retard? (Choisir toutes réponses qui appliquent.) [ا اخترت الإجابات (أ، ب، ت) عن السؤال 10، ما كان سبب التأخير؟ (اختر كالله مشغلي السيولة من أجل دفع مرتبي		b. My employer sees no urgency in paying migrant labourers according to a fixed schedule Mon employeur ne voit aucune urgence pour me payer selon un calendrier fixé عنا المناه المناه المناد وقفا المواعيد محدّد		
		c. My employer opted to provide goods/services instead of cash Mon employeur a choisi de me payer en biens / services au lieu de cash اختار مشغّلي تقديم سلع/ خدمات عوضا عن النقد		d. My employer provided no explanation Mon employeur n'avait fourni aucune explication للم يقدّم مشغّلي أي تفسير	
		e. Other, please Autre, specifie		ا أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها	
13.	Have you worked without getting the expected payment while in Libya? Avez-vous travaillé sans recevoir le paiement attendu? هل قمت بعمل لم تتلق عليه الأجر المتوقع في ليبيا؟	a. Yes Oui نعمر	b. No Non	c. I do not want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة	
14.	How many days per week do you usually work? Combien de jours vous travaillez dans la semaine?	رُسبوع عادة؟	كم من يوم تعمل في الا	enter number le nombre de jours اذکر الرقم	
15.	How many hours per day do you usually work? Combien d'heures par jours vous travaillez ?	في اليومر عادة؟	كم عدد ساعات عملك	enter number	
16.	In the past 12 months, for how many employers have Pour combien d'employeurs avez-vous travaillé pendant le آخر 12 أشهر؟			enter number le nombre de jours أذكر الوقم	
17.	7. How long have you been working for your current employer? (If A to Q14, insert length for each employer.) Depuis combien de temps vous travaillez pour votre employeur actuel? منذ متى وأنت تعمل لحساب مشغّلك الحالئ؟ إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال 14، أذكر مدة العمل لحساب كلّ مشغّل		enter number (jours / mois / années) سنة/شهر/يوم		
18.	What has been the longest period you have worked fin the past? Quelle est la plus longue période de travail pour le même	, , , ,		enter number (jours / mois / années) سنة/شهر/يوم	
19.	What type of contract do you have with your current employer? Quel type de contrat vous avez maintenant?	a. Written con Contrat écrit		b. Oral agreement Contrat orale	
	ما هو نوع عقد العمل الذي يجمعك بمشغّلك الحالي؟	c. No contract Sans contrat		d. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp	

20.	Since your arrival in Libya, have you ever been forced to work against your will? Depuis votre arrivée en Libye, avez-vous déjà été forcé de travailler contre votre volonté? منذ وصولك إلى ليبيا، هل سبق وأن أجبرت على العمل ضد رغبتك؟	a. Yes Oui	b. No Non	c. I do not want to a Ne veux pas répond	
21.	[If A to Q20] Who forced you to do this work? Qui vous a forcé de faire ce travail ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال 20، من أجبرك على القيام بهذا العمل؟	a. My employer or supervisor Mon employeur ou mon superviseur مشغّل أو المشرف علىً		b. Another migrant Un autre migrant	مهاجر آخر
		c. My family Ma famille	عائلتي	d. Security forces Forces de sécurité	قوات أمنية
		e. A member of network Member d'un	of a criminal reseau criminal فرد من عصابة إجرامية	f. I do not want to a Ne veux pas répond	

SECTION 4: REMITTANCES/TRANSFERTS DE LA MONNAIE

القسمر 4: التحويلات المالية

1.	Do you currently have a Libyan bank account? Est-ce que vous avez un compte bancaire libyen ? هل لديك حساب مصرفي في ليبيا حاليا؟	a. Yes Oui	b. No Non
2.	[If A to Q1] Are you able to withdraw money from your Libyan bank account? Pouvez-vous retirez des fonds de votre compte?	a. Yes, as much as needed Autant que nécessaire نعمر، ما يكفي من المال	b. Only limited amounts Des montants réduits نعم ولكن مبالغ محدودة
ુ છ <u>ે</u> .	إذا اخترت الإجابة (أً) عن السؤال 1، هل تستطيع سحب الأموال من حسابك المصر الليي؟	c. I cannot withdraw any funds from my account Je ne peux pas retirer les fonds de mon compte لا أستطيع سحب أي مبلغ من حسايي	d. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
3.	Do you send money to any person from your earnings in Libya? Est-ce que vous envoyez des transferts d'argents de ce que vous gagnez à n'importe quelle personne? هل ترسل تحويلات من المال الذي تكسبه إلى شخص ما؟	a. Yes Oui نعمر	b. No Non
4.	[If A to Q3] Who receives your remittances? (Select all that apply). Qui reçoit vos transferts? (Choisir toutes les réponses	a. My sibling(s) Frère(s) soeur(s)	b. My parent(s) Mes parents أيراأمي (والديّا)
	aui abbliquent)	c. My child or children Mes enfant(s) (أبنائي أبنتي (أبنائي)	d. My spouse(s) or intended spouse(s) Mon époux / fiancé(s) زوجي/زوجي أو خطيي/خطيبي
		e. My friend(s) Mon ami(s) صديقي/ أصدقائي	f. Creditor(s) Créancier(s) الدائن (من تداينت منه المال)
		g. Community members at large Les membres de la communauté en général أفراد المجتمعات المحلية عامّة	h. A government agency (e.g. remittances are directly transferred to pay utilities) Organisme gouvernemental هيئة حكومية (تحوّل الأموال مباشرة لدفع فواتير المرافق العمومية)
		i. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها:
5.	[If A to Q3] Are you the primary source of income for the household that receives your remittances? Est-ce que votre salaire présente la principale ource de revenue pour la famille qui reçoit vos transferts? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال 3، هل أنت تمثّل مصدر الدخل الأساسي للأسرة الاستلم تحويلاتك المالية؟	a. Yes Oui b. No Non	c. I do not know Ne sais pas لا أعرف

6. [If A to Q3] What are your remittances covering? (Select all that apply.) Qu'est-ce que vous payez par ces transferts ? (Choisir	a. Migration cost incurred Coûts de migration تكاليف الهجرة	b. Food costs Les coûts des aliments مصاریف الغذاء			
toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، ماذا تغطّي التحويلات المالية التي ترسلها؟ (اختر كل ما ينطبق)	c. Education costs Les coûts d'éducation نگالیف الدراسة	d. Health-related costs Les coûts liés à la santé تكاليف متعلّقة بالصحّة			
	e. Savings f. Investment البنون f. Investissement البنون اللادخار اللادخار				
	g. Other family expenses (e.g. rent, utilities, etc.) D'autres dépenses familiales مصاریف أخری تخصّ العائلة (إیجار، مرافق عمومیة)	h. Purchasing real estate/Home construction Achats des biens immobiliers / Construction de maison اشتراء عقار/ بناء مسكن			
	i. Paying off debts Remboursement de dettes سداد دین	j. Marriage(s)			
	k. I do not know Je ne sais þas لا أعرف	l. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp اخرى، الرجاء تحديدها:			
7. [If A to Q3] How much do the following issues affect you in sending remittances? (1: Not at all, 2: Somewhat, 3: A lot) Quelles sont les effets des questions suivantes sur vos transferts d'argents ? (1: pas d'effet, 2: faible impact 3: effet majeur) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، ما مدى تأثير المسائل التالية في إرسالك التحويلات؟ (عبيط، 3: تأثير بسيط، 3: تأثير كبير) (عبيط، 3: تأثير بسيط، 3: تأثير كبير)	a. Not earning enough money Ne pas gagner assez d'argent transférer b. Not having stable enough en to earn sufficient income Ne pas avoir un travail stable gagner assez d'argent المنقد يمكّن من كسب ما يكفي من الدخل الوقع من المنال إلى الموعد المحدّد e. Not being paid on-time Paiement retardé d. Being paid in goods/services cash Paiement en biens / services ei espèces e. I do not have access to a net send remittances Je n'ai pas d'accès au réseau d transferts f. I do not trust anyone to tran remittances J'ai confiance en personne pou l'argent g. It takes too much time for th remittances to reach their de Les transferts prennent trap de pour arriver à destination au l'angent l'a sending money is too expentransfèrer la monnaie est cout	pour le عدم كسب ما ي عدم كسب اله عدم كسب اله عدم اله عدم اله اله عدم			
	ه مکلف جدا	إرسال التحويلات			

i. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp

أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها

8. [If A to Q3] Which of the following methods do you use to send remittances? (Select all that apply.) Quelle la méthode que vous utilisez pour envoyer vos transferts? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، ما هي الطرق التي تستعملها في تحويل الأموال؟	a. Bank transfers Transferts bancaires التحويلات المصرفية	b. Private money transfer agencies (e.g. Western Union) (If yes, service provider:) Agences de transferts d'argent privées Western مثلة خاصة لتحويل الأموال (مثل (Union) إذا كانت الإجابة نعم، الرجاء ذكر مقدّم هذه الخدمة ()
	c. Mobile money (If yes, service provider:) Paiement mobiles خدمات الأموال المتنقلة الرسمية إذا كانت الإجابة نعم، الرجاء ذكر مقدّم هذه الخدمة	d. Informal transfer Transfert infomel تحویل غیر رسمی
	e. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها:
9. [If D to Q8] Who is the informal transfer agent? Qui est l'agent de transfert informel ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (ث) عن السؤال8، من هو العامل في التحويل غير الرسمي?	a. A friend Un ami صدیق	b. A family member <i>Un membre de la famille</i> فرد من العائلة
	c. A fellow national, who I do not have a personal relationship with Un autre migrant du même pays, que je ne connais pas من مواطني نفس البلد، لا تربطني به علاقة شخصية	d. A facilitator or a network Facilitateur ou réseau میسّر أو شبکة
	e. A person recommended by an employer or trusted contact Une personne recommandée par un employeur ou un contact digne de confiance منص موصى به من طرف مشغّل أو أحد ما محل ثقة	f. Other, please specify: Autre, specifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
10. [If A to Q3] How do you pay for the transfer service? Comment vous payez pour le service de transfert ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، كيف تدفع مقابل خدمة التحويل؟	a. A fee regardless of the amount I am sending (If yes, how much:, currency) devise: montant fixe خليط محددة بغض الطرف عن المبلغ المرسل، (إذا كانت الإجابة نعم، كم قيمة	b. A fee dependent on the amount I am sending (If yes, how much amount:, fee:, currency:) Montant variable montant, frais devise ، را إذا كانت الإجابة نعم، كمر قيمةالمبلغ الرسوم.؟ الرسوم.؟ العملة:
	c. A percentage of the amount I am sending (If yes, how much: ———————————————————————————————————	d. There is no fee for the transfer service Sans frais لا يوجد رسوم على المبلغ المرسل
	e. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
11. [If A to Q3] Why do you prefer to send remittances this way? (Select all that apply.) Pourquoi vous préferez cette méthode de transfert?	a. I trust it the most <i>La plus fiable</i> أكثر طريقة موثوقة	b. It is the least expensive <i>La moins coûteuse</i> اُقلَ تكلفة
(Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، لماذا تفضّل إرسال التحويلات المالية عبر هذه الطريقة؟ (اختر كلِّ ما ينطبق)	c. It is the most secure <i>La plus sure</i> أضمن طريقة	d. I have used it in the past and it was effective J'ai déjà utilisé cette méthode et elle était efficace ليتعالقها قبلا وأثبتت فعاليتها
	e. I do not know any other options Je ne connais que cette méthode الا أعدف أي ط بقة أخرى غيرها	e. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp الجاء تحديدها

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12. [If A to Q3] Do you exchange your money before you send it? Est-ce que vous changez la monnaie avant de la transfèrer? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، هل تغير العملة قبل إرسالها؟	a. Yes Oui نعم	b. No Non
13. [If A to Q3] In which currency do you send remittand En quelle devise vous transférer l'argent ?	ا ces? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، ما هي العملا	enter currency devise
14. [If A to Q3] In which currency does the recipient in y your remittances? En quelle devise le destinataire reçoit l'argent ? ق التي يتلقاها بها المرسل إليه في وطنك؟	our home country receive إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال3، ما هي العملا	enter currency devise
15. [If A to Q12] Who exchanges your money for you? Qui change l'argent pour vous ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال12، من يقوم بتغيير العملة من أجلك؟	a. My employer Mon employeur	b. A co-worker Mon collègue
	c. Formal exchange Échange officiel تبادل رسمي	d. A network of financial facilitators Un réseau de facilitateur financiers شبكة ميسرين ماليين
	e. A Libyan friend Un ami libyen صديق ليبي	f. A fellow migrant (from the same country as myself) Migrant du meme pays عن طريق مهاجرين من نفس بلد الأصل
	g. A fellow migrant (from a different country than myself) Migrant d'autres pays عن طريق مهاجرين من بلد آخر	h. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp آخرون، الرجاء تحديدهم
16. How has the amount of remittances (in currency of recipient) you sent changed in the last 12 months? Comment le montant de votre transfert (en devise de destinataire) a changé pendant les 12 derniers mois ? كيف تغيّر المبلغ المرسل (وفقا للعملة التي يستلمها المرسل إليه بها) على مدار الـ الـ الـ الـ الماضية؟	a. It has increased Le montant a augmenté la diminué l	c. It has not changed Pas de changements لم تتغير
17. [If A to Q16] What have been the main causes of the increase in remittances? (Select 1–2.) Quelle était la cause principale de l'augmentation en montant de transfert ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال16 ، ما هي أهم الأسباب الرئيسية في ارتفاع المبلغ	a. I am spending less on myself than before J'ai diminué mes dépenses لائني أنفق على نفسي أقلّ من ذي قبل	b. I am earning more income than before Je gagne plus d'argent qu'auparavant لائني أكسب دخلا أكبر من ذي قبل
المحوّل؟)اختيار 2-1(c. I am working an additional job or additional hours J'ai un emploi supplémentaire / je travaille pour des heures additionnelles قلني أعمل عملا إضافيا أو ساعات إضافيا	d. The transfer network I am using has become more stable Le réseau de transfert que j'utilise est devenu plus stable لأن شبكة التحويل التي أستخدمها أصبحت أكثر
	e. I am receiving more of my salary in cash and less in kind Je reçois mon paiement en espèces plus que des biens لأنني أستلم قدرا أكبر من أجري نقدا وأقلً	f. I have not incurred unexpected expenses Je n'ai pas fait face à des dépenses imprévues La liève des dépenses imprévues
	g. The recipients need more money than before Le destinataire a besoin de plus d'argent qu'auparavant للبسل إليه يحتاج أموالا أكثر من ذي قبل	h. Exchange rate fluctuations Fluctuations des taux de change تقلّب سعر الصرف
	i. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	أخرى، الرجاء ذكرها

	1	
18. [If B to Q16] What have been the main causes of the decrease in remittances? (Select 1–2.) Quelle était la cause principale de la diminution en montant de transfert ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (ب) عن السؤال16، ما هي أهم الأسباب الرئيسية في انخفاض المبلغ المحوّل؟	a. I need to keep more money for myself in Libya J'ai besoin de garder plus d'argent pour moi même عليّ الاحتفاظ بمزيد من الأموال لنفسي في ليبيا c. I have lost one or multiple jobs I worked J'ai perdu mon emploi (s) لقد خسرت أحد الأعمال التي كنت أقوم بها/	b. I do not earn as much money as before Je ne gagne pas d'autant d'argent qu'avant لا أكسب مالا بالقدر الذي كنت أكسبه في الماضي d. The transfer network I use has been disrupted Le réseau de transfert a été perturbé
	e. I am being paid goods/ services, instead of cash Je reçois mon paiement en biens au lieu d'espèces التقى سلعا أو خدمات مقابل العمل عوضا عن النقد	f. I was the victim of a robbery/crime or incurred unexpected expenses J'ai été victime d'un vol / acte criminel ou j'ai fait face à des dépenses imprévues فير متوقعة و تكبدت مصاريف غير متوقعة
	g. The recipients need less money than before Le destinataire a besoin de moins d'argent qu'auparavant لمرسل إليه يحتاج أموالا أقلّ من ذي قبل	h. Exchange rate fluctuations Fluctuations des taux de change تقلّب سعر الصرف
	i. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp	
19. [If A or B to Q16] Has this change affected your desire to stay or leave Libya? Est-ce que ce changement a affecté votre désir de rester?	a. Yes, I am more likely to leave Oui, il y Oui, il y	c. No effect Pas d'impact
إذا اخترت الإِجابة (ب) عن السؤال16، هل أثَّر هذا التغيّر في رغبتك في البقاء في ليبيا؟	a plus de a plus de chance de partir je reste نعمر، من المرجح نعمر، من المرجح أن أبقى	
20. Do you receive money from any person outside Libya? Est-ce que vous recevez des transferts d'argents d'une quelconque personne en dehors de la Libye? إذا اخترت الإجابة (ب) عن السؤال3، هل تستلم أموالا من أي شخص خارج ليبيا؟	a. Yes Oui نعم	b. No Non
21. [If A to Q20] What expenses is the money you receive covering? (Select all that apply.) Qu'est-ce que vous payez par ces transferts reçus?	a. Migration costs Coûts de migration	b. Food costs Coûts des aliments مصاریف الغذاء
(Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال20، ماذا تغطّي التحويلات المالية التي تستلمها؟ (اختر كل ما ينطبق)	les réponses qui appliquent.) c. Education costs الإدا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال20، ماذا تغطّي التحويلات	
	e. Other family expenses (e.g. rent, utilities, etc.) D'autres dépenses familiales مصاریف آخری تخصّ العائلة (إیجار، مرافق عمومیة)	f. Investment Investissement Unvestissement
	g. Savings Épargne للادخار	
	i. Paying off debts Remboursement de dettes سداد دین	j. Marriage(s) Marriage زواج
	k. I do not know Je ne sais pas لا أعرف	l. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp
	1	7 × 2.2 × 2.5 × 3.5 ×

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22. [If A to Q20] In the past 12 months, how often have you received money from outside Libya? (Select all that apply.)	a. Once Une fois	b. Multiple times Plusieurs fois عدة مرات
Combien de fois vous avez reçu des transferts pendant les 12 derniers mois ? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال20، كم مرة تلقيت أموالا من خارج ليبيا خلال آخر 12 شهرا؟	c. On a regular basis (e.g. monthly) Chaque mois بانتظام (شهریا)	d. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها

SECTION 5: SECURITY/SÉCURITÉ

1.	Have you been a direct victim of abuse while in	a. Yes	b. No	c. I do not wan	لقسم 5: الأمن t to answer
	Libya?' Vous été victime d'abus en Libye ? هل کنت ضحیة اعتداء مباش في لیبیا؟	Oui نعم	Non V	Ne veux pas i	épondre لا أريد الإجابة
				Once Une fois	Multiple times Plusieurs fois عدّة مرّات
2.	[If A to Q1] Which of the following abuses have you been a direct victim of? (Select all that apply.) Quels types d'abus? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent)	a. Verbal abuse Violence verbale			
C	appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال1، ما هو نوع الاعتداء الذي تعرضت إليه: (اختر كل ما ينطبق)	b. Robbery Vol	السرقة		
		c. Physical viol Violence phys			
		d. Arrest and/o Arrestation e détention			
		Violence sexuexploitation	nce/exploitation uelle / العنف الجنسي/ الاستغلا		
		f. Home invas Invasion de d			
		g. Extortion Extorsion	الابتزاز		
		h. Forced labo Travail forcé	ur العمل الإجباري		
		i. Abduction Enlèvement	الخطف		
		j. I do not wai	répondre لا أريد الإجابة		
		k. Other, pleas Autre, spécifi	ier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها		
3.	[If A to Q1] Who did you turn to in order to receive justice? (Select all that apply.) A qui vous vous adressez pour avoir justice? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) ا إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال1، إلى من لجأت من أجل الحصول على العدالة؟	a. I did not turn to anyone for justice Personne لا أحد		b. Friend/Family member Ami / Member de la famille صديق/ فرد من أفراد العائلة	
		c. Community leader Leader communautaire قادة المجتمعات		d. Religious leader Responsables religieux القادة الدينيون	
		e. Police	الشرطة	f. Security force Des forces de	
		g. Employer L'employeur	المشغّل	h. Lawyer Avocat	محامي
		i. Other, pleas Autre, spécifi			أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها

4.	Have you witnessed abuse towards other migrants while in Libya? Est ce que vous avez été témoin à un acte d'abus contre d'autres migrants? هل کنت شاهدا علی تعرّض مهاجرین آخرین للعنف فی لیبیا	a. Yes Oui نعمر	b. No Non	c. I do not want Ne veux pas r	
				Once Une fois	Multiple times Plusieurs fois عدّة مرّات
5.	[If A to Q4] Which of the following abuses have you witnessed towards other migrants? (Select all that apply.)	a. Verbal abuse Violence verb			
	Quels types d'abus ? (Choisir toutes les réponses qui appliquent.) إذا اخترت الإجابة (أ) عن السؤال4، ما هو نوع الإعتداء الذي شهدت وقوعه ضد مهاجرين آخرين؟ اختر كل ما يتطابق	b. Robbery Vol	السرقة		
		c. Physical viole Violence phys			
		d. Arrest and/o Arrestation et détention			
		Violence sexu exploitation	nce/exploitation		
		f. Home invasi Invasion de d			
		g. Extortion Extorsion	الابتزاز		
		h. Forced labou Travail forcé	ır العمل الإجباري		
		i. Abduction Enlèvement	الخطف		
		j. I do not war Ne veux pas	répondre لا أريد الإجابة		
		k. Other, please Autre, spécifie			
6.	of crime than Libyan citizens? Est-ce que vous avez l'impression d'être probablement plus cibles d'actes criminels que les citoyens Libyens? المادة على الله المادة والمادة	a. Yes Oui	نعم	b. No Non	ע
		c. I do not kno Je ne sais pas		d. I do not want Ne veux pas r	

a. Yes Oui

هل تشعر بالأمان في ليبيا؟

b. No Non c. I do not want to answer Ne veux pas répondre

لا أريد الإجابة

Do you feel safe in Libya? Vous sentez vous en sécurité en Libye ?

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8. [If B to Q7] Which of the following are the main threats to your safety in Libya? (Select 1–2.) Parmi les énoncés suivants, lesquels présentent les	a. Robbery Vol	b. Physical violence Violence physique العنف الجسدي
menaces principaux à votre sécurité ? إذا اخترت الإجابة (ب) عن السؤال7، ما هي أكبر التهديدات لسلامتك في ليبيا؟ (اختر 1-2)	c. Arrest and/or detention Arrestation et / ou la détention الاعتقال أو الاحتجاز	d. Sexual violence/exploitation Violence sexuelle / exploitation العنف الجنسي/ الاستغلال
	e. Home invasion Invasion de domicile اقتحام المسكن	f. Extortion Extorsion
	g. Forced labour Travail forcé	h. Abduction Enlèvement
	i. Unexploded ordnances Munitions non explosées الذخائر غير المنفجرة	j. Transportation accident (including vehicle accident, boat sinking, etc.) Les accidents de travail (accident de travail, naufrage de bateau) حوادث التنقل (حوادث السيارات، غرق المراكب)
	k. I do not want to answer Ne veux pas répondre لا أريد الإجابة	l. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp أخرى، الرجاء تحديدها
9. [If B to Q7] Who are the main threats to your safety in Libya? (Select 1–2.) Qui représentent les menaces principales à votre sécurité? الاجابة (ب) عن السؤال7، من يمثل أكبر تهديد لسلامتك في ليبيا؟ (اختر الإجابة (ب) عن السؤال7، من يمثل أكبر تهديد لسلامتك في ليبيا؟ (1-2	a. Organized crime networks facilitating illicit activities Réseau de criminalité organisé qui facilite les activités illicites شكات الجريمة التي تيسّر القيام بالأنشطة غير المشروعة	b. Local security forces Forces de sécurité locaux القوات الأمنية المحلية
	c. Petty criminals Les petits criminels المجرمين غير الخطيرين	d. Radical groups <i>Groupes radicaux</i> الجماعات المتطرفة
	e. Residents in neighbourhood Les residents du quartier سکان المنطقة	f. Law enforcement Les forces de l'ordre المسؤولون عن إنفاذ القانون
	g. Employer or people in the workplace L'employeur ou les collègues المشغّل أو الأشخاص في مكان العمل	h. Host population La population d'accueil السكان المستضيفين
	i. Other migrants D'autres migrants مهاجرون آخرون	j. Other, please specify: Autre, spécifier svp أخرون، الرجاء تحديدهم
10. Since your arrival, how has your sense of safety in Libya changed? Comment votre sentiment de sécurité a changé depuis	a. I feel less safe Je me sens moins en sécurité من يدرجة أمان أقلّ من ذي قبل	b. I feel more safe Je me sens plus en sécurité أشعر بدرجة أمان أكبر من ذي قبل
votre arrivée en Libye ? كيف تغيّر إحساسك بالأمان منذ قدومك إلى ليبيا؟	c. No change Pas de changements لم يتغيّر	d. I do not know Je ne sais þas لا أعرف
	<u> </u>	

			Decreased Diminué انخفضت	Same Même niveau نفس المستوى	Increased Augmenté ارتفعت	ا do not know Je ne sais pas لا أعرف
11. Since you arrived in Libya, how have the following threats chang ed? Comment les menaces suivantes	a. Petty crime and Les petites crimi violence					
ont changé depuis votre arrivée en Libye ? دُنْ يَعْدِيْ دِرْجَةُ التَّمْدِيْدُ اِنْ النَّالَةُ مِنْدُ قِدُومُكُ الْ لِيسَا		e/exploitation/ e / exploitation/ العنف الجنسي والاس				
	c. Political violence (e.g. conflicts between militias, armed groups) Violence politique (conflits entre milices, les groupes armés) العنف السياسي (الإشتباكات بين الميليشيات					
d. Arrest and/or Arrestation et / détention						
	e. Abduction, ext forced labour L'enlèvement, l'e travail forcé					
	f. Harassment of migrants Harcèlements des migrants مضايقة المهاجرين					
						Rating (1–5) classification
12. To what extent do you feel safe ir places? (1: Completely safe, 2: Sor Neutral, 4: Somewhat unsafe, 5: C	mewhat safe, 3: Completely unsafe)	a. My accomi Mon logem			في المسكن	
Dans quelle mesure vous vous sente Libye ? (1 : parfaitement sur, 2 : un 4 : un peu en danger, 5 : en danger لائماكن التالية؟ (1: أشعر بأمان تامّر، 2: أشعر بأمان	peu sur, 3 : neutre, totale)	b. My workpl Lieu de trav			في مكان العمل	
نُسِي، 3: محايد، 4: أشعر بخطر نسي، 5: لا أشعر بالأمان على الإطلاق)		c. My neighbor Au quartier			في الحي	
		d. Anywhere in my town/city N'importe ou dans mon quartier				
	e. Towns or cities within my region Les villes ou les baladiyas du même region المدن أو البلديات في نفس المنطقة					
		f. Towns and Les villes ou		le my region s en dehors de ت في مناطق أخرى		

13.	What strategies have you used to stay safe in Libya? (Select all that apply.)
	Quelles sont vos stratégies vous avez eu recours pour assurer votre sécurité en Libye ? (Choisir toutes les
	réponses qui appliquent.)

		Rating (1–5) classification
a?	a. I do not go out in the evening Je ne sors pas le soir لا أخرج	
ما	b. I stay in groups Je reste en groupe البقاء في مجموعات	
	c. I pay for protection Je paye pour ma protection الدفع مقابل الحماية	
	d. My employer guarantees my safety Mon employeur garantit ma sécurité مشغّلي يضمن سلامتي	
	e. I stay in accommodation near my workplace J'habite dans un logement prés de lieu de mon travail أقيم في مسكن قريب من مكان عملي	
	f. I have moved to a safer accommodation J'ai déplacé vers un logement plus sécurisé انتقلت إلى مسكن أكثر أمانا	
	g. I have changed to a safer workplace J'ai déplacé vers un lieu de travail plus sécurisé انتقلت إلى مكان عمل أكثر أمانا	
	h. I receive my food/water from my employer Je reçois la nourriture / l'eau de mon employeur تلقًى الغذاء/ الماء من مشغّلي	
	i. I go without certain services (e.g. health care, document issuing) Je dois me passer de certains services (soins de la santé, délivrance des documents) (اقائل عن بعض الخدمات (الرعاية الصحية، إصدار الوثائق الرسمية.	
	j. I store money in the event I need to pay for my safety or release J'épargne l'argent en cas ou je dois payer pour ma protection où pour me libérer أحتفظ بالمال في حالة اضطررت إلى الدفع مقابل سلامتي أو إطلاق سراحي	
	k. Other, please specify: ce Autre, spécifier svp	

أخرون، الرجاء تحديدهم

LIVING AND WORKING IN THE MIDST OF CONFLICT:

The Status of Long-term Migrants in Libya



International Organization for Migration